



VNIVERSITAT [€%]  
E VALÈNCIA  
Facultat d' Economia

# TOWARDS A HOLISTIC UNDERSTANDING OF CRUISE VISITORS' SENSE OF PLACE: ANTECEDENTS AND EXPERIENCE OUTCOMES

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

Author:

**Daniela Buzova**

Supervisors:

**Dra. Silvia Sanz Blas**

**Dra. Amparo Cervera Taulet**

Programa de Doctorado en Marketing

Departamento de Comercialización e Investigación de Mercados

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*На татко*

*Надявам се, че се гордееш е с мен, където и да си*

*To daddy,*

*I hope that you are proud of me, wherever you are*



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# INTRODUCTION



### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The tourism industry is one of the drivers of the world economy, contributing 10.4% to the global GDP (Gross Domestic Product) and generating one of every ten jobs in 2018 (WTTC, 2019). The sector is of strategic importance to Spain, as it represented 11.7% of GDP and 12.8% of total employment in 2017 (INE, 2019). One particular type of tourism that has witnessed a significant growth recently, compared to other tourism products, is cruise tourism (FCCA, 2019). International cruise demand has more than doubled over the past 20 years, reaching 28.5 million passengers in 2018 (CLIA, 2019).

According to Wild and Dearing (2000, p. 319), a cruise is defined as “any fare paying voyage for leisure on-board a vessel whose primary purpose is the accommodation of guests and not freight normally to visit a variety of destinations”. The cruise tourism sector was initiated in the 70s in the United States (UNWTO, 2010) with cruise trips to the Caribbean, which still constitutes the most popular and visited cruise region worldwide. However, while at the end of the previous century cruise tourism was associated with a luxurious type of travel suited for senior well-off customers, the average profile of a cruise passenger in the new millennium has significantly changed (Wood, 2000). New ships of greater passenger capacity, featuring a wide range of leisure facilities aboard (e.g. entertainment, shopping, gastronomy) have made cruising popular among new demographic segments (Weaver, 2005). The cruise holiday as a form of leisure experience increasingly appeals to the younger generations, families and the lower-income population (Domènech, Gutiérrez, & Anton Clavé, 2019). The surge in the cruise tourism demand is particularly prominent in Europe where the number of tourists purchasing a cruise holiday has increased from 4.49 million in 2008 to 7.17 million in 2018 (CLIA, 2019). The Mediterranean concentrates the greatest

number of cruise itineraries within the European continent with the port of Barcelona leading the cruise ports ranking in terms of embarkations and cruise ship arrivals. Spain ranks second among the European cruise destinations, receiving more than 10 million passengers in 2018 (Puertos del Estado, 2019).

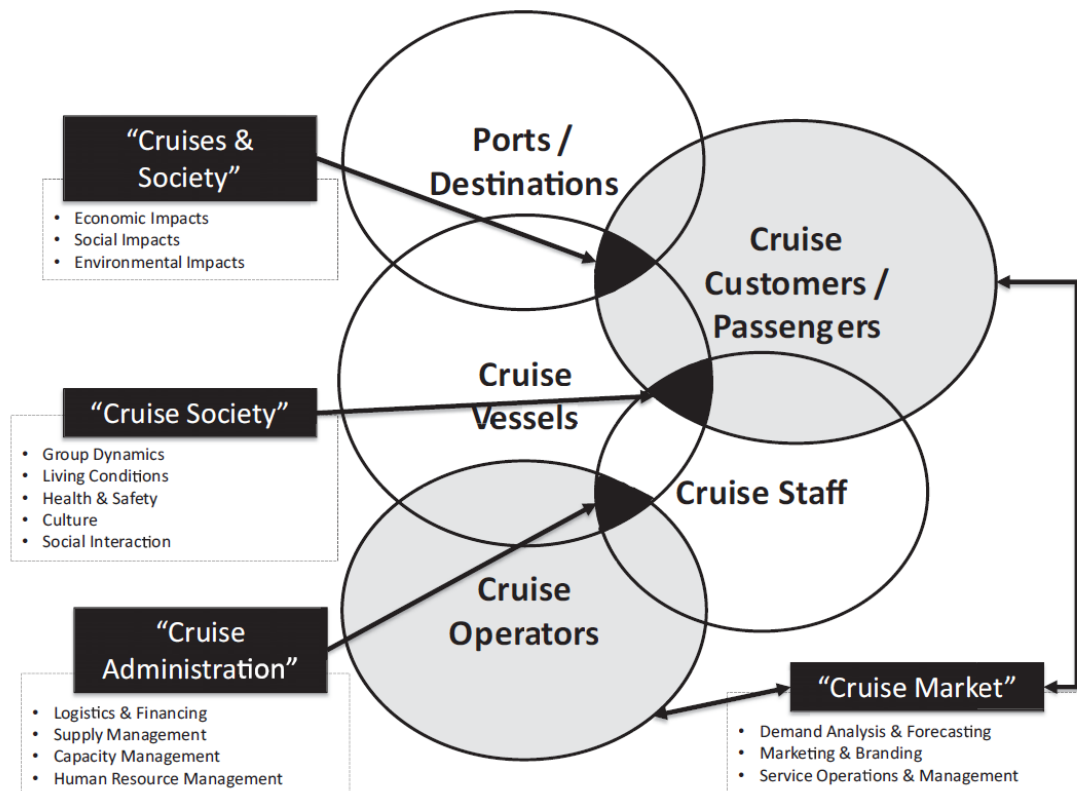
The burgeoning cruise activity has attracted the interest of researchers and practitioners from a wide range of fields: economics (e.g. Bresson & Logossah, 2011; Chang et al., 2016; Fernández-Morales & Cisneros-Martínez, 2018), geography (e.g. Ferrante et al., 2018; Rodrigue & Notteboom, 2013; Wilkinson, 1999), tourism and hospitality (e.g. Han & Hyun, 2018; Hung & Petrick, 2011; Xie et al., 2012) and environmental studies (e.g. Carić & Mackelworth, 2014; Gössling & Peeters, 2015; Wang, Li, & Xiao, 2019). Nevertheless, despite the growing body of cruise-related studies, the cruise tourism phenomenon has received scant attention in the academic tourism literature (Papathanassis, 2017).

The existing body of cruise tourism literature can be divided into several main themes. The first comprehensive analysis of cruise tourism research conducted by Papathanassis and Beckmann (2011) classifies the existing studies into four themes. The first one is related to the cruise market and includes studies assessing customers' motivations to cruise (e.g. Fan & Hsu, 2014; Hung & Petrick, 2011), perceptions of the value of cruising as a tourism product (e.g. Duman & Mattila, 2005; Hung & Petrick, 2011), satisfaction and perceived quality of the cruise service (e.g. Chua et al., 2015; Qu & Ping, 1999; Wu, Cheng, & Ai, 2018), as well as price and revenue management (e.g. Petrick, 2005; Niavis & Tsiotas, 2018; Sun, Jiao, & Tian, 2011), among others. The second theme, labelled "the cruise society", involves the study of the behaviour of cruise passengers and staff (e.g. Kwortnik, 2008; Larsen, Marnburg, & Øgaard, 2012; Papathanassis, 2012). Another major area of



research concerns the economic, social and environmental impacts of the cruise ships on ports (e.g. Carić & Mackelworth, 2014; Gibson & Bentley, 2007; MacNeill & Wozniak, 2018). The last topic focuses on the management of cruise vessels and includes research on occupancy rates and itinerary planning (e.g. Chen & Nijkamp, 2018; Lee & Ramdeen, 2013; Wang et al., 2014). Based on the aforementioned cruise research themes, Papathanassis and Beckmann (2011) proposed the CruisERT framework for conceptualising the cruise tourism system. The framework is visually presented in Figure 1, which depicts the interrelationships among the various entities (i.e. ports, cruise operators, passengers, cruise staff and vessels) and the identified themes.

Figure 1. The CruisERT conceptual framework



Source: Papathanassis & Beckmann (2011)

However, a more recent literature review article (Hung et al., 2019) analysed the extant cruise-related research published in top tourism journals and found five topics: customers, employees, cruise management, destination management and industry overview. The result suggests that the number of cruising studies has continued to increase, addressing a wide range of topics. Among them, destination management emerges as a relevant theme, emphasizing not only cruise tourism impact on destinations, but also visitor management onshore. Cruise passengers' destination experience has received relatively scant attention in the cruise-related literature (Weaver & Lawton, 2017), which has primarily focused on the on-board component of the cruise holiday (e.g. Castillo-Manzano & López-Valpuesta, 2018; Chua et al., 2015; Hyun & Kim, 2015; Papathanassis, 2012). Although contemporary cruise ships have often been associated with "floating resorts" (Teye & Leclerc, 1998) or "floating cities" (Bennett, 2016), the visits to ports of call lie at the core of the cruise travel experience (Weaver & Lawton, 2017) and represent one of the main criteria in the purchasing process of a cruise holiday (Henthorne, 2000; UNWTO, 2010). Furthermore, when designing ship itineraries, cruise lines consider not only port charges and geographical location, but mainly the improvement of the overall cruise passenger experience through shore visits (UNWTO, 2010). Nevertheless, the onshore aspects of the cruise experience have been included in the research agenda only recently.

In exploring passengers' behaviour onshore, the differences between home ports and ports of call should be emphasised (De la Viña & Ford, 1998). A homeport (also referred to as a base port (UNWTO, 2010)) is where a cruise voyage starts and ends, acting as a supplier of goods and services to the ship and its passengers and crew (Chang et al., 2016). As such, homeports' activities are considered as "shipping business" (Brida et al., 2012). That is

why there are only few studies analysing cruise tourists' behaviour in a home port focusing mainly on their economic impact on the destination (e.g. Brida et al., 2012, 2013).

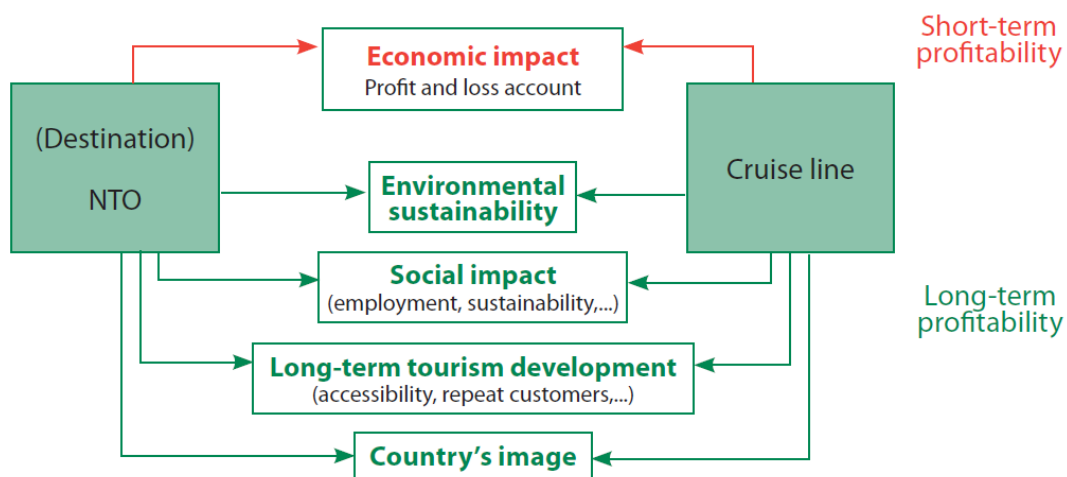
Ports of call, in contrast, are destinations included in the cruise itinerary as a tourist attraction and where ships spend a limited amount of time (Chang et al., 2016). Cruise ships usually arrive at ports of call in the morning and leave in the evening, using the night hours to sail to the next port in the cruise itinerary (Rodrigue & Notteboom, 2012). In this case, cruise passengers are considered visitors of the port destination, as they spend the night on board. Common activities performed by cruise passengers in a port of call include sightseeing, shopping, enjoying time on the beach or joining a guided tour (Brida et al., 2012). Among them, shore excursions, i.e. guided tours purchased from the cruise line, are a major activity for both, incoming travel agencies and cruise companies (Johnson, 2006; Lopes & Dredge, 2018). Due to the described characteristics of ports of call, they are regarded as "tourism business" (Brida et al., 2012). More than playing a mere berthing role, these ports are viewed as destinations providing multiple tourist experiences for cruise passengers.

Extant port of call cruise literature includes mainly studies on passengers' overall satisfaction with the destination visit (e.g. Andriotis & Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Ozturk & Gogtas, 2016), expenditure onshore (e.g. Brida et al., 2012; Marksel, Tominc, & Božičnik, 2017), intention to return (e.g. Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2016; Sanz-Blas & Carvajal-Trujillo, 2014) and port of call mobility patterns (e.g. De Cantis et al., 2016; Domènech et al., 2019), among others. Exploring cruise passengers' onshore experience is key for the success of port of call destinations, as the behaviour of this type of visitors differs significantly from the "land-based" tourists. Firstly, cruise passengers' length of stay at ports of call is limited to an average of five-six hours (Lopes

& Dredge, 2018; Penco & Di Vaio, 2014). Second, previous studies suggest that in general cruise passengers are not well informed about the ports of call before disembarking (Andriotis & Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Henthorne, 2000). As a result, cruise tourists' image of the visited port of call is often incomplete due to limited destination experience (Henthorne, 2000).

Considering the above, together with the increasing competition from other ports which have "set their sights on the cruise economy" (Hung et al., 2019, p.207), destinations should aim to identify those factors that contribute to enhancing cruise passengers' experience onshore in order to consolidate their position in the cruise itineraries. In this regard, the UNWTO (2010) emphasises that it is of utmost importance for destinations to capture not only the short-term benefits of the cruise tourism activity (i.e. the economic impact in terms of cruise ships' and passengers' expenditure), but also the profits in the long-run such as improved destination image, repeat visitation and employment, among others (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Relationships between destinations and cruise lines



Source: UNWTO (2010)

This theoretical conceptualisation of the short and long-term profitability potential of the interaction between cruise lines and port destinations is

verified by recent empirical studies adopting a holistic approach to assessing the value created in a cruise destination by the cruise tourism activity. As for the economic impact generated in cruise ports through the expenditures made by passengers, cruise ships and their crew, past research has produced mixed results. Whereas evidence exists for the considerable revenue obtained by ports as a result of the cruise tourism activity (e.g. Dwyer, Douglas, & Livaic, 2004; Penco & Di Vaio, 2014; Pratt & Blake, 2009), studies exploring cruise passengers' spending patterns have documented a rather limited monetary value generated onshore in comparison with land-based tourists' average daily expenditure (e.g. Larsen et al., 2013; Larsen & Wolff, 2016; Lopes & Dredge, 2018; Seidl, Guiliano, & Pratt, 2006).

The lower spending by cruise visitors at port of call destinations may have several explanations. The extensive promotional efforts of the industry consisting mainly of reducing ticket prices, has made it necessary for cruise lines to capture revenue elsewhere, such as by encouraging purchases on board and sales of cruise excursions, as well as by reducing the duration of the calls (Larsen et al., 2013). Another possible explanation for the limited cruise passengers' expenditure might be the "all-inclusive" nature of the cruise holidays (Seidl et al., 2006), which implies that cruise passengers could have lunch and dinner on-board (Penco & Di Vaio, 2014) instead of in the visited ports of call. Furthermore, a recent study suggests the increasing price sensitivity of the cruise demand as another reason for the relatively low spending onshore (Lopes & Dredge, 2018).

In contrast, extant research assessing the non-monetary value generated by cruise tourism has reported its considerable potential to stimulate future tourism demand through cruise passengers' intention to revisit and recommend the visited ports as a result of satisfactory onshore experience

(e.g. Andriotis & Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Chang et al., 2016; Ozturk & Gogtas, 2016). For example, Penco and Di Vaio (2014) found that cruise tourists visiting an Italian seaport reported a high proclivity to spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination, which increases the likelihood to attract new tourists. The authors maintain that cruise line calls offer destinations opportunities to showcase their sightseeing to cruise passengers, who, in turn, can create an “echo effect” stimulating future tourism demand, with the respective potential monetary impact. Cruise passengers’ intention to return as land tourists to an already visited port destination has also been documented by several studies (e.g. Andriotis & Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Gabe, Lynch, & McConnon Jr, 2006; Ozturk & Gogtas, 2016). Andriotis and Agiomirgianakis (2010) suggest that cruise passengers’ likelihood to revisit ports of call might be explained by the limited time spent onshore, which results in omitting some of the attractions of the destination. Hence, cruise tourists might be willing to return on a land-based holiday in order to experiment the missed aspects of the destination.

Given the above evidence, DMOs (Destination marketing/management organisations) should not overestimate the monetary profits related to cruise tourism, but focus on exploring the mechanisms underlying its non-monetary value-generating potential, i.e. cruise passengers’ intention to revisit and spread positive word-of-mouth.

The tourism literature has established intention to return and recommend a visited destination as the building blocks of destination loyalty (e.g. Chi & Qu, 2008; Meleddu, Paci, & Pulina, 2015; Sun, Chi, & Xu, 2013; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). The concept has long been a research area of great interest in the tourism field (Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Oppermann, 2000; Wu, 2016), and its study is particularly relevant nowadays, in light of the growing competition among

travel destinations worldwide (Ribeiro et al., 2018; Stylos & Bellou, 2018). One of the most widely recognized determinants of destination loyalty is tourist satisfaction (Chen & Chen, 2010; Gallarza & Saura, 2006; Sun et al., 2013; Žabkar, Brenčič, & Dmitrović, 2010). However, the commonly accepted assumption about the positive association between the two constructs has been challenged by studies reporting the non-significant role of satisfaction in influencing loyalty (Bajs, 2015; Brown, Smith, & Assaker, 2016; Dolnicar, Coltman, & Sharma, 2015; Prayag, 2009; Sánchez-García et al., 2012). Existing research in the cruise tourism context has also revealed that satisfaction does not always translate into behavioural intentions (Silvestre, Santos, & Ramalho, 2008; Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2016). For example, Silvestre et al. (2008) found that cruise passengers' satisfaction with local services was not a relevant predictor of their willingness to revisit and recommend the port of call. Therefore, it can be concluded that providing merely satisfactory services to tourists does not guarantee their destination loyalty.

The competitiveness in today's business environment is no longer based on successful functional delivery of services, but on providing emotionally-laden experiences (Sørensen & Jensen, 2015). The experience economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1999) has notably redefined the tourism sector, since tourists increasingly demand memorable experiential value rather than a high quality services (Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007). The advent of the experiential paradigm has resulted in a proliferation of experience-focused studies and conceptualisations (Walls et al., 2011). However, it is commonly agreed that the core components of a hedonic tourist experience involve sensory stimulation, cognitive and affective responses and memorable impressions.

The relevance of the experiential framework for conceptualising tourism activities has been recognised by a growing body of literature. The

experience economy model has been applied in understanding various tourism and hospitality services such as accommodation (Oh et al., 2007), cruises (Hosany & Witham, 2010), wineries (Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2012), and temple stays (Song et al., 2015), among others. Nevertheless, while most of the studies have focused on tourism service organisations, the implications of the experiential paradigm for managing destinations have been scarcely addressed (Cervera-Taulet, Pérez-Cabañero, & Schlesinger, 2019; Morgan, Elbe, & de Esteban Curiel, 2009). Thus, several authors highlight the need to integrate the spatial dimension in the study of tourist experiences (Lugosi & Walls, 2013; O'Dell, 2005; Suntikul & Jachna, 2016). It is argued that tourists' experience with the physical environment of the destination should be regarded "not merely as the setting of a service relation, but as a fundamental dimension of the tourism experience" (Suntikul & Jachna, 2016, p. 277).

The interaction between tourists, as individuals, and destinations, as tangible places, has been approached from various perspectives such as geography (e.g. Brown & Raymond, 2007; Butler, 2000), sociology (e.g. Kyle & Chick, 2007; Stokowski, 2002), environmental psychology (e.g. Halpenny, 2010; Tsaour, Liang, & Weng, 2014), as well as leisure and tourism (e.g. Jamal & Hill, 2004; Jepson & Sharpley, 2015). A key concept emerging from the multidisciplinary body of research addressing the relationship between individuals and places, is that of sense of place, which can be described as "the meanings and attachments held by an individual or group for a spatial setting" (Stedman, 2003, p. 822). While a generally accepted definition of sense of place (often referred to as place attachment) is lacking, most researchers agree that it incorporates an affective and a functional cognitive dimension (Prayag, 2018). More specifically, extant tourism literature establishes that sense of place is an emotional-laden construct based on the symbolic meaning a destination holds or/and its ability to fulfil specific leisure goals (Yuksel,



Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). The importance of place attachment to destinations has been acknowledged by past tourism studies, which have documented it as a relevant antecedent of tourist satisfaction (e.g. Campón-Cerro, Alves & Hernández-Mogollón, 2015; Chen, Leask, & Phou, 2016; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Yuksel et al., 2010) and destination loyalty (e.g. Campón-Cerro et al., 2015; Chen & Phou, 2013; Lee, Kyle, & Scott, 2012; Loureiro, 2014), understood as tourists' revisit and positive word-of-mouth intention.

The traditional view of sense of place posits that a prolonged interaction with a place is needed for attachment to develop (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001). Low (1992) argues that the symbolic tie underlying place attachment can arise from family roots, land ownership, religious relationships or narrative links. However, more recent theorisations of sense of place question its assumed lengthy formation and argue that the environmental cues can elicit place meaning in a shorter period of time (Chen, Dwyer, & Firth, 2014; Raymond, Kyttä, & Stedman, 2017). Drawing on affordance theory, Raymond et al. (2017) suggest a bottom-up view of sense of place formation, focusing on the contribution of the sensory dimensions of a place experience (i.e. sight, taste, smell, touch and hearing). More specifically, this conceptualisation posits that the environment provides sufficient information in the form of sensory stimuli for the individual to perceive the possibilities of action available at a certain place without engaging in complex top-down processing. Applying this approach to the destination's context and building on Milligan's (1998) "interactional potential" argument, Chen et al. (2014) maintain that place expectation can also determine the development of place attachment. That is, tourists can develop a sense of place even after a short period of interaction, if they perceive that the destination lend itself to envisioning future experiences that are deemed as possible in a place. Nevertheless, extant literature has neglected the role of multisensory factors

in shaping sense of place and no measurement tool to assess destination's sensescape has been proposed.

The concept of sense of place has recently been associated with the perception of authenticity (DeBenedetti, Oppewal, & Arsel, 2013; Jiang et al., 2017; Ram, Björk, & Weidenfeld, 2016). Building on the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) framework (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) coupled with previous grounded approach studies documenting the role of sensory perceptions (Campelo, 2017) and authenticity evaluations in sense of place formation (Lew, 1989), it can be anticipated that authenticity mediates the impact of destination's sensescape on sense of place. Furthermore, destination authenticity constitutes one of the main quests of the new generation of tourists (Engeset & Elvekrok, 2015; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010) and has been established as a relevant antecedent of tourist loyalty (Bryce et al., 2015; Ramkissoon & Uysal, 2011; Yi et al., 2017).

A focal point in the experiential economy is the creation of a memorable experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999), which according to Kim's (2014) conceptualisation in the tourism context is associated to place attachment. However, there is little empirical evidence for the posited relationship and further validation is needed.

While the above considerations can be applied to the context of a cruise destination, modelling cruise visitors' experience onshore will not be comprehensive without considering the role of tour guiding. Purchasing a guided tour (also referred to as an onshore excursion) is one of the main activities cruise passengers undertake during a port of call visit (Andriotis & Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Parola et al., 2014; Johnson, 2006). Extant research has acknowledged the impact of the cognitive outcomes of face-to-face interpretation on tourist satisfaction and future behavioural intention

(Huang, Weiler, & Assaker, 2015; Kuo et al., 2016; Lee, 2009). However, Weiler and Black (2015) argue that the new experience economy era demands guides who are not only information providers, but are able to offer a meaningful tour experience by actively engaging tourists in its co-creation. A key, but underexplored resource for value co-creation from the perspective of customer-dominant logic, are emotions (Malone, McKechnie, & Tynan, 2018). Accordingly, it is imperative to explore the mechanism through which visitors engage emotionally in a guided tour, as positive affective states are found to instigate destination attachment (Hosany et al., 2017; Zátori, 2017).

### **THESIS OBJECTIVES**

In light of the evidence and research gaps discussed so far, the main objective of the thesis is to advance the current understanding of cruise visitors' experience at a port of call destination by developing and empirically testing a theoretical model drawing on the tenets of the experience economy paradigm, the sensory marketing perspective, the environmental psychology framework, and customer-dominant logic. More specifically, the thesis investigates the interplay of perceived destination's sensescape and existential authenticity as antecedents of sense of place and memorable tourism experience and post-visit behavioural intentions as its outcomes. Furthermore, considering the idiosyncrasies of the cruise tourism product, the study explores the role of co-created emotional value during a guided tour experience in triggering sense of place, memorable tourism experience and destination loyalty.

To achieve the aim of the thesis the following specific research objectives have been defined:

- To develop and validate a measurement instrument for the assessment of destinations' sensescape.
- To determine the role of destinations' sensescape on the formation of sense of place.
- To explore the mediating role of experiential authenticity on the relationship between destinations' sensescape and sense of place.
- To assess the sentiments engendered by a guided tour experience in a cruise destination by analysing the content of tour members' electronic word-of-mouth.
- To delineate the co-creation of emotional value in a guided tour experience from a customer-logic perspective by considering the interactions of tour guides' emotional labour, visitors' emotional intelligence and emotional participation.
- To examine the effect of sense of place on cruise visitors' behavioural intentions (intention to return and recommend the port of call as a cruise and travel destination).
- To analyse the association between sense of place and a memorable tourist experience.

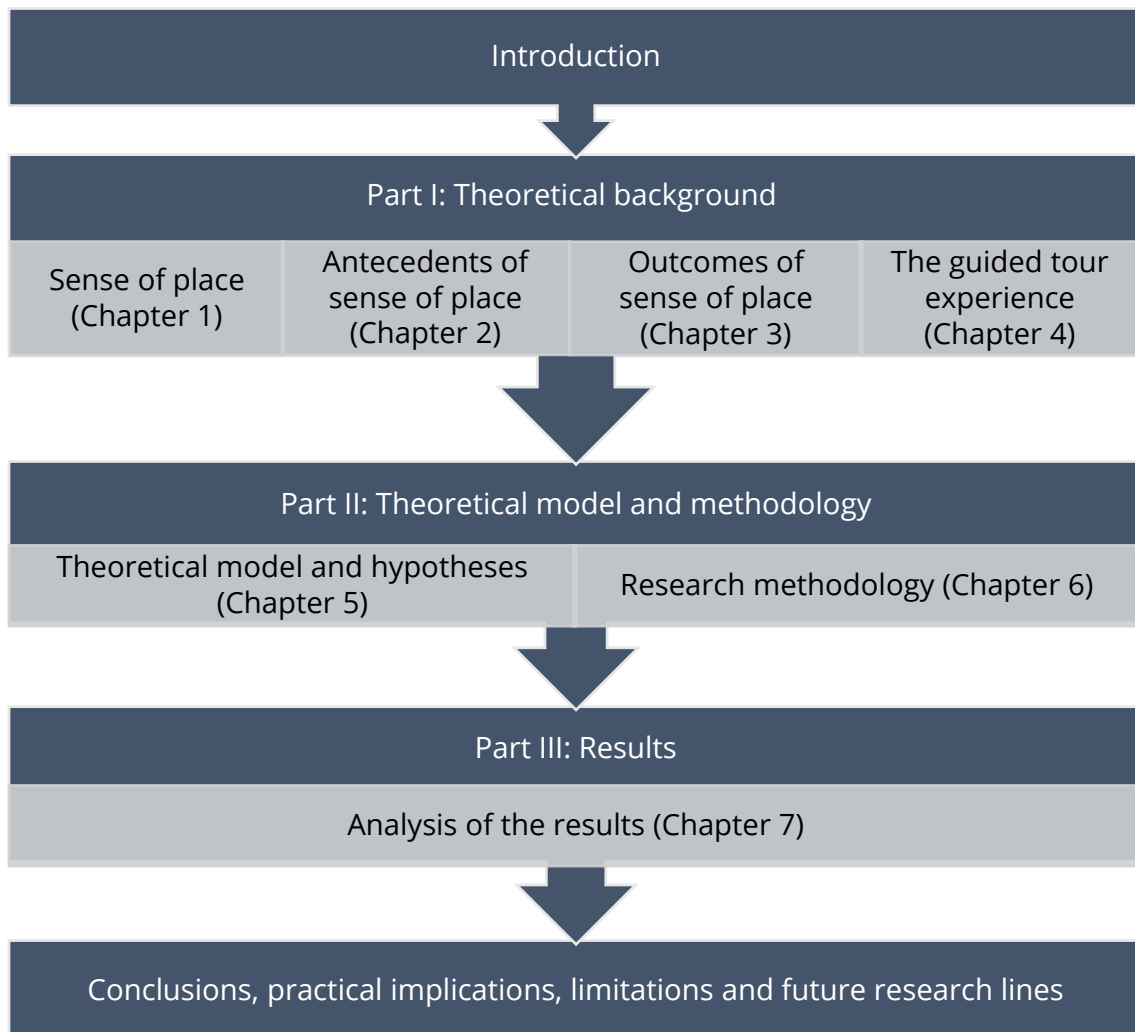
### **STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS**

The thesis is structured into three parts, depicted in Figure 3. The first part discusses the theoretical background of the study and is composed of four chapters. Chapter 1 conceptualises sense of place, the focal construct of the thesis. Thereafter, Chapter 2 discusses the antecedents of the construct: destination's sensescape and authenticity. Chapter 3, in turn, delineates the concepts of memorable tourism experience and destination

loyalty/behavioural intentions as outcomes of sense of place. The next chapter, introduces tour guiding as a relevant aspect of cruise visitors' destination experience and particularly focuses on its emotional facet.

The second part of the thesis encompasses two chapters. Chapter 5 outlines the proposed theoretical model and its associated hypotheses related to the structural relationships among the variables posited in the model. Chapter 6 introduces the research methodology including both, a qualitative and a quantitative study. More specifically, the qualitative research section is centered on understanding the emotional nature of the guided tour experience onshore. The second part of the chapter, introduces the quantitative study integrated by the development and validation of the proposed destination's sensescape scale, as well as the measurement instrument of the proposed theoretical model. The third part of the thesis focuses on the analysis of the results, which are presented in Chapter 7. This section encompasses the results of the qualitative study, as well as the quantitative one, differentiating among the results of the proposed baseline and guided tour model. Lastly, conclusions, practical implications, limitations and future research lines are presented.

**Figure 3. Thesis structure**



Source: Own elaboration

## EXPECTED CONTRIBUTIONS

This doctoral thesis aims to make several contributions to the current tourism literature, as well as provide practical implications for DMOs and cruise companies managing cruise visitors' experience.

At the theoretical level:

- In line with the emerging tourism research topics identified by Cohen and Cohen (2019), the dissertation advances the literature on sensory tourism experiences. Considering the lack of

measurement instruments for destination's sensescape, the thesis develops and validates a formative index for its assessment and thus contributes to the operationalisation of the concept in the tourism domain.

- The study offers empirical support for the contribution of affordance theory on sense of place scholarship, as requested by Raymond et al. (2017), thus extending the current body of knowledge.
- Third, the thesis contributes to prior literature on authenticity, which is another topic placed at the forefront of tourism research (Cohen & Cohen, 2019), by introducing existential authenticity as a mediating mechanism affecting the development of sense of place.
- The study also fulfills demands for research on understanding the emotional facet of a guided tour experience, as being highlighted as the least developed domain of tour guiding (Weiler & Black, 2014).
- Fifth, motivated by Malone et al.'s (2018) proposition about the role of emotions in co-creating tourism experiences through the lens of customer-dominant logic, the study provides quantitative evidence for the creation of emotional value in a guided tour experience.
- The thesis is original in assessing tourists' emotional intelligence, in contrast to past research, which has been focused on tour guide's emotional performance. Thus, the study addresses calls for research on tourists' emotion management (Io, 2013).
- The study enriches the extant understanding of the outcomes of a guided tour experience, by providing empirical evidence for their

transcendence beyond the tour guide and company, extending to the destination level.

In terms of practical contributions:

- The thesis sheds light on the factors contributing to cruise visitors' experience onshore, which has been a scarcely investigated component of the cruising experience (Klein, 2017). Thus, the findings yield implications for DMOs, port authorities and tourism businesses involved in this economic activity.
- The research is among the few studies leveraging online data to extract cruise marketing intelligence, which has been highlighted as a major gap in cruise tourism research (Klein, 2017; Papathanassis, 2017).
- The findings of the study have relevant implications for cruise tourism in Spain, and particularly the port of Valencia as a cruise destination.



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# INTRODUCCIÓN



### IMPORTANCIA DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

La industria turística es uno de los motores de la economía mundial, contribuyendo con un 10,4% al PIB global (Producto Interior Bruto) y generando uno de cada diez empleos en 2018 (WTTC, 2019). El sector tiene una importancia estratégica para España, ya que representó el 11,7% del PIB y el 12,8% del empleo total en 2017 (INE, 2019). Un tipo particular de turismo que recientemente ha experimentado un crecimiento significativo, en comparación con otros productos turísticos, es el turismo de cruceros (FCCA, 2019). La demanda internacional de cruceros se ha más que duplicado en los últimos 20 años, alcanzando los 28.5 millones de pasajeros en 2018 (CLIA, 2019).

De acuerdo con Wild y Dearing (2000, p. 319), un crucero se define como "cualquier viaje, en el que se pague un precio por disfrutar a bordo de un barco, cuyo propósito principal es el alojamiento de los huéspedes y no el flete para visitar una variedad de destinos". El sector del turismo de cruceros se inició en los años 70 en los Estados Unidos (OMT, 2010), con viajes de crucero al Caribe, la cual sigue siendo la región de cruceros más visitada y popular en todo el mundo. Sin embargo, mientras que a finales del siglo anterior el turismo de cruceros se asoció con un tipo de viaje de lujo, adecuado para una clientela acomodada, el perfil medio de un pasajero de crucero en el nuevo milenio ha cambiado significativamente (Wood, 2000). Los nuevos barcos de mayor capacidad para pasajeros, con una amplia gama de instalaciones de ocio a bordo (por ejemplo, entretenimiento, compras, gastronomía) han hecho popular el crucero entre nuevos segmentos demográficos (Weaver, 2005).

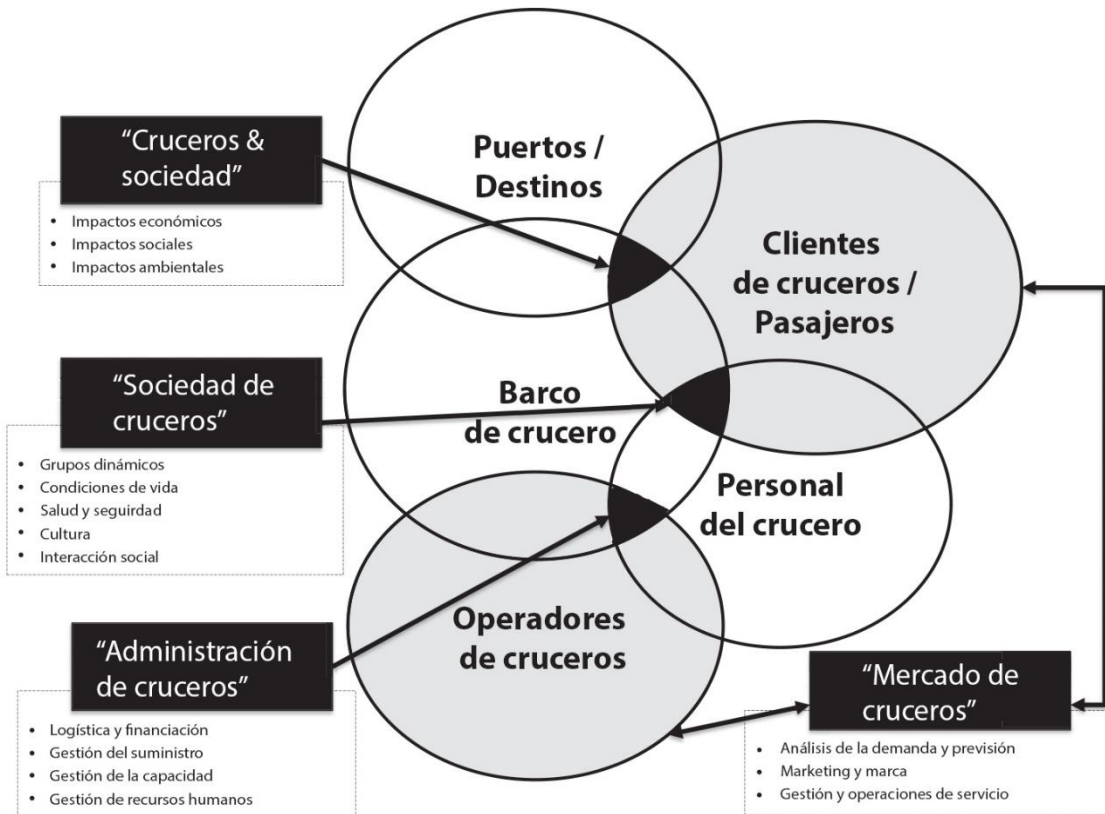
Las vacaciones en crucero, como una forma de experiencia de ocio, son cada vez más atractivas para las generaciones más jóvenes, las familias y la población de ingresos más bajos (Domènech et al., 2019). El incremento en la demanda de turismo de cruceros proviene particularmente de Europa, donde el número de turistas que compran un crucero de vacaciones ha aumentado de 4.49 millones en 2008 a 7.17 millones en 2018 (CLIA, 2019). El Mediterráneo concentra el mayor número de itinerarios de cruceros en el continente europeo, con el puerto de Barcelona liderando el ranking de puertos de cruceros en cuanto a embarques y llegadas de cruceros. España ocupa el segundo lugar, entre los destinos de cruceros europeos, recibiendo más de 10 millones de pasajeros en 2018 (Puertos del Estado, 2019).

La creciente actividad de cruceros ha atraído el interés de investigadores y profesionales de diferentes campos: economía (Bresson y Logossah, 2011; Chang et al., 2016; Fernández-Morales y Cisneros-Martínez, 2018), geografía (Ferrante et al., 2018; Rodrigue y Notteboom, 2013; Wilkinson, 1999), turismo y hospitalidad (Han y Hyun, 2018; Hung y Petrick, 2011; Xie et al., 2012) y estudios ambientales (Carić y Mackelworth, 2014; Gössling y Peeters, 2015; Wang et al., 2019). Sin embargo, a pesar del creciente número de estudios relacionados con los cruceros, el fenómeno del turismo de cruceros ha recibido poca atención en la literatura académica sobre turismo (Papathanassis, 2017).

La literatura sobre turismo de cruceros puede ser dividida en varios temas. El primer análisis exhaustivo de la investigación sobre el turismo de cruceros, realizado por Papathanassis y Beckmann (2011), clasifica los estudios existentes en cuatro temas. El primero está relacionado con el mercado de cruceros, e incluye estudios que evalúan las motivaciones de los clientes para realizar cruceros (Fan y Hsu, 2014; Hung y Petrick, 2011), percepciones del valor de los cruceros como producto turístico (Duman y Mattila, 2005; Hung

y Petrick, 2011), satisfacción y calidad percibida del servicio de cruceros (Chua et al., 2015; Qu y Ping, 1999; Wu et al., 2018), así como la gestión de precios e ingresos (Petrick, 2005; Niavis y Tsiotas, 2018; Sun et al., 2011), entre otros. El segundo tema, denominado "la sociedad de cruceros", implica el estudio del comportamiento de los pasajeros y el personal de los cruceros (por ejemplo, Kwornik, 2008; Larsen et al., 2012; Papathanassis, 2012). Otra área importante de investigación se refiere a los impactos económicos, sociales y ambientales de los cruceros en los puertos de escala (por ejemplo, Carić y Mackelworth, 2014; Gibson y Bentley, 2007; MacNeill y Wozniak, 2018). El último tema se centra en la gestión de los cruceros, e incluye investigaciones sobre las tasas de ocupación y la planificación de itinerarios (por ejemplo, Chen y Nijkamp, 2018; Lee y Ramdeen, 2013; Wang et al., 2014). Basándose en los temas de investigación de cruceros mencionados anteriormente, Papathanassis y Beckmann (2011) propusieron el marco CruisERT para conceptualizar el sistema de turismo de cruceros. El marco se presenta visualmente en la Figura 1 bis, que muestra las interrelaciones entre las diversas entidades (es decir, puertos, operadores de cruceros, pasajeros, personal de cruceros y embarcaciones) y los temas identificados.

Figura 1 bis. Marco conceptual CruisERT



Fuente: Papathanassis y Beckmann (2011)

Sin embargo, una revisión más reciente (Hung et al., 2019) analiza la investigación existente relacionada con cruceros, publicada en las principales revistas de turismo, encontrando cinco temas: clientes, empleados, gestión de cruceros, gestión de destinos y visión general de la industria. El resultado sugiere que el número de estudios de crucero ha seguido aumentando, abordando una amplia gama de temas. Entre ellos, la gestión de destinos surge como un tema relevante, que enfatiza no solo el impacto del turismo de cruceros en los destinos, sino también la gestión de visitantes en dichos destinos. La experiencia en el destino de los pasajeros de cruceros ha recibido escasa atención en la literatura relacionada con los cruceros (Weaver y Lawton, 2017), la cual se ha centrado principalmente en el componente a bordo de las vacaciones en cruceros (Castillo-Manzano y López-Valpuesta, 2018; Chua et al., 2015; Hyun y Kim, 2015; Papathanassis,

2012). Aunque los cruceros contemporáneos a menudo se han asociado con "resorts flotantes" (Teye y Leclerc, 1998) o "ciudades flotantes" (Bennett, 2016), las visitas a los puertos de escala constituyen el núcleo de la experiencia de viaje en cruceros (Weaver y Lawton, 2017), representando uno de los principales criterios en el proceso de compra de un crucero de vacaciones (Henthorne, 2000; UNWTO, 2010). Además, cuando se diseñan los itinerarios de los barcos, las compañías de cruceros consideran no solo las tarifas portuarias y la ubicación geográfica, sino también la mejora de la experiencia general de los pasajeros de cruceros a través de sus visitas al destino (OMT, 2010). Sin embargo, los aspectos relacionados con la experiencia del turista de crucero en destino solo se han incluido en la agenda de investigación recientemente.

Al explorar el comportamiento de los pasajeros en el destino, las diferencias entre puertos de origen y puertos de escala deben ser enfatizadas (De la Viña y Ford, 1998). Un puerto de origen (también conocido como puerto base (UNWTO, 2010)), es donde comienza y termina un viaje de crucero, actuando como un proveedor de productos y servicios para el barco, sus pasajeros y la tripulación (Chang et al., 2016). Como tal, las actividades de los puertos de origen se consideran "negocio de embarcaciones" (Brida et al., 2012). Es por eso que hay pocos estudios que analicen el comportamiento de los turistas de cruceros en un puerto de origen, centrándose principalmente en su impacto económico en el destino (por ejemplo, Brida et al., 2012; 2013).

Los puertos de escala, por el contrario, son destinos incluidos en el itinerario del crucero como una atracción turística, donde los barcos pasan un tiempo limitado (Chang et al., 2016). Los cruceros generalmente llegan a los puertos de escala por la mañana y salen por la noche, utilizando las horas nocturnas para navegar al siguiente puerto en el itinerario del crucero (Rodrigue y Notteboom, 2012). En este caso, los pasajeros del crucero se consideran

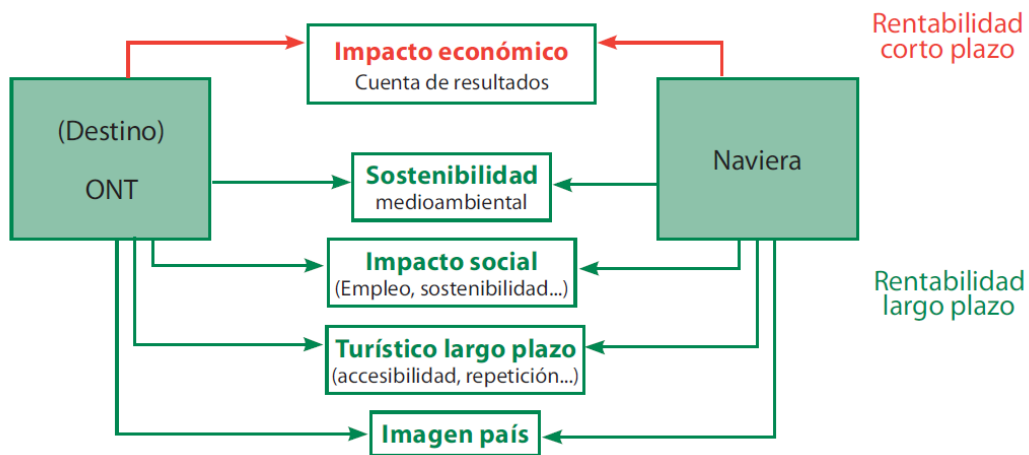
visitantes del puerto del destino, ya que pasan la noche a bordo. Las actividades más comunes que realizan los pasajeros de cruceros en un puerto de escala incluyen: visitas turísticas, compras, disfrutar del tiempo en la playa o unirse a una visita guiada (Brida et al., 2012). Entre ellas, las excursiones en el destino, es decir, las visitas guiadas compradas a la línea de cruceros, son una actividad importante tanto para las agencias de viajes como para las compañías de cruceros (Johnson, 2006; Lopes y Dredge, 2018). Debido a las características descritas de los puertos de escala, estos son considerados como “negocios turísticos” (Brida et al., 2012). Más que jugar un simple papel de atraque, estos puertos se consideran destinos que brindan múltiples experiencias turísticas a los pasajeros de cruceros.

La literatura sobre cruceros en el puerto de escala incluye, principalmente, estudios sobre la satisfacción general de los turistas de crucero con la visita realizada (Andriotis y Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Ozturk y Gogtas, 2016), el gastos realizado en el destino (Brida et al., 2012; Marksel et al., 2017), la intención de regresar (Toudert y Bringas-Rábago, 2016; Sanz-Blas y Carvajal-Trujillo, 2014) y patrones de movilidad en los puertos de escala visitados (De Cantis et al., 2016; Domènech et al., 2019), entre otros. Explorar la experiencia en el destino de los turistas de crucero es clave para el éxito del destino, ya que el comportamiento de este tipo de visitantes difiere significativamente de otro tipo de turistas. En primer lugar, la estancia de los turistas de crucero en los puertos de escala se limita a cinco-seis horas de media (Lopes y Dredge, 2018; Penco y Di Vaio, 2014). En segundo lugar, estudios previos sugieren que, en general, los turistas de crucero no están bien informados sobre los puertos de escala antes de su desembarco (Andriotis y Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Henthorne, 2000). Como resultado, la imagen que tienen los turistas de cruceros del puerto de escala visitado es incompleta, debido a la limitada experiencia de destino (Henthorne, 2000).



Teniendo en cuenta lo anterior, junto con la creciente competencia de otros puertos que han "puesto su mirada en la economía de los cruceros" (Hung et al., 2019, p.207), los destinos deben fijar como uno de sus objetivos identificar aquellos factores que contribuyen a mejorar la experiencia de los turistas de cruceros en el destino para, de ese modo, consolidar su posición en los itinerarios de cruceros. En este sentido, la OMT (2010) destaca que es de suma importancia para los destinos conocer, no solo los beneficios a corto plazo de la actividad de turismo de cruceros (es decir, el impacto económico en términos de gastos de los cruceros y los pasajeros), sino también los beneficios a largo plazo, como una mejor imagen del destino, visitar de nuevo el destino o generar empleo, entre otros (ver Figura 2 bis).

Figura 2 bis. Relación entre destinos y compañías de crucero



Fuente: UNWTO (2010)

Esta conceptualización teórica del potencial de rentabilidad a corto y largo plazo de la interacción entre las compañías de crucero y los destinos, se verifica mediante estudios empíricos recientes que adoptan un enfoque holístico, para evaluar el valor creado en un destino por la actividad del turismo de cruceros. En cuanto al impacto económico generado en los puertos de cruceros, a través del gasto realizado por los turistas de crucero, los cruceros y su tripulación, las investigaciones han obtenido resultados

mixtos. Mientras existe evidencia de que son considerables los ingresos obtenidos por los puertos como resultado de la actividad de turismo de cruceros (Dwyer et al., 2004; Penco y Di Vaio, 2014; Pratt y Blake, 2009), otros estudios, que también exploran los patrones de gasto de los turistas de crucero, han concluido que el valor monetario generado en el destino es bastante limitado en comparación con el gasto diario medio de otro tipo de turista que visita el destino (Larsen et al., 2013; Larsen y Wolff, 2016; Lopes y Dredge, 2018; Seidl et al., 2006).

El menor gasto de los turistas de crucero en los puertos de escala puede tener varias explicaciones. Por un lado, los importantes esfuerzos de promoción de la industria consistentes, principalmente, en reducir los precios del viaje, lo que ha hecho necesario que las compañías de crucero obtengan los ingresos a través de otras vías, como las compras a bordo, la venta de excursiones o la reducción de la duración de las llamadas (Larsen et al., 2013). Otra posible explicación de los gastos limitados de los turistas de crucero podría ser la naturaleza “todo incluido” de las vacaciones en crucero (Seidl et al., 2006), lo que implica que pueden comer y cenar a bordo, en lugar de en los puertos visitados (Penco y Di Vaio, 2014). Además, un estudio reciente sugiere la creciente sensibilidad a los precios de la demanda de cruceros, como otra razón para el gasto relativamente bajo en el destino (Lopes y Dredge, 2018).

En contraste, la investigación que evalúa el valor no monetario generado por el turismo de cruceros ha reportado su considerable potencial para estimular la demanda futura de turismo, a través de la intención de los turistas de volver a visitar y de recomendar los puertos visitados, como resultado de una experiencia satisfactoria en el destino (Andriotis y Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Chang et al., 2016; Ozturk y Gogtas, 2016). Por ejemplo, Penco y Di Vaio (2014)

encontraron que los turistas de crucero, que visitaron un puerto italiano, recomendaban, a través del boca a boca positivo, el destino, lo que aumenta la probabilidad de atraer nuevos turistas. Los autores sostienen que las llamadas a la línea de cruceros ofrecen a los destinos oportunidades para dar a conocer sus visitas turísticas a los turistas de crucero, quienes, a su vez, pueden crear un "efecto eco" que estimule la demanda futura de turismo, con el consiguiente impacto monetario. La intención de los turistas de crucero de regresar a un destino ya visitado, como turistas, pero en esta ocasión no de crucero, también ha sido analizada por varios estudios (Andriotis y Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Gabe et al., 2006; Ozturk y Gogtas, 2016). Andriotis y Agiomirgianakis (2010) sugieren que la probabilidad de que los turistas de crucero vuelvan a visitar los puertos de escala podría explicarse por el tiempo limitado que se pasa en el destino, lo que hace que se omitan algunas de las atracciones del destino. Por tanto, los turistas de crucero pueden estar dispuestos a regresar, como turistas de vacaciones (no de crucero), para experimentar los atractivos no conocidos del destino.

Dada la evidencia anterior, las DMO (Organizaciones encargadas del Marketing de Destinos) no deben sobreestimar las ganancias monetarias relacionadas con el turismo de cruceros, centrándose en explorar los mecanismos subyacentes a su potencial de generación de valor no monetario, es decir, la intención de los turistas de crucero de visitar de nuevo y de recomendar el destino.

La literatura sobre turismo ha establecido la intención de regresar y de recomendar un destino visitado como los pilares básicos de la lealtad del destino (por ejemplo, Chi y Qu, 2008; Meleddu et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2013; Yoon y Uysal, 2005). El concepto ha sido durante mucho tiempo un área de investigación de gran interés en el campo del turismo (Chen y Gursoy, 2001;

Oppermann, 2000; Wu, 2016), y su estudio es particularmente relevante hoy en día, dada la creciente competencia entre destinos de viajes en todo el mundo (Ribeiro et al., 2018; Stylos y Bellou, 2018).

Uno de los determinantes más reconocidos de la lealtad al destino es la satisfacción del turista (Chen y Chen, 2010; Gallarza y Saura, 2006; Sun et al., 2013; Žabkar et al., 2010). Sin embargo, la asociación positiva entre los dos constructos ha sido cuestionada por diversas investigaciones que evidencian una relación no significativa entre ambas variables (Bajs, 2015; Brown et al., 2016; Dolnicar et al., 2015; Prayag, 2009; Sánchez-García y otros, 2012). La literatura existente en el contexto del turismo de cruceros también ha revelado que la satisfacción no siempre se traduce en intenciones de comportamiento (Silvestre et al., 2008; Toudert y Bringas-Rábago, 2016). Por ejemplo, Silvestre et al. (2008) encontraron que la satisfacción de los turistas de crucero con los servicios locales no era un factor predictivo relevante de su intención de volver a visitar y de recomendar el puerto de escala visitado. Por tanto, se puede concluir que proporcionar servicios meramente satisfactorios a los turistas no garantiza la fidelidad del destino.

La competitividad en el entorno empresarial actual ya no se basa en la prestación funcional exitosa de servicios, sino en brindar experiencias cargadas de emociones (Sørensen y Jensen, 2015). La economía de la experiencia (Pine y Gilmore, 1999) ha redefinido notablemente el sector turístico, ya que los turistas demandan cada vez más un valor experiencial memorable, en lugar de servicios de alta calidad (Oh et al., 2007). La llegada del paradigma experiencial ha resultado en una proliferación de estudios centrados en la experiencia y conceptualizaciones (Walls et al., 2011). Sin embargo, comúnmente se acepta que los componentes centrales de una

experiencia turística hedónica incluyen: la estimulación sensorial, las respuestas cognitivas y afectivas, y las impresiones memorables.

La relevancia del marco experiencial para conceptualizar las actividades turísticas ha sido reconocida por una extensa literatura. El modelo economía de la experiencia se ha aplicado para comprender varios servicios turísticos y de hospitalidad, como el alojamiento (Oh et al., 2007), los cruceros (Hosany y Witham, 2010), las bodegas (Quadri-Felitti y Fiore, 2012) y las estancias en los templos religiosos (Song et al., 2015), entre otros. Sin embargo, aunque la mayoría de los estudios se han centrado en la organización de servicios turísticos, las implicaciones del paradigma experiencial para la gestión de destinos apenas se han abordado (Morgan et al., 2009). Así, varios autores resaltan la necesidad de integrar la dimensión espacial en el estudio de las experiencias turísticas (Lugosi y Walls, 2013; O'Dell, 2005; Suntikul y Jachna, 2016). Se argumenta que la experiencia de los turistas con el entorno físico del destino debe considerarse "no simplemente como el establecimiento de una relación de servicio, sino como una dimensión fundamental de la experiencia turística" (Suntikul y Jachna, 2016, p. 277).

La interacción entre turistas, como individuos, y destinos, como lugares tangibles, se ha abordado desde diversas perspectivas, como la geografía (por ejemplo, Brown y Raymond, 2007; Butler, 2000), sociología (Kyle y Chick, 2007; Stokowski, 2002), psicología ambiental (Halpenny, 2010; Tsaur et al., 2014), así como también desde la perspectiva del ocio y el turismo (Jamal y Hill, 2004; Jepson y Sharpley, 2015). Un concepto clave que surge del cuerpo multidisciplinario de investigación, que aborda la relación entre individuos y lugares, es el sentido del lugar, que puede describirse como "los significados y vínculos que un individuo o grupo tiene con un entorno espacial" (Stedman, 2003, p. 822).

Si bien no existe una definición generalmente aceptada de sentido de lugar (a menudo denominada apego al lugar), la mayoría de los investigadores están de acuerdo en que incorpora una dimensión cognitiva, afectiva y funcional (Prayag, 2018). Más específicamente, la literatura existente sobre turismo establece que el sentido de lugar es un constructo cargado de emociones, basado en el significado simbólico que posee un destino y/o su capacidad para cumplir objetivos específicos de ocio (Yuksel et al., 2010). La importancia del apego a los destinos ha sido reconocida por estudios de turismo anteriores, que lo han identificado como un antecedente relevante de la satisfacción del turista (Chen et al., 2016; Prayag y Ryan, 2012; Yuksel et al., 2010), entendiéndose la lealtad al destino (Chen y Phou, 2013; Lee et al., 2012; Loureiro, 2014), como la intención de volver a visitar y un boca a boca positivo.

La visión más tradicional del sentido del lugar indica que se necesita una interacción prolongada con un lugar para que se desarrolle el apego (Jorgensen y Stedman, 2001). Low (1992) sostiene que el vínculo simbólico subyacente al apego al lugar puede surgir de raíces familiares, propiedades en el lugar, relaciones religiosas o vínculos narrativos. Sin embargo, teorías más recientes sobre el sentido del lugar cuestionan su supuesta formación prolongada y argumentan que las señales ambientales pueden obtener un significado en un período de tiempo más corto (Chen et al., 2014; Raymond et al., 2017). Basándose en la teoría de las *affordances* (recursos), Raymond et al. (2017) sugieren una revisión, de abajo hacia arriba, de la formación del sentido de lugar, centrándose en la contribución de las dimensiones sensoriales de la experiencia en el lugar (es decir, vista, gusto, olfato, tacto y oído). Más específicamente, esta conceptualización postula que el entorno proporciona información suficiente, en forma de estímulos sensoriales, para que el individuo perciba las posibilidades de acción disponibles en un lugar

determinado, sin involucrarse en un procesamiento complejo de arriba hacia abajo. Aplicando este enfoque al contexto del destino, y basándose en el argumento del "potencial de interacción" de Milligan (1998), Chen et al. (2014) mantienen que la expectativa del lugar puede también determinar el desarrollo del apego al lugar. Esto es, los turistas pueden desarrollar un sentido de lugar, incluso después de un corto período de interacción, si perciben que el destino permite visualizar experiencias futuras que se consideran posibles en dicho lugar. Sin embargo, la literatura existente ha descuidado el papel de los factores multisensoriales en la configuración del sentido de lugar, y hasta el momento no se ha propuesto ninguna herramienta de medición para evaluar el ambiente sensorial (*sensescape* del destino).

El concepto de sentido de lugar se ha asociado recientemente con la percepción de autenticidad (Debenedetti et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2017; Ram et al., 2016). Sobre la base del marco de referencia estímulo-organismo-respuesta (SOR) (Mehrabian y Russell, 1974), y junto con estudios que documentan el papel de las percepciones sensoriales (Campelo, 2017) y las evaluaciones de autenticidad en la formación del sentido de lugar (Lew, 1989), se puede anticipar que la autenticidad es un constructo que media el impacto del *sensescape* del destino en el sentido del lugar. Además, la autenticidad del destino constituye una de las principales búsquedas de la nueva generación de turistas (Engeset y Elvekrok, 2015; Kolar y Zabkar, 2010), y ha sido considerada un antecedente relevante de la lealtad turística (Bryce et al., 2015; Ramkissoon y Uysal, 2011; Yi et al., 2017).

Un aspecto central en la economía experiencial es la creación de una experiencia memorable (Pine y Gilmore, 1999), que, de acuerdo con la conceptualización de Kim (2014) en el contexto del turismo, está asociada al

apego. Sin embargo, hay poca evidencia empírica para la relación postulada, necesitándose más validación.

Si bien las consideraciones anteriores se pueden aplicar al contexto de un destino de crucero, la experiencia de los turistas de crucero en el destino no será del todo entendida sin considerar el rol del guía turístico. La compra de una visita guiada (también conocida como una excursión en destino) es una de las principales actividades que realizan los turistas de crucero durante su visita al puerto de escala (Andriotis y Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Parola et al., 2014; Johnson, 2006). Investigaciones previas han reconocido el impacto que tienen los resultados cognitivos de la interpretación cara a cara sobre la satisfacción del turista y las intenciones futuras de comportamiento (Huang et al., 2015; Kuo et al., 2016; Lee, 2009). Sin embargo, Weiler y Black (2015) argumentan que la nueva era de la economía de la experiencia exige guías que no solo sean proveedores de información, sino que puedan ofrecer una experiencia turística significativa, al involucrar activamente a los turistas en su co-creación. Un recurso clave, pero poco explorado para la co-creación de valor, desde la perspectiva de la lógica dominante del cliente, son las emociones (Malone et al., 2018). Por consiguiente, es necesario explorar el mecanismo a través del cual los turistas se involucran emocionalmente en una visita guiada, ya que los estados afectivos positivos ayudan a generar apego al destino (Hosany et al., 2017; Zátori, 2017).

### **OBJETIVOS DE LA TESIS**

Teniendo en cuenta la evidencia y gaps de investigación discutidos hasta el momento, el objetivo principal de la tesis es avanzar en la comprensión de la experiencia de los turistas de crucero en un puerto de escala, desarrollando y probando empíricamente un modelo teórico basado en los principios del paradigma de economía de la experiencia, la perspectiva del marketing



sensorial, el marco de la psicología ambiental y la lógica dominante del cliente. Más específicamente, la tesis analiza la relación entre el ambiente sensorial (*sensescape*), el sentido de lugar y la autenticidad como antecedentes de una experiencia turística memorable y las futuras intenciones de comportamiento. Además, considerando la idiosincrasia del producto turismo de cruceros, el estudio explora el papel del valor emocional co-creado durante una experiencia de visita guiada, para desencadenar el sentido de lugar y la lealtad al destino.

Para lograr el objetivo de la tesis se han definido los siguientes objetivos específicos de investigación:

- Desarrollar y validar un instrumento de medida para la evaluación del ambiente sensorial (*sensescape* del destino).
- Determinar el papel del *sensescape* en la formación del sentido de lugar.
- Explorar el papel mediador de la autenticidad experiencial en la relación entre *sensescape* y el sentido de lugar.
- Examinar el efecto del sentido de lugar en las intenciones de comportamiento de los turistas de crucero (intención de regresar y recomendar el puerto de escala tanto como destino de cruceros como destino de viajes).
- Analizar la asociación entre el sentido de lugar y una experiencia turística memorable.
- Evaluar los sentimientos generados por una experiencia de visita guiada en un destino de crucero, analizando el contenido del boca a boca electrónico de los miembros del tour.

- Explorar la co-creación de valor emocional en una experiencia de visita guiada, desde la perspectiva de la lógica del cliente, considerando las interacciones entre la labor emocional del guía turístico, la inteligencia emocional del turista y la participación emocional.

### ESTRUCTURA DE LA TESIS

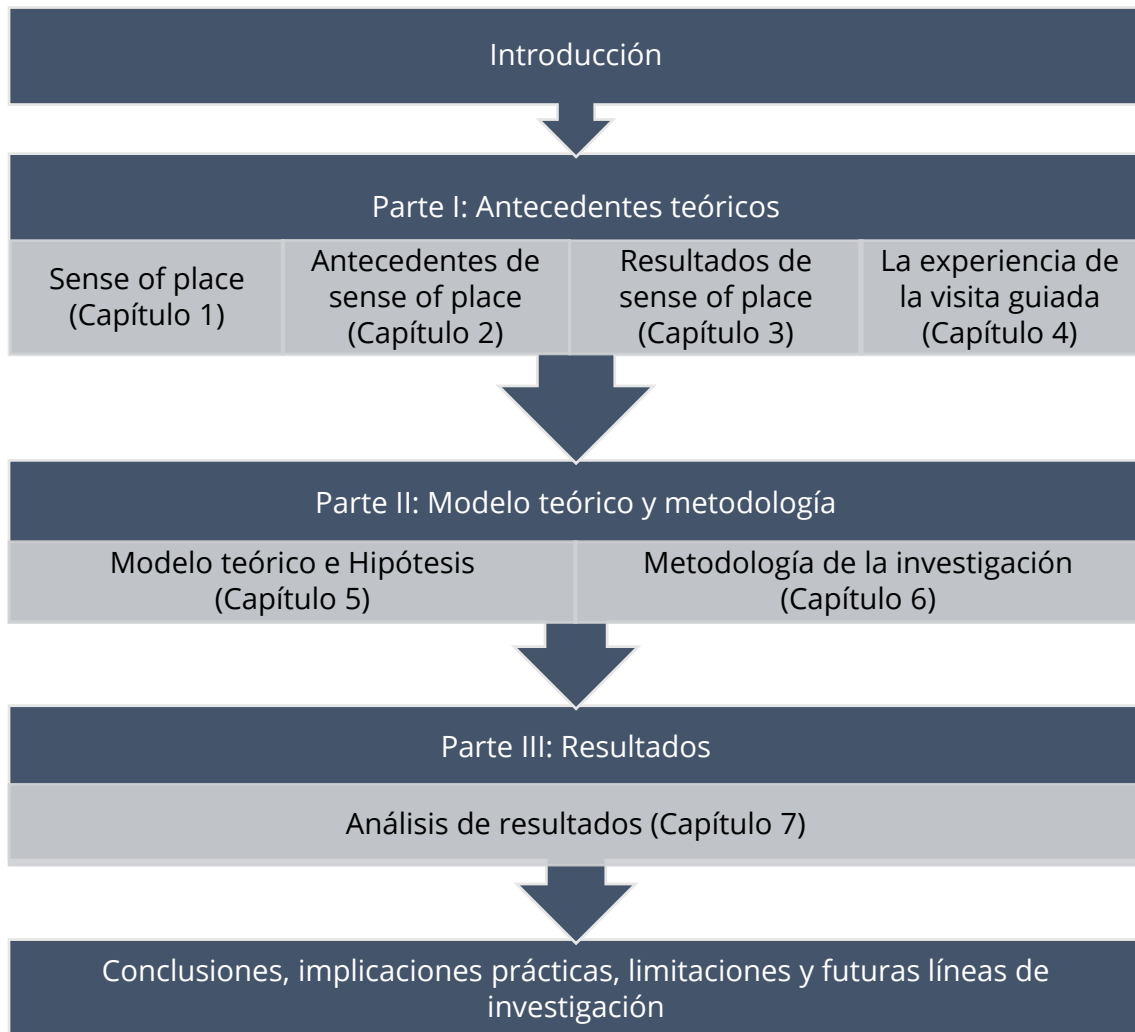
La presente tesis doctoral se estructura en tres partes, representadas en la Figura 3 bis. La primera parte analiza los antecedentes teóricos del estudio y está compuesta por cuatro capítulos. El capítulo 1 conceptualiza el sentido de lugar, constructo central de la tesis. A partir de su desarrollo, el Capítulo 2 analiza los antecedentes del constructo: *sensescape* y autenticidad del destino. El Capítulo 3, se centra en los conceptos de experiencia turística memorable y lealtad al destino/intenciones de comportamiento, como resultados del sentido de lugar. El siguiente capítulo (capítulo 4), introduce la figura del guía turístico, como un aspecto relevante de la experiencia en el destino del turista de crucero, centrándose particularmente en su faceta emocional.

La segunda parte de la tesis comprende dos capítulos. El Capítulo 5 describe el modelo teórico propuesto y sus hipótesis asociadas, haciendo referencia todas ellas a las relaciones estructurales entre las variables del modelo. El Capítulo 6 introduce la metodología de investigación, de naturaleza tanto cualitativa como cuantitativa. Más específicamente, la metodología cualitativa se centra en comprender la naturaleza emocional de la experiencia de una visita guiada al destino. La metodología cuantitativa desarrolla el desarrolla y valida la escala de *sensescape* propuesta en la tesis, así como la medición del resto de variables que integran el modelo conceptual.

## INTRODUCCIÓN

La tercera parte de la tesis se centra en el análisis de resultados (Capítulo 7), tanto del estudio cualitativo, como del estudio cuantitativo, diferenciando entre turistas de crucero que han visitado el destino por su cuenta y turistas de crucero que han contratado una visita guiada. Por último, se presentan las conclusiones, implicaciones prácticas y futuras líneas de investigación.

**Figura 3 bis. Estructura de la Tesis**



Fuente: Elaboración propia

### CONTRIBUCIONES ESPERADAS

La presente tesis doctoral pretende hacer varias contribuciones a la literatura actual sobre turismo, así como proporcionar implicaciones prácticas para las

DMO y las compañías de cruceros que gestionan la experiencia de los turistas de crucero.

A nivel teórico:

- En línea con los temas de investigación de turismo emergente identificados por Cohen y Cohen (2019), la tesis presenta un avance en la literatura sobre experiencias en turismo sensorial. Teniendo en cuenta la falta de instrumentos de medición para *sensescape* del destino (ambiente sensorial), la tesis desarrolla y valida un índice formativo para su evaluación y, de ese modo, contribuye a la operacionalización del concepto en el ámbito del turismo.
- El estudio ofrece apoyo empírico a las contribuciones de la teoría de las posibilidades aplicada al sentido de lugar, según la futura línea de investigación planteada por Raymond y otros (2017), ampliando así el cuerpo de conocimiento actual.
- En tercer lugar, la tesis contribuye a la literatura sobre autenticidad, que es otro tema relevante de la investigación turística (Cohen y Cohen, 2019), al introducir la autenticidad existencial como un mecanismo de mediación que afecta al desarrollo del sentido de lugar.
- El estudio también satisface las demandas de investigación para comprender la faceta emocional de una experiencia de visita guiada, ya que destaca por ser el aspecto menos desarrollado de una visita guiada (Weiler y Black, 2014).
- En quinto lugar, y motivado por la propuesta de Malone et al. (2018), sobre el papel de las emociones en la co-creación de experiencias turísticas a través de la lógica dominante del cliente,

la tesis proporciona evidencia cuantitativa de la creación de valor emocional en una experiencia de visita guiada.

- La tesis es original al centrarse en la evaluación de la inteligencia emocional de los turistas, en contraste con investigaciones anteriores que se han centrado en el desempeño emocional de los guías turísticos. Por tanto, el estudio aborda las solicitudes de investigación sobre el control de las emociones de los turistas (Io, 2013).
- El estudio enriquece la comprensión existente de los resultados de una experiencia de visita guiada, al proporcionar evidencia empírica de su trascendencia, más allá del guía y de la compañía, extendiéndose a nivel de destino.

En términos de contribuciones prácticas:

- La tesis arroja luz sobre los factores que contribuyen a la experiencia de los turistas de crucero en el destino, que ha sido un componente poco investigado de la experiencia de crucero (Klein, 2017). Por tanto, los hallazgos tienen implicaciones para las OGD, las autoridades portuarias y las empresas turísticas involucradas en esta actividad económica.
- La investigación se encuentra entre los pocos estudios que aprovechan los datos online para extraer inteligencia de marketing de cruceros, que se ha destacado como una brecha importante en la investigación de turismo de cruceros (Klein, 2017; Papathanassis, 2017).

- Los resultados del estudio tienen también implicaciones relevantes para el turismo de cruceros en España y, en particular, para el puerto de Valencia como destino de cruceros.

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# Part I. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND





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# Chapter 1.

## SENSE OF PLACE

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This chapter introduces the concept of sense of place, which is the focal construct of the thesis. First, the theoretical foundations of the concept are discussed. In particular, the chapter describes the (i) “Person-Process-Place” framework and (ii) the extant theoretical perspectives on sense of place, including novel stances. Next, a literature review including 53 sense of place/place attachment tourism studies, published in the period 2000-2019 is presented. Informed by the conducted literature review, the following sections delineate the antecedent and consequence variables of sense of place. In addition, the mediating and moderating effects of place attachment documented by previous studies are also outlined.

## 1.1. CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS OF SENSE OF PLACE

The relationships individuals develop with spatial settings have long been of great interest to a wide range of disciplines (e.g. geography, environmental psychology, architecture, tourism studies, sociology and forestry). As a result, multiple concepts have emerged to represent the transformation of an undifferentiated space into a place endowed with personal meaning (Tuan, 1977). Sense of place (Relph, 1976; Stedman, 2003), place attachment (Low & Altman, 1992; Stokols, 1981), place identity (Droseltis & Vignoles, 2010; Proshansky, 1978), place bonding (Cheng & Kuo, 2015; Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler, 2006) and topophilia (Tuan, 1974) are among the most used terms to describe human connections to meaningful places.

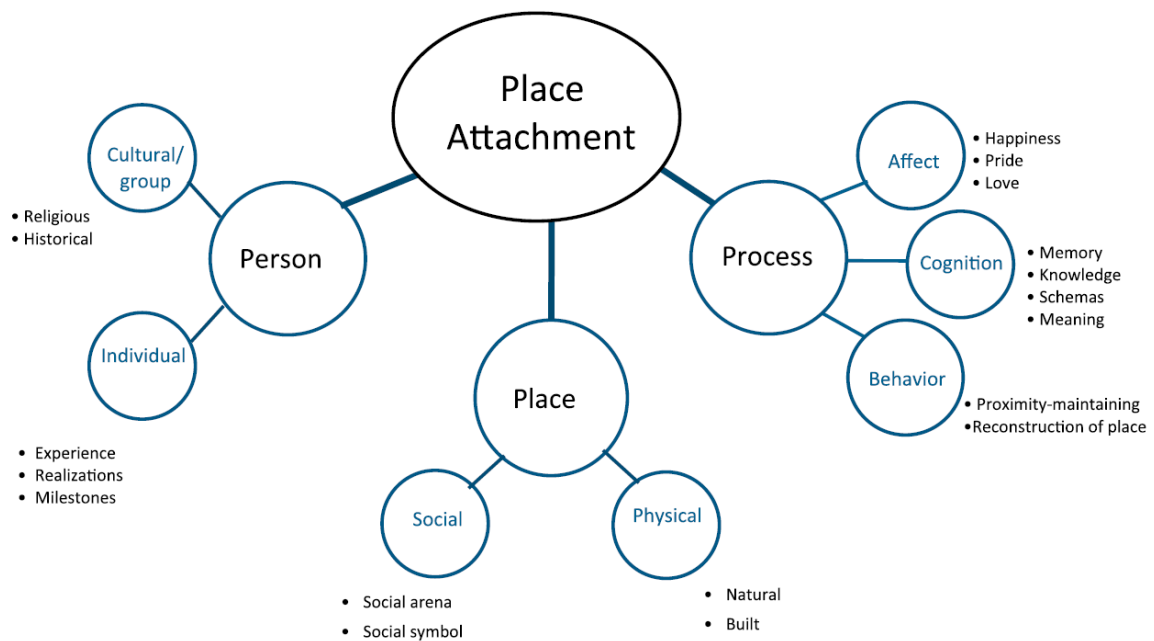
In this rich conceptual landscape, “sense of place” and “place attachment” have been the most commonly employed terms. Despite often being used interchangeably the two concepts vary in meaning. Sense of place has been proposed as an umbrella term, including all facets of human-environment connections such as place attachment, place identity, place dependence and belonging (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; Kaltenborn, 1998; Shamai, 1991). Campelo et al. (2014) describe sense of place as sentiments and meanings held toward a place on the basis of sensory, cognitive and affective experiences. The concept of place attachment, in contrast, emphasizes a positive emotional bond between people and their environments (Hernández et al., 2010; Low & Altman, 1992). As Hay (1998, p. 5) states: “sense of place differs from place attachment by considering the social and geographical context of place bonds and the sensing of places”. Others claim that the two terms are equivalent, but while “place attachment” is used by environmental psychologists, geographers prefer “sense of place” (Lewicka, 2011; Patterson & Williams, 2005; Williams & Vaske, 2003). Regardless of the variations in the use of terminology, it is commonly agreed that the

proliferation of terms used to address similar phenomena impedes the formation of a systematic and coherent body of knowledge (Lewicka, 2011). In response to these inconsistencies, researchers have proposed the establishment of measures in order to operationalise the construct (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; Kaltenborn, 1998). Considering the conceptual fragmentation of the sense of place concept, the following discussion of the term integrates findings from studies referring to both, “sense of place” and “place attachment”.

### 1.2. THE “PERSON-PROCESS-PLACE” FRAMEWORK

In an attempt to integrate the existing approaches and varied definitions of the person-place relationship phenomenon, Scannel & Gifford (2010) have put forward a tridimensional framework (Figure 4).

Figure 4. The tripartite model of place attachment



Source: Scannel & Gifford (2010)

According to the proposed model, place attachment is a multidimensional concept including three components: a person, psychological processes and place characteristics.

### 1.2.1. THE PERSON COMPONENT

The “person” component of sense of place relates to the beholder of the place meaning, which can either be a single individual or a social group. At the individual level, a connection with a place arises as a result of personally important experiences, realizations or milestones (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). Places evoking personal memories from childhood (e.g. the place where one learned to read), adolescence (e.g. the setting of a first kiss) or parental age (e.g. the place where an offspring started to walk) are often associated with feelings of attachment (Marcus, 1992). For example, people identify stronger with places related to their family origins (Droseltis & Vignoles, 2010; Low, 1992). Similarly, places signifying “home” generate feelings of attachment (Lewicka, 2011; Manzo, 2003). In this regard, Hay (1998) proposed five levels of sense of place based on residential status: superficial, partial, personal, ancestral and cultural. Furthermore, Low (1992) suggested economic linkages as another important source of place attachment (e.g. owned property, inheritance), which was later empirically confirmed by Droseltis and Vignoles (2010). Events with special meaning for the individual (e.g. concerts, meeting a significant other) occurred in a place are also established as relevant predictors of place identity (Droseltis & Vignoles, 2010). Some researchers even hypothesize the existence of a biological predisposition for the development of place attachment to certain settings (Altman & Low, 1992) such as natural landscapes. Guided by psychoevolutionary theories, Kaplan and Kaplan (1989) argue that human affinity for certain types of environments can be innate. Evidence also exists for the effect of socio-

demographic characteristics such as gender and age on the level of place attachment (e.g. Anton & Lawrence, 2014; Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001; Kaltenborn, 1997).

While the greatest part of extant place literature has centred on personal connections to places, meaningful place relationships are also developed in social groups. As suggested by Scannell and Gifford (2010), at the group level, attachment to a place might be developed on the basis of culture (through shared historical symbols and values) or religion. For example, the empirical study of Droseltis and Vignoles (2010) revealed that religious and mythological links influence place identification with settings such as sacred and historical sites (e.g. religious temples, Machu Picchu, Stonehenge). Place meanings based on community history or shared religion are transmitted from one generation to another and thus form a collective sense of place.

In her review of place attachment research from the perspective of environmental psychology, Lewicka (2011) also uses the tripartite model proposed by Scannell and Gifford (2010) and assures that extant literature has mainly focused on the “person” dimension at the expense of the mechanisms underlying its formation, as well as the “place” itself.

### 1.2.2. THE PROCESS COMPONENT

The second element of the proposed tripartite framework of place attachment concerns the psychological processes underlying the formation of place bonds. More specifically, Scannell and Gifford (2010) establish three components: cognition, affect and behaviour, which coincide with the attitudinal structure of sense of place suggested by Jorgensen and Stedman’s (2001).

The cognitive element of place attachment/sense of place includes memories, beliefs, knowledge, and meaning that individuals associate with a spatial setting. The term “place identity” coined by Proshansky (1978) reflects the cognitive structure derived from interactions with a significant place. The concept is understood as “those dimensions of self that define the individual’s personal identity in relation to the physical environment by means of a complex pattern of conscious and unconscious ideas, beliefs, preferences, feelings, values, goals” (Proshansky, 1978, p. 155). Because individuals incorporate cognitions about a place in the definitions of their self-concept, place identity is viewed as a subdimension of a person’s self-identification (Scannell & Gifford, 2010; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001). Under this conception, it follows that individuals feel represented by a place. In this vein, Manzo (2003) argues that relationships with places result from conscious processes, in which people identify with environments that match their self-concept.

The affective domain of place attachment/sense of place is widely recognized as being at the heart of the formation of relationships with a spatial setting (Giuliani, 2003; Manzo, 2003; Williams, Patterson, & Roggenbuck, 1992). One of the earliest writings on people-place links, the seminal work of Tuan (1974, p. 93), uses the term *topophilia* “to include all of the human being’s affective ties with the material environment”. In Jorgensen and Stedman’s (2001) conceptualisation of sense of place as an attitude, the affective component of the construct is equated with place attachment. The emotional aspects of place relationships are elucidated in studies on migration, relocations and home loss, which revealed that displacement results in feelings of homesickness, and longing, thus confirming the emotional foundation of the relationship (Brown & Perkins, 1992; Morse & Mudgett, 2017). While it is true that the subjective feelings associated with a place might well be negative



(e.g. fear or hatred resulting from traumatic experiences) (Giuliani, 2003; Lewicka, 2005; Manzo, 2005), it is generally agreed that the affective processes underlying sense of place are positive in nature (Scannell & Gifford, 2010; Shumaker & Taylor, 1983; Williams et al., 1992).

The third component of the psychological processes underpinning place attachment refers to place-related behaviours/actions. Previous studies establish that people tend to maintain contact and stay close to the places they have a special relationship with (e.g. Brown & Perkins, 1992; Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001; Marcus, 1992). For example, the need to reconnect with places of attachment is especially relevant for the elderly, who manifest willingness to return to their birth and childhood places (Buffel, 2017; Marcus, 1992; McHugh & Mings, 1996).

Another type of actions related to place attachment occur when individuals are displaced. Research has found that people try to maintain the bond with the place they left by making the new setting resemble the past one (Brook, 2003). Furthermore, the qualities of the places people feel attached to, may condition (also unconsciously) the future choices of new residence locations (Feldman, 1990; Hawke, 2010).

A further behavioural expression of place attachment is found in the efforts of place recovery in cases of post-disaster/war settings. For example, Chamlee-Wright and Storr (2009) found that sense of place played a key role in post-disaster community response and redevelopment. Moreover, feelings of rootedness and attachment have been documented as contributors to disaster resilience (Cox & Perry, 2011; Scannell et al., 2016).

Yet another form of behavioural evidence of place attachment is preservation. Evidence exists for the strong positive correlation between place attachment and willingness to engage in land and historic conservation

(e.g. Alawadi, 2017; Lokocz, Ryan, & Sadler, 2011; Walker & Ryan, 2008). Previous studies also document that sense of place fosters pro-environmental behaviours (e.g. Buta, Holland, & Kaplanidou, 2014; Kudryavtsev, Stedman, & Krasny, 2012; Walker & Chapman, 2003).

In the attitudinal framework of sense of place Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) the concept of place dependency represents the conative element of sense of place. The term describes the importance of a place in facilitating a desired goal or experience when compared to alternative settings (Stokols & Shumaker, 1981). That is, places are valued because they serve better than others for undertaking a particular activity (e.g. hiking, skiing, fishing) (Alexandris, Kouthouris, & Meligdis, 2006; Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler, 2006; Kyle et al., 2003). Place dependence is also referred to as functional attachment and as such is claimed to be rooted in the physical characteristics of the setting (Williams & Vaske, 2003).

### 1.2.3. THE PLACE COMPONENT

The last dimension of the “Person-Process-Place” framework proposed by Scannell and Gifford (2010) is probably the most relevant, but the least investigated one (Lewicka, 2011). While most of the extant literature has focused on the individual, less attention has been paid to the characteristics of the places that engender attachment.

Place has generally been treated on a physical and social level (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001; Stedman, 2003). Scholars disagreeing with the positivistic understanding of places as concrete physical settings argue for the socially constructed meaning of locations (e.g. Kyle & Chick, 2007; Milligan, 1998; Stokowski, 2002; Trentelman, 2009). Under this conception, sense of place is born out of the symbolic value of a place, which arises in social interactions

(Stokowski, 2002). Drawing on the symbolic interactionist framework, Kyle & Chick (2007) revealed that the experiences with family and friends shaped recreationists' sense of place. In other words, it is through shared experiences that places become meaningful rather than the physical attributes. This theoretical stance might explain the findings of Droseltis & Vignoles (2010), who reported that people identify with places they have never personally experienced (e.g. Neverland, Middle Earth, ancient Rome), but have only been told about. Therefore, place attachment might be engendered through narrative links, regardless of the physical features of the setting.

Notwithstanding the above, the tangible aspects underlying sense of place development should not be neglected. Notably, the definition of place dependence, one of the sources of sense of place, is based on the functional features of a setting. Past studies have documented the role physical characteristics play on place attachment (e. g. Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006; Stedman, 2003; Tsaur, Liang, & Weng, 2014). For example, Tsaur et al. (2014) demonstrated that natural resources and environmental functions were positively related to place dependence and place identity in a recreation setting.

There have also been studies considering social and physical aspects simultaneously when assessing place attachment formation. While both components have been established as critical for the development of place attachment (e.g. Kaltenborn, 1997; Mesch & Manor, 1998; Waxman, 2006), their respective relevance varies across contexts and individuals (e.g. Kianicka et al., 2006; Stedman, 2006). For example, in a study of second home owners, Stedman (2006) found that year-round residents' place attachment was rooted in social community meanings, while seasonal inhabitants' bond

was embedded in the environmental features of the setting. Similarly, Kianicka et al. (2006) reported that while local residents' sense of place was mainly shaped by social relationships, the aesthetics and leisure characteristics of the place underpinned tourists' bonding with the setting.

In sum, despite the existing fragmentation and the diverse shades of theoretical meaning of the concept, it can be concluded that sense of place represents a confluence of cognitions, affect and behaviours in relation to a spatial setting.

### 1.3. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON SENSE OF PLACE

In his review on place attachment scholarship, Williams (2014) distinguished between two streams of research: (i) place as a locus of attachment and (ii) place as a centre of meaning. The first research stream examines the strength of the bond with a place. In this view, the relationship person-place is articulated as multidimensional, integrating place dependence (functional attachment) and place identity (symbolic attachment). Some of the studies also recognize the role of social bonding in eliciting place attachment. This place perspective is grounded in top-down information processing, that is, cognition, beliefs and attitudes are used as inputs to create mental perceptions. The research subscribing to this branch of sense of place scholarship usually adopts quantitative measurement techniques to assess the formation of the construct.

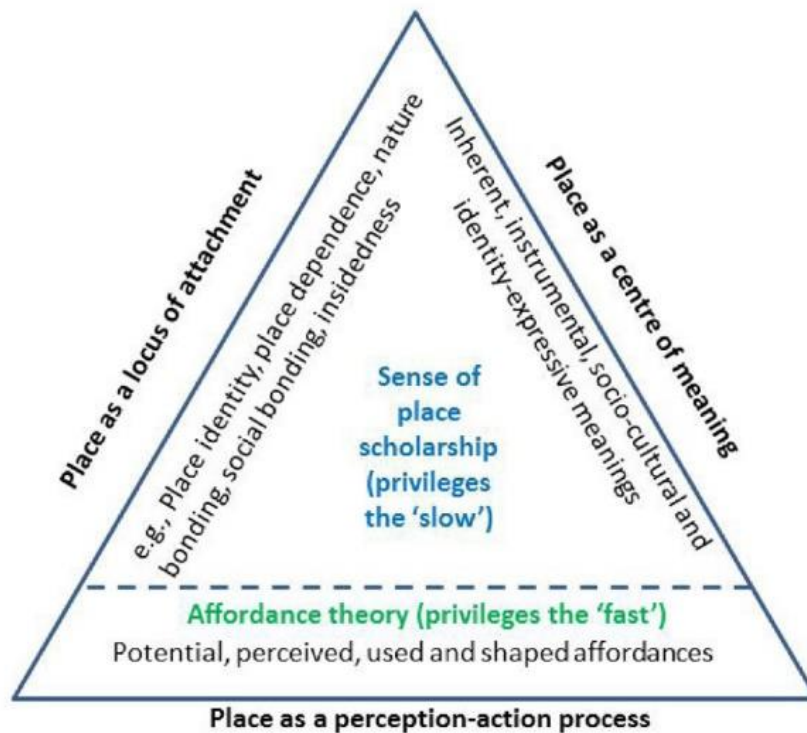
The second line of research identified by Williams (2014) inquires place as a centre of meaning from a qualitative methodological perspective. Unlike the previously discussed research stream, which aims to explain the formation of sense of place through causal relationships, this branch argues for the need to adopt interpretative approaches, so as to understand what does a

place stand for as a symbol. Accordingly, the subjectivity of place meaning is emphasised, which can be instrumental, socially-defined or identity-expressive in nature. In their view, meaning is not based on the characteristics of the place, but is embedded in the symbolic processes taking place in the mind.

Despite the identified differences between the two approaches, both perspectives assume a long-term interaction with a place as a sine-qua-non condition. This is in line with the traditional line of thought on sense of place, arguing that extensive experience with a setting is required for a sense of place to develop (e.g. residency, often visits, etc.) (Hay, 1998; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; Pretty, Chipuer, & Bramston, 2003). In this regard, habit and familiarity have been put forward as critical elements of sense of place formation.

Nevertheless, the argument about the necessarily prolonged evolvement of sense of place has recently been challenged by Raymond et al. (2017), who makes the case for a scholarship which “privileges the fast” (p. 1674) (see Figure 5).

Figure 5. The theoretical perspectives of sense of place



Source: Raymond et al. (2017)

The authors suggest a fast route to sense of place formation underpinned by the theory of affordances (Gibson, 1977). The term “affordance” can be defined as the directly perceived possibilities for action offered by the environment to an agent (Gibson, 1979). As Raymond et al. (2017, p. 1674) point it: “the world provides sufficient information for our visual systems to directly perceive what is there without the need for lengthy cognitive abstraction”. This view is based on a bottom-up approach to information processing, in which the sensory dimensions of the experience per se create place meaning. In other words, through the senses, individuals are able to directly perceive the opportunities for action, provided by the environment. Applying this idea to the destination context, tourists should be able to immediately perceive the potential benefits a destination can offer based on their visual, olfactory, gustatory, haptic and auditory impressions. For

example, visitors without previous knowledge and attitude about a destination, can perceive upon arrival the place landscape (e.g. sea, beach, palm trees), sense the touch of the sun on their skin, the humidity of the air, hear street music and the voices of local people in public spaces (e.g. language, tone, volume), taste and smell the local food. All these perceptions create meaning for the tourist, and, following the above example, the impressions might be associated with a Mediterranean sensory experience. That is, the sensory cues indicate to visitors that a Mediterranean type of travel experience is possible in this destination. Therefore, unlike previous sense of place perspectives, which advocate its lengthy construction in time, the focal point of Raymond's et al. (2017) reconceptualization is the "fast" process of meaning creation.

This novel stance to understanding sense of place formation has not yet been empirically tested and further research is needed to verify its validity in a real context.

### 1.4. SENSE OF PLACE IN TOURISM STUDIES

#### 1.4.1. CONCEPTUALISATION

While initially the sense of place construct was articulated in residential settings (e.g. Hay, 1998; Hummon, 1992; Kaltenborn, 1998; Shamai, 1991), the concept has attracted considerable attention from tourism researchers over the last twenty years. However, the extant tourism literature has favoured the term "place attachment" to designate the relationship between tourists and destinations (Gross & Brown, 2006; Patwardhan et al., 2019; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Ram et al., 2016; Stylos & Bellou, 2018; Yuksel et al., 2010). Accordingly, the following discussion of existing tourism studies addressing

tourist-destination bonds considers studies using the term “place attachment”.

The application of the place attachment construct in the tourism field started in the early 1990s. The concept was first applied to recreation and leisure activities (e.g. Moore & Graefe, 1994; Williams et al., 1992). The earliest reference to the bond between a tourist and a destination can be found in the study of Prentice et al. (1994). The authors used the term “endearment” to describe “tourists’ emotional attachment to a destination” (Prentice, Witt, & Wydenbach, 1994, p. 119). However, it has been since the year 2000 that the concept has gained prominence in the major tourism journals. Given that a place attachment theory per se does not exist, previous studies on tourist-destination relationships have been informed by multiple disciplines (e.g. geography, environmental psychology and sociology). As a result, a generally accepted definition of place attachment in the tourism field is lacking. The dimensionality and measurement of the concept have also been elusive. To shed light on the conceptual foundation, methodological approaches and the application of place attachment across different tourism settings, a review of the existing empirical studies published in the leading tourism journals has been conducted and outlined in Table 1. While tourism studies on residents’ or other stakeholders’ place attachment also exist (e.g. Cui & Ryan, 2011; Gu & Ryan, 2008; Tan et al., 2018), they were not considered in this study. The review of the literature revealed 53 studies.



Table 1. Empirical studies on tourist-place relationships published in the main tourism journals

AUTHORS	CONCEPTUAL OPERATIONALISATION					CONTEXT	METHODOLOGY
	Place identity	Place dependence	Social bonding	Place affect	Other dimensions		
Chen & Chou (2019)	✓	✓				Creative tourism	Quantitative
Fu et al. (2019)	✓	✓		✓		Exhibition	Quantitative
Han et al. (2019)	✓	✓	✓	✓		Cittáslow destination	Quantitative
Patwardhan et al. (2019)	✓	✓				Religious festival	Quantitative
Prayag & Lee (2019)	✓	✓				Hotel	Quantitative
Qu, Xu & Lyu (2019)	✓	✓		✓		Mass tourism destination	Quantitative
Scarpi, Mason & Raggiotto (2019)			Not identified			Heritage festival	Quantitative
Wang et al. (2019)			Not identified			Nature-based tourism	Quantitative
Abou-Shouk et al. (2018)			Not identified			Travel destination	Quantitative
Kim, Choe, & Petrick (2018)			Not identified			Festival	Quantitative
Line, Hanks, & McGinley (2018)	✓	✓				Travel destination	Quantitative
Stylos & Bellou (2018)			Not identified			Sun and sea destination	Quantitative
Woosnam et al. (2018)	✓	✓				Heritage site	Quantitative

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Yi et al. (2018)	✓	✓			Exhibition	Quantitative
Hosany et al. (2017)	✓	✓			Travel destination	Quantitative
Stylos et al. (2017)			Not identified		Sun and sea destination	Quantitative
Brown et al. (2016)	✓	✓		✓	Place Symbolism Sports event	Quantitative
Chubchuwong & Speece (2016)	✓	✓	✓	✓	Travel destination	Qualitative
Davis (2016)	✓				Festival	Qualitative
Luo, Wang, & Yun (2016)	✓	✓	✓		Cultural attraction	Quantitative
Ram, Björk, & Weidenfeld (2016)			Not identified		Tourist attractions	Quantitative
Sohn & Yoon (2016)			Not identified		Travel destination	Quantitative
Suntikul & Jachna (2016)	✓	✓			Heritage sites	Quantitative
Tan & Chang (2016)	✓	✓			Travel destination blog entry	Quantitative
Tsai (2016)	✓	✓			Travel destination	Quantitative
Xu & Zhang (2016)	✓	✓	✓	✓	Urban destination	Quantitative
Cheng & Kuo (2015)					Place bonding (Familiarity, Rootedness, Place belongingness)	
	✓	✓			Unvisited landscapes	Quantitative

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Jepson & Sharpley (2015)					Rural tourism	Qualitative
Lee, Busser, & Yang (2015)	✓	✓	✓	✓	Celebrity-endorsed destination	Quantitative
Tonge et al. (2015)	✓	✓	✓	✓	Nature-based tourism	Quantitative
Wong & Lai (2015)	✓	✓			Film-induced tourism	Quantitative
Foristal, Lehto & Lee (2014)					Nature-based tourism	Qualitative
Loureiro (2014)	✓	✓			Rural tourism	Quantitative
Chen & Phou (2013)				✓	Heritage site	Quantitative
Cheng, Wu, & Huang (2013)	✓	✓			Travel destination	Quantitative
Needham & Little (2013)	✓	✓			Ski destination	Quantitative
Ramkissoon, Smith, & Weiler (2013)	✓	✓	✓	✓	Nature-based tourism	Quantitative
Veasna, Wu, & Huang (2013)			Not identified		Heritage destination	Quantitative
Kil et al. (2012)	✓	✓		✓	Nature-based tourism	Quantitative
Lee et al. (2012)	✓	✓	✓		Festival	Quantitative
Prayag & Ryan (2012)	✓	✓			Sun and sea destination	Quantitative
Tsai (2012)	✓	✓		✓	Travel destination	Quantitative
Chung et al. (2011)	✓	✓			Nature-based tourism	Quantitative
Lee (2011)	✓	✓			Nature-based tourism	Quantitative

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Yuksel et al. (2010)	✓	✓	✓	Sun and sea destination	Quantitative
Mechinda, Serirat, & Gulid (2009)			Not identified	Travel destination	Quantitative
Gross & Brown (2008)	✓	✓		Travel destination	Quantitative
Alexandris et al. (2006)	✓	✓		Ski destination	Quantitative
Gross & Brown (2006)	✓	✓		Travel destination	Quantitative
Hou, Lin & Morais (2005)	✓	✓		Cultural destination	Quantitative
Hwang, Lee, & Chen (2005)	✓	✓		National park tours	Quantitative
George & George (2004)	✓	✓		Travel destination	Quantitative
Kyle, Absher, & Graefe (2003)	✓	✓		Nature-based tourism	Quantitative

Source: Own elaboration

As can be observed in Table 1, the term place attachment has been the most used one by tourism researchers with only a handful of studies adopting alternative concepts such as “sense of place” (Abou-Shouk et al., 2017; Foristal et al., 2014; Jepson & Sharply, 2015) and place bonding (Cheng & Kuo, 2015). The conducted review also demonstrates the predominantly multidimensional conceptualisation of the concept, integrated by place identity, place dependence, place affect and social bonding. However, few studies establish the relevance of the four dimensions in assessing place attachment (e.g. Ramkissoon et al., 2013; Tonge et al., 2015; Xu & Zhang, 2016). The most common operationalization of place attachment encompasses place identity and place dependence (Chen & Chou, 2019; George & George, 2004; Gross & Brown, 2006, 2008; Hosany et al., 2017; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Tsai, 2016). The two dimensions have been found to hold across a wide range of tourism contexts such as nature-based destinations (e.g. Kil et al., 2012; Lee, 2011; Tonge et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019), heritage sites (e.g. Suntikul & Jachna, 2016; Veasna et al., 2013; Woosnam et al., 2018), festival-hosting locations (e.g. Lee et al., 2012; Patwardhan et al., 2019) and sun and sea destinations (e.g. Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Qu et al., 2019; Yuksel et al., 2010). More recently, the concept has been applied to exhibitions (Fu et al., 2019; Yi et al., 2018), sports events (Brown et al., 2016) and even unvisited places (Cheng & Kuo, 2015).

The inventory of place attachment tourism studies also reveals the increasing interest in the tourist-place relationships in the last five years with more than half of the existing studies published in the period 2015-2019. In terms of methodological approaches, the quantitative techniques (mostly survey-based) (Gross & Brown, 2008; Hwang et al., 2005; Scarpi et al., 2019; Stylos et al., 2017) largely prevail over the qualitative ones (personal interviews) (Chubchuwong & Speece, 2016; Davis, 2016; Foristal et al., 2014).

1.4.2. ANTECEDENTS OF PLACE ATTACHMENT

The conducted literature review reveals a plethora of quantitative studies documented various structural relationships between place attachment and other constructs. To make sense of the dispersed findings related to the variables that have been established as fostering place attachment, Table 2 provides an overview of the identified antecedents of the concept.

**Table 2. Antecedents of place attachment**

ANTECEDENT VARIABLE	SUPPORTING STUDIES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Place-based</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Attractiveness</li> </ul>	Chen & Chou (2019); Hou et al. (2005); Tsai (2012); Xu & Zhang (2016)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Native species</li> </ul>	Foristal et al. (2014)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Physical environment</li> </ul>	Alexandris et al. (2006)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Uniqueness</li> </ul>	Tsai (2012)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Familiar elements in unfamiliar environments</li> </ul>	Cheng & Kuo (2015)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Functional/ recreational benefits</li> </ul>	Abou-Shouk et al. (2017); Kil et al. (2012); Tsai (2012)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Food &amp; Wine</li> </ul>	Gross & Brown (2008)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Social-based</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Service interactions</li> </ul>	Prayag & Lee (2019)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Social servicescape</li> </ul>	Line et al. (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Social interactions</li> </ul>	Woosnam et al. (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Interaction quality</li> </ul>	Alexandris et al. (2006)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Personal characteristics</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Centrality to lifestyle</li> </ul>	Gross & Brown (2008)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Self-connection</li> </ul>	Tsai (2012)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Motivation</li> </ul>	Prayag & Lee (2019); Xu & Zhang (2016); Yi et al. (2018);
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Recreation specialization</li> </ul>	Needham & Little (2013)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Memories</li> </ul>	Loureiro (2014); Tsai (2016)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Cognitive</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Destination image</li> </ul>	Lee et al. (2015); Line et al. (2018); Prayag & Ryan (2012); Veasna et al. (2013)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Destination fascination</li> </ul>	Wang et al. (2019)

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- Familiarity	Kim et al. (2018)
- Perceived quality	Kim et al. (2018)
- Involvement	Brown et al. (2016); Hou et al. (2005); Luo et al. (2016); Prayag & Ryan (2012); Scarpi et al. (2019); Xu & Zhang (2016)
- Satisfaction	Hosany et al. (2017); Lee et al. (2012); Xu & Zhang (2016)
- Destination source credibility	Veasna et al. (2013)
- Trust	Chen & Phou (2013); Tsai (2012)
- Festival brand image	Kim et al. (2018)
• <b>Affective</b>	
- Affective image	Lee et al. (2015)
- Emotions/ emotional benefits/arousal	Hosany et al. (2017); Loureiro (2014); Tsai (2012)
- Emotional closeness with residents	Woosnam et al. (2018)

Source: Own elaboration

As shown in Table 2, previous tourism research has documented a wide range of antecedents of place attachment. In order to provide a more comprehensive overview of the identified conceptual relationships, the variables have been grouped following Scannell & Gifford's (2010) tripartite organizing framework.

The mechanisms underlying place attachment formation can be categorised into place-based, social-based, process-related (cognitive, affective and conative) antecedents, as well as personal characteristics. Place-related features such as destination's physical environment (Alexandris et al., 2006), the native species (Foristal et al., 2014) or the food and wine encountered in a destination (Gross & Brown, 2008) have been found to engender place attachment in visitors. Previous studies have also emphasised the relevant role of social and service interactions for the development of place attachment (Line et al., 2018; Woosnam et al., 2018). Another factor that emerges from the literature as contributing to place attachment is related to

tourists' personal characteristics. For example, extant research has reported that centrality to lifestyle (Gross & Brown, 2008), self-connection (Tsai, 2012) and personal memories (Loureiro, 2014; Tsai, 2016) are associated with place attachment.

A considerable amount of research has also assessed the psychological processes underlying place attachment. Regarding the cognitive antecedents of place attachment, the conducted review of the literature revealed destination image (Line et al., 2018; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Veasna et al., 2013), involvement (Brown et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2016; Scarpi et al., 2019; Xu & Zhang, 2016) and satisfaction (Hosany et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2012; Xu & Zhang, 2016) as the most widely validated variables enhancing place attachment. Some studies also suggest a positive association between perceived quality (Kim et al., 2018), trust (Tsai, 2012) and destination source credibility (Veasna et al., 2013), on the one hand, and place attachment, on the other. The emotional drivers of place attachment have also been acknowledged by past research. Emotions (Hosany et al., 2017; Loureiro, 2014; Tsai, 2012) and affective destination images (Lee et al., 2015) have been identified as key factors in shaping place attachment.

#### 1.4.3. CONSEQUENCES OF PLACE ATTACHMENT

Another branch of the existing place attachment literature has evaluated its consequences, as displayed in Table 3. Considering all of the findings, the most well-established outcome of place attachment is destination loyalty, understood as tourists' revisit and positive word-of-mouth intention (Abou-Shouk et al., 2017; Chen & Chou, 2019; Kil et al., 2012; Line et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2019; Wong & Lai, 2015; Yi et al., 2018). Research investigating place attachment in nature-based contexts have also revealed its positive effect on tourists' pro-environmental behaviour. Therefore, place



attachment can be considered as an important determinant of behavioural intentions toward a destination.

**Table 3. Consequences of place attachment**

OUTCOME VARIABLE	SUPPORTING STUDIES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Cognitive</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Satisfaction</li> </ul>	Brown et al. (2016); Fu et al. (2019); Prayag & Ryan (2012); Ramkissoon et al. (2013); Veasna et al. (2013); Yuksel et al. (2010)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Commitment</li> </ul>	Lee (2011)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Involvement</li> </ul>	Hwang et al. (2005)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Authenticity</li> </ul>	Ram et al. (2016)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Experience value</li> </ul>	Suntikul & Jachna (2016)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Motivation</li> </ul>	Needham & Little (2013)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Increased knowledge</li> </ul>	Needham & Little (2013)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Affective</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Emotional solidarity</li> </ul>	Patwardhan et al. (2019)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Conative</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Loyalty (intention to return and recommend)</li> </ul>	Abou-Shouk et al. (2017); Alexandris et al. (2006); Brown et al. (2016); Chen & Chou (2019); Hosany et al. (2017); Kil et al. (2012); Line et al. (2018); Lee et al. (2012); Loureiro (2014); Luo et al. (2016); Mechinda et al. (2009); Patwardhan et al. (2019); Prayag & Ryan (2012); Scarpi et al. (2019); Tsai (2012); Tsai (2016); Wang et al. (2019); Wong & Lai (2015); Xu & Zhang (2016); Yi et al. (2018); Yuksel et al. (2010)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Pro-environmental behaviour</li> </ul>	Lee (2011); Qu et al. (2019); Ramkissoon et al. (2013); Tonge et al. (2015)

Source: Own elaboration

Furthermore, data from several studies suggest that place attachment is associated with relevant consequences on a cognitive level. In this regard, satisfaction has been the most commonly identified outcome of place attachment (Brown et al., 2016; Fu et al. 2019; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Ramkissoon et al., 2013; Yuksel et al., 2010). Additional positive cognitive effects include: experience value (Suntikul & Jachna, 2016), commitment (Lee,

2011) and perceived destination authenticity (Ram et al., 2016), among others. Lastly, feeling attached to a destination has also been associated with affective outcomes, namely, emotional solidarity with a destination (Patwardhan et al., 2019).

#### 1.4.4. PLACE ATTACHMENT AS A MODERATOR AND MEDIATOR

The conducted review of the literature also identified studies establishing place attachment as a mediator and moderator variable, whose results are shown in Table 4. More specifically, place attachment has been documented as having a mediating effect on several sequences of cognitive-conative variables such as destination fascination-loyalty (Wang et al., 2019) and destination attractiveness-environmentally responsible behaviour (Cheng et al., 2013). Besides, previous research indicates that place attachment mediates the direct relationship between memorable experiences and behavioural intentions (Tsai, 2016). The relationship between festival satisfaction and festival destination loyalty has also been explained through the mediation of place attachment (Lee et al., 2012). Moreover, the mediating role of place attachment has been demonstrated on the relation between destination emotion and intention to recommend (Hosany et al., 2017).

Existing research has also revealed place attachment as a moderator of a number of structural relationships. For example, Kyle et al. (2003) found that the identity dimension of place attachment enhanced the positive link between recreationists' attitude toward fees and support for spending fee revenue for the benefit of the area. While place attachment has usually been regarded as a positively-valenced construct improving tourist experience, previous studies have revealed the opposite effect. Sohn and Yoon (2016) demonstrated that for highly attached tourists perceived physical and health risks were related to a more negative destination image. In a similar vein,

Stylos et al. (2017) showed the the impact of cognitive and affective images on holistic image were negatively moderated by place attachment. In light of these mixed results, future research should extend the current body of knowledge on place attachment as a moderator by testing its impact on additional sets of structural relationships.

**Table 4. The mediating and moderating effects of place attachment**

TYPE OF RELATIONSHIP	SUPPORTING STUDIES
<i>MEDIATING EFFECT</i>	
Destination fascination → Destination loyalty	Wang et al. (2019)
Emotions → Intention to recommend	Hosany et al. (2017)
Memorable experience → Behavioural intentions	Tsai (2016)
Celebrity attachment → Behavioural intentions	Wong & Lai (2015)
Recreation benefits → Behavioural intentions	Kil et al. (2012)
Festival satisfaction → Festival destination loyalty	Lee et al. (2012)
Destination attractiveness → Environmentally responsible behaviour	Cheng et al. (2013)
Past visitation → Intention to revisit	George & George (2004)
<i>MODERATING EFFECT</i>	
Images → Revisit intention	Stylos et al. (2017)
Physical risk → Destination image	Sohn & Yoon (2016)
Health risk → Destination image	Sohn & Yoon (2016)
Attitude toward fees → Spending preferences	Kyle et al. (2003)

Source: Own elaboration

In sum, the tourism literature has acknowledged the major role of place attachment in understanding tourist-destination relationships, despite the conceptual variations. Nevertheless, the literature investigating the place aspects fostering tourists- bonding with the destination has received scare attention and should be addressed by future studies.



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## Chapter 2. ANTECEDENTS OF SENSE OF PLACE

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This chapter discusses the antecedents of sense of place, considered in the proposed theoretical model of the thesis. More specifically, the chapter encompasses two antecedent constructs: destination's sensescape and authenticity.

The first section of the chapter focuses on destination's sensescape and includes (i) a discussion of sensory marketing as the conceptual framework for the study of sensory place experiences (i.e. destination's sensescape) and (ii) a description of each of the sensory dimensions comprising destination's sensescape: visual, olfactory, gustatory, auditory and haptic.

The second section of the chapter conceptualises the notion of authenticity by first, conducting a thorough discussion of the existing theoretical perspectives, followed by a review of published tourism studies on authenticity. The subsequent subsections outline the relationships among authenticity and its correlates (antecedent and outcome variables), as well as its mediating and moderating effects.

## 2.1. DESTINATION'S SENSESCAPE

### 2.1.1. SENSORY MARKETING

The marketing discipline initially considered individuals as rational human beings and more recently has acknowledged their emotional side in understanding consumer behaviour (Buck et al., 2004; Erevelles, 1998). The role of senses in this process has often been ignored, despite the growing number of studies revealing its significant effect on consumer evaluation and decision-making (Krishna & Schwarz, 2014).

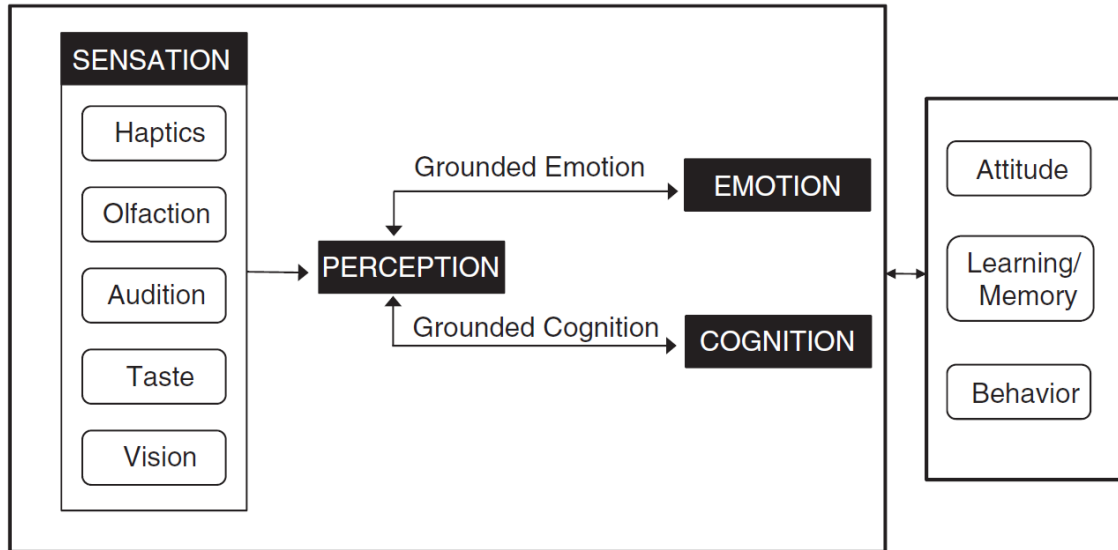
Sensory marketing can be defined as “an application of the understanding of sensation and perception to the field of marketing-to consumer perception, cognition, emotion, learning, preference, choice, or evaluation” (Krishna, 2012, p. 334). The seminal review article by Krishna (2012) proposes a conceptual framework of sensory marketing displayed in Figure 6.

According to this framework, at the beginning of the process are sensations, which are described as the biochemical and neurological reactions to environmental stimuli. As generally accepted, human beings possess five senses: sight (visual), smell (olfaction), taste (gustatory), sound (auditory) and touch (haptic). The next stage in the sensory marketing model is perceptions. While sensations start at the sensory organ, perceptions are formed once they the sensory information is interpreted by the brain. Next, the perceived bodily states are posited to affect individual's cognitive processes, as suggested by the grounded cognition theory (Barsalou, 2008). Therefore, the bodily responses are not separate from individual's cognition, but play an equally relevant role in defining consumer's relationships with products, services and consumption environments (Yoon & Park, 2012). In a similar way and drawing on James-Lange theory of emotions, the author suggests that sensory perceptions activate individuals' emotions (referred to as grounded



emotion or embodied emotion), although this domain remains underresearched. As a consequence, the generated affective and cognitive influence individuals' attitude, memories and subsequent behaviour.

Figure 6. The conceptual framework of sensory marketing



Source: Krishna (2012)

The understanding of the sensory aspect of the consumer experiences has been researched in various marketing domains such as retailing and services marketing (Peck & Childers, 2008; Spence et al., 2014; Vilches-Montero et al., 2018). The multisensory literature has revealed the positive influence of sensory stimulation on the perception of a product/service quality, brand value, consumers' emotions and purchase intention (Helmefalk & Hultén, 2017; Moreira, Fortes, & Santiago, 2017; Yoon & Park, 2012).

The greatest part of the extant multisensory research has centred on a single sense rather than studying human senses holistically. The sense of vision has been the most widely addressed one, mainly concerned with the impact of visual cues on consumer behaviour (Clement, 2007; Gidlöf et al., 2017; Spence et al., 2014). A review of studies exploring ocular perceptions shows

that a more visually attractive environment is positively related to more favourable customer responses such as attitude or purchase.

Within the domain of olfaction, pleasant ambient scent has been found not only to create a more positive customer evaluation, but also to be the sensory perception that lasts the most in memory (Morrin & Ratneshwar, 2000; Ward, Davies, & Kooijman, 2007).

Marketing research on the sense of hearing has been concerned with exploring the effect of ambient music and background noise on various aspects of consumer behaviour such as time spent in store, product choice or attitudes (Biswas, Lund, & Szocs, 2018; Duncan Herrington, 1996; Raab et al., 2013). For example, a recent experimental study found that low volume music/noise induces relaxation and thus leads to healthy product choices, while high volume music/noise results in greater excitement and unhealthy choices.

Studies exploring the gustatory sense have looked at various factors influencing taste evaluation and differentiation, such as culture (Allen, Gupta, & Monnier, 2008), exposure to images of other people (Poor, Duhachek, & Krishnan 2013) and brand information (Breneiser & Allen, 2011), among others.

Research on the sense of touch has found that haptic interactions have relevant effects on product judgement (Peck & Childers, 2003), facilitating persuasion to trial the product (Peck & Wiggins, 2006) and even increasing the sense of ownership (Peck & Shu, 2009).

### 2.1.2. SENSORY PLACE EXPERIENCE: DESTINATION'S SENSESCAPE

Although there has been an increasing interest in sensory marketing, a multisensory perspective to inquiring place experiences is still lacking. Places

such as travel destinations and heritage sites represent contexts of consumption and individuals interact with them just as they do with goods and services (Spielmann, Babin, & Manthiou, 2018). Tourist places encompass a variety of sensory elements: temperature, noises, colours, and air quality, among others (Ferrari, 2015). As stated by Crouch and Desforges (2003, p. 8) "sightseeing involve[s] taking the body on particular routes around sites so that the senses, in their full kinaesthetic complexity, engage with and construct the touristic experience". Thus, senses help visitors define tourist places, turning neutral spaces into multifaceted sensescapes (Markuksela & Valtonen, 2011). First used by Porteous (1985), the "sensescape" concept extends the visually-constrained "landscape" term (Rodaway, 1994) to reflect the relationship person-environment as perceived by the five senses. Accordingly, the destination experience is underpinned by the following "scapes": visualscape, soundscape, tastescape, smellscape, hapticscape (Medway, 2015; Urry, 2002).

#### **2.1.2.1. The visual sensory dimension: Visualscape**

Undoubtedly, individuals build their knowledge about the world primarily through the eyes (Feighey, 2003). That is why it is not surprising that the dominant prism, through which tourist destination experience has been interpreted, relates to the visual sense, termed as "the tourist gaze" (Urry, 2002). The destination landscape, understood as the surrounding physical environment (e.g. buildings, green areas, sea), is central to tourists' perception. The visualscape is considered a source of aesthetic pleasure (Qiu et al., 2018), with aesthetic qualities constituting an integral element of destination image (Kirillova et al., 2014). The visual consumption of the destination has been the object of inquiry of numerous studies, many of which have used visitor-employed photography as a research method (e.g.

Garrod, 2008; Michaelidou, 2013; Pan, Lee, & Tsai, 2014). For example, Garrod (2008) found that tourists' image of Aberystwyth resembled postcard pictures, thus validating Urry's (2002) "tourist gaze" predominance in image formation. A recent study by Dinhopl and Gretzel (2016) broadens the occularcentric nature of tourist destination consumption by discussing the role of selfie-taking and the resulting objectifying of the self as part of the destination landscape. Thus, the visual dimension of the destination experience emerges as central to the tourists' perceptual process.

#### **2.1.2.2. The gustatory sensory dimension: Tastescape**

Though important, beautiful scenery is not always the foremost pull factor attracting tourists to a destination. The search of new taste sensations and gastronomy experiences constitutes a relevant travel motivation (e.g. Kim & Eves, 2012; Kivela & Crofts, 2006; Quan & Wang, 2004). While it is true that food primarily fulfils physiological needs, past research has revealed the importance of destination's tastescape in enhancing tourist experiences (e.g. Berg & Sevón, 2014; Everett, 2008; Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2013). For example, Kim et al. (2013) argue that local food sensory appeal contributes to place identity. Furthermore, Tseng et al. (2015) found that tourists associate local food with greater destination authenticity. Memorable local food taste experiences are also found to trigger positive word-of-mouth (Adongo, Anuga, & Dayour, 2015).

#### **2.1.2.3. The olfactory sensory dimension: Smellscape**

Individuals also experiment a place through their sense of smell (Porteous, 1985). Several authors argue that destinations' success nowadays depends not only on visual appeals, but also on unique olfactory sensations (Dann & Jacobsen, 2003; Henshaw et al., 2016). Coastal and rural destinations usually

capitalise on the smell of the sea or countryside (i.e. fresh air, plants, etc.) (Medway, 2015), when branding themselves. However, scant attention has been paid to the role of smells on tourist perception of an urban destination. In an urban setting, the sense of smell is mainly associated with tourists' gastronomic experiences (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2017). For example, Xiong, Hashim, and Murphy (2015) found that the olfactory image of the Chinese city of Phoenix was mainly composed of local food-related smells (e.g. traditional snacks, local beverages). Importantly, memorability is one of the most relevant consequences of experienced smells, which has important implications for travel destinations in terms of post-visit tourist behaviour (Dann & Jacobsen, 2003).

#### **2.1.2.4. The auditory sensory dimension: Soundscape**

Destination soundscape includes a variety of sounds such as voices of residents and tourists, street noises (e.g. traffic, construction works, etc.), nature sounds (e.g. waterfalls, animals, trees, etc.) and local musical performances (e.g. songs, musical instruments, etc.) (Kang & Gretzel, 2012). Tourists hear diverse sounds during their destination visit depending on the characteristics of the location. In general, a rural destination soundscape is composed of more natural sounds, such as birdsongs, tree leaves, sea waves, etc. (Agapito, Pinto, & Mendes, 2017). In contrast, Aletta et al. (2016) found that visitors to an urban setting experienced three groups of sounds. Thus, traffic noise was dominant in one part of Sorrento, while in another area natural sounds prevailed. Lastly, the study revealed that voices of human crowds constituted the third main type of sounds perceived in the destination. In an ancient heritage town setting, Xiong et al. (2015) found that tourists auditory image of the destination involved a wide range of sounds such as folk songs, tourist and resident voices, river flowing, etc.

### 2.1.2.5. The tactile sensory dimension: Hapticscape

The tactile sensory dimension of the tourist destination experience has been the one least addressed by the extant literature (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2017; Medway, 2015). The sense of touch is based on either cutaneous (perceived through the skin without motion) or kinaesthetic (obtained as a result of body movements) information (Klatzky, 2011). Past research has suggested several taxonomies of touch in consumer behaviour. For example, Peck (2011) classified touch in two main groups: instrumental and hedonic. The former relates to touch as a means to obtaining product information (e.g. objects' properties such as texture, temperature, etc.), while the latter refers to touch as an aim in itself (i.e. the goal is the sensory experience). Klatzky (2011) suggests an alternative taxonomy, identifying five types of elicited touch: information-seeking, hedonically elicited, aesthetics-elicited, compulsive and socially elicited touch. Extant tourism research has not looked at destinations' touchscape through the lens of the aforementioned classifications. However, a review of studies exploring the components of the multisensory tourist experience reveals that "touching" is mainly hedonic and aesthetics-elicited. Research conducted in urban heritage settings found that the tactile dimension of the tourist experience is usually associated with aesthetically-appealing ancient objects (e.g. walls, ornaments) (Rakić & Chambers, 2012; Xiong et al., 2015). In contrast, rural destinations hapticscapes involve the touch of flora and fauna (Agapito et al., 2017; Son & Pearce, 2005).

Yet another type of touch sensations, which are common to any type of destination, are those that do not involve a purposeful physical contact with a surface. The warmth of the sun against the skin, the wind or the coolness, among others, are cutaneous sensations which tourists experience throughout the whole visit (Agapito, Valle, & Mendes, 2014; Son & Pearce, 2005; Xiong et al., 2015). Though there is a lack of studies exploring the

influence of destinations' hapticscape on tourist cognitive and emotional perception of the destination, travelers' narratives suggest that weather conditions affect their experience (Rakić & Chambers, 2012). Furthermore, in studying the embodied consumption of the Acropolis, Rakić and Chambers (2012) found that visitors' experience was corporeal in terms of the physical contact with other bodies (i.e. the crowds of tourists), which is closely linked with the somatosensory dimension of the visit experience. Thus, the hapticscape of a destination may include not only appealing tactile elements, but also unpleasant incidental touch experiences such as the somatic contact with other people in crowded tourist places.

### 2.1.3. TOURISM STUDIES ON MULTISENSORY EXPERIENCES

To integrate the existing findings on multisensory destination tourism experiences, an exhaustive review of the literature was conducted. Given the scarce number of studies addressing the topic published in the main tourism journals, the search was extended beyond the tourism journal domain and included book chapters and publications in research outlets from other disciplines such as the *Service Industries Journal* and the *Journal of the Association of Icelandic Geographers*, among others.

The review of the literature produced 14 empirical studies, published in the period 2003–2019, which are summarised in Table 5. First, the list of reviewed studies reveals that only three of them have addressed the five sensory dimensions of the tourist destination experience (Agapito et al., 2014, 2017; Xiong et al., 2015). The rest of articles either concentrate on one specific sensescape (e.g. soundscape (Liu et al., 2018), tastescape (Everett, 2008)) or discuss several senses simultaneously (e.g. Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010; He et al., 2019; Qiu et al., 2018).

ANTECEDENTS OF SENSE OF PLACE

Table 5. Literature review on multisensory destination experience studies

AUTHORS	SENSES					CONTEXT	METHODOLOGY	MAIN RESULTS
	Sight	Sound	Taste	Smell	Touch			
He et al. (2019)	✓	✓				Religious tourism	Quantitative	A positive relationship between soundscape and landscape perception is established.
Liu et al. (2018)		✓				Heritage site	Quantitative	Soundscape perception and tourist satisfaction are positively related.
Qiu et al. (2018)	✓	✓				National park	Quantitative	Soundscape directly influences tourist overall satisfaction and visualscape observed. Tourist overall satisfaction is based on a listening–looking congruence.
Agapito et al. (2017)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	Natural park	Mixed method	Diversified sensory impressions impact the long-term memory, enhance tourists' favourable behaviour towards destinations and destination loyalty.
Xiong et al. (2015)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	Heritage town	Qualitative	Destination image involves all five senses, with visual image being the most relevant and tactile image the least.
Agapito et al. (2014)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	Natural park	Quantitative	Sensory impressions are used to segment tourists visiting Southwest Portugal.
Prazeres & Donohoe (2014)	✓	✓		✓	✓	National park	Qualitative	Visitors experienced the park environment through four senses: visual, auditory, olfactory, and bodily sense.
Rakić & Chambers (2012)	✓				✓	Heritage site	Qualitative	Embodied consumption and construction of places involves multisensory, cognitive and affective aspects.



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Van Hoven (2011)	✓	✓	✓	✓	Ecotourism	Qualitative	Hiking is identified as “a place-making practice” with the transfer of meaning largely proceeding by employing the senses (smelling, feeling, listening to and tasting the forest).
Gretzel & Fesenmaier (2010)	✓	✓	✓		Travel destination	Qualitative	The respondents were able to articulate sensory associations with the destination in terms of tastes, sounds, colours, and scents.
Pan & Ryan (2009)	✓	✓	✓	✓	Travel destination	Qualitative	The reporting of New Zealand as a whole by visiting journalists tended to utilize an appeal to all senses, but this was not the case of individual destinations, such as Auckland or Wellington.
Everett (2008)		✓			Food tourism	Qualitative	Food tourism practices are documented as postmodern touristic consumptive activities and embodied experiences.
Son & Pearce (2005)	✓	✓	✓	✓	Travel destination	Qualitative	Evidence about Australia's multisensory image was found, but respondents found it difficult to express their impressions, in particular, the olfactory ones.
Dann & Jacobsen (2003)			✓		Variety of places	Qualitative	By examining classical and contemporary pieces of literature, the authors argue that in order for a tourism destination to be successful it must be aromatically appealing.

Source: Own elaboration

As per the context of the reviewed studies, Table 5 demonstrates that they have mainly been conducted in either nature or rural settings (e.g. Prazeres & Donohoe, 2014; Qiu et al., 2018; Van Hoven, 2011), or at a particular ancient heritage place (e.g. Liu et al., 2018; Xiong et al., 2015).

In terms of adopted methodological approaches, the majority of studies are qualitative and exploratory in nature (e.g. Pan & Ryan, 2009; Prazeres & Donohoe, 2014; Rakić & Chambers, 2012, Van Hoven, 2011). For example, Son and Pearce (2005) investigated the multisensory components of the destination image of Australia. In a similar vein, Pan and Ryan (2009) conducted a content analysis of travelogues about New Zealand to uncover the sensory dimensions associated with the destination. Only recently have quantitative studies been undertaken to establish the effects of sensory impressions on tourist behavior (Agapito et al., 2017; He et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2018; Qiu et al., 2018). In particular, evidence exist for the positive impact of sensory interactions not only on destination image (Son & Pearce, 2005; Xiong et al., 2015), but also on tourist satisfaction (Liu et al., 2018; Qiu et al., 2018) and loyalty (Agapito et al., 2017).

Overall, the conducted literature review suggests that studies adopting a holistic view to understanding tourist destination sensory experience should be developed. Furthermore, given that past research has mainly addressed sensory impressions in nature-based settings, the multisensory destination perceptions in urban contexts constitute a relevant research gap. Besides, studies exploring the relationships between sensory interactions and subsequent tourist behaviour are still scarce.

## 2.2. EXISTENTIAL AUTHENTICITY

### 2.2.1. CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION

A growing body of literature recognises the importance of authenticity in tourism experiences (Brown, 2013; Chhabra, Healy, & Sills, 2003; Park, Choi, & Lee, 2019; Ram et al., 2016; Yang & Wall, 2009). MacCannell (1973) first introduced the concept of authenticity in the tourism field stating that it is the main tourist motivation. Since then, the concept appears to be one of the most contested ones in tourism research with varying definitions emerging over the years (Olsen, 2002; Wang, 1999; Zhu, 2012). The term has been approached from four perspectives: objectivism, constructivism, existentialism and postmodernism.

The earliest conceptualisation of authenticity was associated with the idea of originality of artefacts in a museum context (Trilling, 1972). In this objectivist's view, tourism products (e.g. artworks, clothing, rituals) are ascribed authenticity if they fulfill the criterion of being genuine to the custom or tradition. The opposition between genuine and inauthentic is rooted in the claim that modern society is characterised by alienation, which explains why individuals seek fulfillment in tourism experiences providing the "lost" authenticity (MacCannell, 1976). Thus, objective authenticity describes the authenticity of original toured objects and is related to tourists' cognitive impressions. However, realists' argument about the objectively determined nature of authenticity is losing support within tourism academia, with some researchers claiming that the term "object authenticity" should be abandoned due to the impossibility to establish a universal understanding of the concept (Reisinger & Steiner, 2006).

The objectivist view of authenticity has been criticized as too simplistic and limited by scholars adopting a constructivist approach to its understanding

(e.g. Bruner, 1994; Cohen, 1988; Olsen, 2002). According to this perspective, authenticity must not be centered on objects' inherent features, but should be regarded as a socially defined concept, whose meaning is continuously created in social processes. That is, constructive authenticity is associated with symbolic meaning, engendered by social construction rather than by qualities of objects. Following the constructivist approach, Bruner (1994) uncovered four different meanings of authenticity in the context of New Salem, the reproduction of the place where Abraham Lincoln lived. The first two meanings are related to the "historical verisimilitude" of the site and its accurate historical simulation from the viewpoint of the present culture. The third meaning reflects the idea that authenticity "means originals, as opposed to a copy; but in this sense no reproduction could be authentic, by definition" (Bruner, 1994, p. 400). In the fourth meaning, authenticity is associated with the notion of authority, implying the existence of an institution which authorises and certifies something as authentic.

In his conceptual analysis of the meaning of authenticity in tourist experiences, Wang (1999) summarises the main viewpoints on authenticity from the constructivist perspective: (i) there is no absolute source of authenticity; (ii) traditions are socially constructed in a given context; (iii) the experience of authenticity is subjected to interpretations and as such has plural meanings; (iv) authenticity is a projection of individuals' stereotypes and beliefs about the toured objects/sites.

In summary, under a constructivist framework, authenticity has a symbolic connotation which arises in social interaction. In this sense, tourists define something as authentic not because it is true to the original, but because it matches their preconceived image about how it should be.

However, Wang (1999) argues that these authenticity perspectives are unable to explain all kind of experiences that tourists may describe as authentic (e.g. eco-tourism, sports tourism, sun and sand holidays, etc.), as both of them are tied to objects, even though underpinned by different ontological assumptions. In an attempt to overcome the restrictiveness of object authenticity and the pluralistic understandings of constructive authenticity, Wang (1999) proposes the concept of existential authenticity. As Wang (1999, p. 351) puts it, existential authenticity “involves personal or intersubjective feelings that are activated by the liminal process of tourist behaviors”. Hence, it is not the nature of toured objects that induces the sense of authenticity, but the engagement in activities that contrast those performed in everyday life. Accordingly, existential authenticity is a state of being and as such, may not be related to toured objects at all. The author distinguishes between two dimensions of existential authenticity: intra- and inter-personal. The intra-personal dimension is related to bodily feelings of relaxation, recreation, excitement and sensation-seeking. Intra-personal authenticity also implies “self-making”, which addresses the contention that individuals may feel oppressed by routine and find self-realization in tourism activities. In contrast, the inter-personal facet of authenticity designates experiences of family togetherness and the creation of “*communitas*” relationships with other tourists.

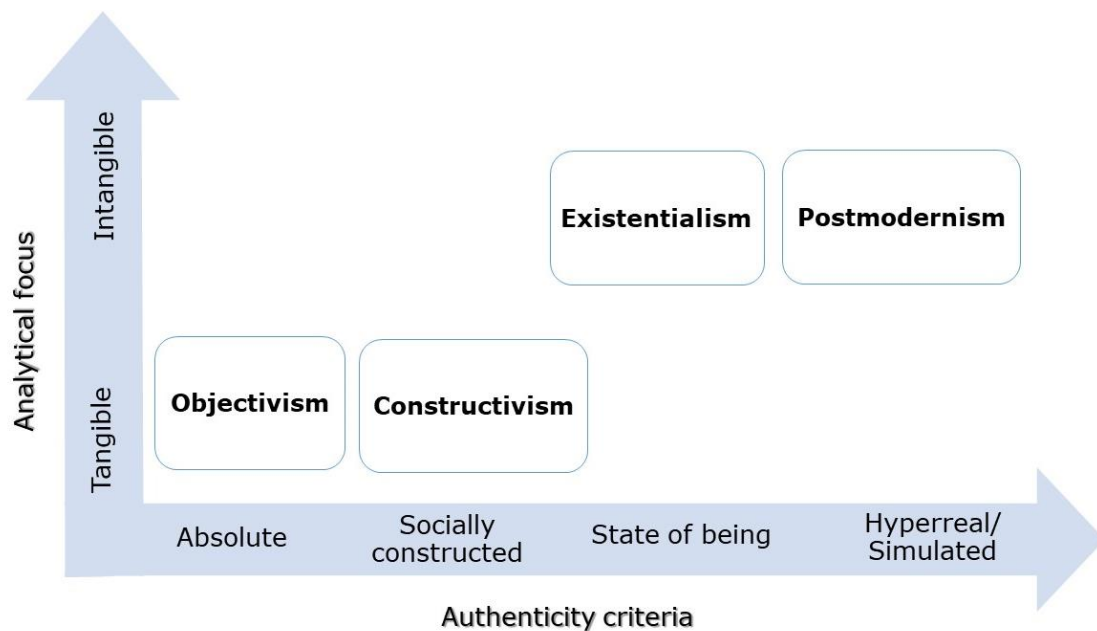
Considering the above, it can be inferred that according to the conceptualisation of existential authenticity, tourists may perceive authenticity even if the toured objects are not authentic. Existential authenticity represents an alternative to objects as a source of authenticity, designating a state of being that is to be activated by tourist activities and thus is internal and not external in nature.

Lastly, the postmodernist discourse of authenticity deconstructs the original idea of authenticity, positing that a genuine referent does not exist (Reisinger & Steiner, 2006; Vidon, Rickly, & Knudsen, 2018). Through the postmodernist lens, the focus of authenticity is displaced from the objective to the intra and interpersonal perceptions of the individual (Fu et al., 2018). This view of authenticity is based on two key concepts: hyperreality (Eco, 1986) and simulacrum (Baudrillard, 1983). The term hyperreality designates the indistinction between real and unreal. Under this assumption, simulations can become so “authentic” that they can evolve in hyperreality (Cohen, 2007). The ideas of the postmodernist perspective of authenticity can be best exemplified in tourism settings such as theme parks, shopping malls or virtual-reality-based services. For example, Disneyland can offer authentic experiences, even though it is a product of imagination and fantasy. From the postmodern stance, tourists accept “staged authenticity”, even if conscious about the inauthenticity of the setting/experience, as long as it matches their expectations (Martin, 2010; Yi et al., 2018). Thus, the lack of authenticity is not a concern for postmodernist tourists, who “either do not value it, are suspicious of it, [or] are complicit in its cynical construction for commercial purposes” (Reisinger & Steiner, 2006, p. 66). Some researchers contend that tourists may as well long for inauthentic experiences such as touring Lord of the Rings places in New Zealand (Buchmann, Moore, & Fisher, 2010) or visiting locations claiming to be Shangri-La in India (Atwal & Williams, 2012). It follows from this that a complex staging of dreamed tourism encounters might be an equally attractive option for tourists seeking authentic experiences as a strictly “true to the original” representation of a cultural or heritage experience.

The evolution of the main theoretical perspectives to conceptualising authenticity in tourism studies are outlined in Figure 7. The four existing

approaches have been mapped according to two different aspects: analytical focus and authenticity criteria. The axis depicting the analytical focus includes two categories: tangible objects and intangible experiences. The authenticity criteria continuum starts with absolute and objective as a basic point of reference, followed by socially constructed symbolic meaning, evolving into the evaluation of authenticity as a state of being to finally consider hyperreality as an indicator of authenticity.

Figure 7. Existing theoretical perspectives on authenticity



Source: Own elaboration

Observing the evolution of the definitions of authenticity from objective to postmodern, it is interesting to note that its conceptualisation goes from the absolute, objective and tangible proof to a highly subjective, intangible and even void of any real existence criterion.

Despite the common acceptance of the four discussed authenticity approaches, the most recent development in the theoretical system of this highly contested concept is the notion of negative authenticity (Martin, 2010;

Zhou et al., 2018). The main rationale behind the emergence of this novel perspective to the understanding of authenticity in tourism settings is that the above described approaches to authenticity are implicitly positive. However, evidence suggests the existence of circumstances under which elements of a tourist destination's are not well accepted by tourists, although genuine to destination's present or past (Martin, 2010; Zhou et al., 2018). Accordingly, negative authenticity is defined as "something that is authentic but which tourists and residents consider not valuable enough to be preserved" (Zhou et al., 2018, p.60). The author asserts that the mechanisms underlying the construction of authenticity are not neutral, but bounded to the values of modern society. This stream of authenticity research is still in its infancy though, and further empirical studies are needed to elucidate how the negative perception of authenticity relates to tourist experience.

#### 2.2.2. AUTHENTICITY IN TOURISM STUDIES

In light of the numerous discussions around the definition of authenticity, it is essential to conduct a review of the existing tourism literature in order to elucidate how the concept has been applied in tourism settings. Table 6 displays the most relevant empirical research on authenticity published in tourism journals from 2000 to 2019, following reverse chronologic order (i.e. starting from the most recently-published article) and sorted in ascending alphabetical order.

While the review of the extant body of authenticity research evidenced numerous conceptual articles, for the purposes of this study only the empirical ones were considered. The search for empirical studies yielded 37 articles, which were consequently analysed.



Table 6 illustrates the complexity of the application of authenticity in tourism studies. As it can be observed, there are multiple and divergent conceptual assessments of the concept across numerous tourism contexts. While it is true that there is hardly any dominant theoretical stance, evidence suggests that existential authenticity has been the most frequently addressed dimension and especially among the most recent ones (e.g. Fu, 2019; Lin & Liu, 2018; Novello & Fernandez, 2016; Yi et al., 2017), probably due to the advent of the experience economy. In contrast, postmodern authenticity has been the least adopted approach to the assessment of the concept, with only three studies using the postmodernist framework (Fu et al., 2018; Martin, 2010; Yi et al., 2018). It should also be noted that whereas multiple views of authenticity exist, few researchers adopt a single perspective. As it can be observed in Table 6, most of the published studies combine objective-based and existential dimensions to its operationalization (e.g. Bryce et al., 2015; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; Ram et al., 2016; Rather, Hollebeek, & Islam, 2019).

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Table 6. Empirical tourism studies of authenticity published in the main tourism journals (2000-2019)

AUTHORS	AUTHENTICITY OPERATIONALISATION				CONTEXT	METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH
	Object-based	Constructive	Existential	Postmodern		
Domínguez-Quintero, González-Rodríguez & Paddison (2019)	✓		✓		Heritage tourism	Quantitative
Fu (2019)			✓		Heritage tourism	Quantitative
Park et al. (2019)	✓	✓	✓		Heritage tourism	Quantitative
Rather, Hollebeek, & Islam (2019)	✓		✓		Travel destination	Quantitative
Scarpi et al. (2019)		✓			Festival	Quantitative
Fu et al. (2018)				✓	Souvenir purchase	Quantitative
Lin & Liu (2018)			✓		Heritage tourism	Quantitative
Rittichainuwat et al. (2018)	✓		✓		Film tourism	Quantitative
Yi et al. (2018)				✓	Heritage tourism	Quantitative
Zatori, Smith, & Puczko (2018)		✓	✓		Guided tour	Quantitative
Jiang et al. (2017)			✓		Nature-based tourism	Quantitative

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Yi et al. (2017)			✓	Heritage tourism	Quantitative
Akhoondnejad (2016)		✓		Festival	Quantitative
Kim & Bonn (2016)	✓	✓	✓	Wine tourism	Quantitative
Novello & Fernandez (2016)			✓	Cultural event	Quantitative
Ram et al. (2016)	✓		✓	Heritage tourism	Quantitative
Bryce et al. (2015)	✓		✓	Heritage tourism	Quantitative
Lu et al. (2015)		✓	✓	Historic district	Quantitative
Zhou et al. (2015)	✓		✓	Cultural tourism	Quantitative
Shen (2014)		✓		Festival	Quantitative
Brida, Disegna & Osti (2013)	✓			Tourist event	Quantitative
Castéran & Roederer (2013)		✓		Tourist event	Qualitative & Quantitative
Daugstad & Kirchengast (2013)		✓		Farm-based tourism	Qualitative
Di Domenico & Miller (2012)			✓	Farm-based tourism	Qualitative
Lin & Wang (2012)	✓			Souvenir shopping	Quantitative

## ANTECEDENTS OF SENSE OF PLACE

Robinson & Clifford (2012)	✓	✓	Foodservice at a medieval festival	Qualitative & Quantitative	
Ramkissoon & Uysal (2011)	✓		Cultural attractions	Quantitative	
Buchmann, Moore, & Fisher (2010)		✓	Film tourism	Qualitative	
Kolar & Zabkar (2010)	✓	✓	Heritage tourism	Quantitative	
Martin (2010)			✓	Cultural event	Qualitative
Yang & Wall (2009)		✓	Ethnic tourism	Qualitative & Quantitative	
Sims (2009)		✓	✓	Food experience	Qualitative
Budruk et al. (2008)		✓	Heritage tourism	Quantitative	
Kim & Jamal (2007)			✓	Festival	Qualitative
Chhabra et al. (2003)	✓		Festival	Quantitative	
Revilla & Dodd (2003)	✓		Local pottery shopping	Quantitative	
Waitt (2000)		✓	Heritage tourism	Quantitative	

Source: Own elaboration

The review of the existing tourism literature investigating authenticity also demonstrates that the concept has been applied and tested across various tourism settings (e.g. cultural attractions (Ramkissoon & Uysal, 2011; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; Zhou et al., 2015), festivals and tourism events (Chhabra et al., 2003; Kim & Jamal, 2007; Scarpi et al., 2019), film destinations (Buchmann, Moore, & Fisher, 2010; Rittichainuwat et al., 2018), among which studies conducted in heritage sites largely prevail (Lin & Liu, 2018; Park et al., 2019; Ram et al., 2016; Waitt, 2000; Yi et al., 2018). This result might explain the use of both object-based and experiential dimensions of authenticity, as heritage tourism experiences usually involve immersion in settings displaying historical tangible artefacts. Notably, limited research has studied authenticity in non-cultural/heritage contexts such as nature tourism (e.g. Jiang et al., 2017), wine tourism (Kim & Bonn, 2016) or farm-based tourism (e.g. Daugstad & Kirchengast, 2013; Di Domenico & Miller, 2012). Therefore, future research should add evidence for the applicability of the concept in other tourism settings.

Regarding the methodological approaches used to assess authenticity, it is observed that there have been few qualitative studies, with the majority of the reviewed empirical articles adopting quantitative research techniques, based on survey data. While the qualitative studies have been mainly focused on elucidating the meaning of authenticity across various tourism contexts, the quantitative ones have investigated a series of determinants and consequences of perceived authenticity.

### 2.2.3. ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF AUTHENTICITY

The extant tourism literature on authenticity has explored not only the mechanisms influencing its formation, but also the outcomes of authenticity

perceptions, as well as its mediating and moderating role. Table 7 outlines the key antecedent constructs of authenticity reported by extant research.

**Table 7. Antecedents of authenticity**

ANTECEDENT VARIABLES	STUDIES YIELDING THE RELATIONSHIP
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Aspects of the toured sites</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Architectural heritage</li> </ul>	Yi et al. (2017); Yi et al. (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Folk culture</li> </ul>	Yi et al. (2017); Yi et al. (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Objects and sights</li> </ul>	Bryce et al. (2015); Buchmann, Moore, & Fisher (2010); Kolar & Zabkar (2010); Waitt (2000)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Cognitive</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Destination image</li> </ul>	Jiang et al. (2017)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Motivation</li> </ul>	Brida, Disegna & Osti (2013); Bryce et al. (2015); Budruk et al. (2008); Kolar & Zabkar (2010); Lin & Liu (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Cognitive- affective</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Experience involvement</li> </ul>	Zatori, Smith, & Puczko (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Place attachment</li> </ul>	Budruk et al. (2008); Ram et al. (2016)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Satisfaction</li> </ul>	Yang & Wall (2009)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Self-connection</li> </ul>	Bryce et al. (2015)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Serious leisure</li> </ul>	Bryce et al. (2015)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Affective</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Personal emotional benefits</li> </ul>	Zhou et al. (2015)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Conative</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Heritage-related behaviour</li> </ul>	Bryce et al. (2015)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Attitudinal</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Attitude</li> </ul>	Zhou et al. (2015)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Personal characteristics</b></li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Personal ties</li> </ul>	Chhabra et al. (2003)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Personal memories</li> </ul>	Chhabra et al. (2003)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Socio-demographic factors</li> </ul>	Brida, Disegna, & Osti (2013); Budruk et al. (2008)

Source: Own elaboration

The mechanisms underlying the perception of authenticity have been classified in several groups to achieve a more comprehensive review of the theoretical system underpinning the construct: (i) aspects of the toured sites; (ii) cognitive; (iii) cognitive-affective; (iv) affective; (v) conative; (vi) attitudinal; (vii) personal characteristics. Thus, past studies have identified the role of tangible features such as heritage architecture (e.g. Yi et al., 2017; Yi et al., 2018) and objects (e.g. Bryce et al., 2015; Buchmann, Moore, & Fisher, 2010; Waitt, 2000), and intangible aspects such as folk culture and customs (e.g. Yi et al., 2017; Yi et al., 2018) of the toured sites as determinants of the perception of authenticity.

Regarding the cognitive antecedents of authenticity, past studies have revealed the positive role of destination image (e.g. Jiang et al., 2017) and cultural motivational factors (e.g. Bryce et al., 2015; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; Lin & Liu, 2018). Extant authenticity research has also established the relevant role of cognitive-affective variables contributing to an enhanced authenticity perception. For example, Zatori et al. (2018) posits that experience involvement with a guided tour on both, cognitive and affective level, improves the perception of an authentic toured site (constructive authenticity) as well as an authentic tourism experience (experiential authenticity). Concepts representing a mental and emotional connection with the toured site such as place attachment (Ram et al., 2016) and self-connection (Bryce et al., 2015) were also identified as antecedents of authenticity. Moreover, Zhou et al. (2015) reported a positive association between perceived emotional benefits and authenticity, thus elucidating the role of affective factors on the formation of authenticity perception. Further antecedents of authenticity perceptions that has been documented by extant literature are conative (heritage-related behaviours (Bryce et al., 2015)) and attitudinal (Zhou et al., 2015) in nature. Lastly, personal characteristics such

as socio-demographic factors (Brida, Disegna, & Osti, 2013) and personal ties with the places visited (Chhabra et al., 2003) have also been identified as influencing authenticity perceptions.

In regards to the outcomes of perceived authenticity (see Table 8), extensive evidence exists for its positive impact on satisfaction (e.g. Akhoondnejad, 2016; Park et al., 2019; Robinson & Clifford, 2012) and future behavioural intentions comprehending the willingness to visit and recommend the destination/attraction (e.g. Castéran & Roederer, 2013; Fu et al., 2018; Kim & Bonn, 2016; Lin & Liu, 2018; Ramkissoon & Uysal, 2011). Among the cognitive results of the perception of authenticity are experience quality (Domínguez-Quintero, González-Rodríguez, & Paddison, 2019); image (Lu et al., 2015; Sims, 2009) and perceived value (Akhoondnejad, 2016; Fu et al., 2018). Authenticity may also be positively related to affective outcomes, such as affective loyalty (Fu, 2019) and place attachment (Jiang et al., 2017). As for conative responses, the concept has been associated with an enhanced engagement (e.g. Bryce et al., 2015; Rather, Hollebeek, & Islam, 2019) and an increased level of expenditure (e.g. Brida, Disegna, & Osti, 2013; Castéran & Roederer, 2013; Chhabra et al., 2003).

**Table 8. Perceived authenticity consequences**

CONSEQUENCES	STUDIES YIELDING THE RELATIONSHIP
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Cognitive</i></li> </ul>	
- Cognitive loyalty	Fu (2019); Park et al. (2019)
- Conscious attention (as a dimension of engagement)	Rather, Hollebeek, & Islam (2019)
- Experience quality	Domínguez-Quintero, González-Rodríguez & Paddison (2019)
- Image	Lu et al. (2015); Sims (2009)
- Perceived quality	Akhoondnejad (2016)
- Perceived value	Akhoondnejad (2016) ; Fu et al. (2018); Lin & Wang (2012)



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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Affective</b></li> </ul>	
- Affective loyalty	Fu (2019)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Cognitive-affective</b></li> </ul>	
- Place attachment	Jiang et al. (2017)
- Satisfaction	Akhoondnejad (2016); Domínguez-Quintero, González-Rodríguez & Paddison (2019); Novello & Fernandez (2016); Park et al. (2019); Robinson & Clifford (2012)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Conative</b></li> </ul>	
- Conative loyalty/ Behavioural intentions (revisit and recommend)	Bryce et al. (2015); Castéran & Roederer (2013); Fu et al. (2018); Kim & Bonn (2016); Kolar & Zabkar (2010); Lin & Liu (2018); Ramkissoon & Uysal (2011); Robinson & Clifford (2012); Shen (2014); Yi et al. (2017); Yi et al. (2018)
- Expenditure	Brida, Disegna & Osti (2013); Castéran & Roederer (2013); Chhabra et al. (2003)
- Enthused participation (as a dimension of engagement)	Rather, Hollebeek, & Islam (2019)
- Engagement	Bryce et al. (2015)

Source: Own elaboration

Lastly, Table 9 provides an account of the limited number of studies that have assessed how authenticity perceptions impact the relationships between related concepts either as a mediating or a moderating variable. More specifically, authenticity was found to positively moderate the links between destination imagery, information-search behaviour and motivation and behavioural intention (Ramkissoon & Uysal, 2011). Scarpi et al. (2019) uncovered experience authenticity as a relevant moderator of the relationship between involvement and place attachment. Regarding its mediating role, Biraglia, Gerrath and Usrey (2018) found that authenticity mediates the link between company's altruistic motivations and visit intentions. Existential authenticity was also documented as exerting a

significant mediating effect on the relationship between destination images and place attachment (Jiang et al., 2017).

**Table 9. The moderating and mediating role of authenticity**

TYPE OF RELATIONSHIP	STUDIES YIELDING THE RELATIONSHIP
<b>MODERATOR</b>	
- Destination imagery → Behavioural intentions	Ramkissoon & Uysal (2011)
- Information-search behaviour → Behavioural intentions	Ramkissoon & Uysal (2011)
- Involvement → Place attachment	Scarpi et al. (2019)
- Motivation → Behavioural intentions	Ramkissoon & Uysal (2011)
<b>MEDIATOR</b>	
- Company's altruistic motivations → Intention to visit	Biraglia et al. (2018)
- Destination image → Place attachment	Jiang et al. (2017)

Source: Own elaboration

Overall, the findings of the literature review emphasise the emergence of authenticity as a key, though divergent, construct in understanding tourist behaviour. However, while the theoretical conceptualisation of authenticity has evolved from an object-based to an existential and postmodernist paradigm, it has been predominantly applied in heritage contexts, which are still object-focused. Thus, further research is needed to elucidate the interrelationships of authenticity perceptions with constructs underpinning tourist experience across different contexts.

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## Chapter 3. OUTCOMES OF SENSE OF PLACE

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This chapter focuses on the concepts of memorable tourism experiences and post-visit behavioural intentions as outcomes of sense of place. The chapter begins by delineating the theoretical foundation of the concept of memorable tourism experiences, which is followed by a literature review of tourism studies investigating the topic. The following subsections delineate the determinants and consequences of memorable tourism experiences, as documented by the extant research.

The second half of the chapter discusses post-visit behavioural intentions as the most relevant outcome of sense of place. The section first provides an account of the theoretical underpinnings of the concept, which are rooted in the notion of destination loyalty. The remaining part of the section discusses the determinants of post-visit behavioural intentions, as evidenced by a literature review of 195 academic articles, published in the main tourism peer-reviewed journals.

### 3.1. MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCE

#### 3.1.1. CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION

At the heart of Pine and Gilmore's (1999) conceptualization of the experience economy lies fostering a memorable experience outcome. Providing a satisfying quality service is no longer enough for consumers in the context of the new economic paradigm. Consumers nowadays are increasingly demanding unique and meaningful experiences, which leave lasting memories.

Over the past decade, the tourism literature has shown an increasing interest in studying the memorable tourism experience phenomenon (Kim, Ritchie, & Tung, 2010; Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Park & Santos, 2017; Tsai, 2016). However, consensus on its definition and operationalisation has not yet been reached. Oh et al. (2007) were the first to introduce the concept of memory in an empirical study guided by the experience economy framework. Their operationalisation of the term describes tourists' subjective evaluation of whether the experience is likely to be retained in the memory in the long term.

Another stream of researchers, though, have focused on elucidating the underlying components of a memorable tourism experience. One of the first attempts to identify what factors lead to converting a tourism experience in a memorable one is the seminal work of Tung and Ritchie (2011). Adopting a grounded approach, the study revealed four dimensions of memorable tourism experiences: affect, expectations, consequentiality and recollection. As for affect, the authors found that positive emotions were highlighted as core elements of memorable experiences. The component of fulfilled expectations and surprising events was also emphasised by respondents.

Consequentiality describes the personally perceived importance resulting from the tourist experience such as improved social relationships, self-discovery, intellectual development, and overcoming a physical challenge. Lastly, recollection refers to the actions performed by respondents to keep the memory alive (e.g. telling stories to others, showing photos, souvenir purchase).

A further attempt to characterise the nature of memorable tourism experiences was made by Kim, Ritchie and McCormick (2012). Drawing on the memory literature and a review of tourism studies examining tourism experiences, the authors developed a measurement scale of memorable tourism experiences composed of seven constituting dimensions: hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, and knowledge. Hedonism addresses the enjoyment of the experience, while refreshment refers to the feeling of relaxation and renewal as a result of the experience. Novelty relates to experiencing something new, unique and different from past experience. The “local culture” dimension refers to the contact with local people and thus getting closer to experiencing their culture. Meaningfulness addresses experiences that are important for the tourist in terms of personal significance and self-learning. Involvement is associated with the personal interest in the experience, whereas knowledge refers to the acquired new information as what makes an experience memorable. In short, the seven dimensions appointed by Kim et al. (2010, 2012) are viewed as the factors that are most likely to be remembered by tourists.

An alternative measure of memorable tourism experiences was proposed by Chandralal and Valenzuela (2015), who identified ten dimensions: authentic local experiences, novel experiences, self-beneficial experiences; significant

travel experiences, serendipitous and surprising experiences, local hospitality, social interactions, impressive local guides and tour operators, fulfilment of personal travel interests and affective emotions. While most of the elements reported by the authors have already been revealed by the discussed studies (Kim et al., 2012; Tung & Ritchie, 2011), the role of tour guides as fostering a memorable experience has not been emphasised by previous research. The authors maintain that guide's performance contributes to an enhanced memorability of the tourist experience not only in the case of group package tours, but also during sightseeing guided tours.

In view of the above, it can be concluded that the existing tourism literature has documented a wide range of factors that can trigger a memorable tourist experience. Table 10 provides a summary of the identified various definitions and conceptualisation approaches to memorable tourism experiences.

The existing conceptualisations have contributed to elucidating the essence of a memorable tourism experience and as such are applicable to any tourism context. However, Kim (2014) recognises that the identified components of a memorable tourism experience are difficult to be operationalised by destination managers. In order to assist DMOs, the author developed a scale for assessing the destination attributes that determine a memorable tourism experience. More specifically, the scale contains ten dimensions that contribute to a memorable destination experience: local culture, variety of activities, hospitality, infrastructure, environment management, accessibility, quality of service, physiography, place attachment, and superstructure.



**Table 10. Existing conceptualisation approaches to memorable tourism experiences**

<b>AUTHORS</b>	<b>DEFINITION</b>	<b>DIMENSIONS</b>
Chandralal & Valenzuela (2015)	Not provided	Authentic local experiences, novel experiences, self-beneficial experiences; significant travel experiences, serendipitous and surprising experiences, local hospitality, social interactions, impressive local guides and tour operators, fulfilment of personal travel interests and affective emotions.
Tung & Ritchie (2011)	Not provided	Affect, expectations, consequentiality, recollection
Kim et al. (2010; 2012)	A tourism experience positively remembered and recalled afterward the event has occurred	Hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, knowledge
Oh et al. (2007)	Tourists' subjective evaluation of whether the experience is likely to be retained in the memory in the long term	None

Source: Own elaboration

The increased research interest in memorable tourism experiences in the last decade has resulted in a growing body of literature addressing this phenomenon across various settings. Table 11 presents a review of past studies published in tourism journals, uncovering a diversity of adopted conceptual approaches.

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Table 11. Review of studies on memorable tourism experiences published in the main tourism journals

AUTHORS	CONCEPTUALISATION	CONTEXT	METHODOLOGY
Chen & Rahman (2018)	Multidimensional (following Kim et al. (2012))	Cultural tourism	Quantitative
Gohary et al. (2018)	Multidimensional (following Kim et al. (2012))	Eco-tourism destination	Quantitative
Agapito et al. (2017)	Memorability is described as the property of something that endures in long-term memory and is easily recalled in detail	Rural tourism	Qualitative
Kim (2018)	Following Kim et al. (2012)	Country destination	Quantitative
Semrad & Rivera (2018)	Recollection	Music festival	Quantitative
Shtapit (2018)	Multicomponent (warm and welcoming staff attitude, room comfort, location of the accommodation and breakfast)	Accommodation	Qualitative
Shtapit & Coudounaris (2018)	Following Kim et al. (2012)	Destination	Quantitative
Stone et al. (2018)	Multicomponent (food/drink consumed, location/setting, companions, the occasion, and touristic elements (e.g. novelty, authenticity))	Food tourism experiences	Qualitative
Zatori et al. (2018)	Following Oh et al. (2007)	Sightseeing tours	Quantitative
Zhang, Wu & Buhalis (2018)	Multidimensional (following Kim et al. (2012))	Destination	Quantitative
Campos et al. (2017)	Following Oh et al. (2007)	Animal theme park	Quantitative
Coudounaris & Shtapit (2017)	Multidimensional (following Kim et al. (2012))	Museum and zoo experiences	Quantitative

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Park & Santos (2017)	Multiphase approach that considers successive travel stages (e.g., pre-, during, and post travel)	Backpacker tourism	Qualitative
Ali, Ruy & Hussain (2016)	Following Oh et al. (2007)	Creative tourist activities	Quantitative
Campos et al. (2016)	Following Tung and Ritchie (2011) and Kim et al. (2012)	Animal theme park	Qualitative
Hung, Lee & Huang (2016)	Memorability as an attribute/characteristic of a conducted tourism activity	Creative tourist activities	Quantitative
Manthiou, Kang & Chiang (2016)	Recollection understood as how easily an experience can be recalled by making individuals "travel back in time" and relive the experience in their minds	Theme park	Quantitative
Tsai (2016)	Multidimensional (following Kim et al. (2012))	Local food experience	Quantitative
Chandralal & Valenzuela (2015)	Authentic local experiences, novel experiences, self-beneficial experiences; significant travel experiences, serendipitous and surprising experiences, local hospitality, social interactions, impressive local guides and tour operators, fulfilment of personal travel interests and affective emotions	Destination	Quantitative
Lee (2015)	Multidimensional (following Kim et al. (2012))	Culinary heritage site	Quantitative
Loureiro (2014)	Following Oh et al. (2007)	Rural tourism	Quantitative
Quadri-Felitti & Fiore (2013)	Following Oh et al. (2007)	Wine tourism	Quantitative
Kim et al. (2012)	Multidimensional (Hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, knowledge)	Tourism in general	Quantitative
Ballantyne, Packer & Sutherland (2011)	Multicomponent (Sensory impressions, emotional affinity, reflective response, behavioural response)	Wildlife tourism	Qualitative

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Tung & Ritchie (2011)	Affect, expectations, consequentiality, recollection	Tourism in general	Qualitative
Kim et al. (2010)	Multidimensional (following Kim et al. (2012))	Tourism in general	Quantitative
Kim (2010)	Multidimensional (following Kim et al. (2012))	Tourism in general	Quantitative
Oh et al. (2007)	Tourists' subjective evaluation of whether the experience is likely to be retained in the memory in the long term	Accommodation	Quantitative

Source: Own elaboration

The conducted review of the literature found 28 studies on memorable tourism experiences published in the period 2007-2019. The great majority of articles (more than 70%) have been published in the last five years, which suggests a burgeoning academic interest in the topic. The existing studies have not been consistent in conceptualising the memorable tourism experience phenomenon. Most of the studies acknowledge the multidimensional or multicomponent nature of the concept (e.g. Ballantyne et al., 2011; Shtapit & Coudounaris, 2018; Stone et al., 2018), usually adopting Kim's et al. (2012) measure (Chen & Rahman, 2018; Lee, 2015; Tsai, 2016; Zhang et al., 2018). Several studies have uncovered the experience components remembered by tourists in specific contexts such as wildlife tourism and accommodation. For example, Stone et al. (2018) revealed several factors influencing a memorable experience in the context of food tourism: food/drink consumed, location/setting, companions, the occasion, and touristic elements (e.g., novelty, authenticity).

Another stream of research has drawn on Oh's et al. (2007) operationalization of a memorable tourism experience (e.g. Ali et al., 2017; Campos et al., 2017; Loureiro, 2014; Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2013), which is associated with the likelihood of the experience to be stored in long-term memory. In a similar vein, some of the studies have used the "recollection" component of the memory construct (Manthiou et al., 2016; Semrad & Rivera, 2018), defined by the psychology literature as the easiness with which an experience can be recalled by making individuals "travel back in time" and relive the experience in their minds. Yet the work by Park & Santos (2017) puts forward an alternative perspective to inquiring memorable tourism experiences: a multiphase approach that considers successive travel stages (e.g., pre, during, and post travel) in identifying memorable elements.

The diverse theoretical approaches to the nature of memorable tourism experiences have been applied in a variety of contexts such as destination/tourism experiences in general (e.g. Kim et al., 2010, 2012; Shtapit & Coudounaris, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018), theme parks (e.g. Campos et al., 2017; Manthiou et al., 2016), rural tourism (e.g. Agapito et al., 2017; Loureiro 2014) and food tourism (e.g. Stone et al., 2018; Tsai, 2016), among others.

As for the employed methodologies, the use of quantitative techniques, mainly establishing structural relationships between memorable tourism experiences and its correlates (e.g. Ali et al., 2016; Hung et al., 2016; Kim, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018) have predominated over the qualitative studies, which have focused on exploring the underlying dimensions of memorable experiences in specific tourism settings (e.g. Agapito et al., 2017; Ballantyne et al. 2011; Shtapit, 2018).

### 3.1.2. ANTECEDENTS OF MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCES

A further analysis of the findings of the reviewed literature is presented in Table 12, containing an account of the antecedent variables of memorable tourism experiences as documented by extant empirical studies.

The four realms of the experience economy suggested by Pine and Gilmore (1999), i.e. entertainment, education, aesthetics and escapism, are the most widely studied determinants of memorable tourism experiences (Oh et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2012; Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2013; Semrad & Rivera, 2018). However, it should be noted that the contribution of the different experience domains is context- dependant, as for example, Quadri-Felitti and Fiore (2012) found that only two of them (education and aesthetics) had statistically significant influence on tourists' memories about their wine experience. Further sources of memorable tourism experiences relate to creative tourism

activities (Ali et al., 2016; Hung et al., 2016) and brand experiences (Manthiou et al., 2016).

**Table 12. Antecedents of memorable tourism experiences**

ANTECEDENT VARIABLES	STUDIES YIELDING THE RELATIONSHIP
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Types of experiences</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Four realms of the experience economy (entertainment, education, aesthetics, escapism)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	Oh et al. (2007), Kim et al. (2012), Loureiro (2014), Quadri-Felitti & Fiore (2013), Semrad & Rivera (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Creative experiences</li> </ul>	Ali et al. (2016); Hung et al. (2016)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Brand experiences</li> </ul>	Manthiou et al. (2016)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Cognitive</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Destination image</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	Zhang et al. (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Attention</li> </ul>	Campos et al. (2017)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Cognitive- affective</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Satisfaction</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	Manthiou et al. (2016)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Nostalgia</li> </ul>	Lee (2015)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Cognitive- conative</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Cultural contact</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	Chen & Rahman (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Experience involvement</li> </ul>	Campos et al. (2017), Zatori et al. (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Affective</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Pleasant arousal</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	Kim et al. (2012); Loureiro (2014)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Destination attributes</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Cultural inheritance</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	Lee (2015)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Culinary attraction</li> </ul>	Lee (2015)

Source: Own elaboration

On the cognitive level, evidence exists for the positive effect of destination image (Zhang et al., 2018) and attention (Campos et al., 2017) on experience memorability. Tourist satisfaction (Manthiou et al., 2016) and nostalgia (Lee, 2015) have also been identified as relevant determinants of memorable tourism experiences. Memorability is also derived from visitors' experience involvement (Campos et al., 2017; Zatori et al., 2018), as mediated by contact with local culture (Chen & Rahman, 2018). Affective states, such as positive arousal have been revealed as another component of the tourist experience

that enhances its memorability (Kim et al., 2012; Loureiro, 2014). Finally, some destination attributes such as cultural inheritance and culinary attraction have also been uncovered as central elements of memorable tourism experiences.

### 3.1.3. CONSEQUENCES OF MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCES

Regarding the outcomes of memorable tourism experiences, Table 13 displays a classification of the variables established as consequences of memorable tourism experiences by existing studies. In view of the results, it can be inferred that future behavioural intentions, encompassing revisit intention and intention to recommend, are the best documented outcomes of memorable tourism experiences (Ali et al., 2016; Chen & Rahman, 2018; Hung et al., 2016; Kim, 2018; Loureiro, 2014; Manthiou et al., 2016; Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2013; Semrad & Rivera, 2018; Tsai, 2016, Zhang et al., 2018). Interestingly, the rest of the variables identified as consequences of memorable tourism experiences have also been posited as precursors: destination image (Kim, 2018) satisfaction (Gohary et al., 2018; Kim, 2018; Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2013) and place attachment (Loureiro, 2014). The mixed findings might be explained by the relatively recent introduction of the concept in tourism studies, which requires further inquiry.

In summary, the tourism literature recognises that the importance of delivering memorable tourism experiences as a guarantee of tourist loyalty and destination and company's competitiveness under the experience economy paradigm. Nevertheless, the concept is yet elusive and context-dependent, with existing studies being incongruent in theorising its determinants and outcomes.



Table 13. Consequences of memorable tourism experiences

CONSEQUENCE VARIABLES	STUDIES YIELDING THE RELATIONSHIP
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Cognitive</b></li> <li>- Destination image</li> </ul>	Kim (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Cognitive-affective</b></li> <li>- Satisfaction</li> </ul>	Ali et al. (2016); Gohary et al. (2018); Kim (2018); Quadri-Felitti & Fiore (2013)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Subjective well-being</li> </ul>	Shtapit & Coudounaris (2018)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Place attachment</li> </ul>	Loureiro (2014); Tsai (2016)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Conative</b></li> <li>- Behavioural intentions (revisit intention and intention to recommend)</li> </ul>	Ali et al. (2016); Chen & Rahman (2018); Coudounaris & Shtapit (2017); Hung et al. (2016); Kim (2018); Kim et al. (2010); Loureiro (2014); Manthiou et al. (2016); Quadri-Felitti & Fiore (2013); Semrad & Rivera (2018); Tsai (2016); Zhang et al. (2018)

Source: Own elaboration

## 3.2. POST-VISIT DESTINATION BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

### 3.2.1. CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION

It is widely agreed that the primary pursuit of tourism experience providers (i.e. tourism services companies, destinations, attractions, etc.) is to achieve customer loyalty, as a guarantee for business success (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Oppermann, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Wu, 2016). Evidence suggests that loyal customers are not only more profitable for companies, when considering the costs associated with new customers' acquisition (Oliver, 1999), but may also perform the role of brand promoters through referrals made to potential customers (Gremler & Brown, 1999).

As defined by Oliver (1999, p. 34), loyalty is a "deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour". According to his conceptualisation, the formation of loyalty follows the cognition-affect-conation sequence. That is, consumers first become loyal because of the beliefs related to the brand (cognitive loyalty), then on the basis of repeated satisfactory purchase experiences, positive brand attitude is developed (affective loyalty). Finally, the two previous stages derive in conative loyalty, which involves commitment to the brand and is expressed in terms of intention to rebuy it.

In the destination context, loyalty has been a much debated topic since the seminal article of Oppermann (2000). Drawing on brand loyalty literature, the author distinguishes among three approaches to conceptualising destination loyalty: behavioural, attitudinal and composite (integrating both) (see Table 14). Traditionally, destination loyalty has been understood in line with the

behavioural perspective of loyalty, which describes the concept in terms of repeated visitation behaviour or intention to return (Alegre & Juaneda, 2006; Oppermann, 2000). However, this approach has received extensive criticism because the purchasing pattern metric might well reflect habitual behaviour or convenience, which does not involve conscious commitment to the brand (e.g. Day, 1969). As a result, attitudinal loyalty has been proposed as an essential building block of customer loyalty (Dick & Basu, 1994). Attitudinal loyalty refers to “liking”, a positive attitude which is reflected in the willingness to spread favourable word-of-mouth (Oppermann, 2000). Satisfaction, psychological attachment and engagement are also suggested as valid proxies of attitudinal loyalty (McKercher, Denizci-Guillet, & Ng, 2012). The third approach to understanding loyalty, the composite one, integrates behavioural and attitudinal components (Oppermann, 2000). Composite loyalty is the most commonly used framework in tourism destination research, encompassing intention to return and recommend (Zhang et al., 2014).

**Table 14. Classification of existing approaches to destination loyalty**

<b>Destination loyalty</b>	Behavioural	- Actual repeat visitation - Visit intention
	Attitudinal	- Satisfaction - Psychological attachment - Engagement - Willingness to recommend
	Composite	- Behavioural + Attitudinal

Source: Own elaboration based on Oppermann (2000) and McKercher et al. (2012)

Regardless of the plethora of tourism literature on loyalty, some scholars argue that the notion of consumer loyalty, as understood by mainstream

marketing studies, is not achievable in the travel industry given the nature of the tourism activity: wide variety of destinations, the intrinsic desire to visit different places, limited opportunities to travel per year, etc. (Chi, 2018; McKercher et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2018). In this regard, McKercher et al. (2012) proposes an alternative framework for the study of tourism loyalty differentiating among vertical, horizontal and experiential loyalty. Vertical loyalty refers to tourists' being loyal to several providers across the entire tourism system (e.g. an airline and a hotel), while horizontal loyalty involves loyalty to more than one provider in the same level of the tourism value chain (e.g. several destinations). Experiential loyalty, in turn, refers to a preferred holiday experience, including specific settings (e.g. seaside, rural areas, etc.) and styles (e.g. spa, nature-based, etc.). However, the loyalty perspectives proposed by McKercher et al. (2012) remain scarcely adopted by the extant tourism literature, with only few studies exploring horizontal destination loyalty (Almeida-Santana & Moreno-Gil, 2017, 2018).

A noteworthy aspect of extant research on destination loyalty is the inconsistency in labelling the phenomenon. While a large number of studies adopt the "destination loyalty" concept (e.g. Chen & Phou, 2013; Chi & Qu, 2008; Wu, 2016), alternative terminology has also been found: after-purchase behaviour (Bigné, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001), behavioural intentions (e.g. Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chen & Chen, 2010; Žabkar et al., 2010), future behaviour intentions (e.g. Bigné, Sánchez, & Sanz, 2009; Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2007) and destination brand loyalty (e.g. Kotsi, Pike, & Gottlieb, 2018; Bianchi & Pike 2011). Furthermore, some of the authors have centred on examining one particular destination loyalty component such as revisit intention (e.g. Campo-Martínez, Garau-Vadell, & Martínez-Ruiz, 2010; Jang & Feng, 2007; Um, Chon, & Ro, 2006) or positive word-of-mouth (intention to recommend) (e.g. Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Nam, Kim, & Hwang, 2016). These circumstances

hamper the integration of extant findings related to the formation of destination loyalty/behavioural intentions.

### 3.2.2. ANTECEDENTS OF DESTINATION POST-VISIT BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

Given the acknowledged differences between consumer loyalty as posited in the mainstream marketing and as adapted to the tourism field, it is essential to develop an understanding of the mechanisms underpinning loyalty to a travel destination. As suggested by Zhang et al. (2018), the determinants of tourist loyalty might differ from the established antecedents of brand loyalty in the broad marketing sense. For example, satisfaction, which is commonly accepted as a reliable indicator of consumer loyalty in the marketing literature (Bloemer & Kasper, 1995), does not always translate in destination loyalty due to tourists' wanderlust, long-distance travel, etc. (e.g. Bajs, 2015; Prayag, 2009; Sánchez-García et al., 2012). In this regard, Table 15 presents an account of the antecedents of destination loyalty/ tourists' behavioral intentions as established by tourism studies published in the most relevant journals in the field.

OUTCOMES OF SENSE OF PLACE

Table 15. Antecedents of destination loyalty/ behavioural intentions

ANTECEDENT CONSTRUCT	STUDIES YIELDING THE RELATIONSHIP
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Satisfaction</b></li> </ul>	<p>Al-Ansi &amp; Han (2019); Alegre &amp; Cladera (2006); Ali et al. (2016); Antón, Camarero, &amp; Laguna-García (2017); Barnes, Mattsson, &amp; Sørensen (2014); Bigné et al. (2001); Bigovic &amp; Prašnikar (2015); Blázquez-Resino, Molina, &amp; Esteban-Talaya (2015) ; Campón-Cerro, Hernández-Mogollón, &amp; Halves (2017); Castro et al. (2007); Chen &amp; Chen (2010); Chen &amp; Chou (2019); Chen &amp; Phou (2013); Chen &amp; Tsai (2007); Chi, Pan, &amp; Del Chiappa (2018); Chi &amp; Qu (2008); Del Bosque &amp; San Martín (2008); Faullant, Matzler, &amp; Füller (2008); Forgas-Coll et al. (2012); Gallarza &amp; Saura (2006); Gohary et al. (2018); Hall, O'Mahony, &amp; Gayler (2017); Hernández-Lobato et al. (2006); Hosany &amp; Gilbert (2010); Huang et al. (2014); Hui, Wan, &amp; Ho (2007); Kim (2008); Kim (2018); Kim, Holland,, &amp; Han (2013); Kim &amp; Park (2017); Kim &amp; Thapa (2018); Kuo et al. (2016); Lee et al. (2004); Lee et al. (2007); Lee et al (2012); Lee, Lee &amp; Lee (2005); Liu, Lin, &amp; Wang (2012) Martín-Santana, Beerli-Palacio, &amp; Nazzareno (2017); Meleddu et al. (2015); Meng &amp; Han (2018); Palau-Saumell et al. (2013); Palau-Saumell et al. (2016) ; Philips et al. (2013); Prayag (2009); Prayag &amp; Ryan (2012); Prayag, Hosany, &amp; Odeh (2013); Prebensen, Woo, &amp; Uysal (2014); Ribeiro et al. (2018); San Martin, Collado, &amp; Rodriguez del Bosque (2013); Sato et al. (2018); Song, Su, &amp; Li (2013); Stylidis, Belhassen, &amp; Shani (2017); Su et al. (2017); Sun et al. (2013); Wang &amp; Hsu (2010); Wu (2016); Xu, Jin, &amp; Lin (2018); Yoon &amp; Uysal (2005); Yuan &amp; Jang (2008); Yuksel et al. (2010); Žabkar et al. (2010)</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Destination image</b></li> <li>- Destination personality</li> </ul>	<p>Bianchi &amp; Pike (2011); Bigné et al. (2001); Bigné et al. (2009); Cai, Wu &amp; Bai (2003); Campón-Cerro et al. (2017); Castro et al. (2007); Chen &amp; Tsai (2007); Del Bosque &amp; San Martín (2008); Deng &amp; Li (2014); Faullant et al. (2008); Hernández-Lobato et al. (2006); Kim (2018); Kotsi et al. (2018); Lee (2009); Palau-Saumell et al. (2016); Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou, &amp; Kaplanidou (2015); Phillips et al. (2013); Prayag (2009); Song et al. (2013); Stylidis et al. (2017); Stylos &amp; Bellou (2018); Vigolo (2015); Wu (2016)</p> <p>Apostolopoulou &amp; Papadimitriou (2015); Pan et al. (2017); Usakli &amp; Baloglu (2011); Xie &amp; Lee (2013)</p>

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- Destination fascination	Liu et al. (2017)
• Place attachment	Abou-Shouk et al. (2017); Alexandris et al. (2006); Brown et al. (2016); Chen & Chou (2019); Chen & Phou (2013), Hosany et al. (2017); Kil et al. (2012); Line et al. (2018); Lee et al. (2012); Loureiro (2014); Luo et al. (2016); Mechinda et al. (2009); Patwardhan et al. (2019); Prayag & Ryan (2012); Scarpi et al. (2019); Tsai (2012), (2016); Wang et al. (2019); Wong & Lai (2015); Xu & Zhang (2016); Yi et al. (2018); Yuksel et al. (2010)
• Perceived value	Bianchi & Pike (2011); Chekalina, Fuchs, & Lexhagen (2018); Chen & Chen (2010); Dedeoğlu, Balıkçioğlu, & Küçükerşin (2016); Forgas-Coll et al. (2012); Gallarza & Saura (2006); Kim et al. (2013); Kotsi et al. (2018); Mechinda et al. (2009); Song et al. (2013); Xu, Wong, & Tan (2016)
• Authenticity	Bryce et al. (2015); Castéran & Roederer (2013); Fu et al. (2018); Fu (2019); Kim & Bonn (2016); Kolar & Zabkar (2010); Lin & Liu (2018); Ramkissoon & Uysal (2011); Robinson & Clifford (2012); Shen (2014); Yi et al. (2017), Yi et al. (2018)
• Memorable tourism experience	Ali et al. (2016), Chen & Rahman (2018), Coudounaris & Shtapit (2017), Hung et al. (2016), Kim (2018), Kim et al. (2010), Loureiro (2014), Manthiou et al. (2016), Quadri-Felitti & Fiore (2013), Semrad & Rivera (2018), Tsai (2016), Zhang et al. (2018)
• Quality	Bigné et al. (2001); Bigovic & Prašnikar (2015); Campón-Cerro et al. (2017); Castro et al. (2007); Herrero, San Martín, & Collado (2017); Kim et al. (2013); Kladou & Kehagias (2014); Lee, Graefe & Burns (2004); Kotsi et al. (2018); Stylidis et al. (2017); Žabkar et al. (2010)
• Trust	Al-Ansi & Han (2019); Blázquez-Resino et al. (2015); Chen & Phou (2013); Su, Hsu & Marshall (2014); Su, Hsu & Swanson (2017); Yuksel et al. (2010)
• Destination emotions/ Affect	Del Bosque & San Martín (2008); Lee et al. (2005); Prayag et al. (2013); Hosany & Gilbert (2010); Hosany et al. (2015); Su et al. (2014)
• Past visits/ familiarity	Alegre & Cladera (2006); Antón et al. (2017); Mechinda et al. (2009); San Martín et al. (2013); Stylos & Bellou (2018)

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• <b>Congruity</b>	Bosnjak et al. (2011); Chen, Peng & Hung (2015); Chi et al. (2018); Liu et al. (2012), Usakli & Baloglu (2011);
• <b>Motivation</b>	Mechinda et al. (2009); Prayag (2012); Sato et al. (2018); Yoon & Uysal (2005)
• <b>Involvement</b>	Lee, Graefe, & Burns (2007); San Martin et al. (2013)
• <b>Sociodemographic characteristics</b>	Mechinda et al. (2009); Tasci (2017)
• <b>Emotional solidarity with residents</b>	Patwardhan et al. (2019); Ribeiro et al. (2018)
• <b>Brand love</b>	Lee & Hyun (2016)
• <b>Cultural difference</b>	Chen & Gursoy (2001)
• <b>Sensory impressions</b>	Agapito et al. (2017)
• <b>Subjective wellbeing</b>	Wang et al. (2019)
• <b>Attitude</b>	Deng & Li (2014)
• <b>Flow experience</b>	Kim & Thapa (2018)

Note: The review includes an exhaustive account of all the articles on destination loyalty/behavioural intentions published in the top five tourism journals according to the Social Science Citation Index (2017): *Annals of Tourism Research*, *Tourism Management*, *Journal of Travel Research*, *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, and *Current Issues in Tourism*. Besides, influential destination loyalty articles (as per number of citations) published in other peer-reviewed indexed journals have also been included in the study.

Source: Own elaboration



As evident in Table 15, the literature on the determinants of destination loyalty, published since the beginning of the century, is vast. Among the wide range of identified antecedents, satisfaction is revealed as the most widely established driver of tourist destination loyalty with more than sixty studies verifying the positive association between the two constructs (e.g. Alegre & Cladera, 2006; Bigné et al., 2001; Chen & Chou, 2019; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Del Bosque & San Martín, 2008; Gallarza & Saura, 2006; Su et al., 2017; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Yuksel et al., 2010). Accordingly, the more satisfactory the overall destination experience is, the more likely tourists are to recommend and revisit it.

Table 15 also uncovers an abundance of studies documenting the positive impact of destination image on future behavioural intentions (e.g. Bigné et al., 2009; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Deng & Li, 2014; Faullant et al., 2008; Hernández-Lobato et al., 2006; Kim, 2018; Kotsi et al., 2018; Palau-Saumell et al., 2016; Phillips et al., 2013; Styliadis et al., 2017; Stylos & Bellou, 2018). The literature has established that favourable impressions, evaluations and affective appraisal regarding a travel destination contribute to destination loyalty. Variables akin to destination image such as destination personality (Apostolopoulou & Papadimitriou, 2015; Pan et al., 2017; Usakli & Baloglu, 2011; Xie & Lee, 2013) and fascination (Liu et al., 2017) have also been reported as drivers of future behavioural intentions.

There also appear to be a strong association between place attachment and destination loyalty, as already discussed in section 1.4.3 of the thesis (Hosany et al., 2017; Kil et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2012, Loureiro, 2014; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Scarpi et al., 2019; Tsai, 2012; Wang et al., 2019; Xu & Zhang, 2016; Yi et al., 2018; Yuksel et al., 2010). The evidence suggests that the development of

an emotionally-driven sense of identification with and dependence on a destination is influential in tourists' intentions to revisit and recommend it.

As depicted in Table 15, the number of tourism studies documenting the positive relationship between perceived destination value and loyalty is also prominent (e.g. Bianchi & Pike, 2011; Chen & Chen, 2010; Forgas-Coll et al., 2012; Gallarza & Saura, 2006; Kim et al., 2013; Kotsi et al., 2018; Mechinda et al., 2009; Song et al., 2013). The overall appraisal of a destination in terms of its perceived functional (e.g. tourist facilities, attractions, quality of tourist services, etc.), social (e.g. an enhanced self-image; social status) and emotional value (e.g. generated joy, happiness during the destination visit) positively influences tourists' future behavioural intentions.

Another variable that emerges as an important antecedent of destination loyalty is authenticity, which has already been examined in section 2.2. A large number of recent studies recognizes that the more authentic a destination experience or its attractions are perceived, the more likely tourists are to revisit it and spread positive word of mouth about it (e.g. Bryce et al., 2015; Fu et al., 2018; Fu, 2019; Kim & Bonn, 2016; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; Lin & Liu, 2018; Ramkissoon & Uysal, 2011; Yi et al., 2018).

Table 15 also evidences that memorable tourism experiences constitute another relevant factor triggering destination loyalty. As already acknowledged in section 3.1.2, there is a large range of aspects that condition the memorability of a destination experience, which has been found to foster tourists' likelihood to return to that place and recommend it to others (e.g. Ali et al., 2016; Chen & Rahman, 2018; Hung et al., 2016; Kim, 2018; Loureiro, 2014; Manthiou et al., 2016; Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2013; Tsai, 2016; Zhang et al., 2018).

Perceived destination quality has also been extensively investigated as a determinant of destination loyalty (e.g. Bigné et al., 2001; Bigovic & Prašnikar, 2015; Campón-Cerro et al., 2017; Castro et al., 2007; Kladou & Kehagias, 2014; Lee et al., 2004; Kotsi et al., 2018; Stylidis et al., 2017; Žabkar et al., 2010). In other words, tourists' evaluation regarding the expected performance of the services they experienced during the destination visit (e.g. accommodation, transport, food, attractions) affects their future behavioural intentions.

In addition, past studies have also recognised trust as an antecedent of destination loyalty (e.g. Al-Ansi & Han, 2019; Blázquez-Resino et al., 2015; Chen & Phou, 2013; Yuksel et al., 2010). Given the intangible nature of tourism experiences, tourists' willingness to rely on the ability of the destination to perform its functions (Chen & Phou, 2013) is regarded as paramount in encouraging loyalty.

The emotions/affective states elicited during a destination visit are another relevant determinant of tourists' future behavioural intentions (Del Bosque & San Martín, 2008; Lee et al., 2005; Prayag et al., 2013; Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Hosany et al., 2015; Su et al., 2014). More specifically, experienced joy, positive surprise and love, posited as components of the destination emotion scale (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010), have been revealed as triggers of destination loyalty.

As can be seen in Table 15, further antecedents of destination loyalty include familiarity/past visits (Alegre & Cladera, 2006; Antón et al., 2017; Mechinda et al., 2009; San Martín et al., 2013; Stylos & Bellou, 2018), congruity (Bosnjak et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2015; Chi et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2012, Usakli & Baloglu, 2011), motivation (Mechinda et al., 2009; Prayag, 2012; Sato et al., 2018; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) and involvement, among others (Lee et al., 2007; San Martín et al., 2013). Recent studies have also empirically demonstrated emotional

solidarity with residents (Patwardhan et al., 2019; Ribeiro et al., 2018), sensory impressions (Agapito et al., 2017), subjective wellbeing (Wang et al., 2019) and flow experience (Kim & Thapa, 2018) as important predictors of destination loyalty.

In light of the above, it can be concluded that investigating destination loyalty or tourists' behavioural intentions toward a visited destination has been a continuing concern within the tourism field. However, as acknowledged by McKercher et al. (2012) there are "simply too many intervening factors" (p. 729), which do not hold across the existing wide variety of tourism contexts. This assertion, together with the problematic application of loyalty in the tourism domain, makes the topic central to the tourism literature.

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## Chapter 4. THE GUIDED TOUR EXPERIENCE

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This chapter examines the guided tour experience as a key component of a destination visit. The chapter begins by delineating the concept of tour guiding, followed by a discussion of the main roles performed by a tour guide, as established by previous literature.

The second section looks at tour guide's emotional labour associated with the concept of emotional intelligence, as an essential but underresearched aspects of tour guiding.

The third section of the chapter conceptualises the process of emotional value co-creation between tour guides and tour members drawing on customer-dominant logic (CDL). The section starts by reviewing the tenets of CDL, as compared to the service-dominant logic (SDL) perspective. Thereafter, the CDL logic is applied to the context of the study through the concepts of emotional participation and emotional value.

#### 4.1. TOUR GUIDING CONCEPTUALISATION

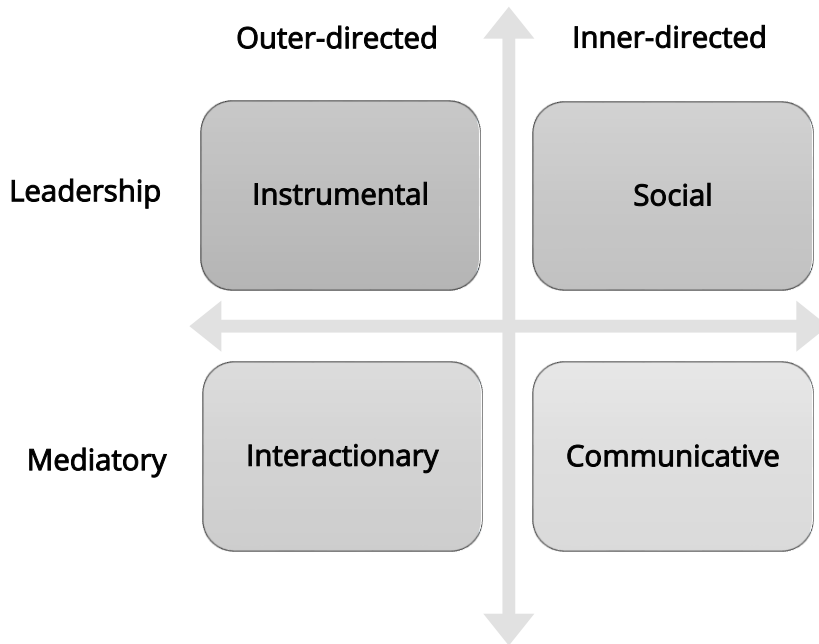
Tour guiding is a pivotal component of the tourism system, with guides' interpretation playing a key role in tourists' destination experience. A guided tour is defined as "all forms of tourism where the itinerary is fixed and known beforehand, and which involve some degree of planning and direct participation by agents apart from the tourists themselves" (Schmidt, 1979, p. 441). Undoubtedly, the most essential element of a tour service is the guide persona, who is often referred to as the "tour guide", "tourist guide", "tour leader" and "tour manager" (Weiler & Black, 2014). The World Federation Tourist Guide Associations (2019) provides the following definition of a tour guide: "a person who guides visitors in the language of their choice and interprets the cultural and natural heritage of an area which person normally possesses an area-specific qualification, usually issued and/or recognized by the appropriate authority".

The seminal article of Cohen (1985) is one of the earliest works discussing the multifaceted roles of tour guiding. The author classifies guide's functions into four groups based on the distinction between a leadership and a mediatory role. The two identified spheres of guiding, in turn, can be outer and inner-directed, i. e. oriented toward the tour group (inner) and outside of it (outer). Accordingly, the proposed framework encompasses the following guide's functions: instrumental, social, interactionary and communicative (see Figure 8). The instrumental guide's role represents an outer-directed leadership function, involving navigation and physical access to the toured area. The social role of the guide also falls into the leadership sphere, but implies responsibility for the cohesion of the group, tension-management and animation. The mediatory domain of tour guiding is divided into interactionary and communicative function. While the former focuses on facilitating the contact between tourists and local population and facilities,



the latter relates to information-giving and interpretation. The communicative role is viewed as the most critical among the four identified functions. The author argues that distinguished interpretation skills are the essence of the “professional guide”.

Figure 8. Tour guide’s roles



Source: Adapted from Cohen (1985)

The classification proposed by Cohen (1985) paved the way for further works on tour guide roles. However, Weiler and Davis (1993) detected an important limitation of the four-cell framework: it fails to consider the impact of tour guiding on local communities and destinations. Hence, the authors extended Cohen’s framework including an additional guiding sphere: resource management, focused on the host environment in a nature-based tourism context. The role of the guide in this domain is on the one hand, to assure that visitors act responsibly toward the destination, and, on the other, to enhance their appreciation of the site through interpretation.

More recently, a third attempt to structure the multiple roles of tour guides has been made by Tsaur and Teng (2017). Given that extant frameworks did not offer a specific tool for evaluating tour guiding styles, the authors developed a measurement scale for their assessment. The TLGS (tour leader guiding style) scale further extends Cohen's (1985) framework by adding two additional roles: dealing with emergency and care.

Regardless of the various existing approaches to the classification of the multifaceted functions of tour guiding, it has been suggested that the modern guide's role is evolving from being mainly instrumental, one-way communicator into a co-creator of the tourist experience (Hansen & Mossberg, 2017; Houge Mackenzie & Kerr, 2017; Weiler & Black, 2015; Zátori, 2016). The expanded function of tour guides is underpinned by the embracement of the experience economy paradigm by the tourism industry (Weiler & Black, 2015).

In light of the new role of twenty-first century tour guides, Weiler and Walker (2014) contend that guides broker experiences through four means: physical access, encounters, understanding and emotion. By physical access, the authors do not refer only to guides' navigating function, but also include their role in staging the experience by showing visitors the "front stage" of the toured site. Furthermore, guides can create opportunities for visitors to experience local food or music (Weiler & Yu, 2007), which contributes to enhance their sensory engagement as a relevant experience component. Tour guides also mediate encounters by facilitating interactions among tour group members and serving as a bridge between local communities and visitors (Hansen & Mossberg, 2017). The co-creation element in these activities can be found in the way guides foster the active participation of tour members in both intragroup and interpersonal interactions. For example,

Houge Mackenzie and Kerr (2017) revealed that playing cards with locals contributed to an optimal experience for both, tourists and residents. As far as member-to-member interactions are concerned, an ethnographic study conducted by Sharpe (2005) documented guides' role in encouraging interaction and openness among tour participants in an attempt to enhance the cohesion of the group.

The third way in which guides broker tourist experiences is through mediating understanding of the toured places. This specific role is associated with interpretation skills and has been the most researched area in the tour guiding literature (e.g. Bryon, 2012; Kuo et al., 2016; Reisinger & Steiner, 2006; Xu et al., 2013). In this respect, a paramount guide function is to mediate cultural understanding (Scherle & Nonnenmann, 2008; Yu, Weiler, & Ham, 2002). For example, the contribution of tour guide's cultural mediation to visitors' experience was elucidated by Weiler and Yu (2007), in which the inquired tour members reported the acquired deeper understanding about the Australian society, cultural values and lifestyles as the most memorable aspect of their guided trip to the country. However, understanding goes beyond transferring information or knowledge, as tourists "rather than being empty vessels into which information is poured, should be viewed as co-creators of interpretive experiences" (Weiler, Skibins, & Markwell, 2016, p. 237). Discussing co-creation in guided tours, Hansen and Mossberg (2017) contend that tour guide's performance should not be limited to delivering service quality, but centred on meaning creation. In line with this proposition and the experience economy wave, Bryon (2012) highlights the role of guides' storytelling skills in providing a meaningful tourist experience, based on sharing and co-creating meaning instead of "telling tourism facts".

The last and least investigated domain of guide's brokering of tour experiences relates to transmitting empathy and emotions (Weiler & Walker, 2014). During guided tours, visitors can experience several types of affective outcomes. First, evidence exists for the generation of positive feelings and improved attitude toward the toured sites as a result of participation in guided tours (e.g. Alexiou, 2018; Huang et al., 2015; Io, 2013; Weiler & Ham, 2010; Weiler & Smith, 2009). For example, Alexiou (2018) revealed that taking part in a guided tour triggered mostly positive feelings in tour members such as excitement, positive surprise and amazement. Furthermore, Weiler and Ham (2010) identified the formation of positive attitude toward heritage as a relevant component of the affective outcomes of a guided tour. Also, past studies suggest that tour guides' interpretation can create empathy for local communities (e.g. Cook, 2016; Laing & Frost, 2019; Modlin, Alderman, & Gentry, 2011) or endangered species (Jacobs & Harms, 2014). The described affective results in tour members are dependent upon guide's emotional labour (Carnicelli-Filho, 2013; Van Dijk, Smith, & Cooper, 2011; Wong & Wang, 2009). However, despite its importance, this domain of tour guiding remains scarcely addressed by extant tourism literature.

### **4.2. THE EMOTIONAL LABOUR OF TOUR GUIDES**

The emotionally-demanding nature of tour guiding has increasingly been acknowledged and addressed by the literature (Alrawadieh et al., 2019; Mathisen, 2019; Tsaur & Ku, 2017; Van Dijk et al., 2011; Wijeratne et al., 2014). The concept of emotional labour, defined as "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (Hochschild, 1983, p. 7), is key in understanding the affective facet of the guide's job (Sharpe, 2005). Emotional labour is an activity that (i) takes place during interactions with customers; (ii) seeks a response in others in the form of generated emotions,

attitudes and behaviours; and (iii) requires the display of emotions according to established rules (Wong & Wang, 2009). In general, there are two emotional labour-based strategies that tour guides can adopt: deep acting and surface acting (Mathisen, 2019; Van Dijk et al., 2011). Surface acting refers to the modification of facial expressions so as to resemble the expected affective states (Grandey, 2003), which has been equated to displaying “fake emotions” (Wong & Wang, 2009). In contrast, deep acting is defined as a situation in which the person manages to adapt his/her inner feelings to match the emotions required for the given situation (Grandey, 2003). The two types of acting also differ in the impact they produce on visitors. Van Dijk et al. (2011) demonstrated that while perceived deep acting is positively associated with visitors’ elaboration, attitude toward conservation, word-of-mouth intention and overall evaluation of the interpretation, surface acting yields the opposite effect. A possible explanation of these findings can be that deep acting resembles the authentic emotional expressions expected by tour members and as such produces positive outcomes. However, when visitors’ suspect that the emotions displayed by the guides are not genuinely felt (i.e. surface acting), the supposedly positive impact of tour guiding becomes negative. Hence, displaying emotions that are consistent with visitors’ expectations is crucial for delivering an optimal tour guide experience.

Previous studies have identified guide’s emotional intelligence as essential for eliciting an emotional response in tour members (Io, 2013; Min, 2012; Tsaur & Ku, 2019). The term “emotional intelligence” was introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990), who described it as “the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions” (p. 189). The concept has been approached either as an ability (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Mayer,

Caruso, & Salovey, 1998, 2016) or as a personality trait (also referred to as the mixed emotional intelligence model) (Goleman, 1995; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). The theoretical stance that views emotional intelligence as a skill puts forward four integrating dimensions: emotions perception, emotions generation, emotions understanding and emotions regulation (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). According to this conceptualisation, the most basic ability is related to appraisal of emotions, while the most advanced component of emotional intelligence relates to the conscious regulation of emotions for the promotion of intellectual and emotional growth.

On the other hand, the supporters of the mixed framework maintain that emotional intelligence is underpinned by both, cognitive abilities and personality characteristics (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Thus, for example, Bar-On (1997) includes mood as a component of emotional intelligence, together with intrapersonal and interpersonal skills such as emotional self-awareness and empathy. Later on, Goleman (1995) suggests that emotional intelligence manifests not only through knowing one's emotions, recognizing them in others and managing emotional relationships as a result, but also through self-motivation. In spite of the variety of existing perspectives on the nature of emotional intelligence, Ciarrochi, Chan and Caputi (2000) argue that the theoretical stances rather than contradictory, can be viewed as complementary.

The first study to assess the notion of emotional intelligence in the tour-guiding domain was conducted by Min (2011). Later on, adopting the ability-based model of emotional intelligence, the author developed a measure of guides' emotional skills encompassing six dimensions: assertion, drive strength, time management, commitment ethic, change orientation and stress management (Min, 2012). Assertion describes the ability to confidently

communicate one's feelings to another person, whereas drive strength refers to the ability of directing energy and motivation into the desired personal goals. Regarding the time management dimension, it is defined as the ability to effectively manage time as a resource. Commitment ethic is understood as the ability to finish tasks successfully even in difficult circumstances, while change orientation is equated with one's willingness for change. Lastly, stress management refers to the ability to maintain self-control under stressful conditions.

The review of the extant body of literature on tour guiding and emotional intelligence reveals that only few studies have addressed the topic so far (Io, 2013; Min 2010, 2011, 2012, 2014; Min & Peng, 2012; Tsaur & Ku, 2019). The greatest part of the conducted research concentrates on inquiring tour guides about their emotional competencies (Min, 2010, 2011; Min & Peng, 2012) and their association with job stress and quality of life (Min, 2014). Interestingly, and despite the widely recognized relevance of guide's emotional skills in eliciting positive tourist outcomes, empirical studies assessing this proposition are scarce. Based on observation data, Io (2013) found that guide's emotional intelligence contributes to instigating positive emotions and satisfaction in tour members. Furthermore, Tsaur and Ku (2019) revealed that tour leader's emotional intelligence enhances visitors' positive affect, improves tour leader-member rapport and contributes to greater satisfaction with the guide. However, those efforts in elucidating the role of tour guide's emotional intelligence in tourists' experience are only incipient and further research is needed.

The marketing literature establishes that service employees' expression of emotions can instigate corresponding affective states in customers during a service interaction (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006; Lin & Lin, 2011; Pugh, 2001).

The transfer of emotions from one person to another is explained by the emotional contagion theory (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). The process of emotional contagion can be described as “the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize facial expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally” (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1992, p. 153). Hence, the theory proposes that sender’s display of emotions will produce similar response in the recipient, even unconsciously. The affective outcomes resulting from the ripple effect created by emotional contagion have been addressed by varying terms such as affect, emotions, feelings and moods, often used interchangeably. Although consensus on the differences among the aforementioned concepts has not yet been reached (Gross, 2010), a widely used conceptualisation is the one put forward by Cohen and Areni (1991). The authors define affect as an internal valenced feeling state, which integrates emotions and mood. A further differentiation among the terms is that emotions are intense in nature and stimulus-dependent (e.g. joy, anger), while moods are generally low in intensity, more enduring and may lack a conscious source (e.g. depressed; relaxed) (Cohen & Areni, 1991; Cohen, Pham, & Andrade, 2008). In line with this theorisation, Gross (2010) also posits affect as a superordinate concept with attitudes, moods and emotions representing a lower-order affective states. Although affective states can either be positively or negatively valenced, service organisations usually seek the generation of pleasant feelings as a result of employee-customer interactions (Lo, Wu, & Tsai, 2015; Tsaur, Luoh, & Syue, 2015; Yüksel, 2007).



### 4.3. EMOTIONAL VALUE CO-CREATION IN THE TOUR GUIDE-VISITOR INTERACTION

The emotional management of a service encounter has mostly been viewed and studied as a responsibility and function of the provider (e.g. Chen, Chang, & Wang, 2019; Kim et al., 2012; Lee & Hwang, 2016; Tsai, 2009). However, the dyadic nature of a service interaction requires the participation of the service receiver and therefore, the exchange of emotions between employee and customer (Bailey, Gremler, & McCollough, 2001; Tumbat, 2011). Recently, in the context of tourism experiences, tourists' emotions have been suggested as a key resource in the process of value creation, thus challenging the traditional company-driven perspective of value (Malone et al., 2018). This proposition draws on the theoretical tenets of customer-dominant logic (CDL) (Heinonen et al., 2010; Heinonen & Strandvik, 2015), which emphasises a customer-based approach to understanding value creation.

Initially, under the goods-dominant logic (GDL), value has been viewed as embedded in the manufactured items, ignoring the service components of the offering. The service-dominant logic (SDL) (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2008), by contrast, shifts the focus from tangible outputs to "intangibility, exchange processes and relationships" (p. 2). According to the SDL perspective, value is created through the use of operand and operant resources. The operand resources are those that produce an effect when an action is performed upon them (e.g. factors of production: natural resources, goods or raw materials). In contrast, operant resources represent the intangibles (e.g. skills, knowledge) that are employed on the operand ones in order to produce an effect. Under the service-centered view of marketing, customers are viewed as operant resources, who deploy their skills and knowledge to co-create value with the provider. While the SDL approach acknowledges customers'

role in creating value, it is grounded in a provider-dominant view, as it refers to customers being involved in the value creation process, which revolves around firm’s value proposition. Building further on this theoretical framework, the CDL offers an alternative approach, in which customers “dominate and control the value creation” (Heinonen & Strandvik, 2015, p. 474). Accordingly, the CDL perspective proposes understanding value through the lens of the customer by exploring how customers use service providers’ input to form “value in use”. The supporters of the CD logic place the customer as the focal point of the value creation rather than the service. Table 16 depicts the main differences between the theoretical tenets of the provider-dominant logic and the customer-dominant perspective in terms the process of value creation, the control over it, the offering/outcome and the value-in-use.

**Table 16. Comparison between provider-dominant and customer-dominant logic**

	<b>PROVIDER-DOMINANT LOGIC</b>	<b>CUSTOMER-DOMINANT LOGIC</b>
<b>Process</b>	Value is created based on a structured evaluation	Value is formed based on an emerging process
<b>Control</b>	Company controls co-creation	Customer controls value creation
<b>Offering/ outcome</b>	Value is based on customer perceptions of company-created value propositions	Value is based on the experiences of customer fulfilment
<b>Value-in-use</b>	Focus on visible interactions	Also considers invisible and mental actions

Source: Based on Heinonen et al. (2010) and Heinonen et al. (2013)

Unlike the provider-dominant GDL and SDL perspectives, which maintain that value is created in a structured act of co-production, CDL puts forward the proposition that value formation might even be unconscious, emerging from customers’ behavioural and mental processes upon experience interpretation. Hence, and in contrast to the SDL view, CDL argues that value

creation is not orchestrated by the service provider, but it is the customer who exerts control on the process. Furthermore, according to the customer-dominant logic, value is not related to customers' perceptions of the company's offerings, but is defined in terms of the outcome the customer gets out of the interaction with the provider. Finally, while the provider-dominant logics understand value-in-use as rooted in visible interactions, the CDL broadens this understanding including customers' non-interactive actions, such as mental activity.

Extant tourism research on value creation has generally adopted the SDL model, focusing on tourists' involvement in the co-creation of value as offered by the service provider (e.g. FitzPatrick et al., 2013; Shaw, Bailey, & Williams, 2011; Rong-Da Liang, 2017). However, Malone et al. (2018) emphasises the need to investigate how tourists use their resources to co-create value from a customer-dominant logic perspective, highlighting the particular role of emotions as an underexplored area of the value co-creation process. Importantly, the co-production of emotional labour in a service encounter has been posited as an antecedent of emotional value (Bailey et al., 2001), defined as the benefits derived from the feelings or affective states (i.e., enjoyment or pleasure) triggered by an experience (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Although past research has explored emotional labour from employee's point of view, Tumbat (2011) demonstrated that the co-creation of a service experience also involves the emotional contribution of customers. The findings of the study challenge the established emotional asymmetry between service provider and customer, documenting that the active emotional participation of the customer is essential in the co-construction of the service experience. Acknowledging the importance of customer emotional participation in co-creating services, Li and Hsu (2017) developed the customer participation scale, encompassing an emotional

component together with actions and information. The emotional participation dimension describes emotions and attitudes that customers develop toward employees/firms in service interactions (e.g., showing friendliness and courtesy). However, the proposed measurement instrument is underpinned by service-dominant logic and assesses customer participation as perceived by employees, thus neglecting the customer's perspective.

The new understanding of value co-creation proposed by the customer-dominant logic has only recently been adopted by a small number of empirical tourism studies (Bianchi, 2019; Rihova et al., 2018; Malone et al., 2018). For example, Bianchi (2019) examined value co-creation behaviours emerging from customer-to-customer interactions in recreational dance experiences through the lens of customer-dominant logic. Another study drawing on CDL assessed the value outcomes of customer-to-customer co-creation practices in a festival setting (Rihova et al., 2018). Existing research grounded in customer-dominant logic have used phenomenological approaches (e.g. Malone et al., 2018; Tynan, McKechnie, & Hartley, 2014), whereas postpositivist approaches to understanding emotional value creation from the customer's perspectives are lacking.

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## Part II. THEORETICAL MODEL AND METHODOLOGY



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## Chapter 5. THEORETICAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

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This chapter introduces two theoretical models to meet the objectives of the thesis stated in the Introduction section of the thesis. Grounded in the literature review of the variables discussed in Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4 the hypotheses of the theoretical models are developed. The first model attempts to explain the destination experience of independent cruise visitors who organise the visit on their own, while the second one focuses on cruise passengers who have purchased a guided tour. More specifically, the second model uses the first one as a base-line, on which the role of the guided experience is incorporated.

The first section of the chapter presents the hypotheses related to the relationships between sense of place and its antecedents. The following section introduces the hypotheses referred to the consequences of sense of place, while the last section outlines those related with the underpinning mechanisms of emotional value co-creation in the tour guided destination experience.

## 5.1. HYPOTHESES ON THE ANTECEDENTS OF SENSE OF PLACE

### 5.1.1. HYPOTHESIS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DESTINATION'S SENSESCAPE AND SENSE OF PLACE

As acknowledged in Chapter 1, sense of place formation can be influenced by a wide range of variables, as well as tangible and intangible destination attributes. Nevertheless, the review of the literature on the construct of sense of place revealed a newly developed perspective to its conceptualisation, grounded in affordance theory (Raymond et al., 2017) (see section 1.3). The suggested bottom-up view of sense of place formation focuses on the contribution of the sensory dimensions of a place experience (i.e. sight, taste, smell, touch and hearing). More specifically, this conceptualisation posits that the environment provides sufficient information in the form of sensory stimuli for the individual to perceive the possibilities of action available at a certain place without engaging in complex top-down processing. Applying this approach to the destination's context and building on Milligan's (1998) "interactional potential" argument, Chen et al. (2014) maintain that place expectation can also determine the development of place attachment. That is, tourists can develop a sense of place even after a short period of interaction, if they perceive that the destination lend itself to envisioning future experiences that are deemed as possible in a place.

This argument is also supported by McGill's (1992), who suggests that individuals tend to rely on the information obtained through the senses (referred to as bottom-up processing) for evaluation purposes especially when previous experience or information is lacking or under time pressure circumstances. This is particularly valid for cruise visitors, who have not only time constraints, but also often disembark with little or no previous

knowledge about the port of call destinations (Brida et al., 2012; Thyne et al., 2015).

Although this new theoretical stance to understanding sense of place has not yet been quantitatively verified, an ethnographic study conducted by Campelo (2017) documents the influence of sensory experiences on the creation of sense of place. Her results are consistent with the sensory marketing framework, which, as already discussed, recognizes that the starting point of one's experience with a place is the sensory information perceived from the environment.

Furthermore, Stedman (2003) emphasises the role of the characteristics of the physical environment in contributing to sense of place, thus extending the literature beyond the primacy of the socially constructed place meaning. While the author does not test sensory perceptions per se, he demonstrates that the landscape characteristics serve as a basis for sense of place development.

Hence, based on the above arguments, the first hypothesis is posited:

Hypothesis 1: Destination's sensescape has a positive and direct influence on sense of place.

### 5.1.2. HYPOTHESIS ON THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF EXISTENTIAL AUTHENTICITY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DESTINATION'S SENSESCAPE AND SENSE OF PLACE

Despite the theoretical background supporting the direct effect of destinations' environment on sense of place, existing studies have suggested the intervening role of mediating variables in that relationship. The meaning-

mediated model, put forward by Stedman (2003), proposes an indirect route from physical features to sense of place, in which place attributes instigate certain meanings that, in turn, engender sense of place. Examining place attachment formation in commercial settings, Debenedetti et al. (2013) found that the bonding consumers develop arises through perceptions of authenticity. Furthermore, in a study inquiring members of the Association of American Geographers about the definition of the best tourism places, Lew (2011) uncovered that the key factor in making destinations special to visitors is existential authenticity elicited by sensory stimulation.

Importantly, building on the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) framework (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), Jiang et al. (2017) revealed that existential authenticity positively moderates the relationship between destination image and place attachment. Applying the logic of the S-O-R model to the context of the study, destinations' sensescape is the stimulus, while existential authenticity is regarded as the "organism", i.e. the internal processes intervening between the stimuli and the final response. The formation of sense of place is then the final outcome.

Informed by these perspectives, the following hypothesis is formulated.

Hypothesis 2: Existential authenticity mediates the relationship between destinations' sensescape and sense of place.

### 5.2. HYPOTHESES ON THE CONSEQUENCES OF SENSE OF PLACE

In addition to assessing the factors underpinning the formation of sense of place in a destination context, the proposed theoretical model also aims to explore its consequences in terms of the creation of a memorable tourism experience and future behavioural intentions.

### 5.2.1. HYPOTHESIS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SENSE OF PLACE AND MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCES

The conducted literature review in Chapter 3 revealed a large number of variables and destination features contributing to a memorable tourism experience. One of the factors that has received scant empirical attention, but has nevertheless been highlighted by past tourists explaining what made their experiences memorable, is place attachment (Kim, 2014). Understood as visitors' personal involvement with a destination through cultural, social and emotional ties, place attachment has been established as one of the factors fostering memorable destination experiences. Importantly, a high level of experience involvement, which contributes to the formation of personal meaning, and thus relates to sense of place, has been associated with experience memorability (Zatori et al., 2018).

Arguments for the association between one's sense of place and autobiographic memory can also be found in Heidegger's Dasein (i.e. being there) concept (Malpas, 2011). More specifically, it is theorised that individual's memories are linked to sense of place through the remembrance of being-in-place (which is more than simply recognizing it as a topographical space) (Malpas, 2011).

In light of the above evidence, the following hypothesis is posited:

Hypothesis 3: Sense of place has a positive and direct impact on the memorability of the tourism experience.

### 5.2.2. HYPOTHESES ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SENSE OF PLACE AND POST-VISIT BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

As discussed in Chapter 3, a commonly-reported outcome of sense of place/place attachment is destination loyalty (Alexandris et al., 2006); Brown et al., 2016; Chen & Chou, 2019; Chen & Phou, 2013; Hosany et al., 2017; Kil et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2012; Luo et al., 2016; Patwardhan et al., 2019; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Wang et al., 2019; Yuksel et al., 2010). It seems logical to expect that if tourists develop psychological and emotional bonding to a destination as a result of visitation, their intention to return, as well as recommend the place to others will increase.

However, previous studies in the cruise tourism context have found that cruise passengers' loyalty toward visited ports of call might differ when inquired about their future behavioural intentions to the destination as a cruise port and as a land-based holiday destination (Larsen & Wolff, 2016). Furthermore, Andriotis and Agiomirgianakis (2010) reported that cruise visitors' intention to recommend was higher than their stated likelihood to return to the destination. These findings make it plausible to test the effect of sense of place on two types of behavioural intentions toward the destination: (i) as a cruise port and (ii) as a land-based holiday destination. Furthermore, provided that past studies have identified differences across the dimensions of destination loyalty reported by cruise passengers, and in order to obtain an improved understanding of loyalty formation in a cruise destination context, it would be useful to assess the effect of sense of place across the two most-representative indicators of destination loyalty: intention to return and recommend.

In light of the above considerations, the following hypotheses are formulated:

Hypothesis 4.1: Sense of place has a positive and direct impact on visitors' intention to (a) return to the destination on another cruise trip; (b) recommend it as a cruise holiday.

Hypothesis 4.2: Sense of place has a positive and direct impact on visitors' intention to (a) revisit the destination as land tourists; (b) recommend it as a land-based holiday destination.

Additionally, and in light of the pervasive use of online communication technologies by nowadays' consumers, customer loyalty has been associated with the spreading of electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) (e.g. Huang & Chen, 2018; Sijoria, Mukherjee, & Datta, 2018). In this regard, Tsao, Hsieh and Lin (2016) consider eWOM as a dimension of "online loyalty". Intention to spread eWOM can be viewed as similar to referral, the widely recognized component of loyalty, but performed in an online setting. However, only a handful of studies have investigated eWOM intention as an outcome of tourism/hospitality experiences (e.g. Wen, Hu, & Kim, 2018; Yang, 2017).

Furthermore, consumers' sense of belonging and affective attachment to a brand, which have been previously discussed as concepts underpinning sense of place, have been revealed as influential in determining consumers' eWOM intention (Cheung & Lee, 2012).

Based on the above considerations, the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 4.3: Sense of place has a positive and direct impact on visitors' intention to spread electronic word-of-mouth about the visited destination.

### 5.2.3. HYPOTHESES ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCE AND POST-VISIT BEHAVIOURAL OUTCOMES

As revealed by the literature review on memorable tourism experiences, described in section 3.1.3, positive behavioural intentions, constitute its most widely documented consequences (e.g. Chen & Rahman, 2018; Hung et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2010; Loureiro, 2014; Manthiou et al., 2016; Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2013; Semrad & Rivera, 2018; Tsai, 2016). Kim (2010) asserts that memories play a key role in tourists' decision-making processes, as a reliable source of information. It follows that tourists' will be more likely to consider revisiting a destination from which they keep good memories. Indeed, the positive impact of memorable tourism experiences on intention to return to the destination has been empirically confirmed (Kim, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). Also, it has been suggested that memorable experiences instigate tourists' willingness to share the memories with others, and thus spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination (Adongo et al., 2015; Kim, 2018).

In light of the above evidence, and distinguishing between the effect of memorable experiences on behavioural intentions toward the port of call as a cruise and a land-based destination, the following three blocks of hypotheses are posited:

Hypothesis 5.1: A memorable tourism experience has a positive and direct impact on visitors' intention to (a) return to the destination on another cruise trip; (b) recommend it as a cruise port.

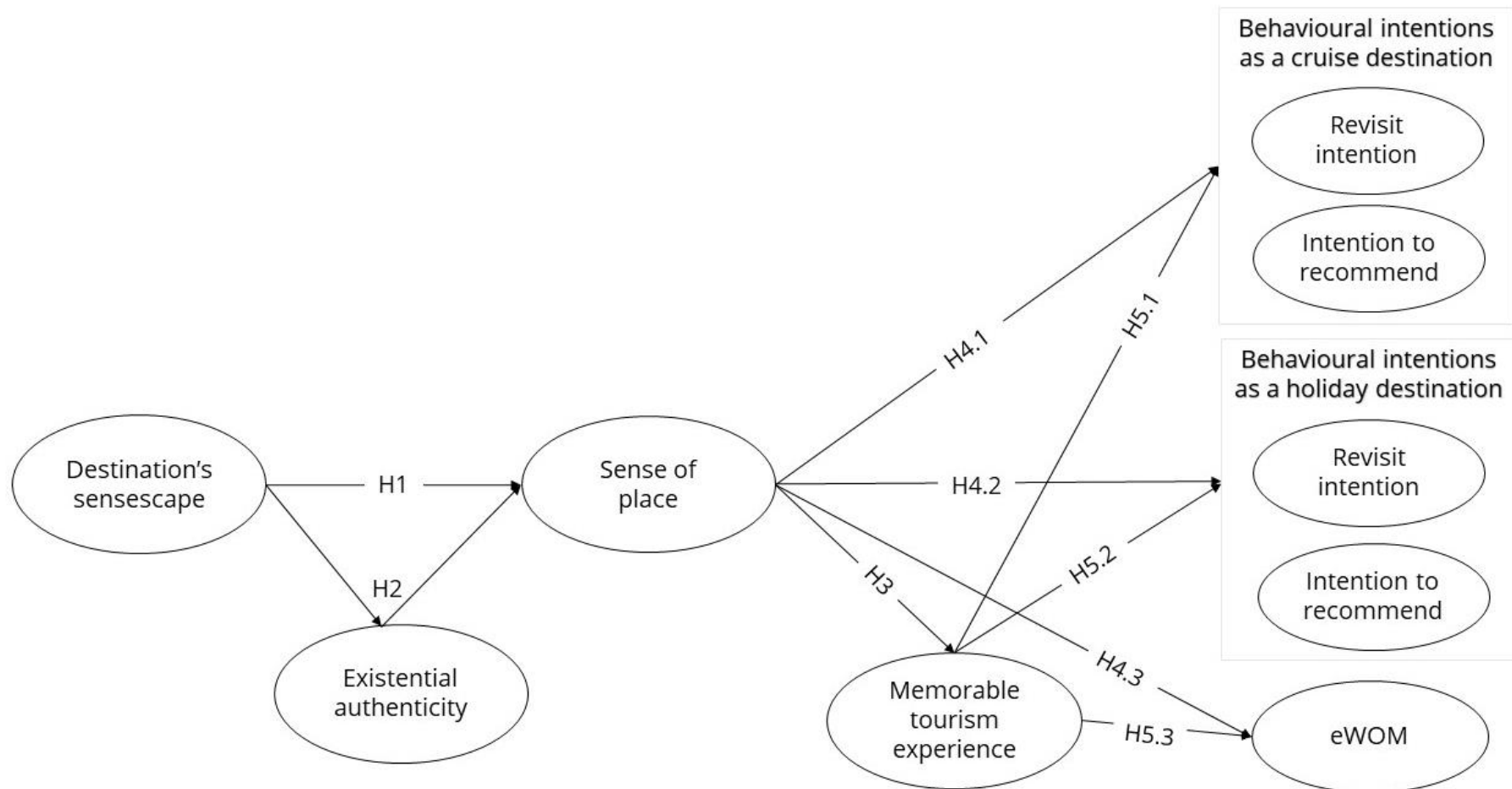
Hypothesis 5.2: A memorable tourism experience has a positive and direct impact on visitors' intention to (a) revisit the destination as land tourists; (b) recommend it as a land-based holiday destination.



Hypothesis 5.3: A memorable tourism experience has a positive and direct impact on visitors' intention to spread electronic word-of-mouth about the visited destination.

The posited hypotheses of the baseline model of the thesis are graphically represented in Figure 9.

Figure 9. Baseline theoretical model



Source: Own elaboration

### 5.3. HYPOTHESES RELATED TO THE ROLE OF THE GUIDED TOUR IN CRUISE VISITORS' EXPERIENCE ONSHORE

Guided tours (also referred to as shore excursions) are a major element of a cruise holiday from tourists' perspective (Teye & Leclerc, 1998). Shore excursions are also of utmost importance for cruise lines' profitability, as the revenue obtained from them is one of the determining factors for the inclusion of a particular destination in the cruise ship itineraries (Cusano, Ferrari, & Tei, 2017; Petit-Charles & Marques, 2012). A typical seven-day cruise holiday may include up to five ports of call, in which cruise passengers have the possibility to either purchase a guided tour from the cruise line or organise the port of call visit by themselves (Jaakson, 2004; Thyne, Henry, & Lloyd, 2015). Schmidt (1979) identifies several advantages of taking a guided tour: it provides a general overview of the destination when there is limited time available and a synthesis of its tourist attractions. The cruise-sponsored tour usually lasts an average of 4 hours (Lopes & Dredge, 2018) and frequently guides are the first and most probably the only locals that cruise passengers encounter during their stay onshore. In this regard, guide's performance is essential for cruise tourists' satisfaction with the destination, as almost no additional tourist activities can be undertaken due to the limited time available onshore (Thyne et al., 2015). The purchase of a shore excursion has been found to enhance the relationship between destination satisfaction and likelihood to revisit the port of call destination (Parola et al., 2014).

As discussed in Chapter 4, the emotional domain of the guided tour experience has been underresearched, despite of constituting a major area of interest within the tourism field (Hosany et al., 2015; Knobloch, Robertson, & Aitken, 2017; Li, Scott, & Walters, 2015; Prayag et al., 2017). The type of emotions elicited during a tourist experience has been examined across

various contexts, such as heritage tourism (e.g. Su & Hsu, 2013), rural tourism (e.g. Jepson & Sharpley, 2015) and festivals (e.g. Yang et al., 2011). However, the emotions elicited as a result of a guided tour experience have not been purposefully addressed by past research, to the best of the authors' knowledge. Given the paucity of evidence on this topic, the following research question has been raised:

*RQ: Are guided tours in port of call destinations positively-valenced emotional experiences?*

Informed by the discussion of emotional labour and the role of emotions as a value co-creation resource, presented in Chapter 4, a series of hypotheses related to the mechanism through which emotional value is generated in a guided tour experience, is developed in section 5.3.1.

In addition, hypotheses regarding the outcome of the affective states fostered by a guided tour experience on a destination level (i.e. sense of place and post-visit behavioural intentions) have been formulated in section 5.3.2.

### 5.3.1. HYPOTHESES ON THE CO-CREATION OF EMOTIONAL VALUE IN A GUIDED TOUR EXPERIENCE

The conducted literature review on the emotional aspects of the guided tour experience has revealed that extant studies have mainly focused on the emotional labour of the tour guide and its outcomes on tour members, but have neglected the role of the latter in co-creating emotional value.

Drawing on the tenets of the emotional contagion theory (Hatfield et al., 1994) and adopting the customer-dominant logic (Heinonen et al., 2010), it is plausible to posit hypotheses regarding the emotional interactions taking place during a guided tour from the members' perspective.

First, according to the emotional contagion theory and evidence from research on service interactions, documenting the positive impact of emotional labour display on changes in customers' positive affect (e.g. Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006), it is expected that tour guide's emotional labour display will induce tour members' to emotionally participate in the tour experience. Previous studies have suggested that tour guides act as emotional role models, offering members indications of expected affective states (Arnould & Price, 1993; Sharpe, 2005). Based on observation data, Io (2013) found that guide's emotional intelligence contributes to instigating positive emotions in tour members. Furthermore, Tsaur and Ku (2019) revealed that tour leader's emotional intelligence enhances visitors' positive affect, improves tour leader-member rapport and contributes to greater satisfaction with the guide.

Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 6: The perceived tour guide's emotional labour has a positive and direct impact on tour member's emotional participation.

Although it is generally agreed that the emotional labour performed by service providers has a positive impact on the affective states of service receivers (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006; Lin & Liang, 2011; Palau-Saumell et al., 2012), the mechanisms through which this effect occurs have been scarcely investigated. While providers' role has been largely studied, customer emotion management has received limited research attention, though suggested as essential in understanding customer performance in service experiences (Tumbat, 2011). In this regard, studies investigating the emotional contagion effect contend that the process of emotion transmission is dependent on receiver's susceptibility to emotional

contagion, which has been associated with the personal trait of emotional intelligence (Elfenbein, 2006; Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2005). Actually, one of the dimensions of emotional intelligence, as defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997), refers to the ability to detect the emotions of others (labelled as “others’ emotion appraisal”). Consequently, it might be expected that the level of emotional intelligence of the service receiver (i.e. the tour member) will moderate the impact of service provider’s (i.e. tour guide) emotional labour on customers’ affective outcomes. More specifically, it seems logical to expect that tour members with higher emotional intelligence will be better at detecting the emotions of the guide and using their own emotions to respond to them accordingly.

In light of the above considerations, the following hypothesis is posited:

Hypothesis 7: Tour members’ emotional intelligence exerts a moderating effect on the relationship between tour guide’s emotional labour and tour members’ emotional participation.

A positive link between customer participation in a service and emotional value/affection has been reported in service contexts (Algharabat et al., 2019; Carlson et al., 2019). Bailey et al. (2011) theorize emotional contagion and the co-production of emotional labour as antecedents of emotional value of a service encounter. Tour members’ emotional participation is similar to emotional labour, in that it implies emotional effort. Furthermore, adopting a customer-dominant logic perspective, Malone et al. (2018) provides empirical support for the role of tourists’ emotions in shaping value. Based on the premise that value arises when customers combine their operant emotional resources with others, it seems plausible to propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8: Tour members' emotional participation has a positive and direct impact on experience emotional value.

### 5.3.2. HYPOTHESES ON THE IMPACT OF THE TOUR EXPERIENCE EMOTIONAL VALUE ON DESTINATION-LEVEL OUTCOMES

Whereas extensive literature exists on the positive affective and cognitive consequences of a guided tour experience in terms of tourist satisfaction and loyalty to the tour company (e.g. Caber & Albayrak, 2018; Reyes Vélez, Pérez Naranjo, & Rodríguez Zapatero, 2018; Williams & Soutar, 2009), there has been little discussion on its impact on tourists' perceptions and behaviour at the destination level. To the best of the authors' knowledge, only two studies (Huang et al. (2015) and Kuo et al. (2016)) have transcended the realm of the guided tour to explore its implications beyond the service interaction. Their findings uncover a significant positive link between tourists' satisfaction with the guide's interpretation and destination loyalty/behavioural intention toward the visited place.

The present research investigates emotional value as an affective outcome of a guided tour experience, which is related to the development of emotions and affective states such as joy and pleasant surprise (Teng, Lu, & Huang, 2018; Williams & Soutar, 2009). Previous studies have documented positive emotions experienced during a destination visit as drivers of place attachment/sense of place (Correia, Oliveira, & Pereira, 2017; Hosany et al., 2017; Loureiro, 2014).

Based on the above, the following hypothesis can be stated:

Hypothesis 9: Tour experience emotional value has a direct and positive effect on sense of place.

On the other hand, emotional value has been suggested as influential in the formation of consumer loyalty (Fandos Roig, Sánchez García, & Moliner Tena, 2009; Koller, Floh, & Zauner, 2011; Lim, Widdows, & Park, 2006). In the tourism and hospitality context, the association between experience emotions and behavioural intentions has also been demonstrated (e.g. Jang & Namkung, 2009; Jani & Han, 2013; Tsaur et al., 2015). On a destination level, Loureiro (2014) and Prayag et al. (2013) also revealed that the emotions experienced during a destination visit trigger future behavioural intentions.

Accordingly, and in an attempt to disentangle the effects of the experienced emotional value on destination loyalty, both in terms of its function of a cruise port of call and a land-based destination, three block of hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 10.1: Tour experience emotional value has a positive and direct impact on visitors' intention to (a) revisit the destination on another cruise trip; (b) recommend it as a cruise port.

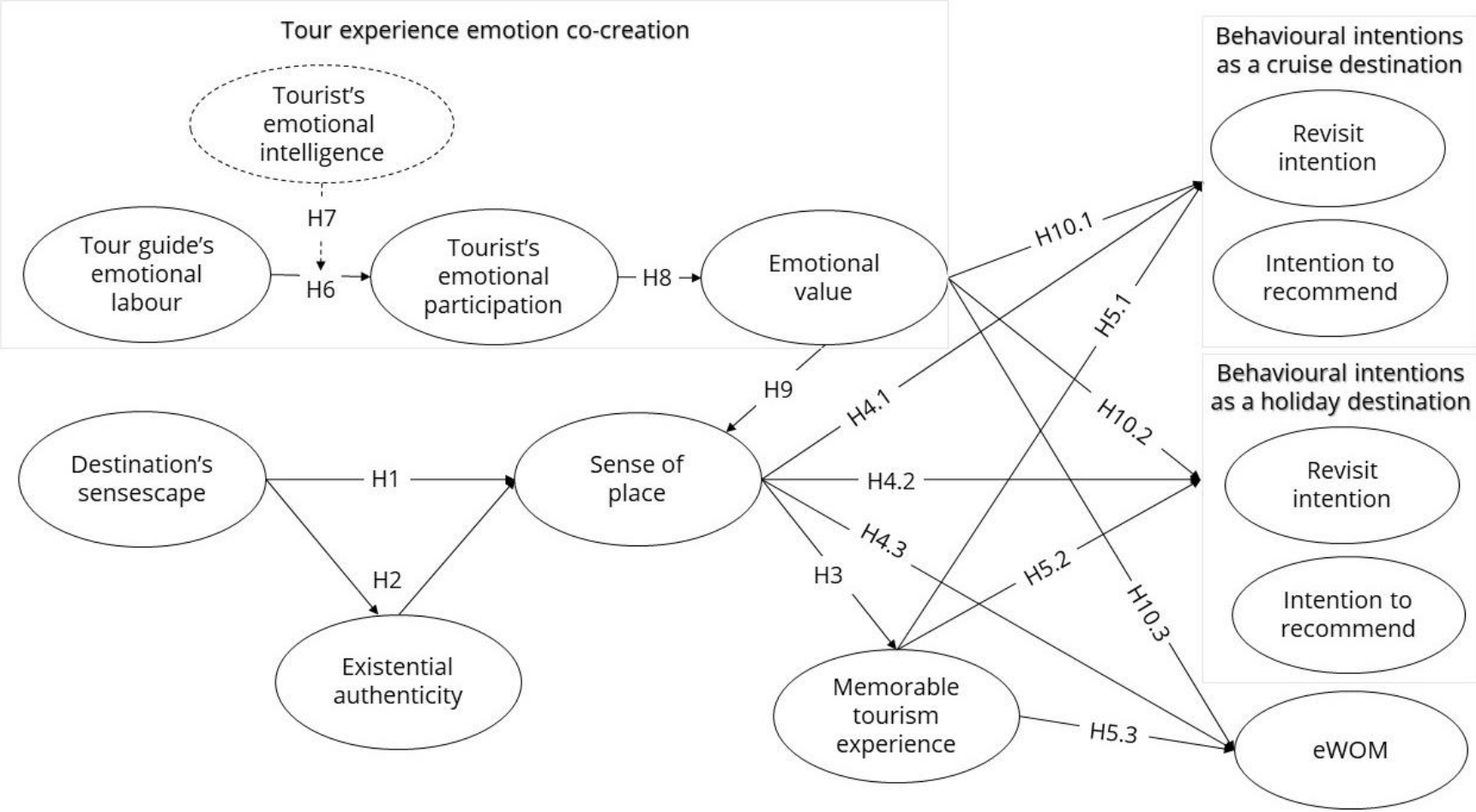
Hypothesis 10.2: Tour experience emotional value has a positive and direct impact on visitors' intention to (a) revisit the destination as land tourists; (b) recommend it as a land-based holiday destination.

Hypothesis 10.3: Tour experience emotional value has a positive and direct impact on visitors' intention to spread electronic word-of-mouth about the visited destination.

Figure 10 presents the theoretical model integrating all posited hypotheses.



Figure 10. Theoretical model of the thesis



Source: Own elaboration



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## Chapter 6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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This chapter introduces the research methodology including both, a qualitative and a quantitative study. The first section presents the research design of the qualitative research, aimed at understanding the emotional nature of the guided tour experience onshore. The second part of the chapter introduces the quantitative study developed in the thesis, which involves (i) the development and validation of the proposed destination's sensescape scale and (ii) the measurement instrument used to assess the proposed theoretical model.

## 6.1. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

Given the lack of research on the emotions elicited by a guided tour experience, a qualitative data analysis is conducted to support the hypothesised affective outcomes of a guided tour.

To explore if emotional outcomes are experimented during a guided tour, a sentiment analysis of reviews on onshore guided tour experiences written by cruise visitors is conducted. Given that emotions are complex phenomena and closed response surveys might fail to capture or overemphasise their role in the tourist experience (Farber & Hall, 2007), analysing freely written online reviews on a publicly-available platform has been deemed a more appropriate methodological approach to answer the posited research question (O'Connor, 2010). More specifically, to gain a more holistic understanding of the emotional nature of the tourist experience, sentiment analysis has been conducted.

### 6.1.1. DATA COLLECTION

To fulfil the aim of the qualitative study, online reviews on guided tours in cruise ports of call, posted on Tripadvisor, the largest travel community website (Tripadvisor, 2019), were used as textual data. Given that Tripadvisor does not have a review category on guided tours in cruise ports of call, reviews should be searched for manually through the generic search function of the website. Considering that this circumstance implies having to look up all guided tour reviews of all port of call destinations and screen them to keep only those that have been written by cruise visitors, a decision was made to extract a sample of the reviews. The main Spanish ports of call were chosen for this purpose, as the country features the leading European cruise port (Barcelona) and ranks second in Europe in terms of cruise traffic (CLIA

Europe, 2018). Thus, the sample of reviews comprised those written by cruise passengers who took guided tours in the ports of Barcelona, Palma de Mallorca, Las Palmas, Tenerife, Málaga, Cádiz, Valencia, Vigo, Cartagena, A Coruña.

In order to reduce the amount of manual effort implied in obtaining the corresponding textual information, the web crawler Kimono Labs was used to automatically extract the review texts from Tripadvisor. Kimono Labs is a browser-based scraper and one of its main advantages is that it allows users to create their own application programming interfaces (APIs). Thus, the data collection process does not necessarily involve code writing but works by clicking on the specific elements within the chosen website that are of interest to the user (e.g. title of the review, username, rating, etc.). As Kimono Labs returns the scrapped data in JSON (JavaScript Object Notation) format, a Java script was created that downloaded the JSON data and then processed it to generate the proper classifications for each review.

The data consist of all reviews on cruise guided tours written in English since the launching of Tripadvisor until the day of data retrieval (October 2017), with the oldest opinion dating back to 2009. The webscrapping yielded 1,209 reviews, which were revised carefully so as to determine their validity as objects of the study. Some of the reviews had to be discarded, as they would mention the word "cruise" on a different account and would not express cruise visitors' opinion. Accordingly, the final dataset comprised 1,127 opinions (164,838 words). Apart from retrieving the text of the review, the web crawler also downloaded data on review ratings, and the publication dates of the reviews (see Table 17). Socio-demographic data was also gathered for some of the reviews, but this type of information is usually not available, as it is provided on a voluntary basis and not disclosed by

Tripadvisor. This resulted in a significant amount of missing demographic data, although, 92.7% of the users stated the city they are based in (USA (61.2%), Canada (12.2%), and UK (8.5%), while the rest of the countries represented less than 5% of the sample). Table 17 presents an overview of the characteristics of the collected dataset.

Table 17. Collected reviews' information

	<i>Number (n=1127)</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<b><i>Year of posting</i></b>		
2017	222	19.7
2016	385	34.2
2015	199	17.7
2014	128	11.4
2013	85	7.5
2012	57	5.1
2011	41	3.6
2010	9	0.8
2009	1	0.09
<b><i>Satisfaction rating</i></b>		
Excellent (5 stars)	1021	90.6
Very good (4 stars)	78	6.9
Average (3 stars)	18	1.6
Poor (2 stars)	3	0.3
Terrible (1 star)	7	0.6
<b><i>Reviewers' residence</i></b>		
USA	690	61.2
Canada	138	12.2
UK	96	8.5

Source: Own elaboration



## 6.1.2. DATA ANALYSIS

### 6.1.2.1. Sentiment analysis

#### *6.1.2.1.1. Definition*

Sentiment analysis is one of the most relevant opinion mining techniques aiming at “identifying and categorizing people’s opinions in order to determine the writer’s attitude toward a particular issue (Kirilenko et al., 2017, p. 2). It helps to classify the emotional content of subjective statements in a text corpus (Tsytsarau & Palpanas, 2012).

Some authors have equated the text sentiment of online reviews with numeric ratings (e.g. Bao & Chang, 2016; Gu, Park, & Konana, 2012; Hao et al., 2010). Nevertheless, it has been demonstrated that star ratings are not exact proxies of text valence (Chong et al., 2016; Mudambi, Schuff, & Zhang, 2014). In this regard, Villarroel et al. (2017) point out that written language contains a wide range of sentiment expressions such as boosters or attenuators, which cannot be reflected by numeric ratings. Thus, in a customer online review, the evaluation of a product or service would be expressed not only by the provided numerical rating, but mainly by the emotionally-charged words with the respective valence contained in it. Hu, Koh and Reddy (2014) maintain that sentiments embedded in a review offer “more tacit, context-specific explanations of the reviewer’s feelings, experiences, and emotions about the product or service” (p.42). Considering the above evidence, this research uses textual valence to perform an analysis of the sentiment contained in online reviews on onshore guided tour experiences.

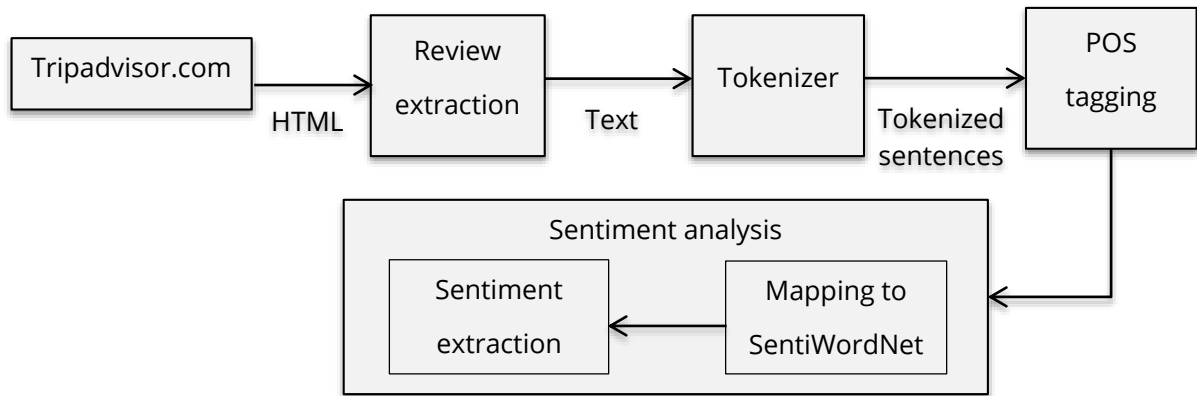
#### *6.1.2.1.2. Procedure*

Once the textual data was downloaded, the data mining software Rapidminer 6.3 was used to perform the sentiment analysis of the reviews. There are two basic approaches to sentiment detection: the machine-learning approach and the lexicon-based approach (Gao, Hao, & Fu, 2015). In this study a dictionary-based method for classifying reviews according to their sentiment polarity was applied in Rapidminer 6.3. Several considerations motivated the choice of this approach, such as the fact that machine-learning supervised methods require larger data sets and laborious labelling (Sharma & Dey, 2015).

Sentiment analysis involves several procedures as depicted by Figure 11. The pre-processing module includes performing the following steps: (1) review extraction from Tripadvisor.com, (2) tokenization and (3) part of speech (POS) tagging. The last two procedures are natural language processing (NLP) techniques, which first split the review text into its integrating components (words, numbers, punctuation, etc.) called tokens and then annotate every word with its corresponding part of speech tag (noun, verb, adjective, etc.). To perform the sentiment extraction module in Rapidminer, the WordNet dictionary was connected to the "Extract Sentiment" operator, so that the tokens could be matched with SentiWordNet 3.0 (Baccianella, Esuli, & Sebastiani, 2010). SentiWordNet 3.0 assigns a sentiment score to each word in a sentence and its broad lexical coverage is one of the reasons for its extensive use (Guerini, Gatti, & Turchi, 2013). It is based on the lexical dictionary WordNet 3.0 (Fellbaum, 1998), a large database of English, developed to reflect the semantics of natural language and the way objects are classified by people (Laniado, Eynard, & Colombetti, 2007). Thus, to obtain the sentiment score of a certain review, the software calculates the average

sentiment value of all the words contained in the review's text, which ranges from [-1.0, 1.0].

**Figure 11. The sentiment analysis process**



Source: Own elaboration

Regarding the evaluation of the performance of an automated sentiment analysis, overall accuracy, recall and precision are suggested as metrics to assess the performance of the sentiment classification (Gao et al., 2015; Musto, Semeraro, & Polignano, 2014; Okazaki et al., 2015). The evaluation criteria formulas are provided by the following equations:

$$\text{Overall accuracy} = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+FP+TN+FN} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Positive precision} = \frac{TP}{TP+FP} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Positive recall} = \frac{TP}{TP+FN} \quad (3)$$

where

TP are true positive (correctly labelled positive texts)

TN – true negative (correctly labelled negative texts)

FP – false positive (when the text is labelled as positive while it is negative)

FN – false negative counts (when the text is labelled as negative, while it is positive)

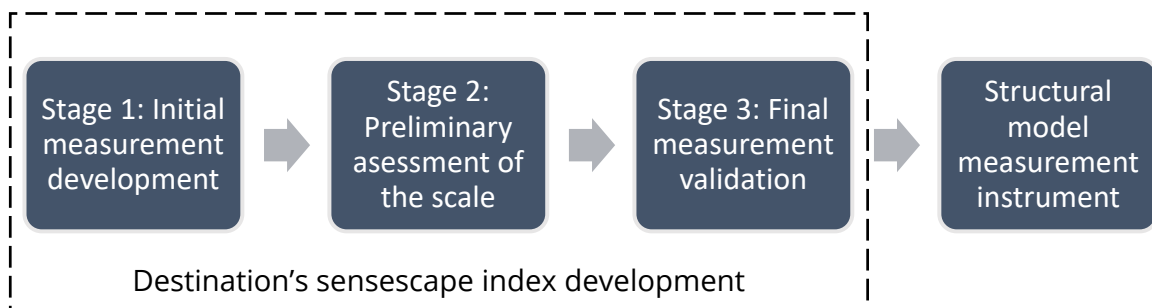
### **6.1.2.2. Positively-valenced word frequency count**

In addition to the sentiment analysis and in order to further illustrate the emotional content of the reviews, word frequency count of the positively-valenced words was performed with Rapidminer 6.3. The frequency with which particular words are used in a text (especially adverbs and adjectives when sentiment analysis is considered) can provide information about the mood and emotions of author, as the choice of words is rarely random (Tulankar, Athale, & Bhujbal, 2013).

## 6.2. QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

The quantitative research conducted in the thesis begins with the development and validation of the proposed destination's sensescape scale, which is followed by the presentation of the measurement instrument used to assess the hypothesised theoretical models (see Figure 12).

Figure 12. Methodological phases of the quantitative study



Source: Own elaboration

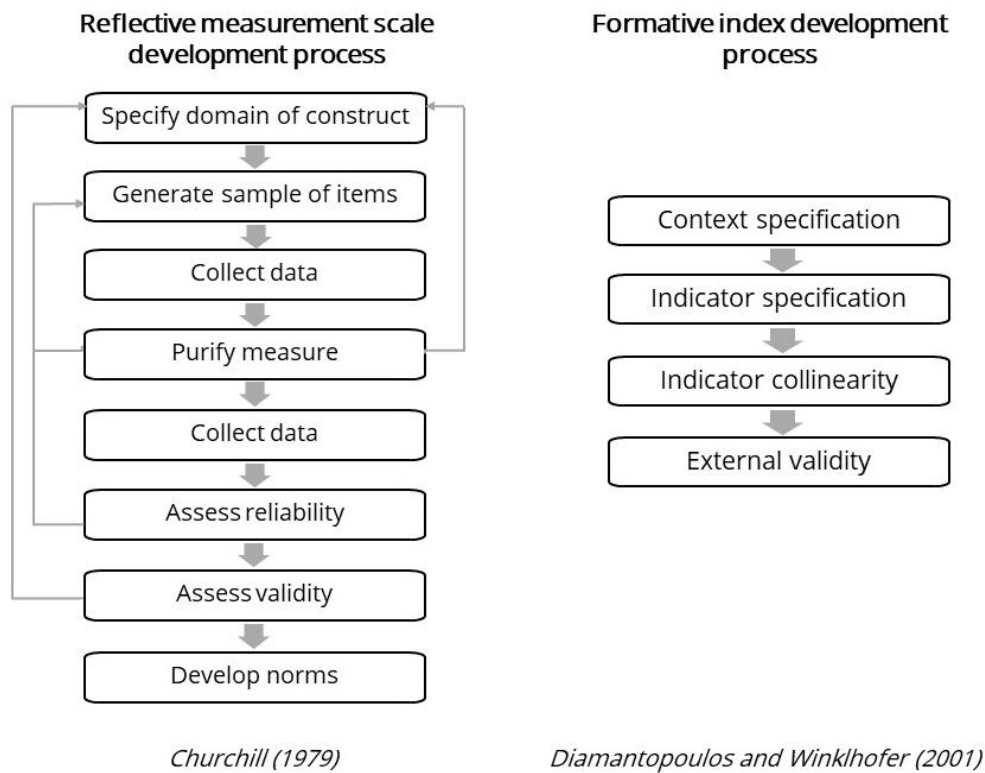
### 6.2.1. DESTINATION'S SENSESCAPE SCALE DEVELOPMENT

#### 6.2.1.1. Research design

When developing constructs, two types of measurement specification have to be considered: reflective and formative models (Hair et al., 2017). The difference between a reflective and a formative construct lies in the direction of the causality of its indicators, i.e. the reflective view assumes that the latent variable determines the positively correlated indicators, while the formative approach posits that the indicators form the construct (Coltman et al., 2008). Importantly, the measure development procedures associated with the two approaches are different, as shown in Figure 13, which compares the reflective measurement scale development process proposed by Churchill (1979) and the formative index development procedures put forward by Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001). In particular, Churchill's (1979) guidelines include the specification of the domain, the generation of a sample

of items, the purification of the scale, the data collection and validation, while the process proposed by Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001) involves four steps: context specification, indicator specification, indicator collinearity assessment and external validation. The two processes mainly differ in terms of the statistical evaluation criteria, as reliability and construct validity for reflective constructs are not directly applicable to formative measurement models (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001).

**Figure 13. The process of scale development: reflective versus formative**



Source: Own elaboration based on Churchill (1979) and Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001)

To determine the correct measurement model of a construct, Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2003) suggest four criteria: the direction of causality from construct to measure, the interchangeability of indicators/items, the co-variation among the indicators, and the nomological net of the indicators (see Table 18). Accordingly, to decide on the

measurement model of the destination's sensescape construct, the above decision rules are applied.

**Table 18. Criteria for choosing between a formative and reflective measurement model**

CRITERION	FORMATIVE	REFLECTIVE
Direction of causality	From items to construct	From construct to items
Interchangeability of indicators/items	Not interchangeable	Interchangeable
Covariation among the indicators	Not necessarily	Yes
Nomological net of the construct indicators	May differ	Same

Source: Adapted from Jarvis et al. (2003)

First, regarding the causal priority between the indicators and the construct, the destination's sensescape is defined by the sensory indicators representing the five senses. That is, the sensescape is a combination of its measures. Hence, the direction of the causality flows from the items to the construct. Next, the indicators are not interchangeable, as, for example, the items defining the olfactory sensory dimension are not similar to those capturing destinations' soundscape, as a component of destination's sensescape. Furthermore, in relation to the co-variation among indicators criteria, the items of the destination's sensescape may not necessarily covary, as there is no reason to expect that the visualscape is correlated with the tastescape, for instance. In other words, a destination may be visually appealing, but this does not imply that it provides tasty food. Lastly, as far as the nomological net of the indicators is concerned, the antecedents of the sensory dimensions that jointly influence destination's sensescape are assumed to be different, i.e. the factors determining the haptic dimension of

a tourist place experience (e.g. sun, wind) differ from those underlying its soundscape (e.g. foreign speech, birds, traffic).

Based on the above arguments, and applying the criteria established by Jarvis et al. (2003), destination's sensescape is conceptualised as a higher-order formative model Type I (Jarvis et al., 2003), i.e. a formative construct composed of five first-order formative dimensions (visualscape, soundscape, tastescape, smellscape and hapticscape).

Hence, the scale development process of the present study follows the steps proposed by Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001) and the updated validation procedure guidelines suggested by Petter, Straub, and Rai (2007) and Cheah et al. (2018). The measurement development process conducted in this thesis integrates three studies, as depicted in Figure 14. The first study is centered on initial measurement development and starts with literature review to specify the domain of the construct and its dimensions. The generated list of items from the literature is further complemented with a thematic content analysis of cruise blog entries on port of call experiences with the text-mining software Leximancer. Next, an expert panel of 5 researchers holding a PhD in Marketing assessed the suitability of the proposed definitions and measurement items. Furthermore, to refine the initial instrument and its proposed dimensions, concept mapping through multidimensional scaling was performed. Finally, the generated pool of items was pre-tested on a sample of 42 students.

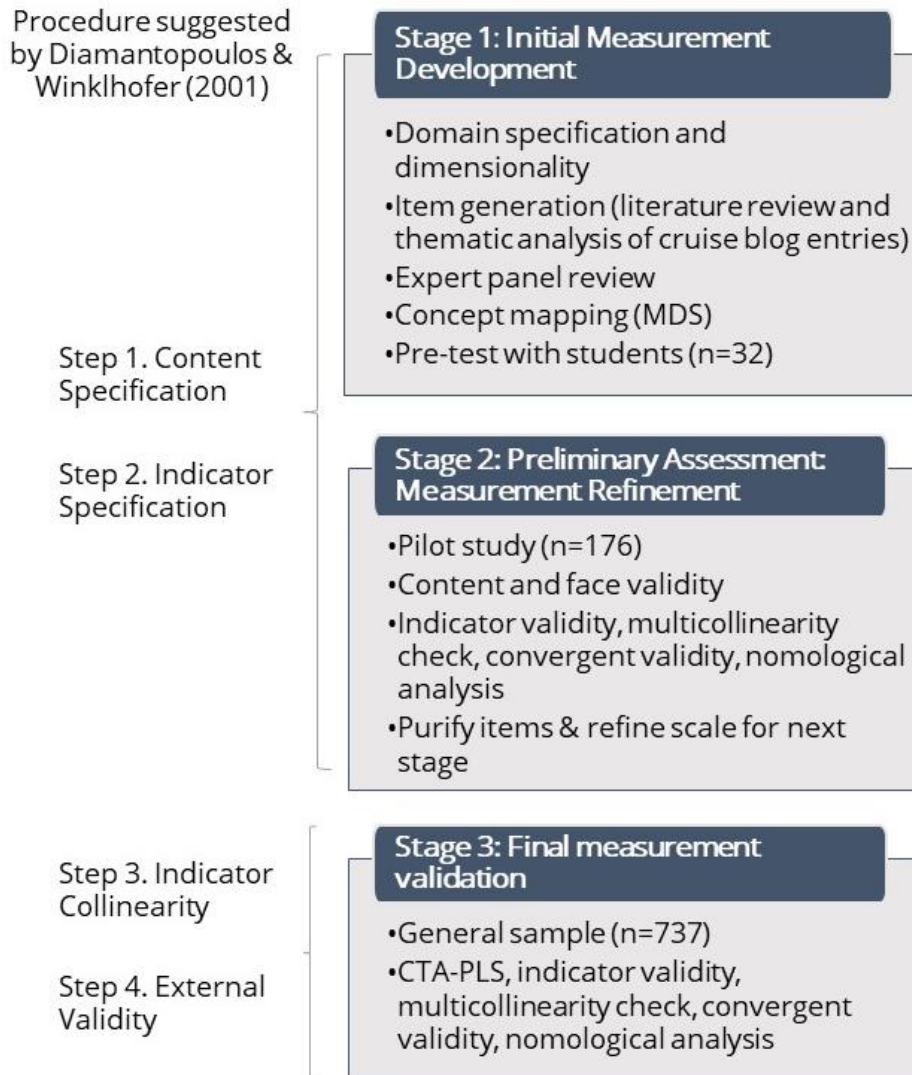
The second study aimed at providing a preliminary assessment of the scale. More specifically a pilot study with cruise visitors was carried out to purify the proposed set of items and refine the scale for the final data collection.

In Study 3 the proposed measure was assessed in terms of indicator weight significance, multicollinearity and external validity. A confirmatory tetrad



analysis was also performed to verify the formative nature of the construct dimensions.

**Figure 14. Measurement development process**



Source: Own elaboration

### 6.2.1.2. Stage 1: Initial measurement development

The first methodological stage encompasses a series of steps aiming at the conceptualisation of the construct: domain specification and dimensionality, item generation, expert panel review, concept mapping and pre-test with students.

#### *6.2.1.2.1. Domain specification*

The first step in a formative measure (index) development is the specification of the scope of the variable, as suggested by Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001). The definition of the concept is an essential requirement for its adequate measurement (Churchill, 1979), given that the various types of construct validity are dependent on a correct conceptual definition. Content specification is particularly important for formatively-positing constructs as under this conceptualisation the latent variable is determined by its indicators, and not vice-versa. Accordingly, a limited definition breadth may result in neglecting relevant components of the construct under study.

To specify the content domain of the variable, an extensive review of geography, tourism and marketing literature relevant to the purpose of the study was conducted. As acknowledged in section 2.1, the term “sensescape” was used for the first time by Porteous (1985), although no explicit definition of the concept was provided. However, the analogy with the visually-grounded term “landscape”, suggests that a “sensescape” designates a relationship between an individual and a place as perceived through the senses (Rodaway, 1994). The impressions obtained from the five senses produce a sensed environment of people and objects encountered in a place, i.e. a sensescape (Urry, 2002). Each sense, in turn, produces its own “scape”: visualscape/landscape (sight); soundscape (hearing); tastescape (taste), smellscape (smell), hapticscape (touch) (Porteous, 1990; Urry, 2002).

Applying the above theorisations to the tourism context, and as agreed by the panel of experts that reviewed the proposed definition (see section 6.2.1.2.4), destination’s sensescape is defined as:

*“The encounter between a tourist and a destination’s environment as perceived by the five senses: sight, hearing, taste, smell and touch”*

#### *6.2.1.2.2. Dimensionality*

Given that a sensescape is determined by the interplay of destination's visualscape, soundscape, tastescape, smellscape and hapticscape, a definition of each of them should be established to operationalise the construct.

As for the definition of the term visualscape, the literature review revealed only one study which has proposed one. According to Llobera (2003, p. 30), the visualscape is defined as "the spatial representation of any visual property generated by, or associated with, a spatial configuration". Visual perception relies on space, distance, light quality, colour, shape and texture (Porteous, 1996). In the tourism context, tourists' sense of vision has often been referred to as "the tourist's gaze" (Urry, 2002).

Regarding the concept of soundscape, Porteous and Mastin (1985, p. 169) define it as "the overall sonic environment of an area, from a room to a region". A more recent definition of the concept is proposed by Brown et al. (2011, p. 388), who add human perception to first definition: "a soundscape exists through human perception of the acoustic environment of a place". The authors point out the critical role of context on its assessment and propose a taxonomy of acoustic environments based on categories of places. Four main acoustic environment categories are established: urban, rural, wilderness and underwater. For example, in an urban context, the acoustic environment will consist mainly of sounds generated by human activities or facilities such as those originated by transport, human movements, voices, instruments and social events (e.g. bells, fireworks. etc.).

The concept of smellscape, as coined by Porteous (1985), suggests that smells can be place-related just like visual impressions. A smellscape is defined as

“the totality of the olfactory landscape, accommodating both episodic (foregrounded or time limited) and involuntary (background) odours” (Henshaw, 2013, p. 5). More recently, Xiao, Tait and Kang (2018, p. 106) offered a refined definition of the concept, considering not only the smell environment, but also receivers’ perception and understanding of the stimuli: “the term *smellscape* [...] can be described as the smell environment perceived and understood by a person (through olfactory sensation, influenced by ones’ memories and past experiences) in a place (specific to its context).

As for the concept of *tastescape*, it is defined as the process of gustatory perception, whereby place is enjoyed through the sense of taste (Everett, 2008). The review of the literature uncovered few studies investigating *tastescapes*, although food is recognized as a relevant sensory experience when visiting a destination (Berg & Sevón, 2014; Kim et al., 2013). For example, Everett (2008) found that tourists visiting a Scottish destination experienced the identity of the place through the taste of the locally-produced milk.

The last of the *sensescape*s, the *hapticscape*, is conceptualised as “the landscape of touch, [...] the sensory field of ever-reciprocal direct somatic contact between ourselves and the world, which we can feel, whether superficial or deep, across any and every square inch of our bodies” (Kabat-Zinn, 2013, p. 389). Importantly, the *touchscape* is based on the haptic sense, which refers to a combination of two subsenses: cutaneous and kinaesthetic (Klatzky, 2011). The cutaneous sense receives information through the skin without motion, while the kinaesthetic system informs about properties of objects based on body movements (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2017). Past research has suggested several taxonomies of touch in consumer behaviour. For example, Peck (2011) classified touch in two main groups: instrumental and

hedonic. The former relates to touch as a means to obtaining product information (e.g. objects' properties such as texture, temperature, etc.), while the latter refers to touch as an aim in itself (i.e. the goal is the sensory experience). Klatzky (2011) suggests an alternative taxonomy, identifying five types of elicited touch: information-seeking, hedonically elicited, aesthetics-elicited, compulsive and socially elicited touch.

The definitions of each of the sensescapes were adapted to the context of a tourist destination and subjected to the judgement of a panel of experts (see section 6.2.1.2.4), who agreed on the formulation shown in Table 19.

**Table 19. Definitions of destination's sensescape dimensions**

SENSE	SENSESCAPE DIMENSION
<b>Sight</b>	Visualscape is defined as the representation of the surrounding destination environment, as perceived through the eyes.
<b>Hearing</b>	A soundscape is defined through the perception of the overall sonic environment of a destination.
<b>Smell</b>	The smellscape can be defined as the smell environment of a destination perceived by a person through olfactory sensation.
<b>Taste</b>	The tastescape represents the process of gustatory perception, whereby a destination is enjoyed through the sense of taste.
<b>Touch</b>	The hapticscape refers to tourist perception of a destination through the combination of two subsenses: cutaneous and kinaesthetic. The cutaneous sense receives information through the skin without motion (e.g. warmth of the sun), while the kinaesthetic system informs about properties of objects based on body movements (e.g. touching heritage objects).

Source: Own elaboration

### *6.2.1.2.3. Item generation*

#### 6.2.1.2.3.1. Literature review

The next step in the measurement development procedure is to generate a comprehensive pool of items that capture the construct domain. This step is particularly important given the formatively-posed nature of the construct, as omitting an indicator would change the composition of the variable (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). To accomplish this purpose, a multi-source approach to generate items related to the multisensory impressions of a destination was adopted. First, an exhaustive review of the relevant literature was conducted to identify items from existing scales and studies. However, no previous efforts in assessing destination's sensescape with a psychometric approach were found. Given that applicable measurement scales were not found, the findings of the sensory tourism literature were used as a source of items.

Table 20 provides an account of the existing empirical multisensory studies and their characteristics in terms of investigated sensory dimension/s, data type and applied statistical method and/or measure.

Table 20. Conceptual and methodological characteristics of existing sensory destination experience studies

AUTHORS	SENSESCAPE(S)	DATA	STATISTICAL METHOD	MEASUREMENT
He et al. (2019)	Visualscape, Soundscape	Questionnaire survey	Structural equation modelling (SEM)	Visualscape (6 items); Soundscape (3 items), 7-point semantic differential scale
Liu et al. (2017)	Soundscape	Questionnaire survey	SEM	5 items, 5-point Likert scale
Agapito et al. (2017)	Visual, Auditory, Olfactory, Gustatory Haptic	Self-administered questionnaire and online survey	Content analysis, Wilcoxon test, Z-test, Chi-square test, Descriptive statistics	X
Filz, Blomme & Van Rheede (2016)	Taste	Questionnaire survey	PLS-SEM	1 item 7-point Likert scale
Xiong et al. (2015)	Visual, Auditory, Olfactory, Gustatory Haptic	In-depth interviews	Content analysis	X
Agapito et al. (2014)	Visual, Auditory, Olfactory, Gustatory Haptic	Self-administered questionnaire survey	Content analysis, Frequencies, Multiple correspondence analysis,	X

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			K-mean cluster analysis	
<b>Prazeres &amp; Donohoe (2014)</b>	Visual, Auditory, Olfactory, Haptic	Semi-structured interviews	Content analysis	X
<b>Kim et al. (2013)</b>	Taste	Self-administered questionnaire survey	SEM	2 items 7-point Likert scale
<b>Rakić &amp; Chambers (2012)</b>	Visual, Haptic	Observation, semi-structured interviews, mapping of movements and activities	Ethnographic study	X
<b>Gretzel &amp; Fesenmaier (2010)</b>	Taste, Sound, Smell	Online questionnaire survey, Sensory experience elicitation protocol	Content analysis, frequencies, Chi-square tests, hierarchical cluster analysis	X
<b>Pan &amp; Ryan (2009)</b>	Sound, Smell, Taste, Touch	Travel journalists' reports	Content analysis, two- way contingency table analysis, correspondence analysis, senses' square analysis	X
<b>Son &amp; Pearce (2005)</b>	Visual, Olfactory, Auditory, Tactile	Self-administered questionnaire	Content analysis, frequencies, Chi-square tests	X

Source: Own elaboration



As it can be seen in Table 20, although various studies have examined the multisensory nature of the destination experience, most of them have been qualitative in nature and have not provided any measures. The most frequently used methods were interviews (e.g. Prazeres & Donohoe, 2014; Xiong et al., 2015) and self-administered questionnaires (e.g. Agapito et al., 2014; Son & Pearce, 2005), whose content was analysed to uncover sensory experience dimensions and descriptors. Only a handful of recent studies were found that utilize a psychometric measure to assess sensory perceptions, although they were limited to only two of the five sensescapes: visualscape (He et al., 2019) and soundscape (Liu et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, the results of the above studies provide useful data for the operationalisation of the sensory dimensions underlying destination's sensescape, as many of them yield sensory descriptors/cues. Table 21 presents the set of descriptors/indicators used by existing studies on sensory destination experiences. In total, 155 items related to the visual, auditory, olfactory, gustatory and haptic sensory dimensions were identified.

Table 21. Indicators/sensory descriptors used by previous studies on sensory destination experiences.

AUTHORS	SENSORY DIMENSION	ITEMS/SENSORY-BASED WORDS/DESCRIPTORS
He et al. (2019)	Sight	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Monotonous–plentiful</li> <li>2. Tiny–spectacular</li> <li>3. Ordinary–peculiar</li> <li>4. Ugly–wonderful</li> <li>5. Unwell–pleasant</li> <li>6. Casual–solemn</li> </ol>
	Sound	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Melancholy–joyful</li> <li>2. Noisy–tranquillity</li> <li>3. Mundane–sacred</li> </ol>
Liu et al. (2017)	Sound	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The soundscape in this destination is tranquil</li> <li>2. The soundscape in this destination is unique.</li> <li>3. The soundscape in this destination is original.</li> <li>4. The soundscape in this destination is impressive.</li> <li>5. I enjoyed the soundscape in this destination.</li> </ol>
Agapito et al. (2017)	Sight	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Landscape</li> <li>2. Natural light</li> <li>3. Animals</li> <li>4. Diversity of colours</li> <li>5. Architectural details</li> <li>6. Trees</li> <li>7. Local people</li> <li>8. Flowers</li> <li>9. Maritime scenario</li> <li>10. River</li> <li>11. Sky</li> <li>12. Beach</li> </ol>
	Hearing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Birdsong</li> <li>2. Nature</li> <li>3. Wind</li> <li>4. Sea</li> <li>5. People</li> <li>6. Crickets</li> <li>7. Silence</li> <li>8. Animals</li> <li>9. Tree leaves</li> </ol>

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	Smell	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Salty sea air</li> <li>2. Fresh air</li> <li>3. Plants</li> <li>4. Flowers</li> <li>5. Trees</li> <li>6. Rain</li> </ol>
	Taste	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Seafood</li> <li>2. Sweet</li> <li>3. Local food</li> <li>4. Fruit</li> <li>5. Bread</li> <li>6. Cheese</li> <li>7. Local beverage</li> </ol>
	Touch	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Heat</li> <li>2. Coolness</li> <li>3. Sand</li> <li>4. Water</li> <li>5. Rough textures</li> <li>6. Wind</li> </ol>
<b>Filz et al. (2016)</b>	Taste	1. Taste pleasantness/unpleasantness
<b>Xiong et al. (2015)</b>	Sight	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Ancient architectural complex</li> <li>2. Tuo River</li> <li>3. Souvenir shops and booths</li> <li>4. Bamboo boats</li> <li>5. Neon lights at night</li> <li>6. Washing clothes in Tuo River</li> <li>7. Clubs and bars at night</li> <li>8. Green mountains and river</li> <li>9. Bridges</li> </ol>
	Hearing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Traditional folk songs</li> <li>2. Rip-roarious bars and pubs at night</li> <li>3. Hubbub of voices from numerous tourists</li> <li>4. Tuo River flowing</li> <li>5. Sellers and tourists bargaining</li> <li>6. Knocking sound of washing clothes by wooden mallet</li> <li>7. Voluntary singers under the Tuo River bridge</li> </ol>

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	Taste	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Local alcohols and wines</li> <li>2. Hunan noodles</li> <li>3. Mu Chui Su (local dessert)</li> <li>4. Ginger candy</li> <li>5. Kiwi</li> <li>6. BBQ</li> <li>7. Xu Ba Ya (cooked duck)</li> <li>8. Miao cured meat</li> </ol>
	Smell	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Traditional snacks</li> <li>2. Local cuisine</li> <li>3. Fresh air</li> <li>4. Local alcohols and wines</li> <li>5. Evening BBQs</li> <li>6. Unpleasant gutter odours</li> </ol>
	Touch	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Water of Tuo River</li> <li>2. Ancient wall</li> <li>3. Ancient alley</li> <li>4. Wind at night</li> <li>5. Original Miao silver ornaments</li> </ol>
<b>Kim et al. (2013)</b>	Taste	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Tastes good</li> <li>2. Is different to the taste of the food in own my country</li> </ol>
<b>Gretzel &amp; Fesenmaier (2010)</b>	Taste	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Chicken</li> <li>2. Pie</li> <li>3. Mashed potatoes</li> <li>4. Local</li> <li>5. Steak</li> <li>6. Vegetables</li> <li>7. Amish</li> <li>8. Familystyle</li> <li>9. Homemade</li> <li>10. Pork</li> </ol>
	Sound	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Horses</li> <li>2. Birds</li> <li>3. Traffic</li> <li>4. Children</li> <li>5. People</li> <li>6. Quiet</li> <li>7. Music</li> <li>8. Firewood cracking</li> <li>9. Wind</li> </ol>
	Smell	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Farm/manure</li> <li>2. Fresh air</li> <li>3. Baking</li> </ol>

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		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4. Grass/hay</li> <li>5. Flowers</li> <li>6. Horses</li> <li>7. Apple</li> <li>8. Lake</li> <li>9. Leaves</li> <li>10. Popcorn</li> <li>11. Cooking</li> </ol>
<b>Son &amp; Pearce (2005)</b>	Sight	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Kangaroo</li> <li>2. Sydney Opera House</li> <li>3. Koala</li> <li>4. Ayers Rock</li> <li>5. Interesting wildlife</li> <li>6. Good beaches</li> <li>7. Great Barrier Reef</li> <li>8. Aboriginal culture</li> <li>9. Open space</li> <li>10. Outback</li> <li>11. Good weather</li> <li>12. Rain forest</li> </ol>
	Smell	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Sea</li> <li>2. Asian food</li> <li>3. Fresh air</li> <li>4. Forest, trees, grasses</li> <li>5. Animal (Kangaroo, koala, etc.)</li> <li>6. BBQ</li> <li>7. Tropical fruits</li> </ol>
	Hearing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Birds' singing (cockatoo, kookaburra, etc.)</li> <li>2. Waves</li> <li>3. Various foreign languages</li> <li>4. Aboriginal music</li> <li>5. Traffic</li> <li>6. Wind</li> <li>7. Music on the street</li> </ol>
	Touch	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Animals (kangaroo, koala, snake, sheep, camel, etc.)</li> <li>2. Sand</li> <li>3. Trees</li> <li>4. Rocks</li> <li>5. Green grass</li> <li>6. Warmth of the sun</li> <li>7. Wind</li> </ol>

Source: Own elaboration

The initial pool of items had to be refined, as not all of the indicators could be directly applied to the context of the study. Overall, the set of sensory words yielded by existing studies can be classified into two categories: sensory items (n=138) and sensory-related adjectives (n=17).

A preliminary pool of sensory items will be elaborated to capture the aspects of the destination's environment that are able to generate sensory impressions. As for the identified adjectives describing qualities of sensory perceptions, they will be used for the wording of the measurement items in the subsequent stage of the research (see Table 24).

Table 22 provides the first selection of indicators for the sensory dimensions of the destination's sensescape construct. As evident in the exhaustive pool of items shown in Table 21, while many of the identified sensory words were context-specific, they represented a generic source of sensory impressions. That is why, the first selection of items aims at capturing the key sensory components of each sensescape through encompassing sensory items. For example, Son and Pearce (2005) reported "Sydney Opera House" as a component of the visual image of the destination, which is a name of a building. Further related items are "architectural details" (Agapito et al., 2017) and "ancient architectural complex" (Xiong et al., 2015). Based on the above, "architecture" was proposed as an encompassing sensory indicator (see Table 22). Following this reasoning, the identified visualscape descriptors were classified and integrated into the following encompassing items: "architecture (buildings, designs, and details)", "natural landscape", "maritime scenario", and "diversity of colours".

Similarly, the sensory words related to a destination's soundscape were reviewed and three encompassing items were proposed: "nature sounds (birds, trees, wind)", "music" and "human voices". The identified sources of

olfactory impressions were also summarised in four categories: “nature (plants, flowers, trees, the sea)”, “fresh air”, “local food” and “local beverage”. As for destination’s tastescape, the review of the literature revealed that the sensory impressions documented by previous studies can be integrated in two encompassing indicators: “local food” and “local beverage”. Finally, the list of items related to a destination’s hapticscape reported by the literature was classified in four integrating indicators: “warmth of the sun”, “sand and sea water”, “wind” and “material heritage (ancient walls, stones and ornaments)”.

Consequently, the first scrutiny of the pool of items condensed their number from 138 to a preliminary list of 17 indicators. The significantly reduced list of indicators is due to a number of reasons. First, as indicated before, items similar in meaning were merged into one encompassing indicator. For example, the tastescape category “local food” subsumes 17 food descriptors (e.g. seafood (Agapito et al., 2017); mashed potatoes (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010); hunan noodles (Xiong et al., 2015)). Second, several repeated/overlapping indicators were found (e.g. birdsong (Agapito et al., 2017; Gretzel & Fesenmeier, 2010; Son & Pearce, 2005; Xiong et al., 2015)).

Table 22. First selection of items for the sensory dimensions of destination's sensescape construct

DIMENSION	ENCOMPASSING ITEM	ORIGINAL ITEMS FROM LITERATURE REVIEW
<b>Visualscape</b>	1. Architecture (buildings, designs, details)	Architectural details (Agapito et al., 2017); Ancient architectural complex (Xiong et al., 2015); Bridges (Xiong et al., 2015); Souvenir shops and booths (Xiong et al., 2015); Sydney Opera House (Son & Pearce)
	2. Natural landscape (trees, flowers, fauna, light)	Animals (Agapito et al., 2017); Trees (Agapito et al., 2017); Flowers (Agapito et al., 2017); River (Agapito et al., 2017); Tuo River (Xiong et al., 2015); Green mountains and river (Xiong et al., 2015), Kangaroo (Son & Pierce); Koala (Son & Pierce); Ayers Rock (Son & Pierce); Interesting wildlife (Son & Pierce); Good beaches (Son & Pierce); Great Barrier Reef (Son & Pierce); Open Space (Son & Pierce); Outback (Son & Pierce); Rainforest (Son & Pierce); Natural light (Agapito et al., 2017); Sky (Agapito et al., 2017)
	3. Maritime scenario	Maritime scenario (Agapito et al., 2017); Beach (Agapito et al., 2017); Beach (Son & Pearce, 2005)
	4. Diversity of colours	Diversity of colours (Agapito et al., 2017); Neon lights at night (Xiong et al., 2015)
<b>Soundscape</b>	1. Nature sounds (birds, trees, wind)	Nature (Agapito et al., 2017); Birdsong (Agapito et al., 2017; Gretzel & Fesenmeier, 2010; Son & Pearce, 2005; Xiong et al., 2015); Wind (Agapito et al., 2017; Gretzel & Fesenmeier, 2010; Son & Pearce, 2005); Sea (waves)(Agapito et al., 2017; Son & Pearce, 2005), Crickets (Agapito et al., 2017), Animals (Agapito et al., 2017, Gretzel & Fesenmeier, 2010), Tree leaves (Agapito et al., 2017); Tuo River (Xiong et al., 2015)
	2. Music	Traditional folk songs (Xiong et al., 2015; Son & Pearce); Voluntary singers (Xiong et al., 2015); Rip-roarious bars and pubs at night (Xiong et al., 2015); Music on the street (Son & Pearce); Music (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010)
	3. Human voices	People (Agapito et al., 2017; Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010); Sellers and tourists bargaining (Xiong et al., 2015); Rip-roarious bars and pubs at night (Xiong et al., 2015); Hubbub of voices from numerous tourists (Xiong et al., 2015); Foreign languages (Son & Pearce, 2005)



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<b>Smellscape</b>	1. Nature (plants, flowers, trees, sea)	Plants (Agapito et al., 2017; Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010; Son & Pearce, 2005); Flowers (Agapito et al., 2017; Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010); Trees (Agapito et al., 2017; Son & Pearce, 2005); Leaves (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010); Sea (Son & Pearce, 2005)
	2. Fresh air	Fresh air (Agapito et al., 2017; Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010; Son & Pearce, 2005; Xiong et al., 2015)
	3. Local food	Traditional snacks (Xiong et al., 2015); Local cuisine (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010; Xiong et al., 2015); BBQ (Son & Pearce, 2005; Xiong et al., 2015); Asian food (Son & Pearce, 2005); Tropic fruits (Son & Pearce, 2005); Apples (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010); Popcorn (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010)
	4. Local beverage	Local alcohols and wines (Xiong et al., 2015)
<b>Tastescape</b>	1. Local food	Local food (Agapito et al., 2017); Seafood (Agapito et al., 2017); Fruit (Agapito et al., 2017; Xiong et al., 2015); Bread (Agapito et al., 2017); Cheese (Agapito et al., 2017); Hunan noodles (Xiong et al., 2015); Mu Chui Su (Xiong et al., 2015); Ginger candy (Xiong et al., 2015); BBQ (Xiong et al., 2015); Xu Ba Ya (Xiong et al., 2015); Miao cured meat (Xiong et al., 2015); Chicken (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010); Pie (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010); Mashed potatoes (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010); Steak (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010); Pork (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010); Vegetables (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010)
	2. Local beverage	Local beverage (Agapito et al., 2017); Local alcohol and wines (Xiong et al., 2015).
<b>Hapticscape</b>	1. Warmth of the sun	Warmth of the sun (Son & Pearce, 2005); Heat (Agapito et al., 2017).
	2. Sand and sea water	Sand (Agapito et al., 2017; Son & Pearce, 2005); Water (Agapito et al., 2017).
	3. Wind	Wind (Agapito et al., 2017; Son & Pearce, 2005; Xiong et al., 2015).
	4. Material heritage (ancient walls, stones, ornaments)	Ancient wall (Xiong et al., 2015); Ancient alley (Xiong et al., 2015); Rough textures (Agapito et al., 2017); Original Miao silver ornaments (Xiong et al., 2015).

Source: Own elaboration

Furthermore, 25 of the indicators had to be excluded, as described in Table 23. More specifically, there were several context-specific items, inapplicable to the domain of the present study. For example, Xiong et al. (2015) reported “bamboo boats” and “washing clothes in Tuo River” as items representing the visual sensory dimension of the tourist experience. However, these impressions are characteristic to the context of the study, but not applicable to other type of destinations. Similarly, Gretzel and Fesenmaier (2010) documented olfactory aspects, which are farm-related: horses, animals, manure, etc. and cannot be adapted to the context of a Mediterranean urban destination.

Another motive for excluding items was the implied negative connotation contained in the words: e.g. “unpleasant gutter odours” (Xiong et al., 2015) or “traffic” (Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010; Son & Pearce, 2005). Some of the indicators were not considered for inclusion in the scale because of being situational (“rain” (Agapito et al., 2017)) or associated with several types of perceptions (“good weather” (Son & Pearce, 2005)) is suggested as a visual sensory impression, but it can also be related to haptic perceptions. Yet others were excluded because of representing qualities/characteristics of sensory perceptions, rather than sources of sensory impressions per se. For example, Agapito et al. (2017) identified “sweet” as a gustatory perception and Gretzel and Fesenmaier (2010) reported “quiet” as an adjective describing an auditory impression.

Table 23. Excluded items after the first selection of indicators

DIMENSION	ITEM	SOURCE	REASON FOR EXCLUSION
<b>Visualscape</b>	Bamboo boats	Xiong et al. (2015)	Context-specific
	Washing clothes in Tuo River	Xiong et al. (2015)	Context-specific
	Clubs and bars at night	Xiong et al. (2015)	Not applicable for cruise visitors
	Aboriginal culture	Son & Pearce (2005)	Context-specific
	Good weather	Son & Pearce (2005)	Not related to visual perceptions
<b>Soundscape</b>	Silence	Agapito et al. (2017)	Not applicable
	Knocking sound of washing clothes by wooden mallet	Xiong et al. (2015)	Context-specific
	Traffic	Gretzel & Fesenmaier (2010); Son & Pearce (2005)	Negative connotation
	Quiet	Gretzel & Fesenmaier (2010)	Adjective
	Firewood cracking	Gretzel & Fesenmaier (2010)	Context-specific
<b>Smellscape</b>	Rain	Agapito et al. (2017)	Situational
	Unpleasant gutter odours	Xiong et al. (2015)	Negative connotation
	Animals	Son & Pearce (2005)	Context-specific
	Farm/manure	Gretzel & Fesenmaier (2010)	Context-specific
	Baking	Gretzel & Fesenmaier (2010)	Context-specific
	Horses	Gretzel & Fesenmaier (2010)	Context-specific
	Lake	Gretzel & Fesenmaier (2010)	Context-specific
<b>Tastescape</b>	Sweet	Agapito et al. (2017)	Adjective
	Homemade	Gretzel & Fesenmaier (2010)	Adjective
<b>Hapticscape</b>	Coolness	Agapito et al. (2017)	Context-specific
	Water of Tuo River	Xiong et al. (2015)	Context-specific

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	Animals (kangaroo, koala, snake, sheep, camel, etc.)	Son & Pearce (2005)	Context-specific
	Trees	Son & Pearce (2005)	Context-specific
	Rocks	Son & Pearce (2005)	Context-specific
	Green grass	Son & Pearce (2005)	Context-specific

Source: Own elaboration

#### 6.2.1.2.3.2. Thematic analysis of online cruise blogs

To further support the content validity of the identified measurement items from the literature review, a thematic analysis of online cruise blog entries was conducted. The analysis has two main aims: (i) to verify the identified sensory dimensions in the context of a cruise port of call visit and (ii) to provide items and sensory adjectives for the wording of the final measurement indicators.

Travel blogs, defined as “a personal form of online diary” (Schmallegger & Carson, 2008, p. 101), are a rich, though an under-utilised source of destination marketing information (Banyai & Glover, 2012; Bosangit, Hibbert, & McCabe, 2015). Tourist narratives published in online blogs have proved useful to assess destination image (e.g. Mak, 2017; Sun, Ryan, & Pan, 2011; Tseng et al., 2015), customer delight (Magnini, Crotts, & Zehrer, 2011) and souvenir authenticity perception (Torabian & Arai, 2016), among others. Travel blog entries are deemed particularly adequate for exploring multisensory destination experiences because of their free narrative format (Agapito et al., 2013), which thus overcomes the constrained closed questionnaire research method (Banyai & Glover, 2012).

The first stage of the research included collecting travel blog entries. For this purpose, the website [www.rankedblogs.com](http://www.rankedblogs.com) was consulted, as it provides a ranking of blogs according to the number of their followers. Most of the cruise-themed blogs, however, contained either only cruise ship reviews or general cruise-related entries (e.g. cruise industry news). Out of the list of 41 blogs, only those providing accounts of cruise destination experiences in the Mediterranean were selected, as this geographic area constitutes the second largest cruise market with steady growth during the last decade (Karlis & Polemis, 2018). Furthermore, only limited cruise research has been

conducted in cruise regions other than the Caribbean so far (Satta et al., 2015).

Altogether, 248 Mediterranean onshore cruise experience entries were found, amounting to 69277 words. The textual content of the entries was collected using an automated Web crawler (Parsehub.com).

To extract the multisensory dimensions of the reported cruise destination experiences, thematic content analysis was performed with the text analytics software Leximancer (version 4.5) (Smith & Humphreys, 2006). Unlike other qualitative analysis programs, this tool does not apply coding, but uses algorithms based on lexical co-occurrence frequency, thus allowing for large data bases analysis. The word co-occurrence information from natural language is used not only for identifying key concepts and themes in a text corpus, but also for uncovering semantic patterns between them. The results of the text mining procedures performed by Leximancer are displayed graphically by concept maps, which consist of circles and dots representing themes and concepts, respectively. The semantic relationships between concepts and themes are illustrated by their relative position, with closely related concepts indicating stronger semantic links and conversely. The importance of each theme is indicated by the size of its circle and its colour, with brighter colours indicating more important themes. Recently, tourism researchers have shown an increased interest in using Leximancer as a qualitative software tool to explore destination image (Tseng et al., 2015), souvenir shopping behaviour (Fangxuan & Ryan, 2018) and tourists' evaluation of a romantic-themed attraction (Pearce & Wu, 2016), among others.

Once retrieved, the corpus of the blog entries was uploaded into Leximancer software and processed. The software automatically generates a list of



Based on the concepts identified within each theme, each of them was labelled according to the sense they most strongly represent. The analysis shows that the most important sensory theme in the cruise visitors' experience in a port of call is the visual one. This theme includes concepts indicating different types of buildings such as: "church", "building", "fortress", "cathedral", "palace", "tower", "houses". The perceived aesthetic qualities of the monuments were usually defined as "beautiful", "old", "historic", etc. Typical reviews include:

*"The Old Town is a maze of cobblestone streets, with beautiful historic buildings dating from the 14th century and within walking distance of the Ship. It's one of the best preserved medieval towns in the world and a UNESCO World Cultural Heritage site."*

Concepts pertaining to the visual sensory dimensions of tourists' experience were also related to ports' of call natural resources: "trees", "parks", "gardens", "hill", "green". The following excerpt illustrates it:

*"I began my sightseeing at the Jardin Exotique. The garden park is not only home to some surprisingly colorful species of cacti and agave from around the world but also perched on a cliff that offers a stunning views of Monaco."*

In general, the verb "see" was most frequently used to address the variety and quantity of attractions of the visited port of call. The texts provide evidence:

*"We also docked in Barcelona. The port here is massive and very impressive. The trip into the city was great and what an amazing city it is. Lots of wonderful sights to see."*



*“Offering beautiful landscapes, UNESCO World Heritage sites, storied cities and vibrant villages, Livorno serves up a lot to see and experience under the golden glow of the Tuscan sun.”*

The second most relevant sensory theme emerging from the narratives refers to a combination of gustatory and olfactory sensory perceptions. The sense of taste is mainly related to the gastronomy experiences, as it can be observed in the following statements, where the “unique” taste of the local food is particularly emphasised:

*“I enjoy a visit to one of Europe’s oldest-running food markets, Mercado Central, where we sampled unique Spanish hams and cheeses. A quick morning walk through Valencia’s Central Market, where saffron, other spices, seafood, ham and vegetables are all on display.”*

*“Tourists tend to favor traditional pizza and pasta choices but shouldn’t miss the unique taste of the locally produced cheese, Gbejniet, usually served in soup. Lampuki Pie (fish pie) and Kapunata, (Maltese ratatouille) are also good lunch choices.”*

While the greatest part of the concepts contained in that theme refer to bloggers’ gastronomy and culinary experiences, others address the odours that local markets spread:

*“The profusion of flowers at Cours Saleya is a treat not only for the eyes but also for the nose. Take your time, talk with the vendors, stop and smell the roses and the lavender...”*

The rest of the identified themes refer to different types of haptic perceptions. The most relevant haptic theme is associated with cutaneous perceptions. The concepts pertaining to this theme refer to the weather conditions and their corporeal impact (e.g. “hot”, “warm”, “feel”, “burn”). Thus,

in reporting about their port of call visits, tourists made comments about the warmth of the sun or the coolness they felt:

*"We stayed at the beach for a couple of hours enjoying the warm Mediterranean Sun while swimming in the cool waters of the Mediterranean Sea. The island itself was just as beautiful as the beach."*

A second haptics-related theme referred to hedonic-elicited touch (e.g. "touch", "ancient", "ruins", "unique"), as the narratives included information about touching ancient ruins:

*"Ephesus is a stunning visual wonder, great for photos, and unusual in that you can walk and touch the ancient artifacts everywhere."*

The last identified theme features tourists' crowding perception, which can be considered a haptic experience dimension. Commonly, the narratives contained references to crowding, which reveals that the experience of a place is influenced by the corporeal perception of free space. Based on the narratives of the tourists, it becomes evident that the presence of crowds influenced their place experience negatively:

*"I looked forward to getting away from the crowds and strolling down quiet, ancient cobblestoned streets and window shopping with the locals. It gives me a feeling of what it might be like to live here..."*

References to auditory perceptions were also present in the corpus (e.g. "noisy", "quiet", "music", "song", etc.). However, they do not constitute a separate theme, but emerge intertwined with other senses. Tourists' narratives show that the aural sense becomes activated by the absence of urban noise mainly:

*“Then we walked on to the large cathedral (Cattedrale Maria Santissima Assunta). A giant beautiful building in terracolor stone. On the inside it was even more beautiful and a quiet escape from the busy city.”*

Only few references to music were found in the corpus. The following excerpt is an example:

*“A small band/choir performs traditional songs so lovely that the gathering crowd has a hard time moving on. Against the backdrop of the river and the colorful buildings on the hillside of the opposite bank, one woman in the choir sings loudly, and slightly off key, but with such spirited bravado that she engages the emotion.”*

Overall, the findings verify the role of sensory stimulation in tourist experience evaluation and confirm the sensory impressions suggested by the literature review. Importantly, the results of the thematic analysis reveal additional aspects of the sensescapes to be included for consideration in the set of measurement items. In particular, the haptic sensation of crowding was reported as a relevant component of the cruise visitors' onshore experience. This result alludes to the need to consider tourists' perceptions of destination sustainability (Sanchez-Fernández, Iniesta-Bonillo, & Cervera-Taulet, 2019) when exploring cruise visitors' assessment of the onshore experience.

Furthermore, the variety of attractions/buildings “to see” was also suggested as an important aspect of the visual sensescape. Also, in terms of the documented tastescape impressions, the “unique” taste of the local food and drink has been a frequently reported gustatory sensation. Accordingly, the above items will be included in the preliminary list of destination's sensescape measurement items, which now amounts to 21 (Table 24). The suggested wording of the items is based on both, the identified adjectives in

the literature review (see Table 21) and the sensory words and expressions reported in the cruise travel online blog entries.

**Table 24. Provisional indicators proposed after the analysis of online blog entries on cruise visitors' destination experiences**

SENSESCAPE DIMENSION	PROVISIONAL INDICATORS
<b>Visualscape</b>	Vis1. The architecture of the destination (e.g. buildings, monuments, ornaments) is attractive.
	Vis2. The natural landscape of the destination (trees, flowers, sky, etc.) is beautiful.
	Vis3. The destination displays a diversity of colours.
	Vis4. The maritime scenario of the destination is attractive.
	Vis5. The destination has a wide variety of things to see.
<b>Soundscape</b>	Sou1. The sound of the nature in the destination (e.g. birdsong, wind, palm trees, waves) is pleasant.
	Sou2. The music you can hear in the destination (e.g. street musicians, concerts, folk songs) is nice to listen to.
	Sou3. The voices of people on the street, bars, squares, etc. make the destination lively.
<b>Smellscape</b>	Sme1. Local food (e.g. traditional dishes, fruits, vegetables) smells nice.
	Sme2. Local beverage (e.g. coffee, wine, typical drinks) spreads a nice smell.
	Sme3. The smell of plants, flowers, trees, sea in the destination is pleasant.
	Sme4. The air in the destination is fresh.
<b>Tastescape</b>	Tas1. Local food tastes good.
	Tas2. The taste of local food is unique.
	Tas3. Local beverage tastes good.
	Tas4. The taste of local beverage is unique.
<b>Hapticscape</b>	Hap1. The warmth of the sun in the destination feels good on my skin.
	Hap2. The touch of the wind/breeze in the destination on my skin is gentle.
	Hap3. The material heritage of the destination (e.g. ruins, stones and ornaments) is appealing to touch.
	Hap4. Touching the sand and sea water in the destination is pleasant.
	Hap5. The presence of other people/tourists in the destination is tolerable.

Source: Own elaboration

#### *6.2.1.2.4. Expert panel review*

To ensure face and content validity, a panel of experts was invited to review the proposed definition of the construct and its measurement items, as recommended by previous studies (Hardesty & Bearden, 2004; Lewis, Templeton, & Byrd, 2005).

In this study the panel of experts was composed of eight members: five experts were marketing and tourism academics, while three were practitioners, representing a DMO and a cruise port authority. The experts received the proposed definitions of destination's sensescape and its dimensions, as well as the list of 21 items, together with a description of the purpose of the study. The members of the panel were first asked to confirm or reject the proposed definitions. Second, the experts had to assess each of the provisional items on a four-point scale ranging from irrelevant (1) to extremely relevant (4). Also, the panel was asked to review the allocation of the items in their respective sensescape dimensions and indicate if any disagreement arises. The judges were also given space to provide their reasons for considering an item inadequate and suggest recommendations for wording improvement.

Overall, the experts rated most of the suggested indicators as "extremely relevant" or "somewhat relevant". The panel expressed no concerns related to the sensory dimension associated with each indicator. However, it should be noted that the experts suggested excluding one of the items, as being represented by other items. In particular, more than half of the members of the panel recommended eliminating item vis3 "The destination displays a diversity of colours", as being implied by indicators vis1 and vis2 (see Table 24). Furthermore, rewording some of the items was also suggested. As a

result, after addressing the feedback received from the panel of experts, the pool of indicators was reduced to 20 (Table 25).

**Table 25. Measurement items of destination’s sensescape after the expert panel review**

SENSESCAPE DIMENSION	PROVISIONAL INDICATORS
<b>Visualscape</b>	Vis1. The architecture of the destination (e.g. buildings, monuments, ornaments) is attractive.
	Vis2. The natural landscape of the destination (trees, flowers, sky, etc.) is beautiful.
	Vis3. The maritime scenario of the destination is attractive.
	Vis4. The destination has a wide variety of things to see.
<b>Soundscape</b>	Sou1. The sound of the nature in the destination (e.g. birdsong, wind, trees, waves) is pleasant.
	Sou2. The music you can hear in the destination (e.g. street musicians, concerts, folk songs) is nice to listen to.
	Sou3. The voices of people on the street, bars, squares, etc. allow to perceive the local ambience.
<b>Smellscape</b>	Sme1. Local food (e.g. traditional dishes, fruits, vegetables) smells nice.
	Sme2. Local beverage (e.g. coffee, wine, typical local drinks) spreads a nice smell.
	Sme3. The smell of plants, flowers, trees, sea in the destination is pleasant.
	Sme4. The air in the destination is fresh.
<b>Tastescape</b>	Tas1. Local food tastes good.
	Tas2. The taste of local food is unique.
	Tas3. Local beverage tastes good.
	Tas4. The taste of local beverage is unique.
<b>Hapticscape</b>	Hap1. The warmth of the sun in the destination feels good on my skin.
	Hap2. The touch of the wind/breeze in the destination on my skin is gentle.
	Hap3. The material heritage of the destination (e.g. monuments, stones, etc.) is appealing to touch.
	Hap4. Touching the sand and sea water in the destination is pleasant.
	Hap5. The presence and contact with other people/tourists in the destination is tolerable.

Source: Own elaboration

#### *6.2.1.2.5. Concept mapping*

To support the scale development process and delineate the indicators associated with each multisensory dimension, concept mapping was employed (Rosas & Camphausen, 2007; Rosas & Ridings, 2017). The technique consists of a qualitative-quantitative approach including several steps (sorting, rating and multivariate statistical analyses (multidimensional scaling, hierarchical cluster analysis)) to generate concept maps. This method has proved useful not only in measurement scale validation (e.g. Alvarado-Herrera et al., 2017; Jelenchick et al., 2014), but also in analysing open-ended survey responses (e.g. Jackson & Trochim, 2002) and leveraging focus groups output (e.g. Bigné et al., 2002).

Following Bigné et al. (2002) and Alvarado-Herrera et al. (2017), a focus group of 12 experienced cruise tourists was recruited to conduct the concept mapping procedure. The participants were handed cards with each of the measurement items and were asked to group them in a way that makes sense to them. Importantly, the participants were informed that one item could not be placed in more than one pile. To avoid predisposing participants to group subsequent items in one pile, the cards were randomly ordered and numbered before being facilitated to the focus group as shown in Table 26 below.

Table 26. Numbering of the items in the concept mapping procedure

SENSESCAPE DIMENSION	INDICATOR	Nº IN THE CONCEPT MAPPING PROCEDURE
Visualscape	Vis1	17
	Vis2	7
	Vis3	20
	Vis4	1
Soundscape	Sou1	2
	Sou2	19
	Sou3	13
Smellscape	Sme1	18
	Sme2	15
	Sme3	3
	Sme4	9
Tastescape	Tas1	6
	Tas2	16
	Tas3	12
	Tas4	5
Hapticscape	Hap1	11
	Hap2	14
	Hap3	8
	Hap4	4
	Hap5	10

Source: Own elaboration

Once the participants sorted the items individually, a matrix for each participant was created to reflect their items configuration. Next, the individual matrices were summed in a total similarity matrix, which was used as input for the multidimensional scaling (MDS) procedure. The MDS analysis generates a 2-dimensional solution, consisting of coordinate values for each item (Table 27), which are plotted on a map, representing each indicator with a numbered point (Figure 16). The ALSCAL algorithm was used to elaborate the map obtained from the MDS analysis and the results show a very good fit:  $\text{Stress}_1=0.0097 (< 0.025)$ ;  $\text{S-Stress}_1= 0.0010 (< 0.025)$ ;  $R^2=0.9996 (\approx 1)$ .

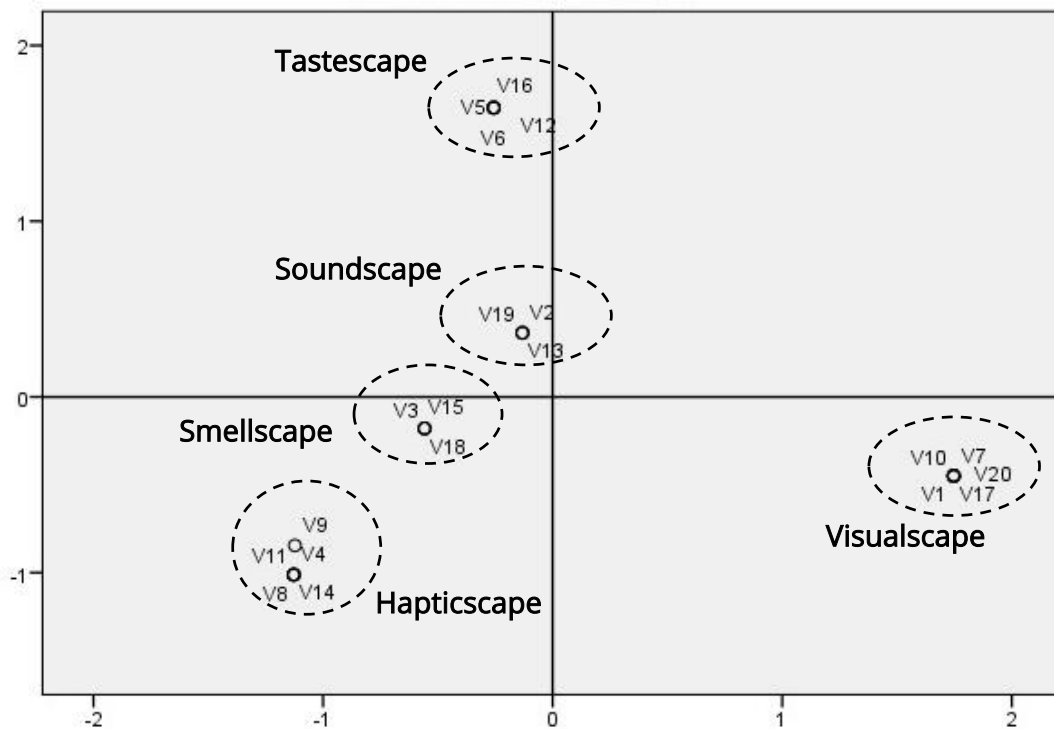


Table 27. Coordinates of the items used in the concept mapping procedure

ITEM	COORDINATES		ITEM	COORDINATES	
	X	Y		X	Y
V1	1.7471	-0.4478	V11	-1.1276	-1.0125
V2	-0.1321	0.3643	V12	-0.256	1.6467
V3	-0.5585	-0.1793	V13	-0.1318	0.3647
V4	-1.1284	-1.012	V14	-1.1276	-1.0116
V5	-0.2576	1.6451	V15	-0.558	-0.1789
V6	-0.2576	1.6451	V16	-0.2566	1.646
V7	1.7469	-0.4488	V17	1.7463	-0.4497
V8	-1.1279	-1.0124	V18	-0.558	-0.1789
V9	-1.1228	-0.8451	V19	-0.1322	0.3642
V10	1.7463	-0.4492	V20	1.7461	-0.4499

Source: Own elaboration

Figure 16. Perceptual map of the dimensions of destination's sensescape

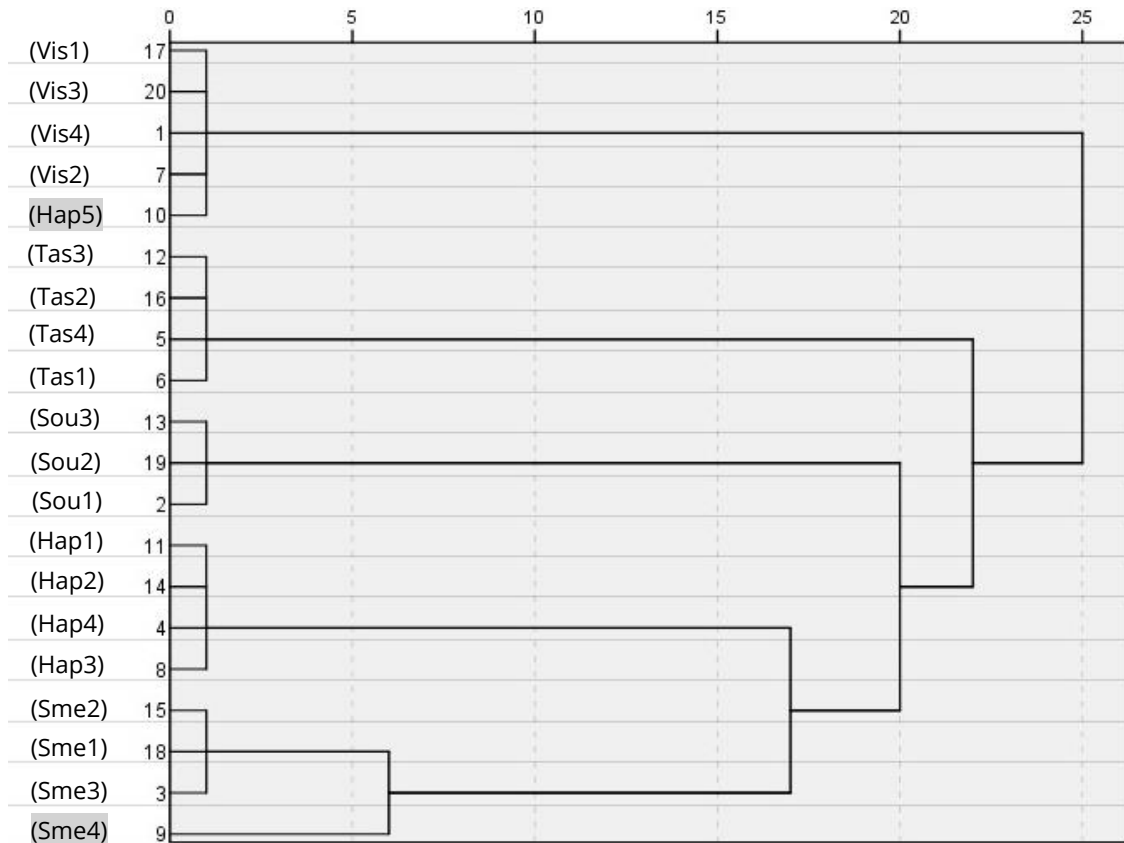


Note: Stress<sub>1</sub>=0.0097; S-Stress<sub>1</sub>= 0.0010; R<sup>2</sup>=0.9996

Source: Own elaboration

The coordinates data obtained from the MDS analysis were then used as input for a hierarchical cluster analysis applying Ward's algorithm, which produced the dendrogram presented in Figure 17.

Figure 17. Dendrogram of the hierarchical cluster analysis



Source: Own elaboration

As evident in Figures 16 and 17, most of the items tended to group in the proposed sensory dimensions suggested by the literature review and the panel of experts. However, Hap5, related to the presence and contact of other people/tourists in the destination was wrongly associated with the visualscape dimension, rather than the haptic one. It should also be noted that two of the academic experts of the panel described in the previous section warned about the possible misunderstanding of this item by respondents. Hence, the item was eliminated. Attention should also be paid to item Sme4 ("The air in the destination is fresh"), which was associated with

a haptic impression by some of the participants. Given the unclear nature of the item, a decision was made to eliminate it and thus avoid future measurement problems. Consequently, the refined version of the proposed measure now includes 18 items.

*6.2.1.2.5. Pre-test with students*

To ensure face validity, the list of 18 items was administered to a sample of 32 university students enrolled in a Tourism Master's Programme. In terms of the demographic profile of the sample, 34% were male students, while 66% were female with ages ranging from 21 to 36. As for the nationality of the respondents, there were students from Spain, Italy, China, Russia and Ukraine. Given the international student sample, the items were available in Spanish and English, so that the face validity of the items was pre-tested in the two languages. The respondents reported no problems related to the comprehension of the items' wording. Hence, face validity was verified.

### 6.2.1.3. Stage 2: Preliminary measurement assessment

Following the item generation and initial measurement creation phase, a pilot study was conducted with a sample of cruise passengers to further purify and validate the proposed measurement instrument. An overview of the characteristics of the conducted study is displayed in Table 28.

**Table 28. Research design overview of the pilot study**

<b>Design</b>	Quantitative
<b>Methodological technique</b>	Interview with a self-administered questionnaire
<b>Universe</b>	Cruise tourists older than 18 years
<b>Geographical location</b>	Valencia
<b>Sample size</b>	176
<b>Sampling procedure</b>	Convenience sampling
<b>Data collection period</b>	October 2018
<b>Field work execution</b>	Marketing research company supervised by the author

Source: Own elaboration

#### *6.2.1.3.1. Data collection*

To collect data for the preliminary measurement assessment, a questionnaire including the 18 indicators identified in the previous stage of the research was designed. Additionally, the questionnaire included measures of two variables, which are needed for establishing the validity of the proposed destination's sensescape measurement scale. More specifically, given the posited formative specification of the measure, convergent validity has to be assessed through a redundancy analysis, which examines whether the formatively posited construct is highly correlated with an alternative reflective measure of the same construct (Cheah et al., 2018). Thus, the measurement scale of sensory destination brand experience

elaborated by Barnes et al. (2014), consisting of three reflective items, was included in the pilot study questionnaire. Furthermore, the nomological validity of a formative variable involves assessing the link between the formative index and other constructs with which it is expected to be related (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). In this regard, the literature has reported that a positive sensory experience fosters future behavioural intentions (i.e. repurchase/return and recommendation likelihood) (Barnes et al., 2014; Chen & Lin, 2018). Consequently, the measure of behavioural intentions used by Chen and Tsai (2007), expressed by two items (visitor's likelihood to revisit the destination and recommend it to others) was included in the questionnaire. This is in line with past studies developing formative indexes, as most of them use behavioural intentions to assess the external validity of the construct (e.g. Arnett, Laverie, & Meiers, 2003; Cao et al., 2018). All items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale. Respondents of the pilot study were also asked to provide socio-demographic data: age, gender, level of completed studies, main occupation and country of residence.

The data collection was carried out in the last two weeks of October 2018 at the port of Valencia (Spain) by a marketing research company supervised by the author. Convenience sampling was used to select the participants, since it was not possible to obtain a comprehensive list of the passengers onboard each of the cruise ships, from which random samples could be drawn. Cruise passengers were approached in the Hall of the Passengers' Terminal of the port of Valencia, once they have visited the city and before embarking on the cruise ship. The interviewers were present at the port a couple of hours before cruise ships' scheduled departure, as not all cruise passengers would return to the ship at the last moment. Respondents' participation in the survey was voluntary and anonymous. The demographic profile of the interviewed cruise passengers in the pilot study is shown in Table 29.

Table 29. Profile of the pilot study sample

VARIABLE	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	VALUE
<b>Age</b> (years)	<i>Mean</i>	54.5
	<i>Minimum</i>	18.0
	<i>Maximum</i>	82.0
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	15.3
<b>Gender</b> (%)	<i>Female</i>	52.8
	<i>Male</i>	47.2
<b>Education level</b> (%)	<i>Without studies</i>	1.1
	<i>Primary studies</i>	5.1
	<i>Secondary studies</i>	31.8
	<i>University studies</i>	61.9
<b>Main occupation</b> (%)	<i>Employed</i>	35.2
	<i>Self-employed</i>	6.8
	<i>Retired/ Pensioner</i>	47.2
	<i>Unemployed</i>	1.1
	<i>Housework</i>	4.0
	<i>Student</i>	5.7
<b>Country of residence</b> (%)	<i>United Kingdom</i>	29.0
	<i>Germany</i>	26.1
	<i>USA</i>	19.3
	<i>Italy</i>	8.0
	<i>Others (representing less than 3% each)</i>	17.6

Source: Own elaboration

#### 6.2.1.3.2. Assessment of the formative measurement model

Reliability (in terms of internal consistency) and standard validity procedures recommended for reflective measurement scales are not adequate for composite variables (i.e. formative indexes), as their indicators are not required to covariate, but might well be uncorrelated (Diamantopoulos et al., 2008). Thus, alternative approaches must be followed to evaluate the quality of the measures. Although there is a lack of agreement on the most suitable criteria for the assessment of formative measurement models, a multi-step process to its evaluation is commonly used. While the order of steps may

vary, the estimation of formative models usually includes assessing convergent validity, multicollinearity, significance and relevance of outer weights, as well as nomological validity (Cenfetelli & Bassellier, 2009; Diamantopoulos, Riefler, & Roth, 2008; Hair et al., 2017; Petter et al., 2007). Following Hair et al. (2017), convergent validity has to be estimated first. As indicated by Cheah et al. (2018) this requires running a redundancy analysis, which examines whether the formatively operationalised construct is correlated with an alternative reflective or single-item measure of the same construct. Hair et al. (2017) establishes that the path coefficient should be at least 0.7 or higher, i.e. the formative construct should explain at least 50% of the endogenous variable variance. As already mentioned, the measurement scale of the construct sensory destination brand experience elaborated by Barnes et al. (2014) and consisting of three reflective items, was also included in the pilot study questionnaire. Accordingly, a redundancy analysis was performed in SmartPLS (v.3.2.8) by linking the formatively operationalised construct to the 3-item reflective measure. Before running the PLS algorithm, the two-stage approach for estimating higher-order component models was employed (Hair et al. 2017), as destination's sensescape is posited as a formative-formative latent variable. First, the model was estimated to obtain latent variable scores for the respective lower-order sensory dimensions. Second, the latent variable scores of each sensory dimension were used as manifest indicators of the destination's sensescape construct. Then the redundancy analysis was performed by estimating the structural path between the formatively-positing measure of destination's sensescape as an exogenous variable and the reflectively operationalized sensory destination brand experience as an endogenous latent variable. The results indicated a path coefficient of 0.741 ( $t=15.047$ ) and an  $R^2$  value of 0.55 which confirms the convergent validity of the proposed formative measure.

As a second step, multicollinearity is to be estimated, as it is an undesirable issue in formative models. Excessive collinearity among indicators impedes distinguishing the influence of each indicator on the latent variable and indicators with high colinearity might contain redundant information. To assess the existence of multicollinearity, the variance inflation factor (VIF) should be estimated. Multicollinearity poses a problem when VIF values surpass the threshold of 3.3 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2006). The results of the conducted analysis showed that all first-order items' VIF values were below the critical level with the exception of item Tas4 which is greater than the established cut-off point (VIF=3.385). In this case, the item should be eliminated, as recommended by Diamantopoulos and Siguaaw (2006). As for the second-order factors (i.e. the five sensory dimensions of destination's sensescape), no multicollinearity problems were detected, as all value were below the critical value.

Following the procedure for the assessment of formative measurement models designed by Hair et al. (2017), once the level of collinearity is estimated, individual indicator validity should be assessed through the significance and relevance of indicators' outer weights. More specifically, the weights indicate the relative contribution of the formative indicators to the latent construct. At the first-order level, the results reveal that the weights are significant, with the exception of item Hap4 (weight=0.030;  $t=0.304$ ). In this case, rather than eliminating the items, Hair et al. (2017) recommend retaining the non-significant items if their respective outer loadings are above 0.5. In this case, the loading of item Hap4 was well above the established threshold (loading=0.555;  $t=5.157$ ) and thus, will be retained. Furthermore, Bollen and Lennox (1991) argue for keeping non-significant items so as to guarantee content validity. At the second-order level, the item reflecting destination's smellscape had a non-significant weight



(weight=0.027;  $t=0.255$ ), but as its outer loading was 0.794 ( $>0.5$ ), it was retained.

Once the validity of the individual indicators has been established both at the first and second-order measurement level, Diamantopoulos et al. (2008) suggest assessing the validity at the overall construct level considering nomological network of the construct. As previously explained, this validation procedure requires linking the formative index to other constructs, which are suggested by the literature as antecedents or consequences. In this study, future behavioural intention was used as an outcome of multisensory experience. The results of the conducted analysis showed that destination's sensescape is positively related to behavioural intentions ( $\beta=0.504$ ;  $t=5.108$ ) to final approach to formative model validation. Hence, nomological validity is also confirmed.

In addition to the conducted empirical validation procedures, which resulted in the elimination of one item, the pilot study also served for detecting problems in the questionnaire wording and design. More specifically, several respondents reported confusion in understanding the meaning of item vis3 ("The maritime scenario of the destination is attractive). As per their suggestion, the term "maritime scenario" was replaced with the word "seafront", as a more suitable noun. In terms of design, the respondents recommended including the meaning of each number of the 7-point Likert scale on page 2 of the questionnaire as well. The motive was that the elder respondents had difficulties in remembering the associated statement to each of the numbers and had to turn to the front page frequently, which made answering slower and uncomfortable.

Considering the above, the necessary refinements to the initially proposed measurement scale were done, so that the final version of the measure, which will be used in Stage 3 is shown in Table 30.

**Table 30. Final composition of the measurement scale after the pilot test**

<b>DIMENSION</b>	<b>ITEM</b>	<b>WORDING</b>
<b>Visualscape</b>	Vis1	The architecture of the destination (e.g. buildings, monuments, ornaments) is attractive.
	Vis2	The natural landscape of the destination (trees, flowers, sky, etc.) is beautiful.
	Vis3	The seafront of the destination is attractive.
	Vis4	The destination has a wide variety of things to see.
<b>Soundscape</b>	Sou1	The sound of the nature in the destination (e.g. birdsong, wind, trees, waves) is pleasant.
	Sou2	The music you can hear in the destination (e.g. street musicians, concerts, folk songs) is nice to listen to.
	Sou3	The voices of people on the street, bars, squares, etc. allow to perceive the local ambience.
<b>Smellscape</b>	Sme1	Local food (e.g. traditional dishes, fruits, vegetables) smells nice.
	Sme2	Local beverage (e.g. coffee, wine, typical local drinks) spreads a nice smell.
	Sme3	The smell of plants, flowers, trees, sea in the destination is pleasant.
<b>Tastescape</b>	Tas1	Local food tastes good.
	Tas2	The taste of local food is unique.
	Tas3	Local beverage tastes good.
<b>Hapticscape</b>	Hap1	The warmth of the sun in the destination feels good on my skin.
	Hap2	The touch of the wind/breeze in the destination on my skin is gentle.
	Hap3	The material heritage of the destination (e.g. monuments, stones, etc.) is appealing to touch.
	Hap4	Touching the sand and sea water in the destination is pleasant.

Source: Own elaboration

#### 6.2.1.4. Stage 3: Final measurement validation

At stage 3, the validity of the proposed measurement scale is assessed in a final study, comprising a sample of 737 cruise passengers. An overview of the characteristics of the conducted study is displayed in Table 31.

**Table 31. Research design overview of final study**

<b>Design</b>	Quantitative
<b>Methodological technique</b>	Self-administered questionnaire
<b>Universe</b>	Cruise tourists older than 18 years
<b>Geographical location</b>	Valencia
<b>Sample size</b>	737
<b>Sampling procedure</b>	Convenience sampling
<b>Data collection period</b>	October-December 2018
<b>Field work execution</b>	Marketing research company supervised by the author

Source: Own elaboration

##### *6.2.1.4.1. Study setting*

The study took place in the city of Valencia, which represents one of the leading Spanish cruise ports with approximately half a million cruise tourists in the last years (Puertos del Estado, 2019). The number of cruise passengers calling at the port of Valencia has more than doubled in the last decade (199.335 cruise tourists in 2008 versus 421.518 in 2018). Valencia can be classified as a discovery port, as it is not a world-famous destination, but provides the sense of discovering a new place (Pallis, 2015). As such, it can be deemed representative of a great part of the Mediterranean cruise ports.

Figure 18 provides a map of the port of Valencia indicating the main cruise passengers' areas.

**Figure 18. Map of the port of Valencia**

Source: Own elaboration from Wikimedia Commons pool of images

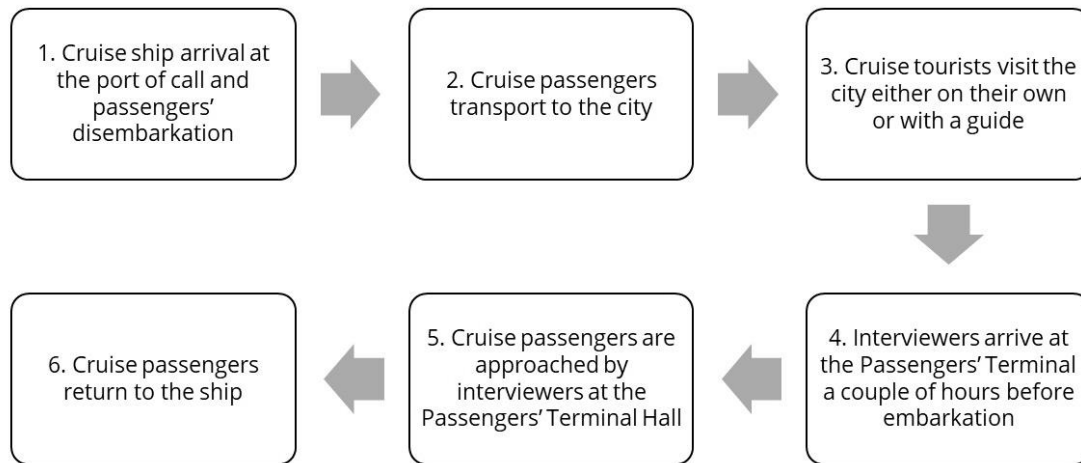
#### *6.2.1.4.2. Data collection*

The target population of the study included cruise tourists who visited the city of Valencia. The data collection was carried out during one of the periods in which the port of Valencia receives the greatest number of cruise ship arrivals: October-November 2018. Data was gathered from cruises pertaining to various brands and sizes to guarantee that the sample is not biased. As previously indicated (section 6.2.1.3.1), convenience sampling was employed as data collection procedure since a sampling frame was not available. Data were gathered by means of self-administered structured questionnaires available in English, German, Italian and Spanish (see Appendix 1, 2, 3 and 4 accordingly). The final sample was composed of 737 valid questionnaires.

The respondents were approached at the hall of the Passengers' Terminal of the port of Valencia, once they have visited the city and before embarking on the cruise ship. A completion incentive was provided to the respondents of the survey: a Tourism Valencia branded bag containing a carton of horchata (a typical Valencian drink made of tigernuts), a small pack of rosquilletas

(traditional handmade bread sticks), together with some candies, lollipops and a pen from Tourism Valencia (City of Valencia Destination Marketing Organisation). The interviewers were present at the port a couple of hours before cruise ships' scheduled departure, as not all cruise passengers would return to the ship at the last moment. Respondents' participation in the survey was voluntary and anonymous. Figure 19 provides a summary of the steps in the data collection process.

**Figure 19. Data collection process**



Source: Own elaboration

As for the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample (see Table 32), the female respondents accounted for 56.3% of the total, while 43.7% were male cruise tourists. Their ages ranged from 18 to 85, with the average age of the sample being 58 years.

In terms of education, 31.9% of the sample had completed high school studies, while 63.0% hold a university degree. Regarding respondents' occupations, the largest part of them were retired/pensioners (51.4%), followed by the group of employed/self-employed, which altogether represented comprised 42.6% of the sample. As for the geographical origin of the interviewed cruise visitors, the residents in the United Kingdom were

the most numerous (36.0%), followed by those coming from the USA (18.0%) and Germany (16.0%). The rest of the respondents reported residing in countries representing less than 10% of the sample.

**Table 32. Socio-demographic profile of the final study sample**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Descriptive statistics</b>	<b>Value</b>
<b>Age</b> (years)	<i>Mean</i>	58.2
	<i>Minimum</i>	18.0
	<i>Maximum</i>	85.0
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	15.5
<b>Gender</b> (%)	<i>Female</i>	56.3
	<i>Male</i>	43.7
<b>Education level</b> (%)	<i>Without studies</i>	1.6
	<i>Primary studies</i>	3.5
	<i>Secondary studies</i>	31.9
	<i>University studies</i>	63.0
<b>Main occupation</b> (%)	<i>Employed</i>	31.5
	<i>Self-employed</i>	11.1
	<i>Retired/ Pensioner</i>	51.4
	<i>Unemployed</i>	1.2
	<i>Housework</i>	2.2
	<i>Student</i>	2.6
<b>Country of residence</b> (%)	<i>United Kingdom</i>	36.0
	<i>USA</i>	18.0
	<i>Germany</i>	16.0
	<i>Italy</i>	9.6
	<i>Canada</i>	4.7
	<i>Australia</i>	3.7
	<i>Others (representing less than 3% each)</i>	12.0

Source: Own elaboration

The travelling characteristics of the interviewed cruise visitors are displayed in Table 33. As for respondent's cruising experience, the average number of cruise trips were 8, with 28 being the maximum. Regarding interviewees' familiarity with the port of call, the majority had not previously visited

Valencia (73.3%). Most of the participants in the study visited the port of call on their own (63.4), while one third of them purchased a guided tour. While the average length of stay of the interviewed was 5 hours, some of the respondents spent only one hour onshore, while others reported spending 12 hours in Valencia. Lastly, the respondents obtained information about their visit to Valencia mainly onboard (62.6%), followed by the tourist information office located at the port (13.6%) and cruise line's website (13.6%).

**Table 33. Travel characteristics profile of the pilot study sample**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Descriptive statistics</b>	<b>Value</b>
<b>Cruise experience</b> (n° of past cruise trips)	<i>Mean</i>	8.1
	<i>Minimum</i>	0.0
	<i>Maximum</i>	28.0
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	4.0
<b>Past visitation of Valencia</b> (n° of past visits)	<i>First visit</i>	73.3
	<i>More than 1 visit</i>	26.7
<b>Type of organisation visit</b> (%)	<i>On their own</i>	63.4
	<i>Guided</i>	36.6
<b>Length of the stay</b> (hours)	<i>Mean</i>	5.0
	<i>Minimum</i>	1.0
	<i>Maximum</i>	12.0
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	1.7
<b>Consulted information sources about Valencia</b> (%)	<i>On board</i>	62.6
	<i>Tourist Info at port</i>	13.6
	<i>Cruise line's website</i>	13.6
	<i>Destination website</i>	12.3
	<i>Travel guides, magazines, etc.</i>	10.6
	<i>Travel agency</i>	10.2
	<i>Opinion websites</i>	9.5
	<i>Recommendations from friends/family</i>	5.8
	<i>Tourist Info at Valencia town</i>	4.3
	<i>Others</i>	7.2

Source: Own elaboration

6.2.1.4.3. *Assessment of the measurement model*

Before assessing the measurement items, a confirmatory tetrad analysis (CTA) was performed to verify the posited formative nature of the destination’s sensescape construct, as suggested by Gudergan et al. (2008). CTA-PLS method allows empirical evaluation of the chosen measurement model specification, based on the concept of tetrads (Hair et al., 2018). A tetrad is the difference between the product of one pair of covariances and another product of covariances. In the case of reflective measurement models, tetrads are expected to be close to zero, as the pairs of covariances represent the construct in a similar way. In contrast, if one of the tetrad values is different from zero, the reflective measurement specification has to be rejected and formative operationalization has to be assumed. Accordingly, a CTA-PLS with 5000 bootstrap subsamples was performed, the results of which are presented in Table 34. The conducted analysis indicates that two of the five model implied-non-redundant tetrads do not vanish. Consequently, the null hypothesis assuming a reflective measurement model is rejected, suggesting a formative structure, as previously posited.

**Table 34. CTA-PLS results**

<b>MODEL-IMPLIED NON-REDUNDANT VANISHING TETRAD</b>	<b>t-VALUE</b>	<b>CONFIDENCE INTERVAL*</b>
1: Soundscape, Tastescape, Hapticscape, Smellscape	2,918	(-37.605.908.510,363; -2.426.650.000,746)
2: Soundscape, Tastescape, Smellscape, Hapticscape	3,895	(-56.487.432.277,393; -11.654.270.301,552)
4: Soundscape, Tastescape, Hapticscape, Visualscape	1,276	(-27.561.201.088,056; 9.306.825.469,364)
6: Soundscape, Hapticscape, Visualscape, Tastescape	1,468	(-48.365.498.670,867; 13.083.720.379,637)
10: Soundscape, Hapticscape, Smellscape, Visualscape	0,518	(-26.949.620.698,048; 17.944.551.708,660)

*\* Note: Adjustment of the 5% bias corrected bootstrap (two-tailed) confidence interval limits uses the Bonferroni method to account for multiple testing issues.*

Source: Own elaboration



Next, convergent validity has to be estimated (Hair et al., 2017). As already explained in Stage 2, this implies running a redundancy analysis, which examines whether the formatively operationalised construct is correlated with an alternative reflective or single-item measure of the same construct. For the purposes of this analysis, the measurement scale of the construct sensory destination brand experience elaborated by Barnes et al. (2014) and consisting of three reflective items was used. Accordingly, a redundancy analysis was performed in SmartPLS (v.3.2.8) by linking the formatively operationalised construct to the 3-item reflective measure. Before running the PLS algorithm, the two-stage approach for estimating higher-order component models was employed (Hair et al. 2017), as destination's sensescape is posited as a formative-formative latent variable.

First, the model was estimated to obtain latent variable scores for the respective lower-order sensory dimensions. Second, the latent variable scores of each sensory dimension were used as manifest indicators of the destination's sensescape construct. Then the redundancy analysis was performed by estimating the structural path between the formative measure of destination's sensescape, as an exogenous variable and the reflectively operationalized sensory destination brand experience, as an endogenous latent variable. The results indicated a path coefficient of 0.701 ( $t=28.720$ ) and an  $R^2$  value of 0.50 which satisfies the minimum threshold required by Hair et al. (2017) to confirm the convergent validity of the construct.

As a further step, multicollinearity is estimated through the variance inflation factor (VIF). As indicated in Table 35, all items' VIF values of the first-order constructs were below the critical level of 3.3, with the highest value being 2.22 (item Tas2). In the case of the second-order destination's sensescape construct, no multicollinearity problems were detected neither.

Once the lack of multicollinearity was established, the individual indicator validity is assessed through the significance and relevance of indicators' outer weights, displayed in Table 35.

**Table 35. Individual indicator significance and multicollinearity assessment**

CONSTRUCT	ITEM	WEIGHT	t-VALUE	VIF
<i>First-order variables</i>				
<b>Visualscape</b>	Vis1	0.406	6.859	1.530
	Vis2	0.298	5.316	1.341
	Vis3	0.082	1.583	1.500
	Vis4	0.490	7.998	1.640
<b>Soundscape</b>	Sou1	0.412	4.847	1.325
	Sou2	0.292	3.077	1.702
	Sou3	0.518	4.783	1.659
<b>Smellscape</b>	Sme1	0.342	3.259	1.843
	Sme2	0.372	3.735	1.877
	Sme3	0.501	6.183	1.340
<b>Tastescape</b>	Tas1	0.488	4.652	2.182
	Tas2	0.372	3.169	2.227
	Tas3	0.275	2.240	1.856
<b>Hapticscape</b>	Hap1	0.323	3.570	1.738
	Hap2	0.073	0.794	1.794
	Hap3	0.691	10.485	1.427
	Hap4	0.139	1.903	1.450
<i>Second-order variables</i>				
<b><i>Destination's sensescape</i></b>	Visualscape	0.583	12.469	1.811
	Soundscape	0.025	0.490	1.982
	Smellscape	0.049	0.825	2.729
	Tastescape	0.260	4.958	2.102
	Hapticscape	0.378	7.432	1.665

Source: Own elaboration

The results for the first-order constructs reveal that the weights are significant, with the exception of item Hap2 (weight=0.073;  $t=0.794$ ), Hap4 (weight=0.139;  $t=1.903$ ) and Vis3 (weight=0.082;  $t=1.583$ ). However, as their corresponding outer loadings were significant and surpassed the 0.5 value (Hap2 (loading=0.658;  $t=12.026$ ), Hap4 (loading=0.630;  $t=10.947$ ), Vis3 (loading=0.616;  $t=12.728$ ), they were retained for content validity purposes.

At the second-order level, while the weights of the items of three of the sensory dimensions were significant, the contribution of the items related to destination's soundscape and smellscape resulted non-significant. Nevertheless, as their respective loadings were well above 0.5 (soundscape=0.646,  $t=15.870$ ; smellscape=0.706;  $t=18.272$ ) and for purposes of content validity, they were retained.

After the validation of the individual indicators, the external validity of the construct is assessed through the nomological network of the construct. As already explained, this validation procedure requires linking the formative index to other constructs, which are suggested by the literature as antecedents or consequences. Similar to Stage 2, the future behavioural intention variable was used as an outcome of multisensory experiences. The results of the conducted analysis showed that destination's sensescape is positively related to behavioural intentions ( $\beta=0.576$ ;  $t=16.353$ ) to final approach to formative model validation. Hence, nomological validity is also confirmed.

Considering the above evidence, it can be concluded that the proposed measurement scale for destination's sensescape is valid.

### 6.2.2. STRUCTURAL MODEL MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

As stated in the Introduction section, one of the main objectives of the present thesis is to empirically test a structural model integrated by the hypothesised relationships described in Chapter 5. The measurement scales employed for the assessment of the latent constructs integrating the posited hypotheses are detailed in the following sections. All of them were measured on a 7-point Likert type scale.

#### 6.2.2.1. Sense of place measurement

The first hypothesis formulated in the thesis posits a structural relationship between destination's sensescape and sense of place. As evidenced in the literature review of the construct conducted in Chapter 1, sense of place has been operationalised as a multidimensional latent variable.

The first measurement scale of sense of place was elaborated by Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) and contained three dimensions: place identity, place dependence and place attachment. However, as already clarified, sense of place has been equated with place attachment in tourism studies and has most frequently been measured with two reflective dimensions: place identity and place dependence (e.g. Gross & Brown, 2006; Kyle et al., 2003; Prayag & Ryan, 2012, Tsai, 2016). Although the number of items varies in the different studies, ranging from 7 (Kyle et al., 2003) to 13 (George & George, 2004), given the large amount of constructs to be measured in the questionnaire and the limited time cruise visitors spend at the port of call destination, a short version of the scale was considered appropriate.

Accordingly, sense of place was operationalized as a second-order formative construct comprising two reflectively-posed dimensions (place identity and place dependence), as in Loureiro (2014) (see Table 36).

**Table 36. Measurement of sense of place**

DIMENSION	WORDING OF THE ITEM
<b>Place dependence</b>	Pd1. Valencia is one of the destinations I have enjoyed the most.
	Pd2. For what I like to do during a cruise holiday, I could not imagine better facilities and sightseeing than those offered by Valencia.
	Pd3. For tourism experiences that I enjoy most, Valencia provides one of the best experiences.
	Pd4. I would not substitute Valencia for the type of experience it offers.
<b>Place identity</b>	Pi1. This visit contributed to my sense of belonging to Valencia.
	Pi2. Visiting Valencia says a lot about who I am.
	Pi3. After visiting Valencia, I feel that it means a lot to me.

Source: Own elaboration

#### 6.2.2.2. Existential authenticity measurement

Existential authenticity was operationalised drawing on existing and empirically verified measurement scales (Bryce et al., 2015; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010). Given the lack of consistency in the number of items used (e.g. 3 items (Zatori et al., 2015), 6 items (Kolar & Zabkar, 2010) and the fact that most of them have been designed for heritage settings, four items were chosen to assess existential authenticity in the context of a Mediterranean urban destination. Consequently, the wording of the indicators was also adapted to reflect the nature of the destination visit. The final items are presented in Table 37.

**Table 37. Measurement of existential authenticity**

ITEM	WORDING
<b>Exa1</b>	This visit provided me with insights about Valencia.
<b>Exa2</b>	During the visit, I felt connected with the history and heritage of the city.
<b>Exa3</b>	I enjoyed the unique atmosphere/ambience of Valencia.
<b>Exa4</b>	I felt connected with the locals and their culture during the visit.

Source: Own elaboration

### 6.2.2.3. Memorable tourism experience measurement

The original measurement scale of the memorable tourism experience construct was developed by Kim et al. (2012) and consisted of 24 items pertaining to seven dimensions (hedonism, refreshment, local culture, meaningfulness, knowledge, involvement, and novelty). However, recent studies testing the proposed measurement instrument have revealed that the identified seven factors of memorable experiences are inconsistent across tourism contexts (Knobloch et al., 2017). In particular, evidence exists for the lack of significant contribution of all the seven factors in determining memorable tourism experiences (Coudounaris & Sthapit, 2017; Kim et al.; 2010). In light of the reported inconsistencies, Coudounaris and Sthapit (2017) call for redesigning the scale of memorable tourism experiences. Considering the above, it seems plausible to propose an alternative measurement model of the construct, i.e. a formative index and not a reflective factor.

Hence, the present study operationalises the construct of memorable tourism experience as a formative one, and uses the shortened 5-item version of the original scale, proposed by the same author in 2018 (Kim, 2018) to avoid a lengthy questionnaire. The items are displayed in Table 38.

**Table 38. Measurement of memorable tourism experience**

ITEM	WORDING
<b>Mte1</b>	I revitalized through this visit.
<b>Mte2</b>	I really enjoyed this visit.
<b>Mte3</b>	I learned something about myself from this tourism experience.
<b>Mte4</b>	I had a chance to closely experience the local culture.
<b>Mte5</b>	I experienced something new (e.g., sensation, activity).

Source: Own elaboration

#### 6.2.2.4. Post-visit behavioural intentions measurement

As discussed in Chapter 3, post-visit behavioural intentions are commonly conceptualised as a proxy for destination loyalty. As being one of the most researched tourism constructs, a wide range of measurement instruments exist. While some scholars have operationalised behavioural intentions as a reflective first-order construct (Ramkissoon, Uysal, & Brown, 2011; Su, Huang, & Chen, 2015; Tsai, 2016), others have measured intention to visit and recommend as separate constructs under the umbrella term “behavioural intentions” (Barnes et al., 2014; Lee, Han, & Willson, 2011; Kim, 2018).

As indicated in section 5.2.2, it is of particular interest to cruise tourism destinations to examine separately cruise visitors’ behavioural intentions toward the destination (i) as a cruise port and (ii) as a land-based holiday destination. In light of this consideration, and given the double number of items that would be generated as a result, each type of behavioural intention was measured with a single item following the wording proposed by Chen and Tsai (2007).

The posited hypotheses regarding the post-visit behavioural intentions also include assessing respondents’ eWOM intention, which was measured with three items following Semrad and Rivera (2016). The final items used to capture the post-visit behavioural intentions of cruise visitors are shown in Table 39.

**Table 39. Measurement of post-visit behavioural intentions**

CONSTRUCT	WORDING
Intention to visit as a cruise destination	lvc1. I would visit Valencia again on a cruise trip.
Intention to visit as a land destination	lvl1. I would visit Valencia again as a land tourist.

<b>Intention to recommend as a land destination</b>	Irl1. I would recommend Valencia to my friends & relatives.
<b>Intention to recommend as a cruise destination</b>	Irc1. I would recommend Valencia for a cruise trip to my friends & relatives.
<b>eWOM intention</b>	Ewom1. I would recommend Valencia as a cruise destination on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).
	Ewom2. I would recommend Valencia as a holiday destination on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).
	Ewom3. I will post photos about Valencia on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).
	Ewom4. I will post positive comments about Valencia on tourist review sites (e.g. Tripadvisor, cruise critics).

Source: Own elaboration

#### 6.2.2.5. Tour guide’s emotional labour measurement

The original emotional labour scale was created by Brotheridge and Lee (2003), but it was adapted to the context of tour guiding by van Dijk et al. (2011). The authors particularly consider the dimensions of deep and surface acting and demonstrate the construct validity of the adapted scales based on the results of a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Importantly, the study reveals that tour members hardly distinguish between them. For this reason, only tour guide’s perceived deep acting was measured in the thesis with 3 items as in van Dijk et al. (2011) (see Table 40).

**Table 40. Measurement of tour guide’s emotional labour**

<b>ITEM</b>	<b>WORDING</b>
<b>EI1</b>	The guide made an effort to actually feel the emotions he/she needed to display to us.
<b>EI2</b>	The guide really tried to feel the emotions he/she had to show as part of the tour.
<b>EI3</b>	The guide tried to actually experience the emotions that he/she had to show us.

Source: Own elaboration



### 6.2.2.6. Tourist emotional intelligence measurement

The measurement of emotional intelligence, as a personality trait has been addressed by many scholars in the psychology field, which have proposed various scales for its operationalization (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002; Schutte et al. 1998; Tapia, 2001) drawing on the model of emotional intelligence developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990). However, these measurement instruments, whose sets of items range from 33 (Schutte et al., 1998) to 141 (Mayer et al., 2002) are unpractical in long questionnaires considering several variables.

As an alternative in management studies, Wong and Law (2002) developed a shortened version of the scale encompassing 16 items and four factors: self-emotional appraisal, appraisal of others' emotions, regulation of emotion, and use of emotion. The scale has also been adopted and proved valid in tourism and hospitality studies (e.g. Kim et al., 2012; Tsaur & Ku, 2019). Importantly, Tsaur and Ku (2019) tested the scale in the context of tour guiding assessing tour guide's emotional intelligence.

As posited in hypothesis 7, this study aims to assess the moderating effect of tour member's emotional intelligence and, in particular, its "appraisal of others' emotions" component. Accordingly, the wording of the indicators used by Tsaur & Ku (2019) was modified by replacing the word "tour member" with "tour guide". The final wording of the scale is presented in Table 41.

**Table 41. Measurement of tourist's emotional intelligence**

ITEM	WORDING
Ei1	I can recognize tour guide's emotions from his/her behaviour.
Ei2	I am a good observer of tour guide's emotions.
Ei3	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of the tour guide.
Ei4	I have a good understanding of the emotions of the tour guide.

Source: Own elaboration

#### 6.2.2.7. Tourist emotional participation measurement

Tourist emotional participation in the guided tour service interaction was assessed drawing on the only measurement scale found in the literature: customer participation in services developed by Li and Hsu (2017). The authors empirically validated three dimensions of the constructs: emotional participation, behavioural participation, and information participation. For the purposes of the research, only the indicators corresponding to the emotional participation dimension will be used. However, it should be noted that the wording of the Li and Hsu's (2017) indicators is formulated from the employee's perspective. Hence, the formulation of the items had to be adapted to the context of the study, which assesses tour member's emotional participation from their point of view. Table 42 displays the wording of the items.

**Table 42. Measurement of tourist emotional participation**

ITEM	WORDING
Ep1	In response to the guide's behaviour, I smile at the guide and offer words of kindness.
Ep2	In response to the guide's behaviour, I am courteous to him/her.
Ep3	In response to the guide's behaviour, I try to be cooperative during the tour.
Ep4	In response to the guide's behaviour, I am friendly to him/her.

Source: Own elaboration

### 6.2.2.8. Emotional value measurement

The existing literature has commonly assessed emotional value as a subcomponent of the overarching perceived value construct (Lee, Yoon, & Lee, 2007; Sánchez-Fernández, Iniesta-Bonillo, & Holbrook, 2009; Williams & Soutar, 2009). The tourism studies have operationalised emotional value with three to five items, based on the original consumer perceived value scale developed by Sweeney and Soutar (2001) for the retail context. Drawing on a review of previous tourism literature addressing the concept of emotional value (Chekalina et al., 2018; Lee, Lee, & Choi, 2011; Song et al., 2015), a set of five most representative items was chosen to measure emotional value in the context of a guided tour experience (Table 43).

**Table 43. Measurement of emotional value**

ITEM	WORDING
Ev1	I felt enthusiastic.
Ev2	I felt excited.
Ev3	I felt pleasure.
Ev4	I felt relaxed.
Ev5	I felt entertained.

Source: Own elaboration

### 6.2.2.9. Travelling and demographic characteristics

The questionnaire of the final study also measured the travelling and demographic characteristics of the respondents. As for the travelling characteristics, the visitors were inquired about their past cruise experience (number of cruise trips), first time or repeat visitation to the port of Valencia, length of stay onshore (in hours), the use of tourism information sources about Valencia and the type of visit organisation (guided versus independent).

The format of the questions was open-ended and in line with the wording used by previous studies (Brida et al., 2012; Chen & Lin, 2012; Parola et al., 2014; Prats, Camprubí, & Coromina, 2016), except for the question regarding the consulted information sources, which provided multiple-choice options. The response categories included in this particular question (e.g. “travel agency”; “catalogues, TV and magazines”; “destination webpage”, etc.) were derived from existing studies assessing tourism information sources (Baloglu, 2001 and Seo et al., 2013).

The last section of the questionnaire measured the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, gender, age, education level, main occupation and country of residence.

The exact wording of the questions assessing the travelling and demographic characteristics can be found in Appendix 1.

#### **6.2.2.10. Common method bias estimation**

Common method bias was assessed through Harman’s single factor test (Harman, 1967). The indicators of all the constructs in the proposed structural model were included in an exploratory factor analysis (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). Evidence of common method bias is found when: (i) a single factor emerges or (ii) one factor explains the greatest part of the covariance between the dependent and independent variables.

According to Podsakoff and Organ (1986), the latter is a concern when the first of all factors with autovalues greater than 1, explains more than half of the variance of the extracted factors. In our case, the principal component analysis with varimax rotation showed the existence of 17 factors, with the first one explaining 26.9% of the total variance (81.9%). Hence, common method variance is not a concern in this study.

### 6.2.3. DATA ANALYSIS

Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM), increasingly popular in tourism and travel research (do Valle & Assaker, 2016), was used to examine the measurement model and test the hypothesized relationships.

PLS-SEM is suitable for predictive research (e.g., predicting intention to visit) and is useful in modelling reflective and formative constructs (Hair et al., 2017). PLS is also advisable when (1) the proposed model contains moderators, measured on a continuous scale (in this study, tourist emotional intelligence is measured using a 7-point Likert type scale) and (2) the proposed model includes higher order constructs (Hair et al., 2017).

Path models in PLS are defined in terms of two sets of linear relations: inner and outer models. The inner model specifies the relationship between latent variables, and the outer model shows the relationship between latent and manifest variables (Lohmöller, 1989).

SmartPLS 3.2.6 software (Ringle, Wende, & Becker 2015) was used for data analysis and it consisted of several steps. First, the measurement scales for the first-order constructs were tested. As for the reflectively-positing variables, reliability, internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were assessed. In the case of the formative first-order models, multicollinearity and individual weight relevance and significance were examined. Second, the two-stage approach (Hair et al., 2017) was applied to confirm destination's sensescape and sense of place as second-order formative constructs. The model was then estimated to test the hypothesized relationships for each of the proposed models. Finally, consistent with established guidelines (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted 2003; Hair et al., 2017), additional analysis examines the moderating (interaction) effect of tourist emotional intelligence on the proposed structural relationships.



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## PART 3. EMPIRICAL FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS





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## Chapter 7. RESULTS ANALYSIS

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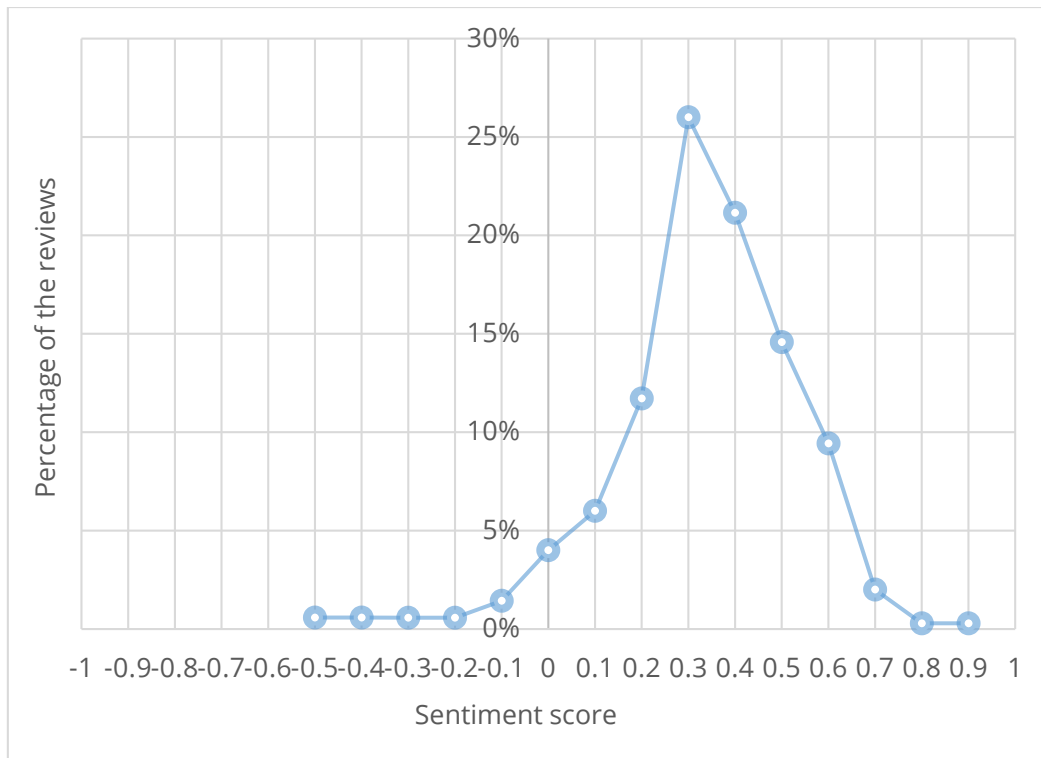
### 7.1. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS

#### 7.1.1. SENTIMENT ANALYSIS RESULTS

The results indicate that the sentiment polarity classification was performed with approximately 81.95% overall accuracy. The precision, a function of true positive reviews and texts misclassified as positive, was equal to 86.4%. The recall, which was measured by the ratio of the number of correctly classified positive reviews to the total number of reviews belonging to that category, was also found to be high, as it is greater than 80% (82.2%).

The results of the sentiment analysis of the review texts reveal the prevalence of expressed positive sentiment when compared to the negative one, which account for only 4.8% of all the reviews. The retrieved opinions were classified as per their sentiment polarity, being -0.5 the minimum value and 0.9 the maximum (Figure 20). Though a very low percentage of the reviews have been classified as negative, the quantified sentiment strength of a significant part of the reviews was close to the neutrality threshold, with more than 40% of the texts being assigned a sentiment score in the interval (0.0; 0.3). This could be explained by the existence of sections in the review texts related to functional aspects of the tour such as booking process, duration, number of people, which are described with neutrally-valenced lexemes. However, it should also be noted that 27.7% of the reviews obtained a sentiment score beyond 0.5, which indicates strong positive emotions associated with the guided tour experience.

Figure 20. Sentiment score of the review texts



Source: Own elaboration

### 7.1.2. WORD FREQUENCY COUNT RESULTS

The analysis of the ten most frequent positively-valenced lexemes in the text corpus is presented in Table 44. The adjective “great”, describing the performance of the guide, the tour or the experience is the most frequently used one, present in more than 60% of the review texts. The word “well”, used both as an adverb and an adjective, ranks second being used in 29.3%. The enjoyment of the experience is also emphasised in 29.3% of the reviews. Other adjectives that describe tour members’ delight with the tour are “excellent” (28.4%) and “wonderful” (28%). The conducted analysis also reveals the high usage of the word “friendly” in relation to tour guide’s behaviour (23.2%). The adjectives “good” (22.9%) and “beautiful” (22.2%) are also among the identified lexemes, describing various aspects of the tour service and destination attractions. Interestingly, the results revealed the

presence of the verb “love” in 20.2% of the review texts referring the tour guide, the visited destination, the tour or the weather. Finally, the verb “thank” was found in the 14.9% of the reviews’ corpus and it was used to express tour members’ gratitude toward the guide.

**Table 44. Most frequently used positively-valenced words**

POSITIVELY-VALENCED WORDS	PERCENTAGE
Great (guide, tour, day, experience)	65.3
Well (very, spent, organised)	29.3
Enjoy/able (day, experience; tour, time, visit, city)	29.3
Excellent (place, tour, choice, guide, day)	28.4
Wonderful (guide, time, day, company)	28.0
Friendly (guide)	23.2
Good (tour, overview, time, service, value)	22.9
Beautiful (sights, city, place)	22.2
Love (guide, city, tour, weather)	20.2
Thank (guide)	14.9

Source: Own elaboration based on data from Rapidminer

To exemplify the usage of the discussed words in their context and deepen into the understanding of the emotions described, a sample of reviews will be discussed hereafter. The presence in the texts of the previously identified most frequently used positive sentiment words has been underlined in red, while yellow colour was used to highlight other emotional aspects of the described experience or tour guide’s performance.

As it can be seen in Figure 21, the cruise visitor expresses feelings of gratitude toward the “friendly”, “outgoing” and “funny” guide, who met the tour group with a “huge enthusiastic smile”. The described qualities of the guide are related to the performed emotional labour. Notably, the described

experience has a positive effect on a destination level, as the author declares having fell “in love” with the visited destinations.

Figure 21: Example of a guided tour review (1)



115helenr  
Pembroke,  
Massachusetts

6 4

Reviewed November 3, 2014

### Worthwhile Wine Tasting Tour

First of all, thank you to Alex for the prompt, friendly and detailed correspondence back and forth while I decided which tour to recommend to my group of 9 friends. This was the last stop of our 7 day cruise. We only booked a 4-hour wine tasting tour in Mallorca, thinking we would be all toured-out by the end of our vacation. Boy, do we wish we booked a longer day with Celia (or Thelia)! She was amazing! So, so friendly, outgoing, knowledgeable, flexible, and funny. She met us at the port with a huge enthusiastic smile and proceeded to teach and entertain us for the next 4+ hours. We were also fortunate that she pre-arranged for our small group to take the wine tasting tour first to avoid the larger bus tour groups. This worked out perfectly. She then walked us through the beautiful town of Palma. Even though this was a 4 hour tour, we never felt rushed. There's so much more I could say about this all-too-short visit, but I can only suggest everyone visit there someday. I will definitely go back and spend more time in the future. We fell in love with Palma and Mallorca. Thank you again so much! P.S. The price was more than reasonable too!

**Date of experience:** October 2014

Source: Tripadvisor

Another example of a review is depicted in Figure 22, in which the cruise tourist “loved” not only the described experience, but also the visited port of call, thus highlighting again the favourable destination outcomes of conducting a guided tour. Importantly, the author of the review emphasises the fact that it was the guide who made them “in love with the city” through his displayed feelings for Málaga and his “engaging and enthusiastic” performance. This, in turn, can be interpreted as evidence of emotional contagion.

Figure 22: Example of a guided tour review (2)



packandunpack  
Ukiah, CA

7 8

Reviewed May 6, 2011

### A great trip for a 72 year old kid!

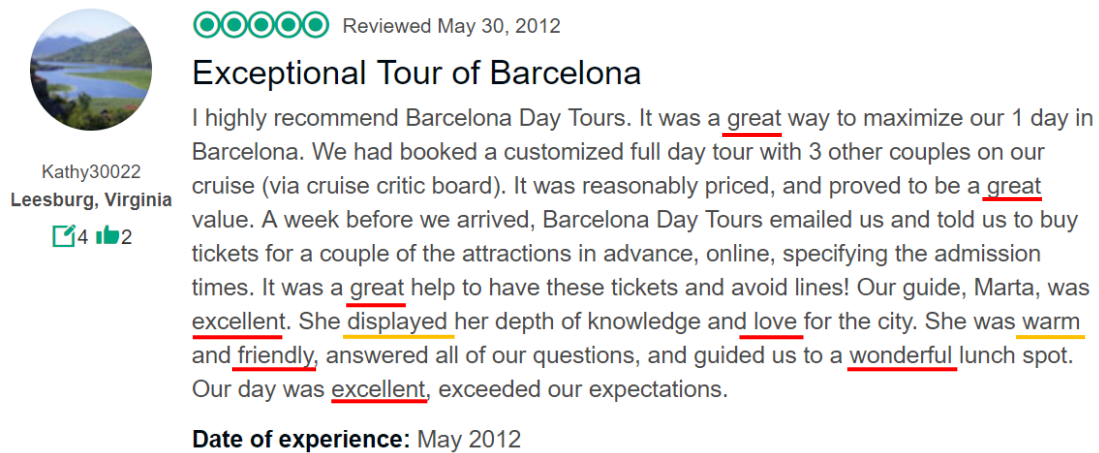
My 72 year old husband loved this bike tour, on our recent cruise stop to Malaga. I booked it prior to leaving the States, based on other TA reviews and we were not disappointed. Juan, our guide, was fabulous. He gave us a very engaging and enthusiastic overview of the city and it's rich history. Juan truly loves Malaga and will have you in love with the city, too. We biked city streets, parks, and the beautiful coast. The ride was very doable for anyone in good health. We're not athletes and rarely bike, but we felt that the pace offered great moderate exercise that you won't get on a bus tour or walking tour. Don't hesitate. Book this tour!


**Date of experience:** April 2011

Source: Tripadvisor

A third example of a guided tour review is presented in Figure 23. Apart from recommending the tour as a “great way” to spend the limited time in the cruise port and the “great” value and help the tour company offers, the author described the guide as “excellent”, “warm” and “friendly”, displaying openly her “love for the city”. This is another example of performed emotional labour. Altogether, the cruise traveller was highly satisfied with the tour experience, which even exceeded the expectations.

**Figure 23. Example of a guided tour review (3)**



 Reviewed May 30, 2012

**Exceptional Tour of Barcelona**


I highly recommend Barcelona Day Tours. It was a great way to maximize our 1 day in Barcelona. We had booked a customized full day tour with 3 other couples on our cruise (via cruise critic board). It was reasonably priced, and proved to be a great value. A week before we arrived, Barcelona Day Tours emailed us and told us to buy tickets for a couple of the attractions in advance, online, specifying the admission times. It was a great help to have these tickets and avoid lines! Our guide, Marta, was excellent. She displayed her depth of knowledge and love for the city. She was warm and friendly, answered all of our questions, and guided us to a wonderful lunch spot. Our day was excellent, exceeded our expectations.

**Date of experience:** May 2012

Source: Tripadvisor

Another example of a tour review about Valencia as a port of call is shown in Figure 24. The cruise visitor reported having felt as if in the company of a “a good friend”, when referring to the guide. Furthermore, beyond providing a “great” overview of the destination, the guide was defined as a “born storyteller”, who speak with “energy and enthusiasm”. The author even openly admits that guide’s “passion for Valencia and what she does is contagious”, which undoubtedly, evidences the processes of emotional labour and contagion.

Figure 24. Example of a guided tour review (4)



Nolanee  
San Antonio, Texas

Reviewed 28 September 2014

**Fabulous tour if Valencia**

Our tour of Valencia with Kate Redding was a highlight of our Oceania cruise. We had only one day in Valencia, and Kate helped us make the most of it, giving us a great overview and tailoring our tour to our requests. We got a great taste of the old and new, spending time at the incredible futuristic City of Arts and Science, then going back in time to the old city. Kate is a born storyteller, and she shared Valencia's fascinating history with energy and enthusiasm. We felt like she was a good friend showing us around her adopted and beloved city. We took a break for an horchata and pastry and toured the Lonja, the cathedral area and the market. Kate is a delightful tour guide, whose passion for Valencia and what she does is contagious. We highly recommend her.

Renee, Betty, Krys and Dany

**Date of experience:** September 2014

Source: Tripadvisor

Based on the above evidence, it can be concluded that the guided tour experience while visiting a cruise port of call is an emotionally charged tourist activity. The sentiment expressed is positively-valenced, which confirms the research question in chapter 5.



## 7.2. QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS

### 7.2.1. BASELINE MODEL

#### 7.2.1.1. Sample characteristics

As indicated in Table 45 describing the main characteristics of the sample of the final study, 63.4% (467 individuals) of the interviewed cruise tourists visited the port of call on their own. The socio-demographic characteristics of this subsample are shown in Table 45.

**Table 45. Socio-demographic profile of the independent cruise visitors' subsample**

Variable	Descriptive statistics	Value
<b>Age</b> (years)	<i>Mean</i>	57.5
	<i>Minimum</i>	18.0
	<i>Maximum</i>	85.0
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	15.1
<b>Gender</b> (%)	<i>Female</i>	54.6
	<i>Male</i>	45.4
<b>Education level</b> (%)	<i>Without studies</i>	1.7
	<i>Primary studies</i>	5.1
	<i>Secondary studies</i>	38.8
	<i>University studies</i>	54.4
<b>Main occupation</b> (%)	<i>Employed</i>	33.0
	<i>Self-employed</i>	9.0
	<i>Retired/ Pensioner</i>	49.5
	<i>Unemployed</i>	1.5
	<i>Housework</i>	3.4
	<i>Student</i>	3.6
<b>Country of residence</b> (%)	<i>United Kingdom</i>	43.0
	<i>Germany</i>	15.0
	<i>Italy</i>	11.8
	<i>USA</i>	10.1
	<i>Others (representing less than 3% each)</i>	20.1

Source: Own elaboration

This particular group of respondents was slightly dominated by female cruise tourists (54.6%) and interviewees' average age was 57.5. Respondents were well educated, with 54.4% holding a university degree. As for their main occupation, almost half of them were retired/pensioners (49.5%), while one third of the respondents were employed by third others and 9% reported being self-employed. Regarding their country of residence, 43% stated that they live in the United Kingdom, followed by German residents (15%) and Italian locals (11.8%).

The travelling characteristics of the subsample of respondents who decided to visit the port of call independently are displayed in Table 46.

**Table 46. Travelling characteristics of the independent cruise tourists**

Variable	Descriptive statistics	Value
<b>Cruise experience</b> (n° of past cruise trips)	<i>Mean</i>	8.5
	<i>Minimum</i>	0.0
	<i>Maximum</i>	22.0
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	3.8
<b>Past visitation of Valencia</b> (n° of past visits)	<i>First visit</i>	67.7
	<i>More than 1 visit</i>	32.3
<b>Length of stay</b> (hours)	<i>Mean</i>	4.7
	<i>Minimum</i>	1.0
	<i>Maximum</i>	12.0
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	1.6
<b>Consulted information sources about Valencia</b> (%)	<i>On board</i>	61.0
	<i>Tourist Info at port</i>	18.4
	<i>Destination website</i>	14.8
	<i>Travel guides, magazines, etc.</i>	11.6
	<i>Opinion websites</i>	9.4
	<i>Friends' or family's recommendations</i>	7.1
	<i>Cruise line's website</i>	6.9
	<i>Travel agency</i>	6.2
	<i>Tourist Info at Valencia town</i>	4.3
<i>Others</i>	10.1	

Source: Own elaboration

Regarding interviewees' past cruising experience, the average number of previous cruise travels were 8.5, being 22 the maximum. However, most of the respondents were first-time visitors at the port of Valencia (67.7%). This group of tourists spent an average of 4.7 hours at the destination, while there were some who spent just an hour onshore and others who reported spending 12 hours in the city. As for the information sources respondents consulted about Valencia, the three most important sources were as follows: information provided on board (61.0%), Tourist information office at the port of Valencia (18.4%) and destination's website (14.8%).

#### **7.2.1.2. Assessment of the measurement model**

First, the psychometric properties of the reflective measurement models were estimated by assessing convergent validity, internal consistency and discriminant validity. In particular, convergent validity was evaluated by the strengths of the items' loadings (indicator reliability) and the average variance extracted (AVE). As shown in Table 47, the loadings of the assessed items ranged from 0.856 to 0.940, which is well above the accepted minimum threshold of 0.6 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Kline, 2005). The significance of the loadings was assessed using the bootstrap procedure (5,000 sub-samples) and the obtained t-statistic values were all significant at the 5% level. The average variance extracted for each construct was above the required 0.50 value (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), thus establishing convergent validity.

Next, internal consistency was evaluated by assessing Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) and composite reliability (Werts, Linn, & Jöreskog, 1974). The Cronbach's alpha values for the constructs of place identity, place dependence, existential authenticity and eWOM intention were greater than the recommended 0.7 threshold (Nunnally, 1978). As for the composite reliability values, their interpretation is similar to Cronbach's

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alpha and they all surpass the minimum 0.7 value, thus indicating internal consistency reliability.

**Table 47. Assessment of the measurement model for the reflective constructs**

Construct/ Dimension/ Indicator	Mean	SD	Loading	t-value	Cronbach's alfa	CR	AVE
<b>Sense of place</b>							
<i>Place dependence</i>					0.923	0.946	0.814
Pd1	5.14	1.46	0.908	76.135			
Pd2	4.99	1.50	0.910	80.066			
Pd3	5.05	1.45	0.933	126.072			
Pd4	4.99	1.50	0.856	48.894			
<i>Place identity</i>					0.901	0.938	0.833
Pi1	4.63	1.64	0.909	86.936			
Pi2	4.22	1.78	0.924	115.404			
Pi3	4.68	1.65	0.906	82.191			
<b>Existential authenticity</b>					0.897	0.928	
Exa1	5.39	1.41	0.866	46.649			
Exa2	4.99	1.46	0.895	74.880			
Exa3	5.6	1.34	0.862	51.507			
Exa4	5.05	1.50	0.874	66.156			
<b>Ewom intention</b>					0.932	0.952	0.831
Ewom1	1.64	2.21	0.922	97.646			
Ewom2	1.78	2.20	0.940	138.289			
Ewom3	1.65	2.37	0.884	56.703			
Ewom4	1.64	2.32	0.900	69.370			

Note: SD= Standard deviation; CR=Composite reliability; AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Source: Own elaboration

Discriminant validity was assessed using two different approaches (see Table 48). The first criterion was the one proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), which establishes that the square root of each construct's AVE value should be greater than its highest correlation with the rest of the constructs in the

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structural model. As displayed in Table 48, discriminant validity was confirmed according to this criterion, as the values of the diagonal elements (in bold) are higher than the values situated below the diagonal, which represent the variable's correlations with the rest of constructs.

As a second criterion the heterotrait–monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations was used, which is considered superior to the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). The HTMT evaluates the average of the Heterotrait–heteromethod correlations, i.e. the correlations of indicators across constructs measuring different constructs. From Table 48, all HTMT ratios were below the 0.90 cut-off value (Henseler et al., 2015), thus establishing discriminant validity.

**Table 48. Discriminant validity: Fornell-Larcker and HTMT criterion**

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1) Place dependence	<b>0.902</b>	0.811	0.739	0.586	0.536	0.578	0.605	0.457
(2) Place identity	0.741	<b>0.901</b>	0.673	0.487	0.508	0.478	0.478	0.535
(3) Existential authenticity	0.674	0.608	<b>0.874</b>	0.510	0.429	0.533	0.540	0.371
(4) Intention to visit (cruise)	0.565	0.470	0.483	<b>1.000</b>	0.550	0.778	0.691	0.327
(5) Intention to visit (land)	0.515	0.487	0.407	0.550	<b>1.000</b>	0.596	0.688	0.409
(6) WOM (cruise)	0.557	0.459	0.505	0.778	0.596	<b>1.000</b>	0.827	0.360
(7) WOM (land)	0.584	0.459	0.512	0.691	0.688	0.827	<b>1.000</b>	0.338
(8) eWOM intention	0.427	0.494	0.344	0.320	0.398	0.352	0.338	<b>0.912</b>

Note: Diagonal values represent the square root of AVE; values below the diagonal reflect latent variable correlations; above the diagonal are HTMT ratios.

Source: Own elaboration

To assess the quality of the first and second-order formative measurement models, multicollinearity and the significance and relevance of the outer weights were evaluated. Table 49 presents the size, together with the statistical significance of the weights generated by bootstrapping with 5000 subsamples and the VIF values of the indicators. Regarding the first-order constructs, the results of the conducted procedure reveal that all items' weights were significant except for item Hap4 (weight=0.109;  $t=1.051$ ) and Mte3 (weight=0.035;  $t=0.592$ ). However, their respective loadings were above 0.5 (Hap4 loading=0.626,  $t=8.912$ ; Mte3 loading=0.727;  $t=16.255$ ). Therefore, the items were retained. The VIF values were all below the 3.3 critical value, with the highest value being 2.197. Consequently, the quality of the first-order formative measurement models was verified.

As for the second-order formative constructs (i.e. destination's sensescape and sense of place), the same evaluation procedure was followed. Regarding the significance of the weights of the destination's sensescape variable, two of the five sensory components resulted non-significant (soundscape and smellscape). Nevertheless, their loadings surpassed the 0.5 value requirement and consequently, were retained (soundscape loading=0.625;  $t=10.923$ ; smellscape loading=0.650;  $t=10.149$ ). The destination's sensescape index presented no multicollinearity issues, given that the highest VIF value (2.753) was below the suggested 3.3 cut-off point. Regarding the sense of place construct, both weights were positive and significant (place dependence=0.716;  $t=14.849$ ; place identity=0.355;  $t=6.546$ ). No evidence for collinearity was found neither, as the VIF values were 2.032 ( $<3.3$ ).

Collectively, the results of the above validity and reliability procedures establish the quality of the measurement instrument used in the present study.

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Table 49. Assessment of the measurement model for the formative constructs

Construct/ Dimension/ Indicator	Mean	SD	Weight	t-value	VIF
<b>First-order</b>					
<i>Visualscape</i>					
Vis1	6.335	0.972	0.200	2.848	1.568
Vis2	5.794	1.186	0.269	3.867	1.355
Vis3	5.382	1.369	0.359	4.788	1.478
Vis4	6.047	1.071	0.459	6.614	1.691
<i>Soundscape</i>					
Sou1	5.493	1.212	0.289	2.587	1.355
Sou2	5.416	1.345	0.299	2.291	1.896
Sou3	5.660	1.182	0.591	4.109	1.924
<i>Smellscape</i>					
Sme1	6.000	1.024	0.436	3.593	1.798
Sme2	5.879	1.208	0.419	3.772	1.883
Sme3	5.681	1.154	0.342	3.781	1.390
<i>Tastescape</i>					
Tas1	6.024	1.114	0.166	1.536	2.197
Tas2	5.449	1.432	0.512	5.408	2.069
Tas3	5.814	1.302	0.460	4.157	1.838
<i>Hapticscape</i>					
Hap1	6.023	1.289	0.237	1.984	1.600
Hap2	5.458	1.492	0.187	1.756	1.620
Hap3	5.647	1.225	0.715	7.559	1.350
Hap4	5.329	1.423	0.109	1.051	1.371
<i>Memorable tourism experience</i>					
Mte1	5.201	1.520	0.388	5.955	2.057
Mte2	5.961	1.297	0.362	5.573	1.549
Mte3	4.505	1.851	0.035	0.592	1.893
Mte4	4.829	1.722	0.301	4.789	1.842
Mte5	4.769	1.833	0.249	4.656	1.464
<b>Second-order</b>					
<i>Destination's sensescape</i>					
Visualscape			0.658	9.252	2.009
Soundscape			0.069	1.017	2.022
Smellscape			0.031	0.384	2.753
Tastescape			0.315	3.867	2.339
Hapticscape			0.278	4.101	1.600
<i>Sense of place</i>					
Place dependence			0.716	14.849	2.032
Place identity			0.355	6.546	2.032

Note: SD: Standard deviation; VIF=Variance Inflation Factor

### 7.2.1.3. Structural model assessment

#### *7.2.1.3.1. Direct effects*

The structural model was evaluated using standardized path coefficients ( $\beta$ ) with their significance level (t-values), as well as predictive power ( $R^2$  values) and predictive relevance ( $Q^2$ ) estimates.

Table 50 provides the standardized structural path coefficients, which indicate the strength between independent and dependent variables, with their corresponding t-values, generated by a nonparametric bootstrap resampling procedure (5000 subsamples). As evident by the presented results, all of the hypotheses positing direct structural effects were confirmed. More specifically, the path coefficient from destination's sensescape to sense of place is significant and positive ( $\beta=0.225$ ;  $t=4.388$ ), thus supporting Hypothesis 1. The suggested positive impact of sense of place on memorable tourism experience has also been evidenced ( $\beta=0.772$ ;  $t=35.963$ ) (Hypothesis 3 accepted). Furthermore, the results of the structural equation modelling reveal that sense of place enhances post-visit behavioural intentions. In particular, sense of place positively influences tourists' intention to return both on a cruise trip ( $\beta=0.393$ ;  $t=5.980$ ) and on a land holiday ( $\beta=0.353$ ;  $t=5.853$ ), thus confirming Hypotheses 4.1a and 4.2a. Sense of place is also positively related to intention to recommend the visited port of call as a cruise ( $\beta=0.272$ ;  $t=3.843$ ) and a land-based holiday destination ( $\beta=0.345$ ;  $t=5.124$ ), which support Hypotheses 4.1b and 4.2b. The path coefficients linking memorable tourism experience and post-visit behavioural outcomes are also positive and significant. In particular, memorable tourism experiences foster tourists' revisit intention regarding the port of call not only as part of another cruise trip ( $\beta=0.240$ ;  $t=3.012$ ), but also as a land holiday destination ( $\beta=0.226$ ;  $t=3.170$ ) (Hypotheses 5.1a and



5.2a confirmed). As for the hypotheses on the positive impact of memorable tourism experiences on tourists' likelihood to recommend the visited port of call as a cruise (Hypothesis 5.1b) and land destination (Hypothesis 5.2b), the results of the structural analysis showed significant and positive structural path values (H5.1b:  $\beta=0.379$ ;  $t=4.619$ ; H5.2b:  $\beta=0.308$ ;  $t=4.092$ ). In addition, as hypothesized (Hypothesis 5.3), the parameter estimation between memorable tourism experience and electronic word of mouth intention was positive and significant ( $\beta=0.206$ ;  $t=3.251$ ).

**Table 50. Assessment of direct effects and hypotheses testing**

Hypothesis	Direct effect	t-value	Hypothesis result
H1: Destination's sensescape→ sense of place	0.225	4.388	Accepted
H3: Sense of place→memorable tourism experience	0.772	35.963	Accepted
H4.1a: Sense of place→intention to return on a cruise trip	0.393	5.980	Accepted
H4.1b: Sense of place→ intention to recommend for a cruise trip	0.272	3.843	Accepted
H4.2a: Sense of place→intention to return on a land holiday	0.353	5.853	Accepted
H4.2b: Sense of place→intention to recommend as a land holiday destination	0.345	5.124	Accepted
H4.3: Sense of place→intention to spread eWOM	0.312	4.880	Accepted
H5.1a: Memorable tourism experience→ intention to return on a cruise trip	0.240	3.012	Accepted
H5.1b: Memorable tourism experience→ intention to recommend for a cruise trip	0.379	4.619	Accepted
H5.2a: Memorable tourism experience→ intention to return on a land holiday	0.226	3.170	Accepted
H5.2b: Memorable tourism experience→ intention to recommend as a land holiday destination	0.308	4.092	Accepted
H5.3: Memorable tourism experience→ intention to spread eWOM	0.206	3.251	Accepted

Source: Own elaboration

Furthermore,  $R^2$  and  $Q^2$  parameters were used to evaluate the structural model (see Table 51). The  $R^2$  values were examined as an indication of the overall predictive strength of the model, with a threshold of 0.10 (Falk & Miller, 1992). As evidenced by the results reported below, the proposed structural model demonstrated good predictive power, with  $R^2$  values ranging from 0.245 (eWOM) to 0.596 (memorable tourism experience).

Using a blindfolding procedure, Stone-Geisser's  $Q^2$  values were used to assess the predictive relevance of the model (Hair et al., 2017). All obtained  $Q^2$  values were greater than zero and ranging from 0.185 (eWOM) to 0.404 (sense of place). Hence, the results indicate satisfactory predictive relevance of the proposed model (see Table 51).

**Table 51. Predictive power and relevance of the structural model**

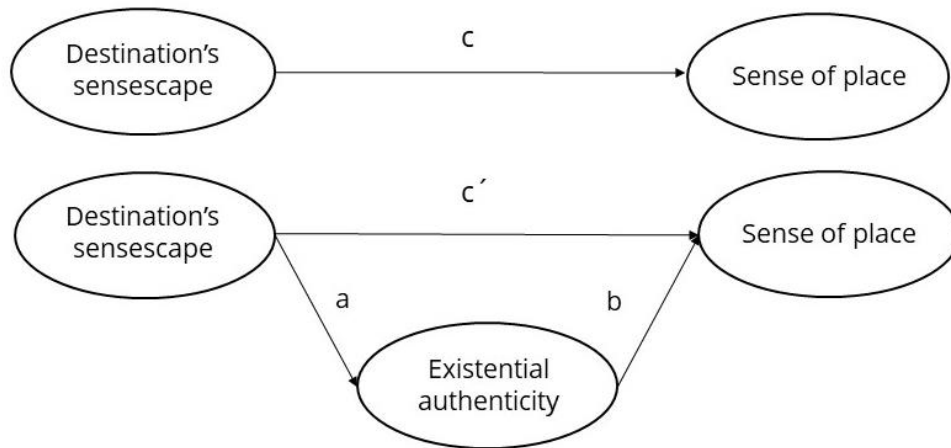
DEPENDENT VARIABLE	$R^2$	$Q^2$
Sense of place	0.507	0.404
Authenticity	0.444	0.313
Memorable tourism experience	0.596	0.336
Intention to return on a land holiday	0.305	0.288
Intention to return on a cruise trip	0.361	0.338
Intention to recommend for a cruise trip	0.384	0.365
Intention to recommend as a land holiday destination	0.383	0.362
eWOM	0.245	0.185

Source: Own elaboration

#### *7.2.1.3.2. Mediating effect*

To test Hypothesis 2, positing the mediating effect of existential authenticity on the relationship between destination's sensescape and sense of place, a mediation analysis was conducted, which is graphically represented in Figure 25.

Figure 25. Structural model of the proposed mediating effect



c= Total effect without mediation  
 c'= Direct effect with mediation  
 axb= Indirect effect with mediation  
 c'+(axb)= Total effect with mediation

Source: Own elaboration

As a first step, the significance of the direct effect from destination's sensescape to sense of place in the absence of the mediating variable was estimated. The results revealed that the value of the standardised  $\beta$ -coefficient was 0.587 ( $t=19.180$ ). Next, the mediating effect was evaluated, for which the direct, indirect, and total effects between the variables in the model were assessed (see Table 52).

Table 52. Mediating effect assessment

Structural path	Total effect		Direct Effect		Indirect Effect	
	$\beta$	$t$ -value	B	$t$ -value	$\beta$	$t$ -value
Destination's sensescape→ Sense of place	0.583	17.256	0.223	4.593		
Destination's sensescape→ Authenticity→Sense of place					0.360	8.747

Source: Own elaboration

Table 52 indicates that the relationship between destination's sensescape and sense of place is significantly reduced when existential authenticity is introduced in the model. The beta coefficient for the relationship between destination's sensescape and sense of place decreased from 0.587 ( $p < 0.001$ ) to 0.223 ( $p < 0.001$ ), thus supporting H2. To evaluate the strength of the mediation effect, the variance accounted for (VAF) index was calculated (Hair et al., 2017). The VAF value determines the size of the indirect effect with respect to the total effect. Given that VAF score was 61.74%, which is under 80% (the minimum required value for establishing full mediation), partial mediation can be inferred.

## 7.2.2. GUIDED TOUR MODEL

### 7.2.2.1. Sample characteristics

As reported in Table 33, summarising the main characteristics of the sample of the final study, 36.6% (270 individuals) of the interviewed cruise tourists visited the destination with a guide. The socio-demographic characteristics of the resulting subsample are shown in Table 53. In this group of respondents, female visitors prevailed (59.3%) and the average age was 59.4. As for the education level of the subsample, the majority of the interviewees' reported holding a university degree (77.8%). Given the average age of the subsample, it is not surprising that more than half of the respondents were retired/pensioners (54.8%), while 43.7% were employed/self-employed. The main countries the interviewed cruise visitors resided in were: USA (31.9%), the United Kingdom (23.7%) and Germany (17.8%).

Table 53. Socio-demographic profile of the guided cruise visitors' sample

Variable	Descriptive statistics	Value
<b>Age</b> (years)	<i>Mean</i>	59.4
	<i>Minimum</i>	18.0
	<i>Maximum</i>	85.0
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	16.0
<b>Gender</b> (%)	<i>Female</i>	59.3
	<i>Male</i>	40.7
<b>Education level</b> (%)	<i>Without studies</i>	1.5
	<i>Primary studies</i>	0.7
	<i>Secondary studies</i>	20.0
	<i>University studies</i>	77.8
<b>Main occupation</b> (%)	<i>Employed</i>	28.9
	<i>Self-employed</i>	14.8
	<i>Retired/ Pensioner</i>	54.8
	<i>Unemployed</i>	0.7
	<i>Housework</i>	0.0
	<i>Student</i>	0.7
<b>Country of residence</b> (%)	<i>USA</i>	31.9
	<i>United Kingdom</i>	23.7
	<i>Germany</i>	17.8
	<i>Canada</i>	7.4
	<i>Italy</i>	5.9
	<i>Australia</i>	5.9
	<i>Others (representing less than 3% each)</i>	7.4

Source: Own elaboration

As for the travelling characteristics of this subsample of cruise visitors, an overview is provided in Table 54. In terms of cruising experience, the average of past cruise travels was 8.7, with the maximum being 30. The majority of respondents had never visited Valencia before (83.0%) and spent an average of 5.5 hours onshore. Regarding the consulted information sources, more than half of the interviewees in this subsample received information on board about Valencia (65.2%), Cruise line's website was second in the ranking

of most consulted information sources (25.2%), followed by the information obtained from travel agencies (17%).

**Table 54. Travelling characteristics of the guided cruise tourists subsample**

Variable	Descriptive statistics	Value
<b>Cruise experience</b> (n° of past cruise trips)	<i>Mean</i>	8.7
	<i>Minimum</i>	0.0
	<i>Maximum</i>	30
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	3.2
<b>Past visitation of Valencia</b> (n° of past visits)	<i>Yes, no previous visit</i>	83.0
	<i>I have been here before</i>	17.0
<b>Length of the stay</b> (hours)	<i>Mean</i>	5.5
	<i>Minimum</i>	1.0
	<i>Maximum</i>	11.0
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	1.9
<b>Consulted information sources about Valencia</b> (%)	<i>On board</i>	65.2
	<i>Cruise line's website</i>	25.2
	<i>Travel agency</i>	17.0
	<i>Opinion websites</i>	9.6
	<i>Travel guides, magazines, etc.</i>	8.9
	<i>Destination website</i>	8.1
	<i>Tourist Info at port</i>	5.2
	<i>Tourist Info at Valencia town</i>	4.4
	<i>Recommendations from friends or family members</i>	3.7
<i>Others</i>	2.2	

Source: Own elaboration

#### 7.2.2.2. Assessment of the measurement model

Following the assessment procedures conducted for the base-line model (see section 7.2.1.2), in the first place, the psychometric properties of the reflective measurement models were estimated by assessing convergent validity, internal consistency and discriminant validity.

Convergent validity was assessed through the size and significance of the items' loadings and the average variance extracted (AVE) values. As it can be seen in Table 55, the loadings of the assessed items ranged from 0.763 to 0.965, which is well above the accepted minimum cut-off point of 0.6 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Kline, 2005). The significance of the loadings was assessed using the bootstrap procedure (5.000 sub-samples) and the obtained t-statistic values were all significant at the 1% level. The average variance extracted for each construct was above the required 0.50 value (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), thus establishing convergent validity.

The internal consistency of the constructs, assessed through Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) and composite reliability (Werts, Linn, & Jöreskog, 1974), was also established. In particular, Cronbach's alpha values were greater than the recommended 0.7 threshold (Nunnally, 1978). As for the composite reliability values, their interpretation is similar to Cronbach's alpha and they all surpass the minimum 0.7 value, thus indicating internal consistency reliability.

**Table 55. Assessment of the measurement model for the reflective constructs**

Construct/ Dimension/ Indicator	Mean	SD	Loading	t-value	Cronbach's alfa	CR	AVE
<b>Sense of place</b>							
<i>Place dependence</i>					0.876	0.916	0.732
Pd1	5.42	1.31	0.840	26.815			
Pd2	5.28	1.18	0.895	66.024			
Pd3	5.25	1.15	0.909	74.815			
Pd4	5.17	1.45	0.771	21.621			
<i>Place identity</i>					0.860	0.914	0.780
Pi1	4.68	1.58	0.898	60.232			
Pi2	4.03	1.80	0.861	40.747			
Pi3	4.68	1.69	0.890	64.129			

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<b>Existential authenticity</b>					0.851	0.900	0.693
Exa1	5.74	1.37	0.749	14.812			
Exa2	5.47	1.24	0.907	67.046			
Exa3	5.90	1.16	0.891	63.034			
Exa4	5.22	1.40	0.772	19.058			
<b>Tour guide's emotional labour</b>					0.912	0.945	0.851
EI1	5.55	1.72	0.879	30.910			
EI2	5.78	1.43	0.965	205.793			
EI3	5.76	1.43	0.921	61.659			
<b>Tourist emotional intelligence</b>					0.928	0.949	0.823
Ei1	5.66	1.21	0.860	51.457			
Ei2	5.42	1.46	0.917	94.926			
Ei3	5.39	1.43	0.930	78.039			
Ei4	5.49	1.43	0.919	75.270			
<b>Tourist emotional participation</b>					0.959	0.970	0.891
Ep1	5.76	1.21	0.890	38.421			
Ep2	5.99	1.26	0.960	128.072			
Ep3	6.02	1.24	0.960	108.701			
Ep4	6.12	1.19	0.963	157.966			
<b>Emotional value</b>					0.933	0.754	0.754
Ev1	5.93	1.03	0.908	58.854			
Ev2	5.38	1.49	0.781	29.913			
Ev3	5.93	0.99	0.923	78.952			
Ev4	5.72	1.13	0.906	47.702			
Ev5	5.82	1.09	0.763	20.055			
<b>Ewom intention</b>					0.944	0.959	0.855
ewom1	4.79	2.17	0.939	103.313			
ewom2	4.71	2.20	0.954	160.911			
ewom3	4.38	2.42	0.912	67.945			
ewom4	4.50	2.30	0.894	50.184			

Note: SD= Standard deviation; CR=Composite reliability; AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Source: Own elaboration



Discriminant validity was assessed using two different approaches, as indicated in Table 56. First, the Fornell-Larcker criterion was tested, which establishes that the square root of each construct's AVE value should be greater than its highest correlation with the rest of the constructs in the structural model. As shown in Table 56, discriminant validity was confirmed according to this criterion, as the values of the diagonal elements (in bold) are higher than the values situated below the diagonal, which represent the variable's correlations with the rest of constructs.

As a second criterion the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations was used, which is considered superior to the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Henseler et al., 2015). The HTMT evaluates the average of the Heterotrait-heteromethod correlations, i.e. the correlations of indicators across constructs measuring different constructs. From Table 56, all HTMT ratios were below the 0.90 cut-off value (Henseler et al., 2015), thus establishing discriminant validity.

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Table 56. Discriminant validity: Fornell-Larcker and HTMT criterion

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
<b>(1) Place dependence</b>	<b>0.855</b>	0.766	0.766	0.480	0.525	0.485	0.684	0.613	0.630	0.644	0.703	0.653
<b>(2) Place identity</b>	0.733	<b>0.883</b>	0.652	0.315	0.456	0.329	0.482	0.499	0.534	0.436	0.473	0.588
<b>(3) Existential authenticity</b>	0.664	0.569	<b>0.833</b>	0.561	0.537	0.596	0.665	0.473	0.487	0.454	0.543	0.589
<b>(4) Tour guide's emotional labour</b>	0.430	0.287	0.486	<b>0.922</b>	0.763	0.788	0.584	0.543	0.397	0.549	0.415	0.275
<b>(5) Tourist emotional intelligence</b>	0.470	0.407	0.480	0.717	<b>0.907</b>	0.679	0.454	0.428	0.459	0.404	0.330	0.419
<b>(6) Tourist emotional participation</b>	0.445	0.312	0.538	0.742	0.652	<b>0.944</b>	0.656	0.602	0.448	0.545	0.546	0.234
<b>(7) Tourist emotional value</b>	0.617	0.433	0.591	0.539	0.427	0.621	<b>0.868</b>	0.529	0.491	0.528	0.598	0.403
<b>(9) Intention to return (cruise)</b>	0.575	0.474	0.433	0.519	0.416	0.589	0.511	<b>1.000</b>	0.617	0.778	0.716	0.409
<b>(10) Intention to return (land)</b>	0.590	0.508	0.449	0.380	0.441	0.439	0.475	0.617	<b>1.000</b>	0.569	0.712	0.366
<b>(11) WOM (cruise)</b>	0.603	0.413	0.419	0.524	0.391	0.535	0.511	0.778	0.569	<b>1.000</b>	0.832	0.494
<b>(12) WOM (land)</b>	0.658	0.448	0.500	0.399	0.319	0.535	0.579	0.716	0.712	0.832	<b>1.000</b>	0.415
<b>(13) eWOM intention</b>	0.596	0.529	0.537	0.254	0.387	0.222	0.380	0.399	0.360	0.482	0.405	<b>0.925</b>

Note: Diagonal values represent the square root of AVE; values below the diagonal reflect latent variable correlations; above the diagonal are HTMT ratios.

Source: Own elaboration

To assess the quality of the first and second-order formative measurement models, multicollinearity and the significance and relevance of the outer weights were evaluated. Table 57 presents the size, together with the statistical significance of the weights generated by bootstrapping with 5000 subsamples and the VIF values of the indicators.

Regarding the first-order constructs, the results of the conducted statistical procedures reveal that although most of the items' weights of the sensory dimensions' constructs were significant at the 5% level, several indicators' weights showed t-values below 1.96 (Vis3 (weight=0.059; t=0.708); Sou2 (weight=0.143; t=1.176); Sme1 (weight=0.261; t=1.910); Hap1 (weight=0.155; t=1.402), Hap4 (weight=0.070; t=0.728). However, their respective loadings were above 0.5 (Vis3 loading=0.945 t=12.817; Sou2 loading=0.819; t=3.206; Sme1 loading=0.542; t=2.168; Hap1 loading=0.919; t=8.393). Therefore, the items were retained. As for the memorable tourism experience construct, all items' weights resulted significant.

The VIF values of all first-order were all below the 3.3 threshold, with the highest value being 2.772. Consequently, the quality of the first-order formative measurement models was verified.

As for the second-order formative constructs (i.e. destination's sensescape and sense of place), the same evaluation procedure was followed. Regarding the significance of the weights of the destination's sensescape index, all sensory dimensions resulted significant, although the smellscape indicator had a negative algebraic sign. Regarding the sense of place construct, both weights were positive and significant (place dependence=0.838; t=12.649; place identity=0.213; t=2.630). No evidence for collinearity was found for these two constructs, as the highest VIF value was 1.984 (<3.3).

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Table 57. Assessment of the measurement model for the formative constructs

Construct/ Dimension/ Indicator	Mean	SD	Weight	t-value	VIF
<b>First-order</b>					
<i>Visualscape</i>					
Vis1	6.295	1.028	0.210	2.669	1.504
Vis2	5.792	1.090	0.575	6.526	1.366
Vis3	5.654	1.191	0.059	0.708	1.597
Vis4	6.077	1.071	0.551	6.713	1.559
<i>Soundscape</i>					
Sou1	5.479	1.155	0.733	7.121	1.280
Sou2	5.333	1.224	0.143	1.176	1.409
Sou3	5.614	1.071	0.360	2.934	1.277
<i>Smellscape</i>					
Sme1	5.916	1.153	0.261	1.910	2.038
Sme2	5.831	1.051	0.349	2.730	1.950
Sme3	5.622	1.101	0.618	5.283	1.247
<i>Tastescape</i>					
Tas1	5.952	1.302	0.649	3.684	2.244
Tas2	5.438	1.391	0.717	3.982	2.772
Tas3	5.833	1.247	-0.476	2.974	2.001
<i>Hapticscape</i>					
Hap1	5.819	1.629	0.155	1.402	2.045
Hap2	5.340	1.572	0.237	2.425	2.235
Hap3	5.593	1.341	0.703	9.115	1.595
Hap4	5.250	1.422	0.070	0.728	1.636
<i>Memorable tourism experience</i>					
Mte1	5.200	1.449	0.468	5.007	1.679
Mte2	6.007	1.220	0.424	4.884	1.245
Mte3	4.548	1.698	0.164	1.981	1.589
Mte4	5.074	1.418	0.163	2.596	1.654
Mte5	4.919	1.801	0.168	3.592	1.597
<b>Second-order</b>					
<i>Destination's sensescape</i>					
Visualscape			0.570	8.795	1.704
Soundscape			0.181	2.487	2.029
Smellscape			-0.195	2.185	2.591
Tastescape			0.253	3.763	1.916
Hapticscape			0.382	5.903	1.996
<i>Sense of place</i>					
Place dependence			0.838	12.649	1.984
Place identity			0.213	2.630	1.984

Note: SD: Standard deviation; VIF=Variance Inflation Factor

Source: Own elaboration

### 7.2.2.3. Structural model assessment

#### *7.2.2.3.1. Direct effects*

Following the structural model assessment procedures applied for the evaluation of the baseline model (see section 7.2.1.3), the structural model results of this section were evaluated using standardized path coefficients ( $\beta$ ) with their significance level (t-values), as well as predictive power ( $R^2$  values) and predictive relevance ( $Q^2$ ) estimates.

Table 58 provides the standardized structural path coefficients, which indicate the strength between independent and dependent variables, with their corresponding t-values, generated by a nonparametric bootstrap resampling procedure (5000 subsamples).

The path coefficient from destination's sensescape to sense of place is significant and positive ( $\beta=0.291$ ;  $t=3.090$ ), thus supporting Hypothesis 1. The suggested positive impact of sense of place on memorable tourism experience has also been empirically confirmed ( $\beta=0.755$ ;  $t=24.959$ ) (Hypothesis 3 accepted). Furthermore, the results of the structural equation modelling reveal that sense of place enhances post-visit behavioural intentions. In particular, sense of place positively influences tourists' intention to return both on a cruise trip ( $\beta=0.416$ ;  $t=6.067$ ) and on a land holiday ( $\beta=0.491$ ;  $t=8.208$ ), thus confirming Hypotheses 4.1a and 4.2a. Sense of place is also positively related to intention to recommend the visited port of call as a cruise ( $\beta=0.434$ ;  $t=5.373$ ) and a land-based holiday destination ( $\beta=0.443$ ;  $t=6.152$ ), which support Hypotheses 4.1b and 4.2b.

However, the path coefficients linking memorable tourism experience and post-visit behavioural outcomes resulted non-significant ( $t<1.96$ ;  $p>0.05$ ) and hypotheses H5.1a, H5.1b, H5.2a, H5.2b and H5.3 had to be rejected.

As for the hypotheses regarding the interactions between the cruise visitors and the tour guides, the results reveal that the perceived tour guide's emotional labour fosters tourist emotional participation ( $\beta=0.566$ ;  $t=6.234$ ) (Hypothesis 6 accepted). The positive and significant structural path ( $\beta=0.622$ ;  $t=11.614$ ) between tourist emotional participation and emotional value provides support for Hypothesis 8. In addition, as hypothesized, emotional value enhances sense of place ( $\beta=0.308$ ;  $t=4.684$ ), thus confirming Hypothesis 9.

Regarding the hypothesized positive impact of emotional value on tourists' future behavioural intentions toward the destination, the results of the structural analysis showed significant and positive structural path values in all cases (H10.1a, H10.1b, H10.2a, H10.2b), except for hypothesis H10.3, which had to be rejected ( $\beta=0.033$ ;  $t=0.574$ ). In other words, the emotional value generated as a result of taking the guided tour has a positive effect on tourists' intention to recommend and revisit the port of call both on another cruise trip and as a land holiday destination, but its impact on the likelihood to spread electronic word-of-mouth was irrelevant.

Table 58. Assessment of direct effects and hypotheses testing

Hypothesis	Direct effect	t-value	Hypothesis result
H1: Destination's sensescape→ sense of place	0.291	3.090	Accepted
H3: Sense of place→memorable tourism experience	0.755	24.959	Accepted
H4.1a: Sense of place→intention to return on a cruise trip	0.416	6.067	Accepted
H4.1b: Sense of place→ intention to recommend for a cruise trip	0.434	5.373	Accepted
H4.2a: Sense of place→intention to return on a land holiday	0.491	8.208	Accepted
H4.2b: Sense of place→intention to recommend as a land holiday destination	0.443	6.152	Accepted
H4.3: Sense of place→intention to spread eWOM	0.575	10.440	Accepted
H5.1a: Memorable tourism experience→ intention to return on a cruise trip	0.026	0.279	Rejected
H5.1b: Memorable tourism experience→ intention to recommend for a cruise trip	0.074	0.639	Rejected
H5.2a: Memorable tourism experience→ intention to return on a land holiday	-0.106	1.119	Rejected
H5.2b: Memorable tourism experience→ intention to recommend as a land holiday destination	0.014	0.133	Rejected
H5.3: Memorable tourism experience→ intention to spread eWOM	0.092	0.875	Rejected
H6: Tour guide's emotional labour→ tourist emotional participation	0.566	6.234	Accepted
H8: Tourist emotional participation→ emotional value	0.622	11.614	Accepted
H9: Emotional value→ Sense of place	0.308	4.684	Accepted
H10.1a: Emotional value→ intention to return on a cruise trip	0.260	3.580	Accepted
H10.1b: Emotional value→ intention to recommend for a cruise trip	0.250	3.272	Accepted
H10.2a: Emotional value→ intention to return on a land holiday	0.179	2.613	Accepted
H10.2b: Emotional value→ intention to recommend as a land holiday destination	0.312	3.963	Accepted
H10.3: Emotional value→ intention to spread eWOM	0.033	0.574	Rejected

Source: Own elaboration

In addition,  $R^2$  and  $Q^2$  parameters were used to evaluate the structural model (see Table 59). The  $R^2$  values were examined as an indication of the overall predictive strength of the model, with a threshold of 0.10 (Falk & Miller, 1992). As evidenced by the results reported below, the proposed structural model demonstrated good predictive power, with  $R^2$  values ranging from 0.356 (eWOM) to 0.581 (tourist emotional participation).

Using a blindfolding procedure, Stone-Geisser’s  $Q^2$  values were used to assess the predictive relevance of the model (Hair et al., 2017). All obtained  $Q^2$  values were greater than zero and ranging from 0.272 (emotional value) to 0.478 (tourist’s emotional participation). Hence, the results indicate satisfactory predictive relevance of the proposed model.

**Table 59. Predictive power and relevance of the structural model**

DEPENDENT VARIABLE	$R^2$	$Q^2$
Sense of place	0.514	0.393
Authenticity	0.570	0.370
Memorable tourism experience	0.570	0.265
Tourist’s emotional participation	0.581	0.478
Emotional value	0.387	0.272
Intention to return on a cruise trip	0.371	0.355
Intention to return on a land holiday	0.382	0.368
Intention to recommend for a cruise trip	0.384	0.369
Intention to recommend as a land holiday destination	0.462	0.442
eWOM	0.356	0.283

Source: Own elaboration

*7.2.2.3.2. Mediating effect*

To verify Hypothesis 2, positing the mediating effect of existential authenticity on the relationship between destination’s sensescape and sense of place, a mediation analysis was conducted, following the same statistical procedure as in section 7.2.1.3.2.



First, the significance of the direct effect from destination’s sensescape to sense of place without the mediating role of existential authenticity was estimated. The results revealed that the value of the standardised  $\beta$ -coefficient was 0.650 ( $t=17.369$ ). Next, the mediating effect was estimated, for which the direct, indirect, and total effects between the variables in the model were assessed (see Table 60).

**Table 60. Mediating effect assessment**

Structural path	Total effect		Direct Effect		Indirect Effect	
	$\beta$	$t$ -value	B	$t$ -value	$\beta$	$t$ -value
Destination’s sensescape→ Sense of place	0.632	15.620	0.331	4.065		
Destination’s sensescape→ Authenticity→Sense of place					0.301	4.613

Source: Own elaboration

Table 60 indicates that the relationship between destination’s sensescape and sense of place is significantly reduced when existential authenticity is introduced in the model. The beta coefficient for the relationship between destination’s sensescape and sense of place decreased from 0.650 ( $p < 0.001$ ) to 0.331 ( $p < 0.001$ ), thus confirming the mediation effect and supporting H2. To evaluate the strength of the mediation effect, the variance accounted for (VAF) index was calculated (Hair et al., 2017). As previously indicated, the VAF value determines the size of the indirect effect with respect to the total effect. Given that VAF score was 47.62%, which is under 80% (the minimum required value for establishing full mediation), partial mediation can be inferred.

#### *7.2.2.3.3. Moderating effect*

To assess the moderating effect of cruise visitors’ emotional intelligence on the relationship between tour guide’s emotional labour and visitors’ emotional participation (Hypothesis 7), the guidelines by Hair et al. (2017)

were followed. Given that the proposed mediating construct (i.e. emotional intelligence) is measured as a continuous variable, interaction effects had to be estimated. More specifically, the interaction term was created via the two-stage approach, as recommended by Henseler and Chin (2010). The significance of the interaction effect was assessed using a bootstrapping procedure (5.000 resamples).

Table 61 presents the results of the analysis comparing the main effects model with the interaction one. The reported data demonstrate that the interaction term of tourist emotional intelligence is not significant ( $\beta=-0.053$ ;  $t=0.788$ ). Thus, contrary to expectations, tourists' emotional intelligence does not affect the impact of tour guide's emotional labour on emotional participation. Consequently, Hypothesis 7 is rejected.

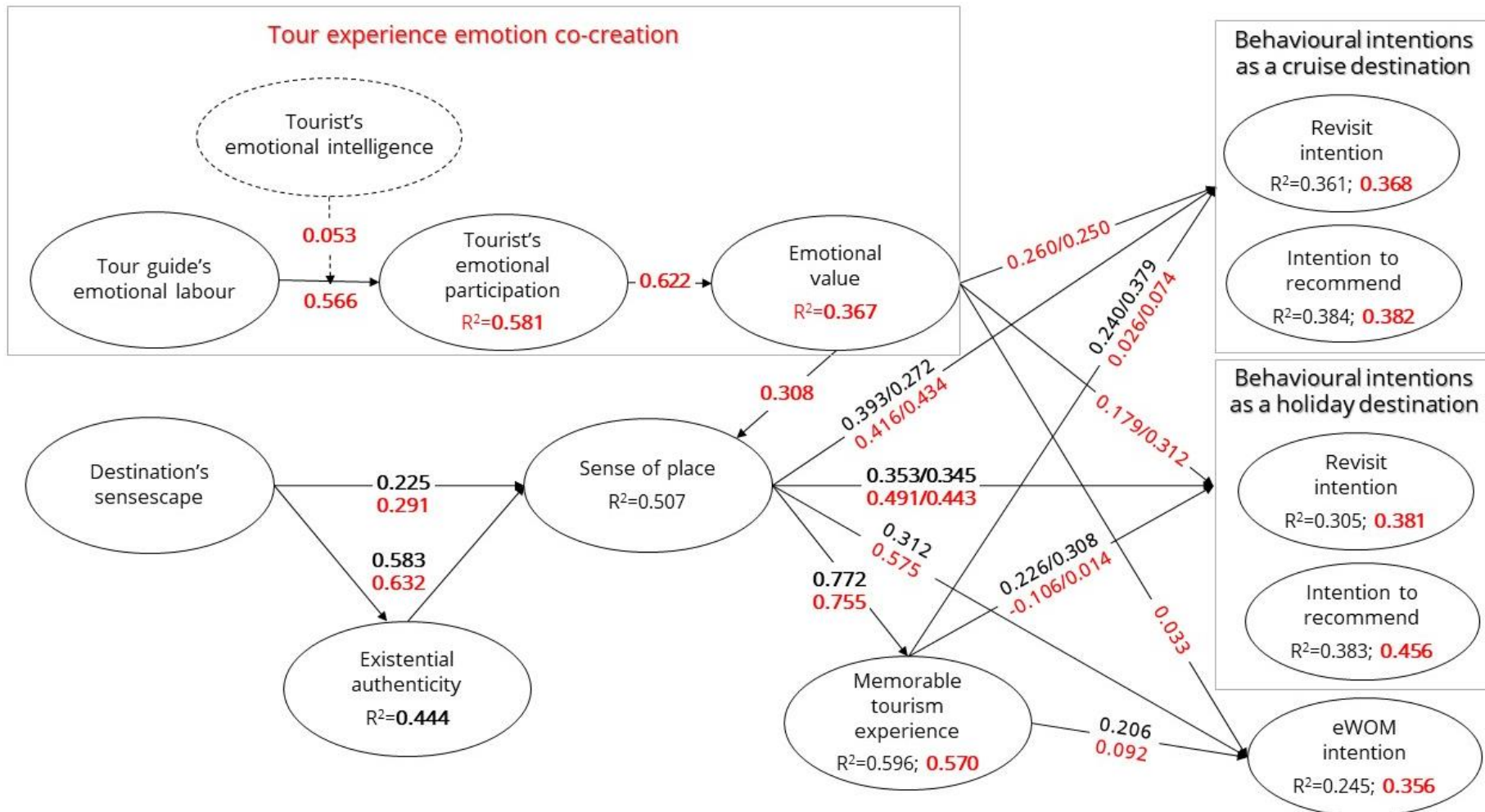
**Table 61. Moderation effect assessment**

Hypothesis	Main effects model		Interaction model	
	B	t-value	$\beta$	t-value
H6: Tour guide's emotional labour → tourist emotional participation	0.566	6.234	0.520	4.072
H7: Tour guide's emotional labour x tourist emotional intelligence → tourist emotional participation			-0.053	0.788
R <sup>2</sup>	0.581		0.584	

Source: Own elaboration

Once the hypotheses of both, baseline and guided tour models were verified, the values of the tested structural relationships are summarised graphically in Figure 26.

Figure 26. Results of the hypothesised relationships



Source: Own elaboration



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# CONCLUSIONS

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The main objective of this thesis was to enhance the current understanding of cruise visitors' experience at a port of call destination, focusing on the role of sense of place and its antecedents and consequences. To fulfill this aim, two structural models were proposed and empirically tested, considering the type of organisation of the destination visit (independent and guided tour).

Drawing on an extensive literature review, the formation of sense of place was inquired from a new theoretical perspective, drawing on the theory of affordances (Raymond et al., 2017). To empirically verify this theoretical proposition and given the lack of previous scaling efforts in this domain, destination's sensescape formative index was proposed, developed and empirically validated. The resulting multidimensional construct integrates five sensory dimensions (visualscape, soundscape, smellscape, tastescape and hapticscape) and 17 items. In this regard, the study contributes to the sensory tourism literature by providing conceptual clarification and operationalization of the construct. Hence, the first specific objective of the thesis was accomplished.

However, it should be noted that not all sensory dimensions contribute equally to the formation of destination's sensescape perception. According to the results of the conducted empirical study, the visualscape is the most salient sensory perception determining the overall destination's sensescape. This result is in line with extant research reporting the dominance of the "tourist gaze" over the rest of senses in the perception of destination experiences (Agapito et al., 2014; Son & Pearce 2005; Xiong et al., 2015). Interestingly, though, the relative contribution of the rest of the sensory dimensions on the formation of destination's sensescape differs across cruise tourists who visited the port of call on their own and those who took a

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guided tour. More specifically, for independent tourists, destination's tastescape and hapticscape were second and third in importance respectively, while the contribution of the olfactory and auditory dimensions of the visited place were not significant. In contrast, the guided cruise visitors reported destination's hapticscape as the second most relevant sensory dimension underlying destination's sensescape, followed by tastescape and soundscape. Hence, it can be concluded that the guided visitors perceived a richer sensescape than those who visited the port of call independently.

The prominent contribution of the hapticscape is a particularly interesting finding, given that past research has documented the tactile sense as the least experimented one in rural (Agapito et al. 2014) and heritage tourist experiences (Xiong et al. 2015). In particular, the hapticscape of the interviewed cruise visitors was formed not only by their tactile perceptions (i.e. the touch of local objects), but also by their somatic perceptions (i.e. atmospheric conditions perceived through the skin such as the warmth of the sun). A possible explanation for this result may be that given the limited time available at the destination, not all visitors can experiment its tastescape and smellscape. Yet, they can touch local objects and sense the atmospheric conditions of the destination even when visiting only for a few hours.

Another relevant finding regarding the construct of destination's sensescape is its positive structural relationship with sense of place, thus confirming with empirical quantitative evidence the contribution of sensory cues on the formation of sense of place, as theorised by Raymond et al. (2017). Importantly, this finding demonstrates that sense of place is not necessarily underpinned by lengthy interaction with the destination, but can be elicited of sensory impressions. In other words, the sensory stimuli emitted by the destination's environment nurture the creation of place meaning for the



cruise tourists. The aforementioned findings fulfil the second objective of the thesis, related to assessing the impact of destination's sensescape on the development of sense of place.

In understanding how an attractive sensescape fosters the generation of sense of place, the mediating effect of existential authenticity (although partial) has been established. In other words, the direct relationship between destination's sensescape and sense of place can be explained by the sequence destination's sensescape→ existential authenticity→ sense of place. Accordingly, when a tourist perceives the destination's sensescape as attractive, this contributes to a heightened impression of existential authenticity, which, ultimately results in an increased sense of place. Interpreting this result in the context of the present thesis, cruise visitors' sensory perceptions contribute to the formation of sense of place through the perception of existential authenticity, understood as the genuineness of the destination experience. In this case, and based on the results of the mediation analysis, it can be assumed that the sensory impressions tourists had in Valencia elicited feelings of an authentic experience and connection with the atmosphere of the city, which then fostered tourists' sense of place. The uncovered mediating effect of experiential authenticity supports Stedman's (2003) meaning-mediated model, which suggests the intervening role of mediating variables in the relationship between physical landscape and sense of place. Furthermore, while this particular mediating effect has not been previously tested, this result is in line with Jiang et al.'s (2017) findings, which establish existential authenticity as a mediator of the positive link between destination image and place attachment. The results of the mediating analysis satisfy the third objective of the thesis.

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Another major finding related to the construct of sense of place is that both of its underlying dimensions (i.e. place identity and place dependence) contribute significantly to its formation. Yet, comparing their relative influence, the results suggest place dependence as a more relevant component of sense of place. This finding is in accord with previous research that has established place dependence as a more relevant contributor to the formation of sense of place in a tourism setting (Loureiro, 2014). Thus, the results reveal that sense of place developed on the basis of a short destination visit stems, to a greater extent, from the functional rather than the symbolical meaning of a place.

One of the most significant findings of this research is related to the establishment of emotional value, co-created in a visitor-tour guide interaction, as an antecedent of sense of place. The thesis investigated the guided tour experience from a customer-dominant logic perspective, focusing on tourists' and guide's emotions as resources for emotional value creation. Firstly, the emotional nature of the guided tour experience was established through the conducted sentiment analysis of online cruise reviews, which revealed the prevalence of positively-valenced sentiments in cruise tourists' guided tour narratives. The role of the tour guide as triggering pleasant emotions was particularly emphasised. Thus, the findings of the sentiment analysis provide an affirmative answer to the research question stated in the beginning of the thesis. No previous study has specifically explored the emotions generated by a guided tour experience as expressed in travel eWOM and hence, the study adds empirical evidence to the emotional domain of tour guiding, which has been largely underresearched (Weiler & Walker, 2014). Accordingly, the fourth specific objective of the thesis has been accomplished.

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Furthermore, the study revealed a series of structural links underpinning the mechanism through which emotional value is created in a tour member-guide interaction. In particular, the emotional labour performed by the tour guide was identified as a relevant antecedent of tourists' emotional participation in the tour. In other words, when tourists perceive that a guide invests authentic emotions in delivering the tour service, an emotional contagion effect is likely to occur, resulting in tourists' emotional participation in the service interaction. The emotions are thus co-created among the guide and the tour members. This result is in concert with previous studies in other service contexts demonstrating a positive relationship between employees' displayed emotion and customer emotions (Lin & Liang, 2011) and mood (Ustrov, Valverde, & Ryan, 2016). Interestingly though, the impact of tour guide's emotional labour on tourist's emotional participation is relatively stronger in comparison with the results obtained by past research. In particular, when the magnitude of the reported structural paths is compared, the aforementioned studies have documented significantly weaker effects ( $\beta=0.15$  (Lin & Liang, 2011);  $\beta=0.28$  (Ustrov et al., 2016)). In this regard, it can be concluded that the emotional labour of tour guides is paramount for the emotional participation of the tour members, while in other service settings this effect is moderate.

Contrary to expectations, the tourist's emotional intelligence did not exert a significant moderating effect on the relationship between tour guide's emotional labour and tourist's emotional participation. This surprising result cannot be discussed in light of the existing literature, as previous studies have mainly assessed employees', rather than customers' emotional intelligence in service interactions (Delcourt et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2012). A possible explanation for the obtained non-significant moderating effect of tourists' emotional intelligence on the suggested relationship might be self-

reported nature of the measure. As suggested by Min (2012), asking individuals to make judgements about their emotional competences might lead to social desirability bias.

Another major finding emerging from the conducted study refers to the relevant role of tourist's emotional participation in engendering emotional experience value. That is, if tour members are encouraged to co-produce emotions with the guide during the tour, this might lead to an increased level of emotional value derived from the tour experience. The results provide empirical quantitative support to Bailey et al.'s (2011) theorizing about the co-production of emotional labour as antecedent of service encounter emotional value.

Collectively, the results of the explored relationships underpinning the mechanism through which emotional value is created in a guided tour experience corroborate the qualitative findings of Malone et al.'s (2018), suggesting that emotions constitute a critical resource for customer value co-creation. Importantly, the study validates the customer-dominant logic approach to understanding value creation, as past research has neglected customers' participation and has rather evaluated company's performance (Chen et al., 2019; Lee & Hwang, 2016; Tsai, 2009). Thus, the reciprocal nature of service interactions and the importance of taking both tourists and service providers into account when examining the formation of emotional value is further highlighted. Hence, the fifth specific objective of the thesis was accomplished.

The conducted quantitative research also yielded a positive relationship between emotional value and post-visit behavioural intentions. The positive emotions elicited by the guided tour experience contribute to cruise tourists' intention to return to and recommend the port of call both, as a cruise and a

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land-based holiday destination. These findings improve the current understanding of how guided tour experiences induce positive behavioural outcomes beyond the tour company level (e.g. satisfaction and loyalty to the tour provider (Caber & Albayrak, 2018; Williams & Soutar, 2009). The study adds to the literature on tour guiding by exploring the effects of the guided tour experience on tourists' behaviour toward the visited destination, which has been scarcely addressed (Huang et al., 2015; Kuo et al., 2016).

Nevertheless, one unanticipated finding was the non-significant contribution of emotional value on tourists' intention to spread eWOM. In other words, the emotions elicited during the guided tour are irrelevant as a triggers of eWOM behaviour. A possible explanation for this might be that the sample of guided cruise visitors was composed of mainly elderly tourists (average age being 60 years), who were not avid Internet and social media users. As indicated by the non-significant structural path, the emotions instigated by the guided tour will not be a reason good enough for them to make the effort of sharing their experience online.

Another major set of research findings relates to the consequences of sense of place. First, the study revealed a positive association between sense of place and post-visit behavioural intentions. As expected, the elicited functional and psychological bonding to the destination as a result of the onshore visit drives tourists' intention to return, as well as recommend the place to others. Accordingly, the results match those observed by previous studies investigating the behavioural destination consequences of sense of place/place attachment (Brown et al., 2016; Chen & Chou, 2019; Hosany et al., 2017; Yuksel et al., 2010). It is interesting to note that the demonstrated positive impact of sense of place on post-visit behavioural intentions is more pronounced in the case of the guided cruise visitors, judging by the

magnitude of the structural paths. This might be due to the fact that the tourists on guided tours are supposed to receive more information about the destination through guide's interpretation and thus get to know better the tourism resources of the visited place. However, given the limited time available onshore, tourists are unlikely to be able to experiment all the attractions of the port of call and thus are more willing to return in the future. In contrast, tourists that visit the port of call independently may not have received extensive information about the destination's offering and thus might not be aware of the full range of attractions available at the destination. That is why, the effect of sense of place on their intention to revisit and recommend the destination might be weaker.

On a related note, the study has been unable to demonstrate any significant differences in cruise visitors' future intentions toward the port of call as a cruise and a land-based holiday destination, in contrast with the expected by Larsen and Wolff (2016). In this study, the impact of sense of place on tourists' revisit and recommendation intention is similar regardless whether the reported intentions refer to the destination as a cruise port or as a land-based holiday destination. Considering the above results, the sixth thesis objective has also been fulfilled.

Memorable tourism experiences were identified as another consequence of sense of place. The strength of the structural link between the two variables is the highest one across all paths included in the proposed theoretical models. This finding is consistent with Kim (2014) proposing place attachment as one of the factors triggering memorable tourism experiences. However, the expected positive impact of memorable tourism experiences on post-visit behavioural intentions produced mixed results across the two subsamples of cruise visitors. More specifically, when comparing the

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established relationships across the independent and guided cruise visitors, the differential role of memorable tourism experience becomes evident.

In particular, the memorability of the onshore experience favoured tourists' revisit, recommendation and eWOM intention in the case of those who visited the destination their own. Hence, these findings confirm the positive association of memorable experiences and destination loyalty documented in previous research (Hung et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2010; Tsai, 2016).

In contrast, the role of memorability in driving post-visit intentions toward the destination was found not significant for the guided cruise visitors. Although unexpected, this result is in agreement with Hui et al. (2007), who observed that tourists may not return to the same country even if it has left good memories in their minds. A plausible explanation of this result might be the moderating effect of personality characteristics such as novelty seeking. Interestingly, an assessment of the overall structural model of this subsample of cruise visitors unveils that in this case the emotional value of the guided tour becomes more relevant in predicting tourists' destination loyalty. Accordingly, future behavioural intentions are driven by the positive affective states that tourists are able to experiment rather than the memorability of the visit, derived from acquiring knowledge about the destination or getting in contact with the local culture. The finding is aligned with past studies documenting tourists' remembered positive affect related to the destination visit as a determinant of their revisit decision (Barnes, Mattsson, & Sørensen, 2016; Wirtz et al., 2003). The observed effect adds further evidence to the growing body of tourism research acknowledging the paramount role of emotions in determining tourist behaviour (Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Loureiro, 2014; Pestana, Parreira, & Moutinho, 2019).

Therefore, the aforementioned results accomplish the seventh and final specific objective of the thesis.

### **MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS**

The findings of the thesis have a number of important managerial implications for DMOs, port authorities and tourist service businesses involved in cruise tourists' onshore experience.

Overall, the study provides a deeper insight into the mechanisms underlying cruise visitors' experience in a port of call, which suggests several courses for action for the parties involved in delivering the onshore experience.

First of all, considering the central role of destination's sensescape in cruise visitors' onshore experience evaluation and, importantly, on eliciting sense of place, DMOs are advised to maximize the potential of the sensory resources of their destinations. Marketing sensory experiences can contribute to destination's brand identity, which, in turn, can create unique positioning among competitors. To encourage immersion in multisensory destination experiences, DMOs could use sensory cues in their communication campaigns and promotional materials (e.g. copy and visual tactics), as well as on informative signs at the destination. Sensory itineraries, triggering specific senses, can be designed to satisfy various tourist segments: some might be keen to experience the port of call through their sense of taste, while others might like to capture unique views.

Furthermore, the study indicates that the development of sense of place, i.e. tourists' functional dependence and identification with the destination, is contingent upon the perception of existential authenticity derived from the visit. Consequently, tourism authorities should strive to enhance the perception of authenticity of the destination by designing strategies aiming



at preserving the essence and personality of the destination in terms of local architecture, customs, heritage, and ambience. In this regard, the DMOs are advised to work jointly with tourism businesses, public administrations on different levels and residents to provide the necessary conditions for visitors to be able to experiment the authenticity of the destination. Actions directed at enhancing the perceived authenticity of the destination could also involve the provision of pre-visit information (e.g. on-board or online) that highlights the authentic traits of the port of call or promotional campaigns using existential authenticity as a unique selling proposition.

Another set of the managerial implications drawn from the conducted study concerns guided tour companies. More specifically, translating the findings on the emotional value co-creation during guide-tourists interaction, touring businesses need to cultivate the emotional skills of their employees. The emotional labour of the guide should be particularly focused on encouraging tour members' participation in the co-creation of the emotions derived from the tour. Thus, when designing tour experiences not only the quality of the interpretation should be considered, but also the emotional domain of the experience. In this regard, tour guide companies are advised to implement staff training programs in which guides can learn and improve emotional labour skills. It should be noted that this particular implication is relevant for DMOs too, as the study identified a positive relationship between the emotions generated as a result of the guided visit and the future behavioural intentions of the tourists. Accordingly, DMOs should ensure that local tour guiding companies are cognizant of the importance of the emotions elicited by the tour experience, as they determine tourists' loyalty toward the destination. This is especially valid and critical in the case of the cruise visitors, as the guided tour/excursion onshore usually takes up the whole

time available at the port of call and hence no other destination services could contribute to tourists' final assessment of the port of call experience.

Collectively, the findings of the study indicate that guided cruise visitors provide a better assessment of the onshore visit than those who visited the destination on their own. In this regard, DMOs and port authorities could take two courses of action: either actively promote visiting the port of call with a guide or find ways to improve the experience of the independent tourists. The latter can be achieved through providing a specific section for cruise tourists on destination's website, facilitating ready-made itineraries depending on the length of stay or designing audio-guides and interactive mobile applications that would allow a higher engagement with the destination in the absence of a human tour guide.

### **LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH LINES**

The findings of this thesis are subject to certain limitations. First, the questionnaire survey was conducted in a single port of call, which reduces the generalizability of the results. In this regard, future studies could test the proposed theoretical model with data gathered from other cruise ports with different geographical and cruise traffic characteristics (e.g. Asian versus European cruise destinations; mature cruise ports with high volume of passengers versus emerging small ports of call).

Second, the structural equation modelling results inferred in this study should be treated with caution, since a non-probability sampling approach was applied given the unavailability of a sampling frame. Accordingly, future studies might consider overcoming this research design limitation by interviewing cruise passengers' on-board. However, the logistics of such a study would require the previous authorisation of cruise companies and the provision of the full list of cruise passengers.

## CONCLUSIONS

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In addition, the lower number of interviewed guided cruise visitors in comparison with those who visited the destination on their own might be considered as another limitation. It should be noted that despite the efforts of the marketing research company in charge of the data collection in obtaining a larger sample, the access to this particular group of tourists was many times limited. Therefore, a further study could try to reach the guided cruise visitors by other means, such as an online panel.

Finally, the average age of the sample of cruise visitors was higher than the general profile of a cruise tourist, determined by CLIA. Although this result might be conditioned by the cruise companies arriving at the port of Valencia, and more specifically by the socio-demographic characteristics of their cruise segment targets (i.e. luxury, premium or contemporary), further research should gather more data on younger cruise passengers.

The findings of the study also yield directions for future research. A fruitful area for future studies might be exploring the validity of the developed destination's sensescape index in other destinations. In this regard, it would be interesting to assess the cross-cultural differences among tourists regarding the contribution of each of the senses on the formation of destination's sensescape (e.g. the relevance of the weather-related haptic impressions might be more determining for tourists living in different climate conditions). Furthermore, future studies could unravel the interconnection between the different senses in terms of the possible impact of stimulating one sense over the perception of the others.

In light of the reported crowding perceptions identified in the analysis of cruise tourists' blog entries on port of call experiences, it would be worthwhile to examine how crowding onshore influences the overall destination experience. The topic has received increasing media attention

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recently, but the impact of crowding on tourists' post-visit affective and behavioural outcomes has been scarcely addressed. In this regard, a fruitful area of future research would be to assess tourists' perception of destination's sustainability and how it affects visitors' experience.

In addition, future researchers exploring cruise visitors' behavior onshore should consider the role of additional factors that are likely to moderate the expected behavior such as the cruise segment tourists pertain to or the information familiarity related to the port of call (i.e. the amount of information used to organize the visit).

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# CONCLUSIONES



### CONCLUSIONES

El objetivo principal de la presente tesis doctoral era mejorar la comprensión actual de la experiencia de los turistas de cruceros en un puerto de escala, centrándose en el papel del sentido de lugar, sus antecedentes y consecuencias. Para cumplir con este objetivo, se propusieron y testaron empíricamente dos modelos estructurales, teniendo en cuenta el tipo de la visita al destino (visita independiente y guiada).

A partir de una extensa revisión de la literatura, la formación del sentido de lugar fue analizada desde una nueva perspectiva teórica, basada en la teoría de los recursos (affordances) (Raymond et al., 2017). Para verificar empíricamente esta propuesta teórica, y dada la falta de escalas previas en este dominio, se propuso, desarrolló y validó empíricamente el índice formativo de la variable ambiente sensorial del destino. El constructo multidimensional resultante integraba cinco dimensiones sensoriales (visual, auditiva, olfativa, gustativa y háptica) y 17 ítems. En este sentido, el estudio contribuye a la literatura sobre turismo sensorial, al proporcionar una aclaración conceptual y la operacionalización del constructo. Ello ha permitido el cumplimiento del primer objetivo específico de la tesis.

Sin embargo, debe tenerse en cuenta que no todas las dimensiones sensoriales han contribuido del mismo modo a la formación de la percepción sensorial del destino. De acuerdo con los resultados del estudio empírico llevado a cabo, lo visual es la percepción sensorial más destacada en la formación del ambiente sensorial del destino. Este resultado está en línea con investigación previa que evidencia el predominio de la "mirada turística", sobre el resto de los sentidos en la percepción de las experiencias de destino (Agapito et al., 2014; Son y Pearce 2005; Xiong et al., 2015).

Sin embargo, la contribución relativa del resto de las dimensiones sensoriales en la formación del ambiente sensorial del destino difiere entre los turistas de cruceros que visitaron el puerto de escala por su cuenta y los que realizaron una visita guiada. Más específicamente, para los turistas independientes, el gusto y el tacto fueron la segunda y tercera en importancia, mientras que la contribución de las dimensiones olfativa y auditiva del lugar visitado no fue significativa. En contraste, los turistas de crucero, que habían participado en una visita guiada, informaron que el tacto era la segunda dimensión sensorial más importante, seguida por el gusto y el paisaje sonoro. Por tanto, se puede concluir que los turistas que participaron en una visita guiada percibieron una sensación más rica que aquellos que visitaron el destino de manera independiente.

La importante contribución del ambiente háptico es un hallazgo particularmente interesante, dado que investigaciones previas han documentado que el sentido táctil es el menos experimentado en las experiencias turísticas rurales (Agapito et al., 2014) y patrimoniales (Xiong et al., 2015). En particular, el ambiente háptico de los turistas de cruceros se formó, no solo por sus percepciones táctiles (es decir, tocar objetos locales), sino también por sus percepciones somáticas (es decir, las condiciones atmosféricas percibidas a través de la piel, como el calor del sol). Una posible explicación para este resultado puede ser que, dado el tiempo limitado disponible en el destino, no todos los turistas pueden experimentar los olores y sabores del destino. Sin embargo, si pueden tocar objetos locales y percibir las condiciones atmosféricas del destino, incluso cuando lo visitan solo unas pocas horas.

Otro hallazgo relevante, en relación al constructo ambiente sensorial del destino, es su relación positiva con el sentido de lugar, lo que confirma la



contribución de las señales sensoriales a la formación del sentido de lugar, tal y como teoriza Raymond et al. (2017). Es importante destacar que este hallazgo demuestra que el sentido de lugar no está necesariamente sustentado por una interacción prolongada con el destino, pudiéndose obtener de impresiones sensoriales. En otras palabras, los estímulos sensoriales emitidos por el entorno del destino contribuyen a hacer que el lugar tenga significado para los turistas de cruceros. Los hallazgos mencionados anteriormente permiten dar cumplimiento al segundo objetivo específico planteado en la tesis, relacionado con la evaluación del impacto del ambiente sensorial del destino en el desarrollo del sentido de lugar.

En la comprensión de cómo un ambiente sensorial atractivo fomenta la generación de sentido de lugar, juega un papel relevante la autenticidad existencial, como variable mediadora (aunque parcial) de la mencionada relación. En otras palabras, la relación directa entre ambiente sensorial del destino y el sentido de lugar puede explicarse por la secuencia: ambiente sensorial del destino → autenticidad existencial → sentido de lugar. En consecuencia, cuando un turista percibe el ambiente sensorial del destino como atractivo, ello contribuye a una mayor impresión de autenticidad existencial que, en última instancia, resulta en un mayor sentido de lugar. Al interpretar este resultado en el contexto de la presente tesis, las percepciones sensoriales de los turistas de crucero contribuyen a la formación del sentido de lugar a través de la percepción de autenticidad existencial, entendida como la autenticidad de la experiencia vivida en el destino. En este caso, y sobre la base de los resultados del análisis de mediación, se puede concluir que las impresiones sensoriales que los turistas de crucero tuvieron en Valencia provocaron sentimientos de una experiencia auténtica y conectaron con la atmósfera de la ciudad, lo que fomentó el sentido de lugar. El efecto mediador de la autenticidad experiencial obtenido

apoya el modelo de Stedman (2003), que sugiere la intervención de variables mediadoras en la relación entre el paisaje físico y el sentido de lugar. Además, aunque este efecto moderador no ha sido probado previamente está en línea con los hallazgos de Jiang et al. (2017), que evidencian que la autenticidad existencial es una variable moderadora del vínculo positivo entre la imagen del destino y el apego al lugar. Los resultados del análisis de mediación permiten dar cumplimiento al tercer objetivo específico de la presente tesis.

Otro resultado importante relacionado con el constructo sentido de lugar es que sus dos dimensiones subyacentes (la identidad del lugar y la dependencia del lugar) contribuyen significativamente a su formación. Sin embargo, al comparar su influencia relativa, los resultados sugieren la dependencia del lugar como un componente más relevante del sentido de lugar. Este hallazgo apoya investigaciones anteriores que identifican, en un entorno turístico, la dependencia del lugar como el factor más relevante en la formación del sentido de lugar (Loureiro, 2014). Por tanto, los resultados revelan que el sentido de lugar, desarrollado sobre la base de una visita corta a un destino, deriva, en mayor medida, del significado funcional más que simbólico de un lugar.

Uno de los resultados más importantes obtenidos en esta investigación es el papel que juega el valor emocional, creado a partir de la interacción del guía turístico con el turista de crucero, como antecedente del sentido de lugar. La tesis analizó la experiencia de la visita guiada desde la perspectiva de la lógica dominante del cliente, centrándose en las emociones del guía y de los turistas como recursos para la creación de valor emocional. En primer lugar, se identificó la naturaleza emocional de la experiencia de la visita guiada, a través del análisis de sentimiento de los comentarios online de los turistas

de cruceros, el cual reveló la prevalencia de sentimientos positiva en las narrativas de los turistas. El papel del guía turístico como activador de emociones positivas fue particularmente enfatizado. Por tanto, los resultados del análisis de sentimiento proporcionan una respuesta afirmativa a la cuestión a investigar formulada en la tesis. Ningún estudio previo ha explorado las emociones generadas por una experiencia de visita guiada, expresadas a través del eWOM de los viajes, y, por tanto, los hallazgos agregan evidencia empírica al dominio emocional de la visita guiada, que hasta el momento ha sido poco investigado (Weiler y Walker, 2014). En consecuencia, se ve cumplido el cuarto objetivo específico de la tesis.

Además, el estudio revela una serie de vínculos que sustentan el mecanismo a través del cual se crea el valor emocional en una interacción guía-miembros de la visita. En particular, el trabajo emocional realizado por el guía se identifica como un antecedente relevante de la participación emocional de los turistas en la visita. En otras palabras, cuando los turistas perciben que un guía invierte emociones auténticas en la entrega del servicio, es probable que se produzca un efecto de contagio emocional que da como resultado la participación emocional de los turistas en la interacción con el servicio. Las emociones son así co-creadas, entre el guía y los miembros de la visita guiada. Este resultado concuerda con estudios previos, en otros contextos de servicio, que demuestran una relación positiva entre la emoción mostrada por el empleado y las emociones del cliente (Lin y Liang, 2011) y el estado de ánimo (Ustrov et al., 2016). Curiosamente, en nuestro estudio, el impacto del trabajo emocional del guía turístico en la participación emocional del turista es relativamente más fuerte en comparación con resultados obtenidos por investigaciones anteriores ( $\beta = 0.15$  (Lin y Liang, 2011);  $\beta = 0.28$  (Ustrov et al., 2016)). En este sentido, se puede concluir que el trabajo emocional de los guías turísticos es primordial para la participación emocional de los

miembros de la visita, mientras que en otros contextos de servicio este efecto es más moderado.

Contrariamente a lo esperado, la inteligencia emocional del turista no ejerció un efecto moderador significativo en la relación entre la labor emocional del guía turístico y la participación emocional del turista. Este sorprendente resultado no puede discutirse a la luz de la literatura existente, ya que los estudios previos han evaluado principalmente la inteligencia emocional de los empleados, en lugar de la inteligencia del cliente, en las interacciones de servicio (por ejemplo, Delcourt et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2012). Una posible explicación de que el efecto moderador de la inteligencia emocional de los turistas en la relación sugerida no sea significativo podría ser la autoinformación de la medida. Según lo sugerido por Min (2012), pedir a los individuos que formulen juicios sobre sus competencias emocionales podría llevar a un sesgo de deseabilidad social.

Otro hallazgo importante que surge del estudio realizado se refiere al papel relevante de la participación emocional del turista en la generación de valor emocional de la experiencia. Esto es, si los miembros del tour coproducen emociones con el guía durante la visita, esto podría llevar a un mayor nivel de valor emocional derivado de la experiencia del tour. Los resultados proporcionan soporte empírico a la teoría de Bailey et al. (2011), sobre la coproducción del trabajo emocional como antecedente del valor emocional en la prestación del servicio.

En conjunto, los resultados de las relaciones analizadas, que sustentan el mecanismo a través del cual se crea valor emocional en una visita guiada, corroboran los hallazgos cualitativos de Malone et al. (2018), sugiriendo que las emociones constituyen un recurso crítico para la co-creación de valor con el cliente. Es importante destacar que los resultados validan el enfoque de la

lógica dominante del cliente para comprender la creación de valor, ya que investigaciones previas han descuidado la participación del cliente y han evaluado el desempeño de la empresa (Chen et al., 2019; Lee y Hwang, 2016; Tsai, 2009). Por tanto, se destaca la naturaleza recíproca de las interacciones de servicio y la importancia de tener en cuenta tanto a los turistas como a los proveedores de servicios, cuando se examina la formación de valor emocional. De ese modo, se De da cumplimiento al quinto objetivo específico de la tesis.

La investigación cuantitativa realizada también mostró una relación positiva entre el valor emocional y las intenciones de comportamiento post visita. Las emociones positivas derivadas de la experiencia de la visita guiada contribuyen a la intención de los turistas de crucero de regresar y recomendar el puerto de escala, tanto como crucero como destino de vacaciones. Estos resultados mejoran la comprensión actual de cómo las experiencias de una visita guiada inducen resultados de comportamiento positivos, más allá de los proporcionados por las propias compañías de viajes (por ejemplo, satisfacción y lealtad al proveedor de la visita (Caber y Albayrak, 2018; Williams y Soutar, 2009). El estudio se suma a la literatura sobre guía turístico, explorando los efectos de la experiencia de la visita guiada en el comportamiento de los turistas, aspecto que apenas ha sido abordado en la literatura (Huang et al., 2015; Kuo et al., 2016).

Sin embargo, un resultado no anticipado ha sido la no contribución del valor emocional a la intención de los turistas de difundir eWOM. En otras palabras, las emociones provocadas durante la visita guiada son irrelevantes como desencadenantes del comportamiento de eWOM. Una posible explicación para esto podría ser que la media de edad de la muestra de turistas de crucero que realizaron visita guiada se acercaba a los 60 años, siendo este

colectivo los que presentan mas bajas intenciones de publicar comentarios e imágenes online, quizás debido a que no son usuarios ávidos en el uso de Internet y redes sociales. De ese modo, las emociones derivadas de la visita guiada no serán una razón lo suficientemente buena como para que hagan el esfuerzo de compartir su experiencia online.

Otro conjunto importante de hallazgos se relaciona con las consecuencias del sentido de lugar. La investigación muestra una asociación positiva entre el sentido del lugar y las intenciones de comportamiento post visita. Como se esperaba, la vinculación funcional y psicológica con el destino, como resultado de la visita al destino, impulsa la intención de los turistas de regresar y de recomendarlo a otras personas. En consecuencia, los resultados coinciden con los observados en estudios previos centrados en las consecuencias comportamentales del apego/sentido de lugar (Brown y otros, 2016; Chen y Chou, 2019; Hosany y otros, 2017; Yuksel y otros, 2010).

Cabe destacar, que el impacto positivo del sentido de lugar en las intenciones de comportamiento post visita es mayor en el caso de los turistas de crucero que han realizado una visita guiada que en aquellos que lo hicieron de forma independiente. Esto puede deberse al hecho de que los turistas en la visita guiada reciben más información sobre el destino, a través de la interpretación del guía, y de ese modo conocen mejor los recursos turísticos del lugar visitado. No obstante, dado que el tiempo es limitado en el destino, es poco probable que estos turistas puedan experimentar todas las atracciones del puerto de escala y, por tanto, estén más dispuestos a regresar en el futuro. En contraste, los turistas que visitan el puerto de escala de manera independiente, pueden no haber recibido información extensa sobre la oferta del destino y no ser conscientes de la amplia gama de atracciones disponibles en el destino. Por dicho motivo, el efecto del sentido

de lugar en su intención de volver a visitar y recomendar el destino es más débil.

Sin embargo, en contraste con lo esperado por Larsen y Wolff (2016), el estudio no ha evidenciado diferencias significativas en las intenciones futuras de comportamiento de los turistas de crucero, ya sea como puerto de crucero o como destino de vacaciones. De ese modo, el impacto del sentido de lugar en la intención de volver a visitar y recomendación del destino es similar, independientemente de si las intenciones se refieren al destino como un puerto de cruceros o se refieren a un destino de vacaciones. Teniendo en cuenta los resultados anteriores, el sexto objetivo de la tesis también se ha cumplido.

La experiencia turística memorable se identifica como otra consecuencia del sentido de lugar. La fuerza de la relación entre las dos variables es la más alta de todas las relaciones planteadas en el modelo teórico. Este resultado es consistente con Kim (2014), que identifica el apego al lugar como uno de los factores desencadenantes de experiencias turísticas memorables. Sin embargo, el impacto positivo esperado de las experiencias turísticas memorables en las intenciones de comportamiento post visita produjo diferentes resultados atendiendo a las dos submuestras de turistas de cruceros analizados. Si se comparan las relaciones entre las dos submuestras, se hace evidente el papel diferencial de la experiencia turística memorable.

Más concretamente, en el caso de los turistas que visitaron el destino por su cuenta, la experiencia memorable favoreció positivamente tanto la intención de volver a visitar, como de recomendación y eWOM. Estos resultados confirman la asociación positiva de las experiencias memorables con la

lealtad al destino evidenciadas en investigaciones anteriores (Hung et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2010; Tsai, 2016).

No obstante, la relación experiencias memorables e intenciones de comportamiento (intención de volver, recomendación y eWOM) no resultó significativa en el caso de turistas que contrataron una visita guiada. Aunque inesperado, este resultado está en línea con Hui et al. (2007), quienes observaron que los turistas pueden no querer regresar al mismo país si éste ha dejado buenos recuerdos en sus mentes. Una explicación plausible de este hallazgo podría ser el efecto moderador de las características de la personalidad, como la búsqueda de novedad. En este caso, cabe destacar que el valor emocional es más relevante que la memorabilidad para predecir la lealtad de los turistas al destino. En consecuencia, las futuras intenciones de comportamiento se ven impulsadas por los estados afectivos positivos, antes que por la memorabilidad de la visita, que los turistas de crucero pueden experimentar derivados de la adquisición de conocimientos sobre el destino o el contacto con la cultura local. Este resultado es compartido por estudios previos que evidencian que el afecto positivo recordado por los turistas, derivado de la visita al destino, es un factor determinante de su decisión de volver (Barnes et al., 2016; Wirtz et al., 2003). El observado efecto agrega evidencia adicional a la investigación turística que reconoce el papel primordial de juegan las emociones en el comportamiento turístico (Hosany y Prayag, 2013; Loureiro, 2014; Pestana et a., 2019). Los resultados anteriores dan cumplimiento al séptimo y último objetivo específico de la presente tesis doctoral.

### **IMPLICACIONES PARA LA GESTIÓN**

Los resultados de la tesis tienen importantes implicaciones para la gestión de las organizaciones de marketing del destino, las autoridades portuarias y



las empresas de servicios turísticos que participan en la experiencia de los turistas de crucero en el destino.

En general, el estudio proporciona una visión más profunda de los mecanismos que subyacen en la experiencia de los turistas de crucero en un puerto de escala, lo que sugiere varias líneas de acción para los agentes involucrados en la entrega de la experiencia en el destino.

En primer lugar, teniendo en cuenta el papel central del ambiente sensorial del destino en la evaluación de la experiencia de los turistas de crucero y, lo que es más importante, potenciar el sentido de lugar, se recomienda a las organizaciones de marketing del destino que maximicen el potencial de los recursos sensoriales de sus destinos. Las experiencias sensoriales de marketing pueden contribuir a la identidad de marca del destino, que, a su vez, puede crear un posicionamiento único entre los competidores. Para alentar las experiencias multisensoriales, las organizaciones de marketing del destino podrían utilizar señales sensoriales en sus campañas de comunicación y materiales promocionales (por ejemplo, tácticas visuales), así como señales informativas en el destino. Los itinerarios sensoriales, que activan sentidos específicos, pueden diseñarse para satisfacer a diversos segmentos turísticos: algunos pueden estar interesados en experimentar el destino a través del sentido del gusto, mientras que a otros les gustaría capturar vistas únicas.

Teniendo en cuenta que el desarrollo del sentido de lugar, (esto es, la dependencia funcional de los turistas y su identificación con el destino) depende en parte de la percepción de autenticidad existencial derivada de la visita, las autoridades turísticas deberían esforzarse por mejorar dicha percepción de autenticidad, mediante el diseño de estrategias destinadas a preservar la esencia y la personalidad del destino, en términos de

arquitectura local, costumbres, patrimonio y ambiente. En este sentido, se recomienda a las organizaciones de marketing del destino que trabajen conjuntamente con empresas de turismo, administraciones públicas y residentes, para proporcionar las condiciones necesarias para que los turistas puedan experimentar la autenticidad del destino. Las acciones dirigidas a mejorar la autenticidad percibida del destino también podrían incluir facilitar información previa a la visita (a bordo u *online*), que resaltara los rasgos auténticos del destino, o el desarrollo de campañas promocionales que utilizaran la autenticidad existencial como una propuesta de venta única.

Otro conjunto de implicaciones para la gestión conciernen a las empresas de visitas guiadas. La creación conjunta de valores emocionales durante la interacción guía-turistas, lleva a la necesidad de que las empresas de visitas guiadas potencien las habilidades emocionales de sus empleados. La labor emocional del guía debe centrarse especialmente en fomentar la participación de los miembros del tour en la creación conjunta de las emociones derivadas de la visita. Por tanto, al diseñar experiencias de visitas guiadas, no solo debe considerarse la calidad de la interpretación, sino también el dominio emocional de la experiencia. En este sentido, se aconseja a las empresas de guías turísticos que implementen programas de formación para que los guías puedan aprender y mejorar las habilidades de trabajo emocional.

Cabe señalar que esta implicación particular también es relevante para las organizaciones de marketing del destino, ya que el estudio identificó una relación positiva entre las emociones generadas como resultado de la visita guiada y las futuras intenciones de comportamiento de los turistas. En consecuencia, las organizaciones de marketing del destino deben garantizar que las empresas locales de visita guiada sean conscientes de la importancia de las emociones provocadas por la experiencia del tour, ya que determinan

la lealtad de los turistas hacia el destino. Esto es especialmente válido en el caso de los turistas de crucero, ya que la visita guiada suele durar todo el tiempo que el turista permanece en el puerto de escala y, por tanto, ningún otro servicio del destino puede contribuir a la evaluación final de su experiencia en el puerto visitado.

Los resultados han mostrado que los turistas de crucero que han realizado una visita guiada tienen una mejor evaluación de su experiencia en el destino que aquellos que lo han visitado por su cuenta. En este sentido, las organizaciones de marketing del destino y las autoridades portuarias podrían tomar dos medidas: promover activamente la visita al puerto de escala con un guía o encontrar formas de mejorar la experiencia de los turistas independientes (no realizan visita guiada). Esto último se puede conseguir creando una sección específica en la web del destino, para los turistas de crucero, que facilite itinerarios según la duración de la estancia o bien diseñando audioguías y aplicaciones móviles interactivas, que permitan un mayor compromiso con el destino en ausencia de un guía humano.

### **LIMITACIONES Y FUTURAS LÍNEAS DE INVESTIGACIÓN**

Los resultados de esta tesis también están sujetos a ciertas limitaciones. En primer lugar, señalar que la obtención de la muestra tuvo lugar en un único puerto de escala, lo que reduce la generalización de resultados. A este respecto, las investigaciones futuras podrían testar el modelo teórico propuesto con datos recopilados de otros puertos de cruceros, con diferentes características geográficas y de tráfico de cruceros (por ejemplo, destinos de cruceros asiáticos frente a europeos; puertos de cruceros maduros, con un gran volumen de pasajeros, en comparación con los pequeños puertos de escala emergentes).

En segundo lugar, los resultados obtenidos de los modelos analizados deben tratarse con precaución, ya que se aplicó un muestreo no probabilístico, dado que fue imposible la obtención del marco muestral. Por consiguiente, futuros estudios podrían superar esta limitación del diseño de la investigación entrevistando a bordo a los turistas de crucero. Sin embargo, la logística de tales estudios requeriría la autorización previa de las compañías de cruceros y la provisión de un listado completo de los pasajeros a bordo.

En adición, el menor número de turistas de crucero que contrataron visita guiada en comparación con los que visitaron el destino por su cuenta podría considerarse otra limitación. Cabe señalar que, a pesar de los esfuerzos de la empresa de estudios de mercado encargada de la recolección de datos, el acceso a este grupo particular de turistas fue mucho más limitado. Por tanto, otro estudio podría tratar de llegar a este colectivo a través de otros medios, como por ejemplo un panel online.

Señalar que la edad media de nuestra muestra fue ligeramente superior a la edad media mostrada por estudios que analizan el perfil general del turista de crucero. Aunque somos conscientes de que este resultado está condicionado por las compañías de cruceros que llegan al puerto de Valencia y, más concretamente, por las características sociodemográficas de su público objetivo (lujo, premium o contemporáneo), sería de interés que futuros estudios recopilaran datos de turistas de crucero más jóvenes.

Los resultados obtenidos también permiten plantear otras futuras líneas de investigación. Así, futuros estudios podrían explorar la validez de la escala desarrollada sobre ambiente sensorial en otros destinos. En este sentido, sería interesante conocer las diferencias cross-culturales entre turistas con respecto a la contribución de cada uno de los sentidos en la formación del

ambiente sensorial del destino (por ejemplo, la relevancia de las impresiones hápticas relacionadas con el clima podría ser más determinante para los turistas que viven en condiciones climáticas diferentes). Además, futuros estudios podrían explorar la interconexión entre los diferentes sentidos, en términos del posible impacto de estimular un sentido sobre la percepción de otro.

Dado que en el análisis cualitativo la percepción de *crowding* fue uno de los conceptos identificados al analizar los comentarios online de los turistas de crucero, sobre sus experiencias en los puertos de escala, sería de interés examinar cómo el *crowding* influye en la experiencia global vivida en el destino. Pese a que el tema ha recibido una atención creciente por los medios de comunicación, el impacto del *crowding* en los resultados afectivos y comportamentales post visita de los turistas apenas ha sido investigado. Aunado a lo interior, un área interesante de futuras investigaciones sería examinar la percepción de sostenibilidad del destino por parte de los turistas y su influencia en la experiencia de la visita.

Por último, señalar que los futuros estudios que exploren el comportamiento de los turistas de crucero en un puerto de escala, deberían considerar el papel de factores adicionales que puedan moderar el comportamiento esperado, como por ejemplo el segmento de crucero al que pertenecen los turistas o la familiaridad con la información relacionada con el puerto de escala (la cantidad de información utilizada en la organización de la visita).



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# APPENDICES



**APPENDIX 1. Survey questionnaire in English**

*Good morning/Good afternoon.*

*The University of Valencia is conducting a research about cruise tourists' experience in Valencia. Would you mind answering a few questions about your stay here today? Your answers will be anonymous.*

**1. Are you starting your cruise trip in Valencia?**

1	Yes ( <i>END of questionnaire</i> )
2	No, I started it elsewhere

**2. On how many cruise holidays have you been? \_\_\_\_\_**

**3. Is this your first time in Valencia?**

1	Yes, no previous visit
2	I have been here before

**4. How many hours did you spend in Valencia? \_\_\_\_\_**

**5. Where did you receive information about what to do in Valencia? (You can mark more than 1 answer)**

1	Travel agency
2	On board
3	Tourist Info at port
4	Tourist Info at Valencia town
5	Family & friends' recommendations
6	Travel guides, magazines, etc.
7	Destination website
8	Cruise line's website
9	Opinion websites such as Tripadvisor, cruise forums, etc.
10	Others ( <i>Indicate</i> ) : _____

**6. Please indicate if you agree with the following statements related to your perceptions of Valencia, considering that:**

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. The architecture of Valencia (e.g. buildings, monuments, ornaments) is attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The natural landscape of Valencia (trees, flowers, sky, etc.) is unique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The seafront of Valencia is attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Valencia has a wide variety of things to see.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The sound of the nature in Valencia (e.g. birdsong, wind, palm trees, waves) is pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The music (e.g. street musicians, concerts, folk songs) is nice to listen to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The voices of people on the street, bars, squares, etc. allow to perceive the local ambience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Local food (e.g. traditional dishes, fruits, vegetables) smells nice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Local beverage (e.g. coffee, wine, horchata) spreads a nice smell.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. The smell of plants, flowers, trees, the sea is pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Local food tastes good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. The taste of local food is unique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Local beverage tastes good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. The warmth of the sun in Valencia feels good on my skin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. The touch of the wind/breeze in Valencia on my skin is gentle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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16. The material heritage (ruins, stones and ornaments) of Valencia is appealing to touch.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Touching the sand and sea water in Valencia is pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Valencia makes a strong impression on my senses, visually and in other ways.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I find Valencia interesting in a sensory way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Valencia appeals to my senses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. This visit provided me with insights about Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. During the visit, I felt connected with the history and heritage of the city.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I enjoyed the unique atmosphere/ambience of Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I felt connected with the locals and their culture during the visit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**7. Regarding your whole stay in Valencia, please indicate if you agree/disagree with the following statements:**

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

During the visit:

1. I felt enthusiastic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I felt excited.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I felt pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I felt relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I felt entertained.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I revitalized through this visit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I really enjoyed this visit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I learned something about myself from this tourism experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I had a chance to closely experience the local culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I experienced something new (e.g., sensation, activity).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**8. Based on your overall assessment of the experience you had in Valencia, please state your level of agreement/disagreement with the following statements:**

1. Valencia is one of the destinations I have enjoyed the most.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. For what I like to do during a cruise trip, I could not imagine better facilities and sightseeing than those offered by Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. For tourism experiences that I enjoy most, Valencia provides one of the best experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I would not substitute Valencia for the type of experience it offers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. This visit contributed to my sense of belonging to Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Visiting Valencia says a lot about who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. After visiting Valencia, I feel that it means a lot to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I would visit Valencia again on a cruise trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I would visit Valencia again as a land tourist.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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10. I would recommend Valencia to my friends & relatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I would recommend Valencia for a cruise trip to my friends & relatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I would recommend Valencia as a cruise destination on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I would recommend Valencia as a holiday destination on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I will post photos about Valencia on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I will post positive comments about Valencia on tourist review sites (e.g. Tripadvisor, cruise critics).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**9. Have you purchased a guided tour in Valencia?**

1	No, I visit it on my own ( <i>go to question 11</i> ).
2	Yes, I bought a cruise excursion.
3	Yes, I booked a guided tour from a local tour company.

**10. Regarding your guided tour in Valencia, please indicate if you agree with the following statements:**

1. The guide made an effort to actually feel the emotions he/she needed to display to us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The guide really tried to feel the emotions he/she had to show as part of the tour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The guide tried to actually experience the emotions that he/she had to show us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I can recognize tour guide's emotions from his/her behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am a good observer of tour guide's emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of the tour guide.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I have a good understanding of the emotions of the tour guide.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. In response to the guide's behaviour, I smile at the guide and offer words of kindness.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. In response to the guide's behaviour, I am courteous to him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. In response to the guide's behaviour, I try to be cooperative during the tour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. In response to the guide's behaviour, I am friendly to him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**11. Gender:**

1	Male
2	Female

**12. Age:** \_\_\_\_\_

**13. Level of completed studies:**

1	Without studies
2	Primary studies
3	Secondary studies
4	University studies

**14. Main occupation:**

1	Employed
2	Self-employed
3	Retired/ Pensioner
4	Unemployed
5	Housework
6	Student

**15. Country of residence:** \_\_\_\_\_

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND COLLABORATION!



**APPENDIX 2. Survey questionnaire in German**

*Guten Morgen/Guten Tag.*

*Die Universität Valencia führt gerade ein Forschungsprojekt über die Erfahrung von Kreuzfahrttouristen in Valencia durch. Würde es Ihnen etwas ausmachen, ein paar Fragen zu Ihrem heutigen Aufenthalt hier zu beantworten? Ihre Antworten sind anonym.*

**1. Beginnen Sie Ihre Kreuzfahrt in Valencia?**

1	Ja (ENDE der Befragung)
2	Nein, ich begann sie andernorts

**2. Auf wie vielen Kreuzfahrten waren Sie schon? \_\_\_\_\_**

**3. Sind Sie zum ersten Mal in Valencia?**

1	Ja, kein vorheriger Besuch
2	Ich war schon einmal hier

**4. Wie viele Stunden haben Sie in Valencia verbracht? \_\_\_\_\_**

**5. Woher haben Sie Informationen über mögliche Unternehmungen in Valencia erhalten? (Sie können mehr als eine Antwort markieren)**

1	Reisebüro
2	An Bord
3	Touristeninformation am Hafen
4	Touristeninformation in der Stadt Valencia
5	Empfehlungen von Freunden oder Verwandten
6	Reiseführer, Zeitschriften etc.
7	Website des Reiseziels
8	Website der Kreuzfahrtgesellschaft
9	Bewertungsportale (Tripadvisor, Kreuzfahrtforen etc).
10	Sonstiges (Bitte angeben): _____

**6. Bitte geben Sie nach folgender Skala an, ob Sie den nachstehenden Aussagen zu Ihrer Wahrnehmung Valencias zustimmen:**

Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Stimme eher nicht zu	Stimme weder zu noch nicht zu	Stimme eher zu	Stimme zu	Stimme voll und ganz zu
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Die Architektur Valencias (z. B. Gebäude, Denkmäler, Ornamente) ist ansprechend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Die Naturlandschaft Valencias (Bäume, Blumen, Himmel etc.) ist einzigartig.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Die Meereskulisse ist attraktiv.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Valencia bietet eine Vielzahl von Sehenswürdigkeiten.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Der Klang der Natur in Valencia (z. B. Vogelgesang, Wind, Palmen, Wellen) ist angenehm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Die Musik (z. B. Straßenmusiker, Konzerte, Volkslieder) gefällt mir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Die Stimmen der Menschen auf der Straße, in Bars, auf Plätzen etc. ermöglichen es, das einheimische Ambiente wahrzunehmen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Das lokale Essen (z. B. traditionelle Gerichte, Obst, Gemüse) riecht gut.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Die lokalen Getränke (z. B. Kaffee, Wein, Horchata) verströmen einen angenehmen Duft.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Der Duft der Pflanzen, Blumen, Bäume, des Meers ist angenehm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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11. Das lokale Essen schmeckt gut.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Der Geschmack des lokalen Essens ist einzigartig.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Die lokalen Getränke schmecken gut.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Die Wärme der Sonne in Valencia fühlt sich gut auf meiner Haut an.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Die Berührung des Windes/der Brise in Valencia auf meiner Haut ist sanft.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Die Ruinen, Steine und Ornamente in Valencia fühlen sich ansprechend an.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Der Sand und das Meerwasser in Valencia fühlen sich angenehm an.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Valencia hinterlässt einen starken Eindruck auf meine Sinne, optisch und auf andere Weise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Ich finde Valencia auf sinnliche Weise interessant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Valencia spricht meine Sinne an.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Dieser Besuch hat mir Einblicke in das Erbe Valencias verschafft.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Während des Besuches fühlte ich mich mit der Geschichte, den Legenden und historischen Persönlichkeiten verbunden.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Ich genoss die einzigartige Atmosphäre/das einmalige Ambiente Valencias.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Ich fühlte mich während des Besuches mit den Einheimischen und ihrer Kultur verbunden.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**7. Bitte geben Sie in Bezug auf ihren gesamten Aufenthalt in Valencia an, ob Sie folgenden Aussagen zustimmen oder nicht:**

Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Stimme eher nicht zu	Stimme weder zu noch nicht zu	Stimme eher zu	Stimme zu	Stimme voll und ganz zu
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Während des Besuches:

1. Ich war begeistert.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Ich war aufgeregt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Ich habe Freude empfunden.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Ich fühlte mich entspannt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Ich fühlte mich gut unterhalten.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Der Besuch hat mir neues Leben eingehaucht.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Ich habe diesen Besuch wirklich genossen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Ich habe durch dieses Urlaubserlebnis etwas über mich selbst gelernt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Ich konnte die einheimische Kultur hautnah erleben.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Ich habe bei diesem Besuch etwas Neues (z. B. Essen und Aktivität) erlebt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



**8. Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen**

1. Valencia ist eines der Reiseziele, die ich am meisten genossen habe.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Ich könnte mir für das, was ich während einer Kreuzfahrt gerne unternehme, keine besseren Einrichtungen und Sehenswürdigkeiten als die von Valencia gebotenen vorstellen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Valencia bietet für die Urlaubserlebnisse, die ich am meisten genieße, eine der besten Erfahrungen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Ich würde Valencia für die Art der Erfahrung, die es bietet, nicht ersetzen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Dieser Besuch hat zu meinem Gefühl der Zugehörigkeit zu Valencia beigetragen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Der Besuch Valencias sagt viel darüber aus, wer ich bin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Nach meinem Besuch Valencias habe ich das Gefühl, dass die Stadt mir sehr viel bedeutet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Ich würde Valencia erneut auf einer Kreuzfahrt besuchen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Ich würde Valencia erneut als Landtourist besuchen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Ich würde Valencia meinen Freunden und Verwandten empfehlen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Ich würde Valencia meinen Freunden und Verwandten für eine Kreuzfahrt empfehlen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Ich würde Valencia in den sozialen Medien (z. B. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram) als Kreuzfahrtziel empfehlen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Ich würde Valencia in den sozialen Medien (z. B. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram) als Urlaubsziel empfehlen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Ich werde Fotos von Valencia in den sozialen Medien posten (z. B. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Ich werde positive Kommentare über Valencia auf Bewertungsportalen für Touristen posten (z. B. Tripadvisor, Cruise Critic).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**9. Haben Sie eine Stadtführung in Valencia gebucht?**

1	Nein, ich habe die Stadt selbständig besichtigt ( <b>weiter zu Frage 11</b> ).
2	Ja, ich habe einen Kreuzfahrt-Landausflug gebucht.
3	Ja, ich habe eine Stadtführung bei einem lokalen Tourveranstalter gebucht.

**10. Bitte geben Sie in Bezug auf ihre Stadtführung in Valencia an, ob Sie folgenden Aussagen zustimmen:**

1. Der Stadtführer bemühte sich, die Gefühle, die er uns gegenüber zeigen musste, tatsächlich zu empfinden.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Der Stadtführer hat wirklich versucht, die Gefühle, die er als Teil der Führung zeigen musste, zu empfinden.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Der Stadtführer hat versucht, die Gefühle, die er uns gegenüber zeigen musste, tatsächlich zu erleben.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Ich kann die Gefühle des Stadtführers in seinem Verhalten erkennen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Ich bin ein guter Beobachter der Gefühle des Stadtführers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Ich bin empfänglich für die Gefühle und Emotionen des Stadtführers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Ich kann die Gefühle des Stadtführers gut nachempfinden.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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8. Als Reaktion auf das Verhalten des Stadtführers lächle ich ihm zu und widme ihm warme Worte.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Als Reaktion auf das Verhalten des Stadtführers begegne ich ihm mit Höflichkeit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Als Reaktion auf das Verhalten des Stadtführers versuche ich, mich während der Führung kooperativ zu verhalten.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Als Reaktion auf das Verhalten des Stadtführers begegne ich ihm mit Freundlichkeit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Ich werde positive Kommentare über meine Führung auf Bewertungsportalen für Touristen posten (z. B. Tripadvisor, Cruise Critic).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Ich werde die Führung meinen Freunden und Verwandten empfehlen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**11. Geschlecht:**

1	Männlich
2	Weiblich

**12. Alter:** \_\_\_\_\_

**13. Höchster Bildungsabschluss:**

1	Kein Schulabschluss
2	Grundschulabschluss
3	Sekundarabschluss
4	Hochschulabschluss

**14. Hauptbeschäftigung:**

1	Beschäftigt
2	Selbständig
3	Rentner/Pensionär
4	Arbeitslos
5	Hausarbeit
6	Student

**15. Land des Wohnsitzes:** \_\_\_\_\_

***VIELEN DANK FÜR IHRE ZEIT UND MITARBEIT!***

## APPENDIX 3. Survey questionnaire in Italian

Buongiorno / buon pomeriggio.

L'Università di Valencia sta effettuando una ricerca inerente all'esperienza dei turisti che arrivano tramite crociera a Valencia. Le piacerebbe rispondere a qualche domanda riguardo alla giornata trascorsa qui oggi? Le sue risposte saranno anonime.

## 1. La sua crociera inizia a Valencia?

1	Si (fine del questionario)
2	No, è iniziata altrove.

## 2. Quante crociere ha fatto? \_\_\_\_\_

## 3. E' la prima volta che viene a Valencia?

1	Si, non ci sono mai stato
2	Ci sono già stato.

## 4. Quanto tempo si fermerà qui a Valencia? \_\_\_\_\_

## 5. Dove ha ricevuto informazioni su cosa fare a Valencia? (può scegliere più di una risposta)

1	Agenzia di viaggio
2	A bordo della nave
3	Ufficio informazione del porto
4	Ufficio informazione nella città di Valencia
5	Raccomandazioni di amici o/e familiari
6	Guida di viaggio, riviste, etc.
7	Siti web circa la destinazione
8	Siti web circa la linea della crociera
9	Opinioni su siti web come Tripadvisor, forum riguardo alle crociere, etc.
10	Altro (Indicare) : _____

## 6. Per favore, indichi se è d'accordo con le dichiarazioni seguenti relative alla sua percezione di Valencia, considerando che :

Assolutamente in disaccordo	Disaccordo	Un po' in disaccordo	Nè in accordo nè in disaccordo	Abbastanza d'accordo	D'accordo	Assolutamente d'accordo
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. L'architettura di Valencia (Edifici, monumenti, ornamenti) è interessante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Il paesaggio naturalistico di Valencia (alberi, fiori, cielo) è unico.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Lo scenario marittimo di Valencia è attrattivo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Valencia ha un'ampia varietà di cose da vedere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Il suono della natura a Valencia (il canto degli uccelli, il vento, le palme, le onde) è piacevole.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. La musica che si può ascoltare a Valencia (musicisti di strada, concerti, canzoni folkloristiche) è gradevole.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Le voci delle persone per le strade, nei bar, nelle piazze, permette di percepire l'atmosfera locale valenciana.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. La gastronomia locale (piatti tradizionali, frutta, verdure) sa di buono.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Le bibite locali (caffè, vino, horchata) emanano un buon profumo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Il profumo delle piante, dei fiori, degli alberi e del mare, qui a Valencia, è piacevole.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Il cibo locale ha un buon sapore.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Il sapore del cibo locale è unico.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Le bevande locali hanno un buon sapore.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Il calore del sole a Valencia fa bene alla mia pelle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. La sensazione della brezza marina e del vento sulla mia pelle è dolce.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I resti, le pietre e gli ornamenti a Valencia diventano un'esperienza attraente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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17. Toccare la sabbia e l'acqua del mare a Valencia è un'esperienza piacevole.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Valencia ha avuto un forte impatto sui miei sensi, non solo visivamente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Trovo Valencia interessante dal punto di vista sensoriale.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Valencia affascina i miei sensi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. La visita mi ha fornito approfondimenti circa la storia di Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Durante la visita a Valencia, mi sono sentito connesso con la storia, le leggende e i personaggi storici.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Sono stato felice di godere della atmosfera unica della città di Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Mi sono sentito connesso con le persone del posto e con la loro cultura durante la visita.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**7. Riguardo ad una generale valutazione inerente alla sua visita a Valencia, per favore indichi il suo accordo / disaccordo con le seguenti dichiarazioni:**

Assolutamente in disaccordo	Disaccordo	Un po' in disaccordo	Nè in accordo nè in disaccordo	Abbastanza d'accordo	D'accordo	Assolutamente d'accordo
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>

Durante la visita:

1. Sono stato entusiasta.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Ero esaltato.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Avevo piacere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Ero rilassato.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Ero divertito.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Mi sono ricaricato per la visita.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Ho veramente apprezzato la visita.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Ho imparato qualcosa riguardante me stesso attraverso questa visita.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Ho avuto la possibilità di avvicinarmi alla cultura locale attraverso questa esperienza.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Ho sperimentato qualcosa di nuovo (cibo, attività) durante questa visita.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**8. Per quanto riguarda l'intero soggiorno a Valencia, si prega di indicare di essere d'accordo/ in disaccordo con le seguenti dichiarazioni:**

1. Valencia è una delle destinazioni che ho apprezzato di più.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Considerato ciò che mi piace fare durante una crociera, non potrei immaginare organizzazioni e approfondimenti migliori di quelli offerti da Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Tra le varie esperienze turistiche avute, Valencia è sicuramente tra le migliori.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Non sostituirei Valencia per il tipo di esperienza che offre.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Questa visita ha contribuito a farmi sentire un senso di appartenenza a Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Visitare Valencia dice molto rispetto a ciò che sono.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Dopo aver visitato Valencia posso dire che questa visita ha significato molto per me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Vorrei visitare ancora Valencia in un prossimo viaggio in crociera.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Vorrei visitare Valencia come turista al di là della crociera.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Raccomanderei Valencia ad amici e familiari.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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11. Raccomanderei Valencia per un viaggio in corciera ad amici e familiari.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Raccomanderei Valencia come destinazione di crociera attraverso la rete sociale ( Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Raccomanderei Valencia come destinazione per una vacanza attraverso la rete sociale ( Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Posterò foto di Valencia sulle reti sociali ( Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Farò commenti positivicirca Valencia su siti di riviste turistiche (Tripadvisor, recensioni inerenti a crociere).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**9. Ha comprato una visita guidata a Valencia?**

1	No, visiterò da solo la città ( <i>vai alla domanda 11</i> ).
2	Si, ho comprato una escursione sulla nave.
3	Si, ho comprato un tour guidato da una compagnia di tour locale.

**10. Riguardo alla visita guidata a Valencia, per favore indichi se concorda con le seguenti dichiarazioni:**

1. La guida si è sforzata per trasmetterci le emozioni che doveva mostrarci.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. La guida ha realmente cercato di trasmetterci le emozioni che avrebbe dovuto mostrare in quanto parte del tour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. La guida ha cercato di trasmettere le emozioni che avrebbe dovuto mostrarci.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Ho riconosciuto le emozioni della guida dai suoi comportamenti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Sono un attento osservatore delle emozioni di una guida turistica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Sono sensibile alle emozioni e sensazioni che trasmette una guida turistica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Ho una buona percezione delle emozioni di una guida turistica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. In risposta ai comportamenti della guida, sorrido e offro parole gentili durante il tour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. In risposta ai comportamenti della guida, sono cortese.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. In risposta ai comportamenti della guida, cerco di collaborare durante il tour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. In risposta ai comportamenti della guida, sono amichevole.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Scriverò commenti positive riguardo alla visita guidata su siti di riviste turistiche (Tripadvisor, recensioni su crociere).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Raccomanderò il tour ad amici e familiari.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**11. Sesso:**

1	Uomo
2	Donna

**14. Occupazione:**

1	Impiegato
2	Part- time
3	In pensione
4	Disoccupato
5	Casalinga
6	Studente

**12. Et :** \_\_\_\_\_

**13. Livello di studi:**

1	Senza studi
2	Scuola primaria
3	Scuola secondaria
4	Studi universitari

**15. Paese di residenza:** \_\_\_\_\_

**GRAZIE PER IL TUO TEMPO E LA COLLABORAZIONE!**



**APPENDIX 4. Survey questionnaire in Spanish**

*Buenas tardes.*

*Desde la Universidad de Valencia estamos llevando a cabo un estudio sobre la experiencia de los turistas de crucero que visitan la ciudad de Valencia. Le estaríamos muy agradecidos si pudiera contestar a unas preguntas. Sólo le llevará unos minutos y las respuestas son completamente anónimas. Por favor, marque con una X la respuesta elegida.*

**1. ¿Inicia su viaje de crucero en Valencia?**

1	Sí (Fin de la encuesta)
2	No, lo inicié en otro puerto.

**2. ¿Cuántos viajes en crucero ha hecho? \_\_\_\_\_**

**3. ¿Es la primera vez que visita Valencia?**

1	Sí
2	No, ya había estado anteriormente.

**4. ¿Cuántas horas ha pasado en Valencia? \_\_\_\_\_**

**5. ¿Qué información consultó para su visita a Valencia? (Puede marcar más de 1 opción)**

1	Agencia de viaje
2	Abordo del crucero
3	Oficina de turismo en el Puerto
4	Oficina de turismo en el centro de Valencia
5	Recomendaciones de amigos y familiares
6	Guías turísticas, revistas de viaje
7	Página web de Valencia
8	Página web del crucero
9	Foros, Tripadvisor, etc.
10	Otros (Indicar) : _____

**6. Por favor, indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones referidas a su percepción de Valencia como destino turístico, siendo:**

Muy en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Algo en desacuerdo	Indiferente	Algo de acuerdo	Bastante de acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. La arquitectura de Valencia (edificios, monumentos, ornamentos) me parece atractiva.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. El paisaje natural de Valencia es único (vegetación, cielo, mar).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. El escenario marítimo de Valencia es atractivo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Valencia ofrece una amplia variedad de cosas a ver.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Los sonidos de la naturaleza en Valencia son agradables (pájaros, viento, hojas de los árboles, etc).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. La música que se puede oír en Valencia suena bien (músicos en las calles, conciertos, música tradicional).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Las voces de las personas en las calles, bares, plazas, etc. permiten percibir el ambiente local.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. La comida local (platos tradicionales valencianos, frutas, verduras) huele bien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. La bebida local (p.ej. horchata, vino) desprende un olor agradable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. El olor de las flores, árboles, del mar en Valencia es agradable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. La comida local tiene buen sabor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. El sabor de la comida local es único.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. La bebida local sabe muy bien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. El calor del sol sobre la piel sienta bien en Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. El tacto de la brisa en Valencia sobre mi piel es suave.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. El tocar ruinas, piedras, ornamentos en Valencia es atractivo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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17. El tacto de la arena y el agua del mar en Valencia es agradable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Valencia impresiona mis sentidos (vista, olfato, gusto, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Valencia me parece interesante a nivel sensorial.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Valencia es atractiva para mis sentidos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. La visita a Valencia me proporcionó una idea de su patrimonio histórico y cultural.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Durante la visita a Valencia, me sentí conectado con su historia, leyendas y personajes históricos de la ciudad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. He disfrutado del ambiente único de Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Me he sentido conectado/a con la gente local y su cultura durante la visita a Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**7. Respecto a su visita a Valencia, por favor, valore su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones:**

Durante la visita:

1. Me he entusiasmado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Me he emocionado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Me he sentido a gusto.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Me he relajado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Me he entretenido.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Me ha reconfortado la visita.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. He disfrutado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. He aprendido algo sobre mí durante esta experiencia turística.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. He tenido la oportunidad de conocer la cultura local.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. He experimentado algo nuevo durante esta visita (comida, actividad, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**8. Respecto a su valoración global de la visita a Valencia, por favor, valore su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones:**

1. Valencia es uno de los destinos que más me han gustado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Para lo que me gusta hacer durante una escala de crucero, no podría imaginar mejores atractivos que los que tiene Valencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Para el tipo de experiencias turísticas que más me gustan, Valencia ofrece una de las mejores experiencias.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. No cambiaría Valencia por otro destino de crucero por el tipo de experiencia que ofrece.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. A raíz de esta visita, siento que Valencia forma parte de mí.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Mi visita a Valencia dice mucho de quién soy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Después de haber visitado Valencia, siento que este destino significa mucho para mí.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Volvería a visitar Valencia como destino de cruceros.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Volvería a visitar Valencia aunque no fuera en crucero.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Recomendaría Valencia a mi familia y amigos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Recomendaría Valencia como destino de cruceros a mi familia y amigos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Recomendaría Valencia como destino de cruceros en mis redes sociales (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



APPENDICES

13. Recomendaría Valencia como destino turístico en mis redes sociales (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Subiría fotos de Valencia en mis redes sociales (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Escribiría comentarios positivos sobre Valencia en páginas web de opinión (p. ej. Tripadvisor, cruise critics).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**9. ¿Ha tenido visita guiada por Valencia?**

1	No, hice la visita por mi cuenta ( <i>pasar a la pregunta N° 11</i> ).
2	Sí, compré una excursión de la naviera.
3	Sí, reserve una visita guiada por una compañía local de Valencia.

**10. Respecto a su experiencia de visita guiada/excursión en Valencia, por favor, indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones:**

1. El/La guía se esforzaba por sentir las emociones que tenía que mostrarnos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. El/La guía transmitía las emociones que tenía que mostrarnos como parte del tour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. El/La guía sentía realmente las emociones que tenía que mostrarnos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. He sido capaz de identificar las emociones del/a guía basándome en su comportamiento.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. He sido buen/a observador/a de las emociones del/a guía.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. He estado atento/a a las emociones y sentimientos del/a guía.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. He entendido las emociones del/a guía.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. En respuesta al comportamiento del/a guía, le sonrío y le ofrezco palabras amables.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. En respuesta al comportamiento del/a guía, yo soy respetuoso y educado/a con él.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. En respuesta al comportamiento del/a guía, intento cooperar/ayudar durante el tour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. En respuesta al comportamiento del/a guía, soy simpático/a con él/ella.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Escribiré comentarios positivos sobre el tour/excursión en páginas web de opiniones de turistas (Tripadvisor, cruise critics).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Recomendaría el tour a mi familia y amigos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**11. Sexo:**

1	Hombre
2	Mujer

**12. Edad:** \_\_\_\_\_

**13. Nivel de estudios finalizados:**

1	Sin estudios
2	Estudios primarios
3	Estudios secundarios
4	Estudios universitarios

**14. Ocupación principal:**

1	Empleado/a
2	Autónomo/a
3	Jubilado/a/ Pensionista
4	Parado/a
5	Tareas del hogar
6	Estudiante

**15. País de residencia:** \_\_\_\_\_

**¡GRACIAS POR SU TIEMPO Y COLABORACIÓN!**