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THE INFLUENCE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY ON THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS OF MUSIC FESTIVAL-GOERS: FINDINGS FROM A SURVEY-EMBEDDED EXPERIMENT

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management

by Yahya A. Alzghoul December 2017

Accepted by:

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Dr. William Kilbourne

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ABSTRACT

The concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has received pronounced interest at both the academic and industry levels, associated with the recognition that businesses have responsibilities towards society beyond profit making (Othman & Othman, 2014). The tourism industry relies heavily on environmental and cultural resources within tourist destinations (Sheldon & Park, 2011), requiring businesses to actively engage with social and environmental issues (Henderson, 2007). While there is an increased interest in CSR in the tourism sector at both the academia and business levels, CSR tourism research is underdeveloped (Coles, Fenclova, & Dinan, 2013; Sheldon & Park, 2011; Wells, Smith, Taheri, Manika, & McCowlen, 2016). Moreover, little academic attention has been paid to CSR among major tourism attractions, with the exception of casinos (Coles et al., 2013).

Consumers generally act as drivers for CSR activities (Kotler, 2011), making it important for businesses to understand how tourists respond to different types of CSR. However, assessing consumer responses to CSR is still in its infancy as a research area (Marchoo, Butcher, & Watkins, 2014). To address the gaps found in the literature, this study focused on examining festival-goers' behavioral intentions and desires related to different CSR initiatives (environmental, social, and economic) at music festivals.

This study employed experimental design to investigate festival-goers' behavioral intentions and desires towards CSR activities undertaken by music festivals. Specifically, this study placed three CSR initiatives (environmental, social, and economic) within the

Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (MGB), thereby forming an Extended Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (EMBG). The data was collected via an online survey-embedded experiment through Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk). The results revealed that environmental CSR initiative was effective in predicting behavioral intention and desire; however, when environmental CSR initiative variable was combined with the MGB, the effect of environmental CSR on desire lost its significance. The results indicated that both the MGB and the EMGB were effective in explaining festival-goers' behavioral intentions and desires for attending music festivals. Accordingly, the process of extending the MGB was successful and environmental CSR initiative was the only significant predictor of desire and behavioral intention among the three CSR initiatives.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my grandparents, to my late father, Akasheh, and my mother, Najah, for their endless support and love. My father and mother devoted all their resources towards my education. I have not seen them since 2012. When my father died of a car accident in November 2015, I was not able to attend the funeral. I learnt later that he asked my family not to tell me about the accident. He wanted to save my time, money, and efforts. This broke my heart. Every time I think of this, I cannot hold back my tears!

This dissertation is also dedicated to my parents-in-law for their support and care, to my lovely wife, Alaa, for her patience and understanding, to my lovely sons,

Mohammad and Adam, and to my brothers and my sister. I am grateful to have you all in my life.

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I wanted also to convey my appreciation of many friends who were supportive and helpful – Malek Aljamaliah, Samer Alomar, Nidal Alzboun, Aws Ajaj, Hamdi Alzarqani, Imam Mohammad, Abd Wahhab Alakeedi and my Korean best friend Kim for their support and encouragement. I will never forget your constant help and support. I also want to acknowledge my sister-in-law and her husband for their help, support, and trust in me. I am lucky to have such great people in my life.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Study Background

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) refers to a company's voluntary activities "that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law" (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001, p. 117). CSR is used interchangeably with other terms, including: corporate citizenship, corporate sustainability, corporate responsibility, business ethics, and responsible business (Carroll, 1998).

In general, The European Commission (2001) refers to CSR as "a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis" (p. 6). In addition, CSR implies the obligation adopted by businesses to exert positive impacts and minimize negative impacts on societies (Pride & Ferrell, 2006). In the same vein, it is argued that the role of business in 21st century society has evolved from caring about philanthropy and social impact, to adopting a cohesive view of how a company positions itself in society (Warhurst, 2005). Wood (1991) argues that the basic tenet of CSR is that businesses and society are interwoven, rather than being distinct entities (1991).

The pronounced adoption and importance of CSR has stemmed from stakeholder pressure (Freeman, 1984), globalization and international trade (Jamali & Mirshak, 2007), and increased consumer expectations of businesses to behave ethically and

contribute to the community and enhance the environment (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). In addition, positive outcomes on key stakeholder groups (i.e., employees, consumers, and suppliers) that believed to be achieved by adopting CSR activities have contributed to the increasing prevalence of CSR (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2006).

Scholars have different scopes, dimensions, and views for the concept of CSR. As such, CSR is described as a complex and evolving concept that includes a diversity of ideas and practices (Hopkins, 2003). In an attempt to draw general boundaries of the concept, and its types and dimensions, Dahlsrud (2008) analyzed 37 definitions of CSR and found five recurring themes: environmental, social, economic, stakeholder, and voluntariness.

Frameworks and Dimensions of CSR

There have been many frameworks and models conceptualizing CSR and its dimensions (Carroll, 1979; Carroll, 1991; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Carroll (1979) stated that CSR has four dimensions; economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations. Then (Carroll, 1991) introduced a pyramid of corporate social responsibility, which includes and integrates Carroll's four-dimensional categorization of CSR, though replacing the discretionary responsibility with philanthropy. Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) has also shaped the way researchers approach CSR. As a result, society, shareholders, consumers, and the environment are all integral parties addressed by CSR activities.

The sustainable development approach has been used as a dimensional framework for conceptualizing and operationalizing CSR (Panapanaan, Linnanen, Karvonen, & Phan, 2003; Panwar, Rinne, Hansen, & Juslin, 2006; van Marrewijk, 2003). Henderson (2007) stated that concepts of sustainable development and CSR share many of their principles and are sometimes used interchangeably. CSR is based on the fundamental principles of sustainability, whereby businesses voluntarily participate in the process of enhancing the social, economic, and environmental aspects of a given society (Moneva, Archel, & Correa, 2006). Furthermore, sustainable development "calls for a convergence between the three pillars of economic development, social equity, and environmental protection" (Drexhage & Murphy, 2010, p. 2). The appeal of sustainability could be, in part, attributed to dissatisfaction with the well-established policies of continuous economic growth and the subsequent unequal distribution of environmental and social benefits and costs (Bramwell & Lane, 1993; Hardy, Beeton, & Pearson, 2002). Sustainable development works towards goals of equity between people, as well as between people and ecosystems, and requires a long-term perspective (Tao & Wall, 2009).

Recent studies have combined CSR and sustainable development by using the term corporate sustainability (Bansal, 2005; Baumgartner & Ebner, 2010; van Marrewijk, 2003). Banarjee (2008) highlighted this trend and cautioned that the term corporate sustainability shifts the focus from global planetary sustainability to sustaining the corporation. In the discourse on sustainability and CSR, the concept of the triple bottom line (TBL) is relevant and provides a useful framework for theoretical clarifications and

practical implications. The philosophy of the TBL concept is about guiding firms to generate economic prosperity (profit) while also maintaining a good relationship with society (people) and protecting the natural environment (planet) (Cvelbar & Dwyer, 2013). TBL is in line with the sustainable development concept that emerged in the late 1980s (World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), 1987). Elkington (1998) first coined the concept in an attempt to broaden business focus, responsibility, and reporting to include social and environmental impacts alongside economic profits.

TBL is a reporting and planning system, and a framework for making decisions that focuses on measuring, recording, and monitoring the economic, social, and environmental dimensions that are vital for a firm to be successful (Cvelbar & Dwyer, 2013; Norman & MacDonald, 2004). To move sustainability forward in a sound way, firms need to generate welfare (profit), while providing society with benefits (people), and enhancing environmental resources (planet) (Dwyer, 2005). There has been a growing awareness among both the public and private sectors about the essential roles of and need for TBL measurement and CSR (Sharpley, 2009).

This study conceptualized and operationalized CSR through the lens of sustainable development (sustainability) using the TBL philosophical framework of combining the three dimensions of sustainable development (environmental, social, and economic).

Tourism, Festivals, and CSR

CSR activities are not new in the context of the tourism industry, and are generally related to the concept of sustainable tourism (Jucan & Jucan, 2010). It is acknowledged that CSR activities are vital to achieve environmentally and socially responsible tourism (Caruana, Glozer, Crane, & McCabe, 2014), through engaging with social and environmental issues (Henderson, 2007) and reinforcing ties with community (Kasim, 2006). As a result, it is suggested that CSR is a social license to operate in the tourism industry within different destinations (Williams, Gill, & Ponsford, 2007).

The pronounced interest and importance of CSR within the tourism industry has stemmed from an increasing awareness by businesses and their owners of negative impacts associated with their enterprises (Dodds & Kuehnel, 2010) and increased attention to environmental issues, such as climate change, and human rights issues (Sheldon & Park, 2011). Furthermore, positive outcomes associated with adopting CSR activities/initiatives – such as employee self-esteem and retention, customer loyalty, and brand image – have been key drivers of CSR for tourism businesses (McGehee, Wattanakamolchai, Perdue, & Calvert, 2009).

While CSR is an important issue in the tourism industry and vital for advancing responsible forms of tourism development (Font, Guix, & Bonilla-Priego, 2016; Kang, Lee, & Huh, 2010; Sheldon & Park, 2011; Theodoulidis, Diaz, Crotto, & Rancati, 2017), CSR tourism research is undeveloped (Coles et al., 2013) and lags behind mainstream CSR research (Ayuso, 2006). Due to the complexity and contextual nature of CSR, and the unique aspects of the hospitality and travel sectors, research pertaining to CSR in

other industries may not be relevant in the context of the tourism industry. Thus, more research is warranted to better understand CSR's role in the tourism industry (Wells et al., 2016).

A considerable number of tourism companies are incorporating CSR into their business models, with the aim of improving the environment, quality of life for local people, and the welfare of their employees (Bohdanowicz & Zientara, 2008; Font, Walmsley, Cogotti, McCombes, & Häusler, 2012). CSR has also been adopted by many sectors within the tourism system. However, most studies on CSR have been devoted to the accommodation sector and airlines (Coles et al., 2013). Little academic attention has been paid to CSR among major tourism attractions, with the exception of casinos (Coles et al., 2013). To address such a cavity in the literature, this study aimed at investigating CSR within the context of event tourism, specifically music festivals.

Events and Event Tourism

Events, with their potential for attracting visitors, are integrated into the tourism planning and development activities of most destinations (Getz, 2008; Getz & Page, 2016). Event tourism is recognized as being situated at the nexus between tourism and events. Tourists are regarded as potential consumers for planned events, and planned events are developed and valued as an element in community and regional tourism planning and development (Getz, 2008; Getz & Page, 2016). In this regard, Getz and Page (2016) argued that events have become a core element of the destination system where accommodations, attractions, and ancillarly services enhance the tourism appeal of

regions (Getz & Page, 2016). In short, events are "one of the most exciting and fastest growing forms of leisure, business, and tourism-related phenomena" (Getz, 1997, p. 1).

Events have been employed to expand tourist attraction offerings at destinations (Connell, Page, & Meyer, 2015). Events and festivals are also an essential feature of cultural tourism (Chang, 2006; Getz, 2008). Festivals have the potential to provide an array of experiences that attract both locals and visitors, offering the context for social, leisure, and cultural experiences (Axelsen & Swan, 2010; Nicholson & Pearce, 2001). Festivals fall under the umbrella of event tourism, whereby people travel to destinations to attend specific events (Getz, 2008; Getz & Page, 2016). Festivals have an array of themes, including food, culture, religion, music, and sports (Maeng, Jang, & Li, 2016). Their importance is reflected in the vast literature related to multicultural diversity and geographical coverage. For example, there are studies of festivals in Europe (Grappi & Montanari, 2011), the Middle East (Akhoondnejad, 2016), Asia (Sohn, Lee, & Yoon, 2016), the United States (Yuan & Jang, 2008), Africa (Kruger, Saayman, & Ellis, 2010), and Australia (Savinovic, Kim, & Long, 2012).

Academic literature focusing on festivals and events has expanded and increased recently (Getz & Page, 2016). The literature spans a wide array of topics, including festivals and locals' well-being (Yolal, Gursoy, Uysal, Kim, & Karacaoğlu, 2016), social inclusion of locals (Laing & Mair, 2015), social media within a festival context (Hudson & Hudson, 2013; Hudson, Roth, Madden, & Hudson, 2015), and volunteerism (Bachman, Norman, Hopkins, & Brookover, 2016). There is growing research directed towards

addressing and measuring the impacts of special events beyond their economic impacts to include environmental and social dimensions (Hede, 2007; Zifkos, 2015).

Festivals provide economic, social, and cultural benefits to the communities in which they occur (Grappi & Montanari, 2011). In this sense, festivals have the potential to attract tourists and boost the local economy (Barrera-Fernández & Hernández-Escampa, 2017; Litvin, Pan, & Smith, 2013), enhance social cohesiveness and increase community pride (Bagiran & Kurgun, 2016; Whitford & Ruhanen, 2013), improve a destination's image (Folgado-Fernández, Hernández-Mogollón, & Duarte, 2017), and provide a sustainable form of tourism development (Z. Song, Xing, & Chathoth, 2015). These multiple benefits have resulted in an increase in the number of new festivals (J. Lee & Beeler, 2009), a progression expected to continue even during times of economic downturn ("Shawn" Lee & Goldblatt, 2012).

Music festivals, a subset of festivals, are featured within tourism literature as a form of music tourism (Gibson & Conell, 2005), cultural tourism (Lehman, Wickham, & Reiser, 2017), or event tourism (Donald Getz, 2008; Getz & Page, 2016). Music festivals provide opportunities for social interaction and enhancing relationships (Organ, Koenig-Lewis, Palmer, & Probert, 2015), and an environment that results in positive psychological outcomes for festival-goers (Ballantyne, Ballantyne, & Packer, 2014) and enhanced subjective well-being of the local people (Yolal et al., 2016). Music festivals have to potential to provide positive economic impact (Andersson, Armbrecht, & Lundberg, 2017; Rivera, Semrad, & Croes, 2016), promote local commodities, and enhance the competitive advantage of tourist destinations (Lee & Arcodia, 2011).

Music festivals are growing in popularity (Brennan-Horley, Connell, & Gibson, 2007), especially large outdoor festivals (Anderton, 2008). The increasing popularity and growth of music festivals could be attributed to a shift that began in the late 1960s from music festivals as community events, to music festivals as commercial events (Frey, 1994). Music festivals experienced considerable growth towards the late 1960s as a result of shift between music festivals as community events to music festivals as commercial events (Gibson & Conell, 2005). Music festivals are widely attractive because they typically include activities and entertainment beyond the music itself, and may sometimes include associated workshops similar to the theme of the festival (Bowen & Daniels, 2005). Nowadays, music festivals are big businesses. According to Wynn (2017), over thirty-two million people attend music festivals in the United States every year. The last two decades have witnessed a remarkable expansion in the number and volume of events that draw thousands of fans (Kennedy & Brown, 2017).

With the increased popularity of music festivals in size and number, some posit that the market is changing – with a tendency for new festivals to focus upon niches instead of a larger scale investment (Kennedy & Brown, 2017). Danton (2016) used the term "peak festival" to describe the saturation stage of music festivals. Wynn (2017) referred to Bonnaroo – one of the biggest music festivals in the United States – as a case that demonstrates a trend towards the saturation stage, with a 38% decrease in attendees in 2016 compared to 2015. Wynn (2017) also argues that over-commercialization could be a reason for such a trend. This highlights the importance of CSR activities as a tool to enhance the festival's image to show more effort towards enhancing the social,

environmental and economic aspects of the local communities. This may help enhance the image of festivals and make them distinct from other festivals. This is vital, taking into consideration the similarities between big festivals in terms of lineups and atmosphere (Danton, 2016). In this regard, CSR has the potential to distinguish a festival and enhance its image, reinforcing its difference from others in the marketplace.

From an environmental perspective, there is an increasing interest in adopting green initiatives in the events industry to improve their competitiveness (Whitfield & Dioko, 2012). Many types of events are implementing /adopting environmentally sustainable practices, such as waste management, recycling, minimizing power use and encouraging the use of public transportation or bicycles (Laing & Frost, 2010). However, Zifkos (2015) pointed out that many festivals are also promoting the term "sustainable festival" while referring to environmental practices and initiatives. He criticized such an approach for relating sustainability with the environmental dimension and omitting the two other dimensions (social and economic). However, there is a gap in the literature relevant to the study of the evolving sustainable festival (Zifkos, 2015). Specifically, Getz (2010) noted that the event literature is missing a sustainability component. There is a lack of attention being directed towards the social and cultural values of special events because of overemphasis on the economic aspects of special events (Getz, 2009). This study attempted to address this gap in the literature by examining the issue of CSR in the context of music festivals.

Consumer Responses to CSR

Companies' interest in CSR is in part a response to evolving consumer expectations about the role of firms in society and utilization of corporate resources to address social and environmental concerns (Campbell, 2007; Luchs, Naylor, Irwin, & Raghunathan, 2010; Madden, Roth, & Dillon, 2012). Research has shown that CSR has positive impacts on key stakeholder groups, such as employees, consumers, suppliers, and distributors (Bhattacharya, Korschun, & Sen, 2009; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). With consumers acting as drivers for CSR activities (Kotler, 2011), managers and scholars seek to gain a better understanding of how consumers evaluate CSR (Peloza & Shang, 2011). Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) proposed direct and indirect relationships between CSR activities and a company's internal and external consumer-based outcomes. Customer awareness, attributions, attitudes, and attachment were regarded as internal outcomes, and loyalty and patronage were regarded as external outcomes of CSR.

In the tourism context, travelers have shown positive trends towards ethical and responsible tourism (Goodwin & Francis, 2003). Adlwarth (2010, 2011, as cited in Coles et al 2011) noted that the number of travelers who care about CSR is large, increasing and could be regarded as a potential attractive segment for tour operators. In the same vein, "consumers are already making decisions based on environmental, social and economic quality for day-to-day products and are keen to transfer these habits to the purchase of tourism products" (Miller, 2003, p. 17). Within the tourism industry, lodging consumers have recently become more concerned about the environmental impact of the hotel industry (Kim & Han, 2010) and they have positive attitudes toward responsible

businesses in the accommodation sector and show willingness to support those firms (Lee & Moscardo, 2005; Manaktola & Jauhari, 2007).

Theoretical Model

This study employed the Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (see Figure 1.1) developed by Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) as the theoretical background of the proposed study. This model improves the capacity of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) by adding motivational and affective processes and past behavior to TPB's variables (i.e., attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control). Specifically, Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) indicated that there were three new important variables that affect a person's decision- making process. The roles of the original variables of the TPB are redefined to influence behavioral intention indirectly through the new construct of desire. Desire was included within the MGB as a mediator between attitude, subject norm, perceived behavioral control, positive anticipated emotion, negative anticipated emotion, and intention. Desire is believed to enhance the predictive power of the model (Carrus, Passafaro, & Bonnes, 2008; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Several studies have successfully employed the MGB in the tourism context (Lee, Song, Bendle, Kim, & Han, 2012; Song, Lee, Norman, & Han, 2012; Song, You, Reisinger, Lee, & Lee, 2014).

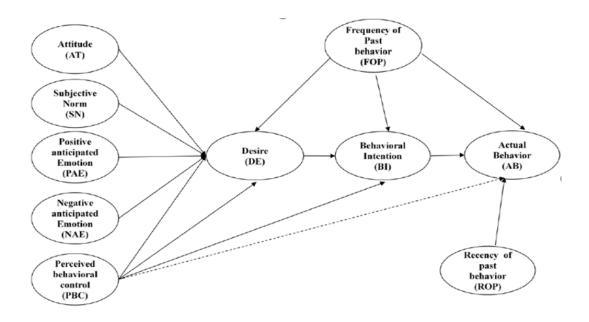


Figure 1.1: The Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001)

This study incorporated new three variables: environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives into the MGB, forming the Extended Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (EMGB) (see Figure 1.2). In the EMGB, environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives directly impact desire and behavioral intention. The extant literature reflects the importance of CSR for any given firm in the marketplace, and it has been affirmed that CSR initiatives may be influential in terms of affecting consumer decision-making and evaluations.

Several researchers have pointed out the need to revise existing sociopsychological theories by including new influential variables in regard to specific context or by changing existing paths among latent variables (Icek Ajzen, 1991; Conner & Abraham, 2001; Oh & Hsu, 2001). According to Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) adding these additional variables is necessary to broaden and deepen a theory, which can improve the ability to predict human behavior in specific contexts.

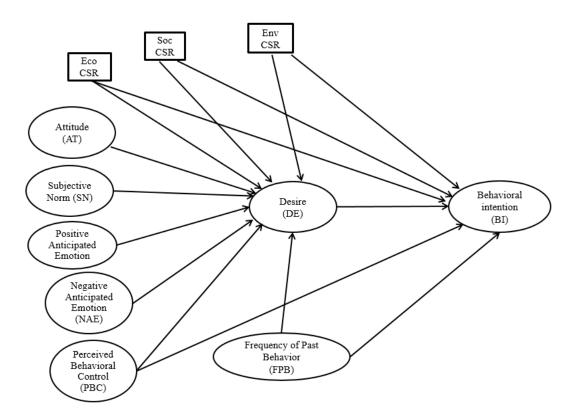


Figure 1.2: The theoretical model used in this study (the EMGB). Rectangles represent the three CSR initiatives

Problem Statement

The concept of CSR in event tourism is important in terms of marketing and enhancing the image projected in the marketplace. Specifically, CSR is important in the music festival industry. Music festivals have grown remarkably during the past two decades (Kennedy & Brown, 2017), with a considerable number of fans and attendees. The number of people attending at least one music festival yearly in the United States is projected to be around 32 million (Wynn, 2016). This remarkable volume implies that

music festivals have the potential to generate positive and negative social, economic, and environmental impacts on their surrounding communities (such as pollution and crowding) (Mair & Laing, 2012). CSR initiatives would help alleviate the negative impacts associated with music festivals, while enhancing positive impacts. Festival-goers' responses to CSR initiatives is an important issue in the overall process of pursuing more responsible music festival practices, because businesses' interest in CSR is in part due to increasing consumer interest (Campbell, 2007). The study of consumers' responses to CSR activities are limited in the context of tourism in general. The role of CSR in the decision-making process is largely unexplored in the tourism field, specifically concerning events and music festivals. The study of CSR and festival-goers' responses to CSR initiatives in the form of desire and behavioral intention may provide an understanding of the importance of CSR activities, and could be used to tailor marketing campaigns, enhance a festival's image in the marketplace, and convince and stimulate music festival organizers to adopt different CSR activities.

The decision-making process of festival-goers is complex, due to the presence of several determinants forming their decision. Emotions, past behavior, desire, behavioral intention, and subjective norms have been found to be important determinants in previous research (Meng & Choi, 2016; Song et al., 2014). Consequently, incorporating the effect of CSR initiatives within the theoretical framework of MGB would provide a better understanding of the festival-goer decision-making process.

Study Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives on the decision-making process of music festival-goers.

More specifically, the study aimed at including those three CSR initiatives within the MGB to provide an extended model (EMGB) to better understand and explain the desires and behavioral intentions of festival-goers.

Research Ouestions

In an attempt to achieve the purpose of this study, the following questions were proposed and addressed:

Research question one (Q1): What is the effect of CSR initiatives on the decision-making process within the context of a music festival? To address this question, the following specific questions were proposed and answered:

- Q1a: What is the effect of environmental CSR initiatives on desire within the context of a music festival?
- Q1b: What is the effect of social CSR initiatives on desire within the context of a music festival?
- Q1c: What is the effect of economic CSR initiative on desire within the context of a music festival?
- Q1d: What is the effect of environmental CSR initiative on behavioral intention within the context of a music festival?

- Q1e: What is the effect of social CSR initiative on behavioral intention within the context of a music festival?
- Q1f: What is the effect of economic CSR initiative on behavioral intention within the context of a music festival?
- Q1g: Does desire mediate the relationship between environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives and behavioral intention?

Research question two (Q2): Can the MGB be employed to predict the decision-making process of festival-goers within a context of a music festival? To answer this overarching question, a set of questions pertaining to desire (as a mediator variable) and behavioral intention (as a dependent variable) were addressed:

- Q2a: Do attitude, frequency of past behavior, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, positive anticipated emotions, and negative anticipated emotions have a direct effect on desire?
- Q2b: Do perceived behavioral controls, desire, and frequency of past behavior
 have a direct effect on behavioral intention?
- Q2c: Does desire mediate the relationship of attitude, frequency of past behavior, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, positive anticipated emotions, and negative anticipated emotions on behavioral intention?

Research question three (Q3): Can the EMGB be employed to predict the decision-making process of festival-goers within a context of a music festival? This research question followed the same procedures as research question two (Q2), in addition to questions pertaining to environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives.

To answer this overarching question, a set of questions pertaining to desire, behavioral intention, and CSR were addressed:

- Q3a: Do environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives, attitude, frequency of past behavior, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, positive anticipated emotions, and negative anticipated emotions have a direct effect on desire?
- Q3b: Do environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives, perceived behavioral control, desire, and frequency of past behavior have a direct effect on behavioral intention?
- Q3c: Does desire mediate the relationship of environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives, attitude, frequency of past behavior, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, positive anticipated emotions, and negative anticipated emotions on behavioral intention?

Methodology

This study adopted a scenario-based facrorial design to investigate impact of environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives upon desire and behavioral intention. Specifically, a factorial-design was adopted to examine the relationships pertaining to research question one variables. The experimental design was emplyed because it offers causality inference (Babbie, 2013), controls for extraneous variables (Kline, 2011), and widely used in the CSR research. Data was collected by means of an online survey posted on Amzon Mechanichal Turk (Mturk), an online platform where

people can receive monetary compensation for completing different kinds of tasks.

ANOVA and ANCOVA were used for the statistical analyses of the experiment.

The three CSR initiatives were then combined with the MGB forming the EMGB (the extended model). To examine the research hypotheses associated with research questions two and three, a structural equation modelling (SEM) procedure was adopted. Specifically, the first step was to run CFAs verifying reliability and validity of the constructs. The next step was to run SEMs to provide statistical results pertaining to the relationships among the constructs as theorized by the theory and previous literature.

Study Contribution

This study made several contributions to the literature and the professional field. First, this study contributed to the literature on CSR in the context of tourism by examining the effect of different types of CSR initiatives (environmental, social, and economic) on the decision-making process of festival-goers through an experiment. Specifically, behavioral intention and desire were the outcome variables in this study. Behavioral intention has been established in the literature as an outcome of the CSR activities. However, this is not the case for desire, which is theorized as the most proximal determinant of behavioral intention (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). As a result, this study included desire in the experiment as an outcome variable and a mediating variable. Furthermore, the three variables (environmental, social, and economic) were successfully incorporated with the MGB, providing a new framework for studying the decision-making process of festival-goers. Third, this study provides empirical evidence

for the validity of MGB and the EMGB in predicting festival-goer behavioral intention and desire, and the role of desire as a mediational factor in the model. From a practical perspective, this study may provide evidence supporting the importance of environmental CSR to festival-goers. It is suggested that festival managers invest in environmental CSR initiatives and communicate such investment or activities effectively to current and potential festival-goers.

Definition of Terms

The following are important terms used in this study. They are provided here to indicate the specific meaning and connotation of the terms within the context of this study.

Corporate social responsibility (CSR)

"Context-specific organizational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance" (Aguinis, 2011, p. 855).

Environmental corporate social responsibility

"The duty to cover the environmental implications of the company's operations, products, and facilities; eliminating waste and emission; maximizing the efficiency and productivity of its resources; and minimizing practices that might adversely affect the enjoyment of the country's resources by future generations" (Mazurkiewicz, 2004).

Economic corporate social responsibility

Refers to business activities that are adopted with the aim of achieving a direct and indirect positive impact on the business, including actions adopted to maximize profit and value for stakeholders (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). In this study, economic CSR initiative was conceptualized as increasing economic benefits for local communities, through actions such as hiring local people and sourcing goods locally.

Social/societal corporate social responsibility

Refers to the set of voluntarily adopted actions and policies by businesses to enhance the well-being of a local community. This includes building stronger relationships with local communities, respecting local culture, and promoting community initiatives.

Sustainable development

"A development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987: 43).

The Triple Bottom Line (TBL)

Triple Bottom Line: The TBL consists of three P's: profit, people, and planet. It aims to measure the financial, social, and environmental performance of the corporation over a period of time (Elkington, 1998).

Experiment

"A study in which an intervention is deliberately introduced to observe its effects" (Shadish, Cook, & Campella, 2002, p. 12).

The Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (MGB)

An extension of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). In the MGB, all variables of the TPB are still included, but their role is redefined. Desire, positive anticipated emotion, negative anticipated emotion, and two concepts of past behavior are newly employed in the MGB (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

Attitude

Based on an individual's pre-existing beliefs, individual judgment about whether a specific behavior is desirable or not (I Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Behavioral intention

The indication of how much of an effort an individual is planning to exert to perform a specific behavior (Ajzen & Driver, 1992).

Desire

Within the MGB, desire is theorized as the most proximal determinant of behavioral intention (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Desire is defined as "a state of mind whereby an agent has a personal motivation to perform an action or to achieve a goal" (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004, p. 71).

Perceived behavioral control

The individual's perception of the ease or difficulty of undertaking a specific behavior. Perceived behavioral control is referred to as the "perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior and it is assumed to reflect past experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles" (Ajzen, 1988, p. 132).

Subjective norm

The specific behavioral norm that an individual sets for him/herself; what an individual believes that he/she should do (Ajzen, 1988).

Anticipated emotion (positive and negative)

The MGB suggests anticipated positive emotions that arise from imagined goal achievement and negative anticipated emotions that arise from imagined goal failure stimulate the desire to perform behaviors instrumental to goal pursuit (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

Frequency of past behavior

Past behavior is related directly to desire and behavioral intention, since people have favorable or unfavorable tendencies because of past experiences (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

Outline of the Dissertation

The first chapter provides an overview of the background of the research, as well as the problem statement, research objectives, and questions. The theoretical background of the dissertation was presented with its theoretical contribution. Chapter two provides a comprehensive review of relevant literature in the areas of CSR, sustainability, event tourism, MGB, and consumer responses to CSR initiatives. Chapter three explains the methodology, including sampling issues, the design of the experiment, the questionnaire, pilot tests, and data collection and its validity. Chapter four includes data preparation procedures, manipulation and manipulation check, and validity issues. Chapter four

presents also the results for the experiment, the MGB, and the EMGB which includes ANOVAS, ANCOVAS, confirmatory factor analysis, and structural equasion models. In chapter five, the results are discussed, and conclusions are presented. Limitation of the study are discussed along with future research directions.

CHAPTER TWO THE LITERATURE REVIEW

Corporate Social Responsibility

The modern academic debate on CSR started in the 1950s, with *Bowen's Social Responsibilities of the Businessman*, which appeared in 1953. Bowen (1953) defined CSR as the "businessmen's obligation to pursue those policies, to make those decisions or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of society" (p. 6). Because of this early seminal work, Carroll (1998) credited Bowen with the title, the "father of CSR".

A considerable amount of literature exists on the subject of CSR. CSR is described as a complex and evolving concept that includes a diversity of ideas and practices (Hopkins, 2003). It has been called ambiguous (Fisher, 2004), unclear (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001), and a fuzzy concept with "unclear boundaries and debatable legitimacy" (Lantos, 2001, p. 595). The complexity and difficulty associated with the concept of CSR is reflected by the presence of many definitions, conceptualizations, and understandings for the term.

Scholars have different scopes, dimensions, and views for the concept of CSR. For example, Friedman (1970) argued that the only responsibility of businesses is to maximize profits for their shareholders. Many scholars, such as Carroll (1998), opposed this view. Carroll and Shabana (2010) stated that economic responsibility is vital, but not the sole responsibility of business. McGuire (1963) stated, "the idea of social

responsibilities supposes that the corporation has not only economic and legal obligations but also certain obligations to society which extend beyond these observations" (p.144). Carroll (1999) highlighted how this definition is more specific than any others previously provided. Carroll (1979) offered a broad view of CSR, proposing the following definition: "The social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time (Carroll, 1979, p. 500). Other researchers refer to firms' social efforts to contribute to social goods that are usually beyond their own economic interest, without specifying the dimensions or scopes included. For example, McWilliams and Siegel (2001) refer to CSR as "actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interest of the firm and that which is required by law" (p. 117).

The World Business Council for Sustainable Development's (1999) definition of CSR states "corporate social responsibility is the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as the local community and society at large" (p. 3). Others refer to CSR within the sustainability paradigm. CSR can be defined as "context-specific organizational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance (Aguinis, 2011, p.855).

An analysis of thirty-seven definitions of CSR found five recurring themes: environmental, social, economic, stakeholder, and voluntariness (Dahlsrud, 2008).

Generally, in spite of the presence of many approaches for conceptualizing the notion of

CSR, it can be viewed and comprehended as the voluntary efforts of firms to improve the environment, society, and economy, either for altruistic reasons and/or for improving their competitive position. Despite the ongoing debate on CSR, it has grown and evolved, both among researchers and practitioner circles (Carroll & Shabana, 2010).

Firms should behave and practice business according to social expectations (Sethi, 1975). In this regard, the extent to which a firm adopts CSR is dependent on the views it holds towards the social, economic, political, and ethical roles it plays in society and through its relationships with stakeholders (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). CSR is also contextual, with business approaches being affected by geographic, social, and cultural factors, as well as by the economic policies of the places where firms exist (Vidal & Kozak, 2008). Lantos (2001) concluded there are three distinctive types of CSR: ethical, altruistic, and strategic. Ethical CSR refers to the practices of avoiding societal harms and is obligatory for any organization. Altruistic CSR is about doing good work at the possible expense of the firm and stakeholders. Strategic CSR refers to doing good work that could also benefit the business (Lantos, 2001).

Domains of Corporate Social Responsibility

There are many frameworks and models for CSR and its domains (dimensions) (Carroll, 1979, 1991; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). In 1970, Carroll proposed a four-dimension definition of CSR that was included in a conceptual model of CSP: "the social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time" (p. 500). Carroll

(1991) later introduced the pyramid of corporate social responsibility, which integrates the four-dimensional categorization of CSR, with the discretionary responsibility renamed as philanthropic. Economic and legal dimensions are identified as fundamental and required responsibilities of firms, ethical dimensions are expected, and philanthropic dimensions are desired (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

Carroll's (1991) conceptualization (pyramid) of CSR suggests that "The total corporate social responsibility of business entails the simultaneous fulfilment of the firm's economic, social, ethical, and philanthropic responsibility. Stated in more pragmatic and managerial terms, the CSR firm should strive to make a profit, obey the law, be ethical, and be a good corporate citizen" (p. 43). Carroll (1999) argued that the pyramid with its four dimensions addresses the entire continuum of obligations businesses have to society, and he stated that: "business should not fulfil these in sequential fashion but that each is to be fulfilled at all times" (289).

Wartick & Cochran (1985) adopted Carroll's original four dimensions as the principles of social responsibility in their corporate social performance model. They incorporated the legal, ethical, and discretionary domains as "public responsibility", which refers to micro-and macro-levels of social norms. Wood (1991) argued for a little different framework. He suggested that CSR should be viewed across three principles: legitimacy, public responsibility, and managerial discretion. However, Wood's framework also supports Carroll's pyramid of CSR in the sense that businesses that pursue sustainable growth should be responsible to the law and regulations, and they should be responsible for issues that arise as consequences of their business

activities. Schwartz & Carroll (2003) proposed a three-dimensional approach as an alternative to the four-dimensional approach. The three-dimensional model is composed of economic, legal, and ethical responsibilities, plus three sub-dimensions.

Carroll's (1979, 1991) four domains of CSR have been widely adopted; however, several authors have criticized his approach. For example, Wood (1991) argued that the economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic responsibilities could be viewed as domains that embrace principles, but not as principles themselves. In relation to the conceptualization and measurement of CSR, Carroll's model does not provide a coherent framework due its lack of systematic integration with other related fields (Wood, 1991) Others argued that Carroll's CSR model is abstract and difficult to measure, especially the economic dimension, which should not be included when measuring CSR (Turker, 2009).

Moreover, in relation to CSR implementation, a number of authors argue that Carroll's CSR model should be strategic (Galbreath, 2010). That is, a company should clearly specify and address which group of stakeholders and what social issues need to be the focus for CSR implementation, since it is difficult for a company to be responsible for all stakeholders and all issues at one time. Other authors have pointed out that simple models, such as Carroll's pyramid, do not work in all situations. For instance, Carroll's model may not be suitable for businesses in a developing country context as economic circumstances, and cultural values will distort the priority given to the order in which sustainability challenges will be addressed (Turker, 2009).

Other researchers have used the concept of sustainability to operationalize and conceptualize CSR. For example, Kleine and von Hauff (2009) proposed a new management tool to systematically implement CSR based on the triple bottom line approach to sustainability. The authors used the sustainability triangle as a multi-purpose portfolio method for CSR. Following are examples of different dimensions of CSR.

Economic Responsibility

The essential role of business is to produce goods and services for society. By producing goods and services, businesses could attain their goal of achieving financial well-being (Carroll, 1991). Friedman (1970) argued that the only responsibility of businesses is to maximize profits for their shareholders. This view was opposed by many scholars. FFor example, Carroll and Shabana (2010) stated that economic responsibility is vital, but not the sole responsibility of business. According to the pyramid of CSR proposed by Carroll (1991), economic responsibility is the basis of the business case, but the author noted that a firm's responsibility is not complete if other responsibilities, such as legal, ethical, and philanthropic, are neglected. Laws and regulations are designed to manage business relationships with key stakeholders, such as consumers, employees, the community, and the natural environment (Carroll, 1998). Carroll (1991) associated the aspect of economic responsibility with performing consistently with maximizing earning per share, being profitable, maintaining competitive advantage, and achieving a high level of operating efficiency.

Legal Responsibility

Legal responsibility was regarded by Carroll (1991) as the second component of the CSR pyramid. This domain indicates that businesses have to comply with laws and regulations at various levels, such as federal, state, and local (Carroll, 1991). Firms are expected to attain their economic objectives within the framework of law, which reflect the view of "codified ethics" (Carroll, 1991). Maignan and Ferrell (2001) summarized some aspects of legal responsibility, including accurate reporting of business performance, ensuring products meet all legal standards, avoiding discrimination in hiring and compensation, and meeting all environmental regulations.

Ethical Responsibility

Ethical responsibility has been conceptualized as a firm's responsibility that goes beyond law and regulations (Carroll, 1979) and is based on ethical principles, moral obligation, norms, justice, rights, and social standards (Carroll, 1991; Lantons, 2001; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Although ethical responsibilities are not necessarily required by law, they include those policies, institutions, or practices that are either expected (positive) or prohibited (negative) by members of society. They drive their source from religious beliefs, moral traditions, and human rights commitments (Lantos, 2001).

Lantos (2001) emphasized that ethical responsibility is a means-end process in which a company has to be responsible not only for its actions, but also for all the consequences of its business operations. Ethical responsibility should include concerns of individuals or groups that might be affected by different business operations (Lantos,

2001). Ethical activities and practices should reflect a concern for all groups of stakeholders (Archie B. Carroll, 1998).

Philanthropic Responsibility

Carroll (1991) referred to philanthropic responsibility as "those actions that are in response to society's expectation that businesses be good corporate citizens" (p.42), and charitable activities performed to assist social causes and to improve the quality of life in a community. Philanthropic responsibility includes several activities, such as: providing work-family programs, reaching out to communities, and giving donations to charitable organizations (Maignan & Ferrell, 2001). Philanthropic responsibility has not been embedded in an ethical sense; rather it has been considered a voluntary-based responsibility that companies should do as good citizens (Maigan & Ferrell, 2001). Authors such as Carroll (1991) have argued that the benefit of philanthropic responsibility is that it is a purely voluntary action, while other scholars have criticized the motives of firms to do it well (Lantos, 2001; Smith & Higgins, 2000).

Environmental Responsibility

CSR broadly defined is associated with a range of activities adopted by organizations, including employee welfare, engaging stakeholders, community involvement, charity, responsible supply management, ethical leadership, and environmental stewardship (Coles et al., 2013). Firms' attitudes towards the environment could be classified within the broader CSR field (Rodríguez & Cruz, 2007).

Embedding the three (economic, social, and environmental) principles of sustainable development into CSR provides an alternative business model to the traditional growth and profit-maximization model (Jenkins, 2009). According to Mazurkiewicz (2004), environmental CSR is "the duty to cover the environmental implications of the company's operations, products, and facilities; eliminating waste and emission; maximizing the efficiency and productivity of its resources; and minimizing practices that might adversely affect the enjoyment of the country's resources by future generations" (p. 2). It is worthy to mention that the dimensions of CSR may differ according to the conceptual model used for measuring CSR, and the context within which a given company exists. As mentioned previously, there are many ways of conceptualizing and operationalizing CSR. For the purpose of this study, the researcher will operationalize CSR using sustainability (akin to the triple bottom line by Elkington (1998)), by referring to research that have adopted the same logic.

CSR, Sustainability and the Triple Bottom Line

The concept of sustainability is believed to have gained international recognition after a 1987 report by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WECD), called the *Brundtland Commission – Our Common Future*. The report defined sustainable development as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WECD, 1987, p. 43). Later, after the Brundtland Report, the notion of sustainable development was presented (and globally accepted) at the United Nations Conference for Environment and

Development (Rio Conference) in 1992. This Earth Summit produced "Agenda 21" (UNCED, 1992).

The Brundtland Report's main idea was to bring together economic development and environmental conservation. Although these concepts can be thought of as essentially different entities, the Brundtland Report refers to each as potentially coexisting concepts (Lewis, 2000). Core elements identified included the:

- concept of need and subjective well-being, particularly for the poor, to whom priority should be given;
- idea that limitations imposed by the state on technology and social organization affect the environment's ability to meet present and future needs (WCED, 1987, p. 43).

The current appeal of sustainability could be attributed to dissatisfaction with well-established policies of continuous economic growth, and the resulting unequal distribution of environmental and social benefits and costs (Bramwell & Lane, 1993; Hardy et al., 2002). Sustainable development works towards goals of equity between people, as well as between people and ecosystems, and requires a long-term perspective (Tao & Wall, 2009). The term sustainable development was conceived for a macrolevel that "calls for a convergence between the three pillars of economic development, social equity, and environmental protection" (Drexhage & Murphy, 2010, p. 2).

The triple bottom line theory is in line with the sustainable development concept that emerged in the late 1980S (WCED, 1987). Elkington (1998) first coined the concept of the triple bottom line (TBL) in an attempt to broaden businesses' focus to include their

social and environmental impacts, in addition to their economic profits (Faux, 2005). The philosophy of the TBL concept is about guiding firms to generate economic prosperity (profit) while also maintaining a good relationship with society (people) and protecting the natural environment (planet) (Cvelbar & Dwyer, 2013). Elkington (1998) described TBL as:

"Focusing corporations not just on the economic value they add, but also on the environmental and social value they add – and destroy. At its narrowest, TBL is used as a framework for measuring and reposting corporate performance against economic, social and environmental parameters. At its broadest, the term is used to capture the whole set of values, issues and processes that companies must address in order to minimize any harm resulting from their activities and to create economic, social and environmental values" (p. 372).

Triple bottom line is a reporting and planning system, and a framework for making decisions that focuses on measuring, reporting, and monitoring the economic, social, and environmental dimensions, which are vital for a firm to be successful (Cvelbar & Dwyer, 3013; Norman & MacDonald, 2004). There has been a growing awareness among both the public and private sectors about the essential roles of and need for TBL measurement and CSR (Sharply, 2009). Hubbard (2009) stated that:

The TBL is an unsettling concept for many organizations because it implied that the firm's responsibilities are much wider than simply those related to the economic aspects of producing products and services that customers want, to regulatory standards, at a profit. The TBL adds social and environmental

measures of performance to the economic measures typically used in most organizations. Environmental performance generally refers to the amount of resources a firm uses in its operations (e.g. energy, land, water) and the byproducts its activities create (e.g. waste, air emissions, chemical residual etc.). Social performance generally refers to the impact a firm (and its suppliers) has on the communities in which it works (p.180).

The sustainable development approach could be used to propose a possible dimensional framework for CSR (van Marrewijk, 2003; Panapanaan et al., 2003; Panwar, et al., 2006). Henderson (2007) stated that concepts of sustainable development and CSR share many of their principles and are sometimes used interchangeably. The author – to clarify the idea – suggested that any given company pursuing sustainable tourism is, by definition, socially responsible, while CSR incorporates some of the fundamental tenets of sustainability. In this regard, Henderson (2007) argued that CSR occupied a position near the weaker pole of the sustainability spectrum and should be assessed within the context of that discourse.

Traditionally, CSR is directed towards building a relationship between a company and its stakeholders, while the sustainability paradigm pursues actions for a fairer world and a better future for human beings. Kleine and von Hauff (2009) claimed that sustainable development and the increasing duty of firms to consider the concerns of stakeholders are among the main reasons behind the advancement of the concept of CSR.

Recently, studies have tried to combine CSR and sustainable development by using the term corporate sustainability (Bansal, 2005; Baumgartner & Ebner, 2010; van

Marrewijk, 2003). Banarjee (2008) highlighted this trend and cautioned that the term corporate sustainability shifts the focus from global planetary sustainability to the level concerned with sustaining the corporation. The author argued that this means "business, not societal or ecological, interests define the parameters of sustainability" (p. 67). Van Marrewijk (2003) maintained that corporate sustainability is a custom-made process and each organization should choose its own specific ambition and approach regarding corporate sustainability. In this study, CSR will be conceptualized and operationalized through the lens of sustainable development (sustainability) using the triple bottom line philosophy of combining the three dimensions (environmental, social, and economic).

CSR in Tourism

In recent years, the tourism industry has shown an increased interest in CSR (Inoue & Lee, 2011; Kang et al., 2010). The increasing importance of CSR within the tourism industry has been asserted by several studies (de Grosbois, 2012; Henderson, 2007; Inoue & Lee, 2011; Sheldon & Park, 2011). According to Sheldon & Park (2011), academic research on CSR in the tourism and hospitality industries has increased recently as a result of its close dependence on sociocultural and environmental resources and an increasing interest in sustainability.

The close relationship between tourism and physical and social environments entails that tourism's success relies highly on its ability to mitigate its negative impacts on these environments and societies (Kasim, 2006). The need for and importance of CSR in the tourism industry has increased with growing awareness among tourism operators of

the negative impacts of their businesses (Dodds & Kuehnel, 2010). CSR issues have gained greater attention recently, along with several environmental issues, such as degradation, climate change, depletion of natural resources, and human right issues (Sheldon & Park, 2011). Research has indicated that the tourism industry has commitments and obligations outside its business interests, due to its very close relationship with destination environments and societies, which are integral parts of its products (Henderson, 2007; McGehee et al., 2009).

Tourism-related companies engage in different CSR activities (Holcomb, Upchurch, & Okumus, 2007), such as community involvement, environmental management, and customer relations (Holcomb et al., 2007). In this regard, many firms are aware of the importance of and need to balance profitability and having a positive image reflected by engaging in more social and environmental responsibility (Mozes, Josman, & Yaniv, 2011). Many tourism-related firms are making efforts to enhance their public images through CSR activities, such as recycling, supporting local communities, promoting diversity in the workplace, and making donations (McGehee et al. 2009). There are several benefits for tourism firms that undertake CSR activities, such as improving employee self-esteem and retention, customer loyalty, and brand image (McGehee et al., 2009)

A considerable number of tourism companies are incorporating CSR into their business models, with the aim of improving the environment, quality of life of local people, and welfare of their employees (Bohdanowicz & Zientara, 2008; Font et al., 2012). In this regard, Sheldon & Park (2011) examined CSR among members of the

Tourism Industry Association of America (TIAA). From a sample of 274 businesses, the study revealed a high level of awareness of CSR. According to their study, the majority of the respondents engaged in some form of CSR activity and about 24% had a designated lead for CSR activities within the organization (Sheldon & Park, 2011, p. 398).

CSR practices are not new in tourism settings related to the concept of sustainable tourism (Jucan & Jucan, 2010). CSR studies in tourism have mainly been conducted within a paradigm of sustainable tourism (Dodds & Joppe, 2005; Henderson, 2007). Dods and Joppe (2005) argued that the concept of CSR had many features in common with sustainable tourism, because both focus on methods to identify and involve stakeholders to contribute to or mitigate their impacts. In the same direction, Henderson (2007) examined CSR within a sustainable tourism context and found the primary tenets of CSR and sustainable development are very similar, and the terms often used interchangeably. Sustainable tourism and CSR have the same aim of moving towards sustainability and achieving balance between business and society (Marchoo et al., 2014). CSR could be viewed as the "implementation" to achieve the "principle" of sustainable tourism development (Jucan & Jucan, 2010)

According to Williams et al., (2007) academic research conducted on sustainable tourism is associated with broader issues, and little has been devoted to the firm-level of the tourism industry. The authors elaborate that CSR is different when the focus is directed to tourism firms and stakeholders. Issues of climate change, environmental degradation, and human rights, which are receiving increased attention, have encouraged

more responsible business behaviors, which in turn reinforce CSR-sustainability linkage (Sheldon & Park, 2011). Dodds & Joppe (2005) argue that sustainable tourism is concerned with studying tourism from a multi-stakeholder perspective, while CSR is about the role that firms play towards the achievement of more sustainable development. The notion of CSR indicates the voluntary adoption of social and environmental dimensions by companies along with their economic activities, with the essential aim of achieving sustainable development (Kalisch, 2002; Rondinelli & Berry, 2000).

The concept of CSR has received little academic attention within the context of tourism (Chung & Parker, 2010; Inoue & Lee, 2011). Furthermore, within tourism and tourism-related industries, most academic studies and attention are devoted towards the accommodation sector and airlines (Coles et al., 2013). Limited academic interest and attention has been directed to CSR among major attractions, with the exception of casinos (Coles et al., 2013). Other major attractionshave received limited academic attention (Coles et al., 2013).

CSR and Sustainability Within the Context of Events and Festivals

According to Getz (2009), the notion of responsible events is a movement related to sustainable events that originate from CSR initiatives. He went on to say that events should follow the growing discourse on responsible tourism, which takes into consideration responsible tourists, destinations, and companies. He adapted *The Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism in Destinations* to the events sector, providing the following principles:

- Minimize negative economic, social, cultural, and environmental impacts.
- Generate greater economic benefits for local people and enhance the well-being of communities.
- Improve working conditions and create employment.
- Involve local people in decision-making.
- Embrace diversity and contribute to conservation of natural and cultural heritage.
- Create enjoyable experiences by enabling visitors to connect meaningfully with residents.
- Provide access for physically challenged people.
- Be culturally sensitive, encouraging respect between event-goers and hosts,
 building local pride and confidence.

Within academic efforts to advance our understanding of the issues of sustainability in the events and festival sector is a growing research line towards measuring impacts and evaluating special events beyond their economic impacts to include environmental and social dimensions (Hede, 2007). In this vein, Getz (2010) noted that the event literature is missing a sustainability component. Getz (2009) also noted that the overemphasis on the economic evaluation of events has left the social and cultural values of events with inadequate attention. According to Getz, (2012) the environmental dimension of event impacts was most recently developed, which leads directly to the implementation of sustainability criteria.

There is an increasing interest in adopting green initiatives in the event industry to improve events' competitiveness (Whitfield & Dioko, 2012). Many types of events are

implementing or adopting environmentally sustainable practices, such as waste management, recycling, minimizing power use, and encouraging the use of public transportation or bicycles (Laing & Frost, 2010). Mair and Jago (2010) studied greening in the context of events by addressing an example of business events, and found that greening is becoming an integral part of this sector.

Event coordinators are now more engaged in the process of improving the sustainability credentials of events, and sustainability issues have become popular among the media and public (Laing & Frost, 2009). However, it could be said that sustainable event management is a relatively new trend, with many interpretations around such a concept. Henderson (2007) indicated that the terms sustainable, responsible, green, environmentally friendly, CSR, and eco-friendly are used interchangeably in commercial activity. This holds true in the context of events and festivals. Graci and Dodds' (2008) approach to planning and executing events reflects an example of this issue. For them, sustainable events can be defined as incorporating the consideration of the environment in order to minimize their negative impact. Laing and Frost (2010) defined a green event as an "event that has a sustainability policy or incorporates sustainable practices into its management and operations" (p. 262). The author went on to refer to the triple bottom line, and stated that green events have broader meaning than sole environmental responsibility and include economic and socio-cultural sustainability. Laing and Frost (2010) illustrated that an event may claim sustainable credentials for its use of locally sourced food and beverages, even though this represents only part of the overall event activity; sustainability activists may then claim this is inadequate to meet sustainable

development needs. Sustainable eventscould be referred to using the environmental part of sustainability (greening) and the holistic approach to sustainable development (Tinnish & Mangal, 2012). This is reflected by Graci and Dodds' (2008) approach to planning and executing events. For them, sustainable events can be defined as incorporating the consideration of the environment in order to minimize their negative impact.

Zifkos (2015) highlighted the presence of a gap in the literature with reference to the emerging sustainable festival notion. Furthermore, he elaborated that literature about sustainability in the context of festivals uses an environmental approach.

Some festivals, particularly large outdoor music festivals, are leading in greening their events (Mair & Laing, 2012). Mair and Laing (2012) studied the issue of sustainability within a festival context (music) by addressing the drivers of achieving green festival performance, and the constraints to achieving green performance. The study revealed that personal value, stakeholder demand, and a desire to act as an advocate on green issues are drivers of greening, while financial cost, lack of time and control, and difficulty to source appropriate suppliers constitute barriers to greening.

Zifkos (2015) pointed out that many festivals are promoting the term "sustainable festival" while referring to environmental practices and initiatives. He criticized such an approach for relating sustainability with the environmental dimension and omitting the two other dimensions (social and economic). There is a gap in the literature relevant to the study of the evolving sustainable festival (Zifkos, 2015). In this regard, Mair and Laing (2012) pointed out a gap in the literature with reference to the role sustainability plays in the attendee's decision and whether they are aware of the environmental

measures incorporated into the staging of the event by the organizers. This study aimed at filling those gaps in the literature, through studying CSR's effect on potential music festival visitors (study respondents). The study adopted the sustainability notion akin to the triple bottom line (Elkington, 1998) as the way to operationalized CSR.

Events and Music Festivals

Events are considered one of the fastest growing forms of leisure, business, and tourism-related phenomena (Getz, 1997). Getz (1989) defined events as "a celebration or display of some theme to which the public is invited for a limited time only, annually or less frequently" (p. 125). Getz (1991) described the traits most important to define events as including the following:

- An event is open to the public.
- The main purpose of an event is the celebration or display of a specific theme.
- Events takes place annually or less frequently.
- Opening and closing dates predetermine the length of an event.
- An event program consists of one or more separate activities.
- Events are largely intangible, and it is the actual experience of participation in an event that is most important.

Events, with their potential for attracting visitors, are integrated into tourism planning and development activities of most destinations (Getz, 2008; Getz & Page, 2016). Event tourism is recognized as being situated at the nexus between tourism and events (Getz & Page, 2016). In this sense, tourists are regarded as potential consumers for planned events, and planned events are developed and valued as an element of tourism

planning and development (Getz, 2008). Event tourism has been employed as a strategic approach throughout the destination management industry and is recognized as a key tourism product (Connell, Page, & Meyer, 2015; Mckercher, 2016). In this regard, Getz and Page (2016) argued that events have become a core element of the destination system where accommodations, attractions, and ancillary services are developed to enhance the tourism appeal of a given destination.

Weidenfeld and Leask (2013) conceptualized the relationship between attractions and events, referring to the attraction-event relationship as a continuum dependent upon the degree to which a given attraction's core product is integrated into an event – arguing that events add a new structure to attractions. In short, recent literature asserts that events have been adopted by destinations to attract visitors, increase tourist expenditure, spread tourism geographically, address seasonality, boost economic development, enhance brand image and positioning, and boost development (Getz & Page, 2016).

It was not until the 1980s when events began to be recognized as an attractive and abundant research topic, with the recognition of event studies as a discipline coming in the early 2000s (Getz, 2008; Getz & Page, 2016). The growth in the number of festivals and events coincided with increased growth in academic attention given to events and festivals (Getz, 2012). Getz (2007) defined event studies as "the study of all planned events, with particular reference to the nature of the festival and event experience and meaning attached to event experience" (p. 15).

Planned events include a variety of types. The typology of planned events consists of six categories according to their forms: cultural celebration (e.g., festivals, heritage

events, and religious rites), business and trade (e.g., meetings, conventions, fairs, exhibitions, educational events and scientific congress), art and entertainment (e.g., concerts and theater), sport and recreation (e.g., sport festivals and fun events), political and state (e.g., summits and military and political congresses), and other private functions (e.g., parties, reunions, and weddings) (Getz, 2008).

Festivals

Getz (1997) defined a festival as "a public, themed celebration" (p. 8). Getz (1997) argued that festivals are one of the most common forms of cultural celebrations; although many are traditional and have long histories, the majority were created in recent decades. Since the late 1960s, the number of newly created festivals worldwide has been noted (Getz, 1997).

Festivals fall under the umbrella of event tourism, whereby people travel to destinations to attend specific events (Getz, 2008; Getz & Page, 2016). Festivals have an array of themes including food, culture, religion, music, and sports (Maeng, Jang, & Li, 2016). Events and festivals are an essential feature of cultural tourism (Chang, 2006; Getz, 2008). Festivals provide a wide range of experiences that appeal to both visitors and local residents, and offers opportunities for social, leisure, or cultural experiences (Axelsen & Swan, 2010; Nicholson & Pearce, 2001). As a result, they provide opportunities for social interactions and relationship enhancement (Organ et al., 2015). Events and festivals have become an important part of tourism products in many destinations (Getz, 2008, Getz & Page, 2016). According to McKercher, Mei and Tse

(2006) festivals satisfy Pearce's (1991) definition of a tourist attraction as "a named site with a specific human or natural feature which is the focus of visitor and management attention". The authors highlighted that they (festivals) are similar to other attractions in their impact on visitation. Nowadays, many destinations have carefully promoted their image as festival and event destinations, such as Edinburgh, Scotland (Prentice & Andersen, 2003).

The importance of festivals is reflected by the vast multicultural diversity and geographical coverage related to festivals literature. For example, there are studies of festivals in Europe (Grappi & Montanari, 2011), the Middle East (Akhoondnejad, 2016), Asia (Sohn et al., 2016), the United States (Yuan & Jang, 2008), Africa (Kruger et al., 2010), and Australia (Savinovic et al., 2012). Festivals provide economic, social, and cultural benefits to the communities in which they occur (Grappi & Montanari, 2011). In this sense, festivals have the potential to attract tourists and boost the local economy (Barrera-Fernández & Hernández-Escampa, 2017; Litvin et al., 2013), enhance social cohesiveness and increase community pride (Bagiran & Kurgun, 2013; Whitford & Ruhanen, 2013), improve destination image (Folgado-Fernández et al., 2017), and provide a sustainable form of tourism development (Song, Xing, & Chathoth, 2015). These multiple benefits have resulted in an increase in the size and number of new festivals (Lee & Beeler, 2009), an increase expected to continue, even during times of economic downturn ("Shawn" Lee & Goldblatt, 2012).

Music festivals are a subset of festivals and are featured within tourism literature as a form of music tourism (Gibson & Connell, 2005), cultural tourism (Nurse, 2004), or

event tourism (Getz, 2008, Getz & Page, 2016). Music festivals have existed for centuries - it would be impossible to trace when they began (Gibson & Connell, 2012). Music festivals – as we now know them – began in developed countries in Europe and North America after the Second World War (Gibson & Connell, 2012). Jazz festivals pioneered the music festival, and during the 1960s they were associated with the rise of the hippie scene and youth rock music cultures (Rawlins, 1982). The late 1960s and 1970s witnessed considerable expansion in mass tourism and growth in the music festival. This could be attributed to greater accessibility to cars, working-class family holidays, and the emergence of new types of tourism for backpackers, retirees, and students (Gibson & Connell, 2012). According to Gibson & Connell (2005), a key reason for such a growth toward the late 1960s was a shift in the music festival from being a community event to a music festival held as a commercial event. Nowadays, music festivals are big businesses. According to Wynn (2016), over thirty-two million people attend music festivals in the United States every year. The last two decades have witnessed a remarkable expansion in the number and volume of events that draw thousands of fans (Kennedy & Brown, 2017).

With the increased popularity of music festivals in size and number, some posit that the market is changing – with a tendency for new festivals to focus upon being niches instead of a larger scale investment (Kennedy & Brown, 2017). Danton (2016) used the term "peak festival" to describe the saturation stage of music festivals. Wynn (2017) referred to Bonnaroo – one of the biggest music festivals in the United States – as a case that demonstrates a trend towards the saturation stage, with a 38% decrease in

attendees in 2016 compared to 2015. Wynn (2017) also argues that overcommercialization could be a reason for such a trend.

Music festivals provide opportunities for social interaction and enhancing relationships (Organ et al., 2015), and an environment that results in positive psychological outcomes for festival-goers (Ballantyne et al., 2014), and enhanced subjective well-being of local people (Yolal et al., 2016). Music festivals have the potential to provide positive economic impact (Andersson et al., 2017; Rivera et al., 2016), promote local commodities, and enhance the competitive advantage of tourist destinations (Lee & Arcodia, 2011).

Academic literature focusing on festivals and events has expanded and increased recently (Getz & Page, 2015). The literature spans a wide array of topics, including festivals and local well-being (Yolal et al., 2016), social inclusion of locals (Laing & Mair, 2014), social media within a festival context (Hudson & Hudson, 2013; Hudson et al., 2015), and volunteerism (Bachman et al., 2016). Furthermore. There has been a growing research line directed towards addressing and measuring the impacts of special events beyond their economic impacts to include environmental and social dimensions (Hede, 2007; Zifkos, 2015).

CSR and Sustainability Within the Context of Events and Festivals

According to Getz (2009), responsible events is a movement related to sustainable events that originates from CSR initiatives. He asserts that events should follow the growing discourse on responsible tourism, which takes into consideration responsible

tourists, destinations, and companies. He adapted *The Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism in Destinations* to the events sector, providing the following principles:

- Minimize negative economic, social, cultural, and environmental impacts.
- Generate greater economic benefits for local people and enhance the wellbeing of communities.
- Improve working conditions and create employment.
- Involve local people in decision-making.
- Embrace diversity and contribute to conservation of natural and cultural heritage.
- Create enjoyable experiences by enabling visitors to connect meaningfully with residents.
- Provide access for physically challenged people.
- Be culturally sensitive, encouraging respect between event-goers and hosts,
 building local pride and confidence.

Within academic efforts to advance our understanding of the issues of sustainability in the events and festival sector, is a growing research line towards measuring impacts and evaluating special events beyond economic impacts to include environmental and social dimensions (Hede, 2007). In this vein, Getz (2010) noted that events literature is missing a sustainability component. Getz (2009) also noted that the overemphasis on the economic evaluation of events has left the social and cultural values of events with inadequate attention. According to Getz (2012), the environmental

dimension of event impacts was most recently developed, which leads directly to the implementation of sustainability criteria.

There is an increasing interest in adopting green initiatives in the event industry to improve event competitiveness (Whitfield & Dioko, 2012). Many types of events are implementing/adopting environmentally sustainable practices, such as waste management, recycling, minimizing power use, and encouraging the use of public transportation or bicycles (Laing & Frost, 2010). Mair and Jago (2010) studied greening in the context of events by addressing an example of business events, and found that greening is becoming an integral part of this sector.

Event coordinators are now more engaged in the process of improving the sustainability credentials of events, and sustainability issues have become popular among the media and public (Laing & Frost, 2009). However, it could be said that sustainable event management is a relatively new trend, with many interpretations around such a concept. Henderson (2007) indicated that the terms sustainable, responsible, green, environmentally friendly, CSR, and eco-friendly are used interchangeably in commercial activity. This holds true in the context of events and festivals. An example of this issue is reflected by Graci and Dodds' (2008) approach to planning and executing events. They define sustainable events as incorporating the consideration of the environment in order to minimize their negative impact. Laing and Frost (2010) defined a green event as an "event that has a sustainability policy or incorporates sustainable practices into its management and operations" (p. 262). The authors also refer to the triple bottom line, and stated that green events have a broader meaning than solely environmental responsibility,

and include economic and socio-cultural sustainability. Laing and Frost (2010) noted that an event may claim sustainable credentials for its use of locally sourced food and beverages, even though this represents only part of the overall event activity; sustainability activists may then claim this is inadequate to meet sustainable development needs. Sustainable events could be referred to using the environmental part of sustainability (greening) and the holistic approach to sustainable development (Tinnish & Mangal, 2012).

Zifkos (2015) highlighted the presence of a gap in the literature with reference to the emerging sustainable festival notion. Furthermore, he elaborated that literature about sustainability in the context of festivals takes an environmental approach. Some festivals, particularly large outdoor music festivals, are leading in greening their events (Mair & Laing, 2012). Mair and Laing (2012) studied the issue of sustainability within a festival context (music) by addressing the drivers of achieving green festival performance, and the constraints to achieving green performance. The study revealed that personal value, stakeholder demand, and a desire to act as an advocate on green issues are drivers of greening, while financial cost, lack of time and control, and difficulty to source appropriate suppliers constitute barriers to greening.

Zifkos (2015) pointed out that many festivals are promoting the term "sustainable festival" while referring to environmental practices and initiatives. He criticized such an approach for relating sustainability with the environmental dimension and omitting the two other dimensions (social and economic). There is a gap in the literature relevant to the study of the evolution of sustainable festivals (Zifkos, 2015). In this regard, Mair and

Laing (2012) pointed out a gap in the literature with reference to the role sustainability plays in the attendee's decision and whether they are aware of environmental measures incorporated into the staging of the event by the organizers. This study aimed at filling those gaps in the literature through studying the effect of CSR on potential music festival visitors (study respondents). The study adopted the sustainability notion akin to the triple bottom line (Elkington, 19998) as the way to operationalized CSR.

Consumers' Responses to CSR

Research has shown that CSR has positive impacts on key stakeholder groups, such as employees, consumers, suppliers, and distributors (Bhattacharya et al., 2009; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Several studies have proposed conceptual relationships between CSR activities/initiatives and consumer responses (Bhattacharya et al., 2009; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2010; Peloza & Shang, 2011). Bhattacharya & Sen (2004) proposed direct and indirect relationships between CSR activities and a company's internal and external consumer-based outcomes. Customer awareness, attributions, attitudes, and attachment were regarded as internal outcomes, and loyalty and patronage were regarded as external outcomes of CSR. The authors argued that factors such as customer support for CSR, customer characteristics, and company reputation can moderate the relation between CSR and consumer response. Du et al., (2010) argued that the external and internal consumer outcomes are the outcomes of a company's communication about CSR activities. Consumer value and consumer trust were also argued to be internal outcomes of CSR activities (Bhattacharya et al., 2009;

Peloza & Shang, 2011). Other variables, such as intention to purchase, were also regarded as behavioral outcomes (Bhattacharya et al., 2009). Previous studies have shown that CSR has impacts on consumer attitudes, purchase intentions, consumer-company identification, loyalty, and satisfaction (Öberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Murphy, 2013). Recent research has suggested that companies' CSR activities can positively affect consumer attitudes towards those companies (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Marin & Ruiz, 2007). Previous literature has also indicated that CSR activities have a positive impact on different types of consumer response, such as consumer-company identification (Marin & Ruiz, 2007; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001), brand reputation (Brammer & Millington, 2005), and firm credibility (Lafferty, 2007).

Loyalty and purchase intention have been proposed as outcomes of CSR (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Du et al., 2012). CSR has a positive direct effect on loyalty (F. Y. Chen, Chang, & Lin, 2012), both a direct and indirect positive effect upon loyalty and repurchase intention (Liu, Wong, Rongwei, & Tseng, 2014; Mandhachitara & Poolthong, 2011), and a totally indirect effect on loyalty (Homburg, Stierl, & Bornemann, 2013; Martínez & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2013).

Previous research in the literature has shown mixed results about the impact of CSR on purchasing intentions and decisions, opposite to a large number of studies indicating the positive impact of CSR upon purchase intention (as previously shown). Several scholars have stated that CSR does not have a significant impact on purchase intention and that other factors including price, quality, brand, and styles are far more

important and influential than ethical responsibility (Carrigan & Attala, 2001; Iwanow, McEachern, & Jeffrey, 2005; Memery, Megicks, & Williams, 2005).

Holmes and Kilbane (1993) found that a message containing a promise to donate to charity led to a more positive attitude toward the message than not promising a donation, but it did not affect attitude toward the store or purchase intention. The effect could be negative, as shown in a study conducted by Becker-Olsen, Cudmore and Hill (2006) that studied the role of perceived fit (e.g., similarity between its mission and CSR initiatives) and timing of a CSR initiative (reactive vs. proactive) on consumer response. It was shown that a low-fit between the cause and the CSR actions adopted by the company negatively affected consumer beliefs, attitudes, and intentions. Being reactive in adopting CSR activities also has negative impacts on consumers.

Consumer purchase intention, which is still primarily determined by traditional factors such as price and quality, has started to become more affected by CSR, and the degree of these effects varies in different economies and cultural contexts (Ramasamy & Yeung, 2009). It is worthy to mention that CSR itself is contextual, as is the consumers' response. It can vary from culture to culture, and so on. The expectations for a hotel in terms of CSR are different from expectations for airlines, etc.; however, the bulk of literature has indicated the positive effects of CSR upon consumer responses.

CSR and Customer Responses in Tourism and Hotel Contexts

Travelers have shown positive trends towards ethical and responsible tourism (Goodwin & Francis, 2003). Miller's (2003) study, conducted in the UK, dealt with the

kind of information tourists take into account when they choose their destination. The author found that "consumers are already making decisions based on environmental, social and economic quality for day-to-day products and are keen to transfer these habits to the purchase of tourism products" (p. 17). Lodging consumers have recently become more concerned about the environmental impact of the hotel industry (Han, Hsu, Lee, & Sheu, 2011; Kim & Han, 2010), and they have positive attitudes toward responsible businesses in the accommodation sector and show willingness to support those firms (Lee & Moscardo, 2005; Manaktola & Jauhari, 2007).

Adlwarth (2010, 2011, as cited in Coles et al., 2011) notes that the number of "CSR-attuned travelers" is large, increasing, and could be regarded as a potential attractive segment for tour operators. The author states that they are willing to pay a premium for trips associated with their expectations for responsibilities (Adlwarth, 2010: 130, as cited in Coles et al., 2011). Similarly, consumers and society are expressing increasing attention about the negative impacts of the hotel industry, and they are increasingly willing to learn about its CSR practices (Chung & Parker, 2010; de Grosbois, 2012).

Kucukusta, Mak & Chan's (2013) study dealt with the perceptions of visitors to Hong Kong toward CSR practices among four-and five-star hotels. The study showed that visitors view CSR as consisting of five dimensions: community, policy, mission and vision, work-force, and environment. The study revealed that CSR practices have positive relations with service quality, preference to stay, willingness to pay an above-average rate, and positive hotel brand image. Environment and mission and vision are the two

most important factors affecting service quality, preference to stay, willingness to pay, and brand image.

Marchoo et al. (2014), using an experimental research design, studied how two CSR initiatives, namely tourism accreditation and codes of ethics, could affect tourist tour booking intentions through the mediating effects of trust and perceived value. It was shown that both accreditation and codes of ethics have significant and varying impacts on perceived tour value, trust, and booking intention – and that there were significant interactions between effects of the two initiatives on tour booking intention and trust, but not on perceived ethical-expressive value. The study also revealed that codes of ethics and accreditation had indirect effects upon the purchase intention, through the mediating variables of perceived ethical-expressive value and trust. The authors argued that the inclusion of codes of ethics and accreditation enhanced the customers' perception about value.

Gao & Mattila (2014) pointed out that research on consumer satisfaction with green hotels has provided mixed results. In order to better clarify consumer responses to green initiatives, they examined the mediating effects of perceived warmth and competence. The study aimed at examining the moderating effect of CSR (green hotels) on consumer satisfaction, and the moderating role of firm motives in influencing consumers' reactions to green initiatives. Results indicate that when service delivery is successful, customer satisfaction is higher for green hotels. However, in cases of service failure, being green has no effect on satisfaction. Results also indicated that the hotels' motives for adopting CSR activities (self-serving/public-serving) and service outcomes

jointly affected hotel guest satisfaction, and perceived warmth and competence mediated the relation between both motives for engaging in CSR and service outcomes and satisfaction.

Zhang (2014) studied the effect of CSR activities on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions, which included processing fluency and psychological distance as moderating variables. The study indicated that CSR messages vary in their effectiveness depending on the level of processing fluency (high vs. low) and the mental representation of people (high construal vs. low construal). Kim *et al's* (2012) research focused on the issue of advertising in the context of CSR. The study adopted an experimental design and tested the effects of two types of hope – promotion hope and prevention hope – on consumer attitudes and behavioral intentions. The study indicated that these types of hope have different effects when depicted in CSR ads. When an ad message includes prevention hope, an altruistic CSR activity seems to be more effective than a strategic CSR activity. However, the effect of two CSR activities (altruistic and strategic) does not differ when promotion hope is used in the advertisement.

Berezan, Raab, Yoo & Love (2013) conducted a study aimed at revealing how sustainable hotel practices impact the satisfaction and intention to return of hotel guests from different nationalities. Their study indicated that there was a positive relationship between green practices and guest satisfaction and return intentions for Mexicans, Americans, and other nationalities. Han et al (2011) studied the effects of eco-friendly attitudes on customer intention to visit a green hotel, to spread word-of-mouth about a green hotel, and to pay more for a green hotel. The study revealed that there were

significant relationships between a customer's green attitudes and their intentions to visit, spread word of mouth, and pay more for a green hotel. The findings revealed that severity of environmental problems was not associated with any of the intentions (dependent factors), and the inconvenience of being environmentally friendly had a significant relation only with intention to visit. The importance of being environmentally friendly and the level of business responsibility positively affects customer intentions to visit a green hotel, promote word-of-mouth, and pay more for a green hotel.

Choi, Parsa, Sigala, and Putrevu(2009) studied attitudes and behavioral intentions towards environmentally responsible practices of hotels in the U.S. and Greece. The study revealed that environmentally responsible practices had positive effects on consumers' willingness to pay. It was found that Greek consumers had a slightly stronger willingness to pay than consumers in the U.S. In another study, Kang et al. (2010) studied the relationship between consumers' environmental concerns and their willingness to pay more for hotels that adopt green initiatives. Results found that environmental concerns and willingness to pay more were correlated strongly and positively.

Ham & Han (2013) studied the relationship between customer perceptions of a hotel's core business in association with green practices and loyalty (intention to visit, accept price premium, and recommendation). The study findings revealed that tourists associated a hotel's core businesses and green practices positively, and the perceived fit between core businesses and green practices positively affected the perceptions of green practices in hotels. It was also shown that a perceived fit between a hotel's core business and its green practices significantly affected the intention to visit, accept premium prices,

and word-of-mouth intention – and the perception of green practices acted as a mediator in this relation. Perceptions of green hotel practices had a significant positive effect on visit intention, willingness to accept premium pricing, and word-of-mouth intention.

Martínez & del Bosque (2013) studied the effect of CSR on hotel customer loyalty. The study adopted the full mediation model to test the relationship between CSR and loyalty, with the inclusion of the following mediating variables: trust, satisfaction, and customer identification with the company. The findings showed that CSR activities have a significant, indirect effect on loyalty through the mediation of trust, customer identification with the company, and satisfaction. It was found that CSR initiatives have positive direct effects on customer-company identification, trust, and satisfaction. Moreover, the study revealed that customer trust, identification with the company, and satisfaction have positive impacts on customer loyalty.

Alvarado-Herrera, Bigne, Aldas-Manzano, & Curras-Perez (2017) used the three dimensional approach of social, economic, and environmental dimensions as the basis for developing a model for consumer perception of CSR. The scales, named CSRConsPerScale, consisted of 18 items representing the three dimensions. It was applied and tested among tourists. Similarly, Martínez, Pérez and del Bosque (2013) developed a measurement scale for CSR in the hotel sector, based on the perceptions of visitors. The study's framework conceptualized CSR as encompassing three dimensions: economic, social, and environmental, which reflect the sustainable development paradigm. The study indicated the multidimensionality of the construct of CSR.

It has been shown that CSR has a positive effect on consumers in the context of tourism and tourism-related industries; however, some scholars have provided conclusions that make the situation mixed and complex. As a result, the issue of whether tourists and visitors really care about ethical issues remains largely unsolved (Weeden, 2002). Kasim's (2004) study aimed at revealing whether tourists tend to choose a hotel based on social and environmental attributes, and found that most make their decision based on price, service quality, and physical attraction, rather than on a hotel's social and environmental criteria. German tourism suppliers have not been able to differentiate themselves on the basis of their CSR credentials, he notes, as between 75 and 80% of tourists are unable to comment whatsoever on their supplier's CSR commitment (Adlwarth, 2011, p. 297). This may not be the case with other studies that show tourists could be aware of CSR activities. For example, the study conducted by Kucukusta et al. (2013) dealt with the perceptions of visitors to Hong Kong toward CSR practices among four-and five-star hotels. It was revealed that visitors were aware of existing CSR activities, which were grouped into five dimensions.

Consumer Behavior Theories

Several theoretical models have been developed in the social psychology field, such as the theory of reasoned action (TRA) and the theory of planned behavior (TPB). Both the TRA and the TPB have been widely adopted and used (Armitage & Conner, 2001).

Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)

As a social cognitive theory, the TRA (see Figure 1) is believed to have a relatively simple and parsimonious ability to predict and explain human behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Ajzen (1988) argued that specific behavior is determined by both a direct function of behavioral intentions and indirect functions of attitude toward target behavior and subjective norm through intention. The behavioral intention is derived from attitude, and subjective norm is the only direct determinant to cause actual behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The direct path from attitude and subjective norm to a specific behavior is not hypothesized in this theory. Intention acts as a mediator between the influence of attitudinal, subjective norm and behaviors.

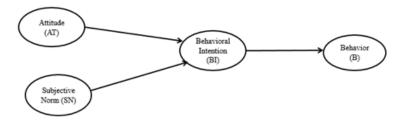


Figure 2.1: Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), as shown in Figure 2.2, is an extension of the TRA. TPB posits that an individual's intention is determined by three conceptually independent variables: attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control toward a specific behavior (Ajzen, 2002); while in the TRA, intention is determined by two factors: attitudes and subjective norms (Ajzen & Driver, 1992). According to Ajzen

(2002), the TPB is one of the most influential and common conceptual frameworks to study human behavior.

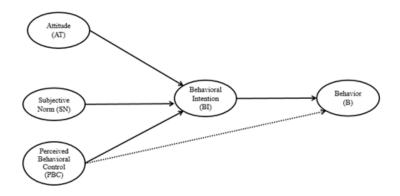


Figure 2.2: Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

The Role of Attitude in the TBP

The first predictor of intention (behavioral intention) is attitude, which is defined as "the level to which an individual has a favorable or unfavorable appraisal or evaluation of a certain behavior" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). Attitude towards a behavior is based on an individual's salient beliefs (e.g., behavioral beliefs) which refers to the perceived consequences of the behavior and his/her evaluation of consequences (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) described behavioral beliefs as an individual's subjective probability that performing a behavior will lead to certain consequences. People form favorable attitudes towards behaviors that they believe have desirable consequences and form unfavorable attitudes towards behaviors associated with undesirable consequences and, thus, they are likely to get engaged in that specific behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Cheng, 2006). In other words, an individual's positive attitude

towards a certain behavior reinforces his/her intention to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

The Role of Subjective Norm in the TPB

The second predictor of behavioral intention is subjective norm, which refers to "the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). Subjective norm is a function of normative beliefs (Ajzen & Driver, 1992).

Normative beliefs are concerned with the "likelihood that important referent individuals of groups approve or disapprove of performing a given behavior" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 195).

Eagly and Chaiken (1993) described normative beliefs as "perceptions of significant others' preferences about whether one should engage in a behavior" (p. 171).

Ajzen (2002) argued that an individual's perceptions towards a specific behavior are influenced by pressure groups. In other words, subjective norm refers to an individual's perception of the opinions of other people who are important or familiar to him/her and who influence the decision-making process, such as close friends, co-workers/colleagues, and/or business partners (Hee, 2000). These opinions will therefore influence behavioral intentions. In this sense, social pressure plays an influential role in an individual's decision to perform or not to perform specific behaviors (Bagozzi, Wong, Abe, & Bergami, 2000).

The Role of Perceived Behavioral Control in the TPB

The third determinant of behavioral intention is perceived behavioral control, which is the difference between TRA and TPB. Perceived behavioral control means the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior, and is assumed to reflect past experience, as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles (Ajzen, 1991). It is referred to as the "perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior and it is assumed to reflect past experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles" (Ajzen, 1988, p. 132).

According to TPB, perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention can directly predict behavioral achievement; however, the relative importance of intention and perceived behavioral control in the prediction of behavior is expected to differ in various situations and behaviors (Ajzen & Driver, 1992). These control beliefs may be based in part on previous involvement in the behavior and are influenced by the experiences of acquaintances and friends, information obtained from others, and other factors that increase or reduce the perceived difficulty of performing a given behavior (Ajzen, 1991). The more resources and opportunities individuals believe they possess, and the fewer obstacles or impediments they anticipate, the greater should be their perceived control over the behavior (Ajzen, 1991). In other words, if individuals believe that they possess more opportunities or resources and fewer obstacles or impediments, they will have greater perceived control over their behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

The Application of TPB in Tourism Studies

Ajzen and Driver (1992) mentioned that TPB can be applied to leisure-related activities. The theory was applied to understand people's intention to get engaged in different leisure activities, such as running, mountain climbing, and biking (Ajzen and Driver, 1992); engaging in physical activities (Courneya, 1995); and outdoor adventure activities (Blanding, 1994). Cheng, Lam, and Hsu (2006) extended the TPB with the construct of past behavior to test Taiwanese travelers' behavioral intention to choose Hong Kong as a travel destination. They found that perceived behavioral control and past behavior are related to the behavioral intention to choose Hong Kong as a travel destination. Lee and Back (2007) developed and compared three models based on the TPB to test conference participation, by adding destination image and past behavior. The results showed that all the three competing models successfully provided theoretical bases for understanding meeting participation behavior. Quintal, Lee and Soutar (2010) expanded the TPB by adding perceived risk and perceived uncertainty to predict intentions to visit Australia. The study revealed that the extended model of the TPB fitted the data well, and is effective in predicting the intention to visit.

Limitation of the TPB and the TRA

Both the TRA (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the TPB (Ajzen, 1985) are the most broadly applied models of attitude-behavior relationship in a wide range of behavioral domains, especially on the grounds that these theories are simple, parsimonious, and easy to operationalize (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Olson &

Zanna, 1993). The TPB is superior to other social psychological theories that predict intentions and behaviors, in that it can account for more variance in intentions and behaviors (Armitage & Conner, 2001).

However, both TRA and TPB have some limitations. First, they do not contain the influence of past behavior, although past behavior may have an effect on intentions and behavior (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Second, one of the criticisms of both the TRA and TPB highlighted by researchers is that these theories mainly focus on cognitive variables and do not consider affective beliefs of outcomes associated with performing or not performing a behavior (Conner & Armitage, 2001). It is considered that emotional/affective variables are important in the decision-making processes of human beings. Research has indicated that emotions influence intentions and behaviors. Bagozzi and Pieters (1998) argued that anticipated emotions were found to affect behavioral intentions and actual behavior in terms of weight regulation. Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) proposed the Model of Goal-Directed Behavior to enhance predictive ability and expand the TRA and the TPB.

The Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (MGB)

Perugini & Bagozzi (2001) proposed the Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (MGB) to improve the capacity of TPB, by including motivational and affective processes and past behavior. In the MGB (as shown in Figure 3), all of the original variables of the TPB are included, along with new motivational and affective processes and past behavior. The roles of the original variables of the TPB are redefined to

influence behavioral intention indirectly through the new construct of desire. Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) indicated that there are three new important variables in the MGB. First, desire could be a key factor in explaining an individual's decision formation and behavior. Desire is included within the MGB as a mediator between attitude, subject norm, perceived behavioral control, positive anticipated emotion, negative anticipated emotion, and intention. The inclusion of desire is believed to enhance the predictive power of the model (Carrus et al., 2008; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

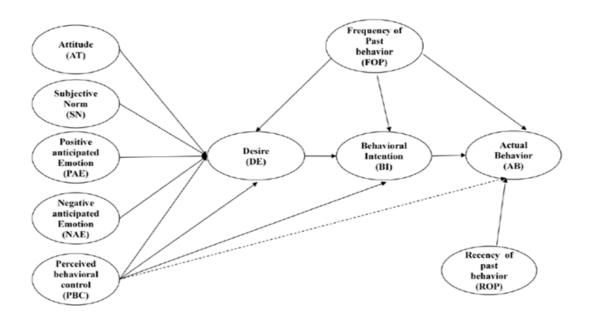


Figure 2.3: Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (MGB) (Source: Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001)

Second, anticipated emotion for a specific behavior can be a vital variable in decision-making processes, which consider the emotional aspect of human behavior (Conner & Armitage, 2001). Third, past behavior or habits can also be considered important variables (Bentler & Speckart, 1981).

The Role of Desire in the MGB

Bagozzi (1992) claimed that desire is the key variable omitted in the TPB. Desire is theorized as the most proximal determinant/antecedent of intentions in the MGB (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). According to the MGB (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), the concept of "desires provide the direct impetus for intentions and transform the motivational content to act embedded" (p. 80) in other variables of the theory of planned behavior and anticipated emotions. Desires are defined as "a state of mind whereby an agent has a personal motivation to perform an action or to achieve a goal" (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004, p. 71). Attitudes by themselves are insufficient for activating attitudes to become intentions; desires play a motivational role in the attitude-intention relationship. Without such a role, intentions would be not forthcoming, unlike previous attitude models, such as TRA and TPB. In the MGB, attitudes are considered as evaluative appraisals (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

In general, desires could be categorized into two types: appetitive desire and volitive desire. Appetitive desire is linked to consuming behavior (e.g., desire to eat), while volitive desire is connected to reason and can be applied to a variety of goal behaviors (Davis, 1984). Thus, attitude usually stimulates volitive desires. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the close relationship between attitude and desire, in that attitude has an effect on intention through desire (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

The TPB does not consider the variables of desire by claiming that desires and intentions are not different; as intentions are motivational in nature. This view was opposed by the MGB. According to Perugini & Bagozzi (2004), desires are different

from intentions in terms of "perceived performability, action-connectedness, and temporal framing" (p .69). They argued that compared to intentions, desires are related less to performability, connected less to actions, and enacted over longer time frames.

Bagozzi (1992) stated that intention can lead to behavior, while desire does not automatically lead to behavior. Perugini & Bagozzi (2001) argued that intentions entail desires, as forming an intention to perform a given behavior requires a desire to perform that behavior, while desires do not imply intentions. The theoretical distinction between desires and intentions is further supported by empirical findings. For example, recent meta-analysis of the TPB has found evidence for their roles (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Intentions and self-predictions were found to be superior predictors of behavior over desires, and the impact of attitude on intention was found to be almost entirely mediated by desire.

The Role of Anticipated Emotions in the MGB

The MGB suggests that anticipated positive emotions arising from imagined goal achievement, and negative anticipated emotions arising from imagined goal failure, stimulate the desire to perform behaviors instrumental to goal pursuit (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). This implies that individuals are motivated/driven to pursue behaviors that promote a positive effect, and to avoid those associated with negative effects (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Anticipated positive and negative effects have been found to be influential antecedents of decisions in a number of studies (Bagozzi & Pieters, 1998; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Bagozzi and Pieters (1998) claimed that people take into

account the emotional consequences of both achieving and not achieving a goal when they consider whether or not to act in goal-directed situations. Anticipated emotions are different from attitudes in their referent, underlying theoretical processes and measurements (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

The positive anticipated emotion related to goal achievement and negative anticipated emotions related to goal failure have influences upon desire, which in turn leads to goal pursuit (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Leone, Perugini, and Ercolani (2004) claimed that anticipated emotions affect behavioral desire because the emotion variable represents the hedonic motive of promoting a positive situation and avoiding negative situations. These two anticipated emotions indicate that an individual usually simultaneously considers the emotional consequences of both achieving and not achieving a goal (Bagozzi & Pieters, 1998). According to Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006) these emotions result from a form of counterfactual thinking called "prefactual appraisals" (p. 49). Prefactual appraisals occur when individuals "think about imaginary alternatives to events in terms of the implications of these events for the future" (Gleicher et al., 1995, p. 284).

The Role of Past Behavior in the MGB

Several researchers have argued that past behavior is an important determinant of intention and behavior (Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1990; Fredricks & Dossett, 1983). Thus, past behavior can be regarded as a theoretical factor to influence intention and behavior (Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1990; Conner & Armitage, 2001; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). In

the MGB, it is proposed that past behavior influences intentions, behaviors, and desire, with two concepts of past behavior: frequency and recency (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001, 2004). Past behavior is related directly to desire and intention, since people have favorable or unfavorable tendencies because of past experiences (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). The MGB theorizes that frequency of past behavior exerts influences upon desire, behavioral intention, and actual behavior, while recency of past behavior has an influence only upon the actual behavior.

Frequency of past behavior refers to the performance of a behavior within a relatively long period of time (Leone et al., 2004). The recency of past behavior is also included in the MGB, which refers to the performance of a behavior over a short period of time; typically a few weeks or days (Leone et al., 2004). Both frequency and recency of past behavior positively influence the intention to perform a behavior (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). The frequency of past behavior indicates the strength of different habits and the possibility of repeated performance, so it has been suggested as a sign of intention that induces an individual to pursue a certain behavior (Lam & Hsu, 2004; Kim et al, 2012; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

MGB Studies in Tourism Studies

Several studies have included the MGB in the context of tourism (Lee et al., 2012; Meng & Choi, 2016; Song et al., 2012; Song et al., 2014). Meng and Choi (2016) used the MGB to study tourists' behavioral intentions to visit a slow tourist destination. The study indicated that the MGB was effective in predicting tourists' behavioral intentions.

Song et al. (2012) used the MGB to study the behavioral intentions of visitors in the context of casino gambling. The study showed that the MGB is effective in predicting the behavioral intentions of casino visitors, and the Extended Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (EMGB) is better than the MGB and the TPB in explaining behavioral intentions.

Lee et al. (2012) used MGB to study the effect of the H1N1 influenza epidemic on the behavioral intentions of visitors regarding international travel. They extended the model by adding the concept of non-pharmaceutical intervention for influenza. The study revealed that desire, perceived behavioral control, frequency of past behavior, and non-pharmaceutical intervention predicted tourist intentions, and the extended MGB (EMGB) works better than the MGB and the TPB in predicting those intentions. Song et al. (2014) used the MGB to study the behavioral intentions of visitors in the context of an Oriental medicine festival. The study extended the MGB by adding an image of Oriental medicine and the perception of an Oriental medicine festival. It was found that attitude, subjective norm, and positive anticipated emotion affected visitors' desires to attend the festival, which, in turn, influenced their intention.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, CONCEPTUAL MODEL, AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter contains two parts. The first represents a discussion about the theoretical model, the process of extending the theoretical model, the relationships among variables, and the hypotheses pertaining to those relationships. The second section discusses the research method, including the experiment, pilot tests, survey constructs, online data collection, and data analysis.

Theoretical Framework

Researchers have pointed out the need for revising existing socio-psychological theories by including new influential variables in regard to specific context or by changing existing paths among latent variables (Ajzen, 1991; Conner & Abraham, 2001; Oh & Hsu, 2001). Ajzen (1991) argued that sociological models and theories, such as the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), are still open to modify paths and add additional variables to increase the ability to explain and predict intentions and behaviors. Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) referred to this process as theory broadening and deepening, and pointed out two approaches to revise an existing theory. The first is theory broadening, which refers to adding a new independent variable that predicts the dependent variables in a parallel way, along with the original variables. The second is theory deepening, which entails including a new variable that mediates or moderates the effects of the original variables. Mediation refers to a process of examining the mechanism by which

variable "X" (independent variable) influences variable "Y" (dependent variable) through a mediator variable "M" (e.g., trust may mediate the relation between CSR and purchase intention). Moderation in social science indicates that the relationship between an independent variable "X" and a dependent variable "Y" depends on the level of a third variable (e.g., level of education & ethnicity).

Several studies (Chen & Tung, 2014; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Ouellette & Wood, 1998; Quintal et al., 2010; Rivis & Sheeran, 2003; Shaw & Shiu, 2002) have tried to perform the process of theory broadening and deepening in various contexts. These studies improved the predictive ability of the TRA and the TPB by broadening and deepening them through the addition of new variables such as self-identity, self-efficacy, perceived risk, perceived uncertainty, anticipated regret, and environmental concern. Many researchers have extended the MGB by including new constructs (Lee et al., 2012; Meng & Choi, 2016; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Song et al., 2012, 2014). These studies indicate the increased predictive ability of the MGB when adding new variables, such as perception of a responsible gambling strategy, non-pharmaceutical interventions, and perceptions of the 2009 H1N1 (influenza) virus and Oriental medicine. In their study, Meng & Choi (2016) showed that the EMGB outperformed the MGB in predicting tourists' behavioral intentions to visit a slow tourist destination. The inclusion of authenticity in the model increased its predictive ability. Lee et al. (2012) indicated that the MGB was better than TPB in predicting international travel intentions during the 2009 influenza (H1N1) virus. The EMGB improved predictive ability by introducing new two variables: non-pharmaceutical interventions and perceptions of the 2009 H1N1 virus. Similarly, according to the study conducted by Song et al. (2012), the EMGB, extended by adding the perception of a responsible gambling strategy, had a slightly better predictive ability than the MGB at predicting behavioral intentions to gamble in casinos. Adding new variables to predict the dependent variable parallel to its original variables is the general process used to revise a given theory (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Ajzen (1991) argued that the newly added variables should be able to affect human decision-making and behavior, should be conceptually independent from the existing factors in the theory, and have the potential to be suitable for a specific behavior.

This study employed the MGB in the context of music festivals. Based on previous studies about CSR and consumer responses, and previous MGB behavior studies, it is argued here that the MGB could be extended by adding new variables measuring economic, social, and environmental CSR initiatives. CSR initiatives' effect on consumer behavior and attitudes has been asserted by previous literature. The research model of this study is presented in Figure 3.1. The environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives were theorized to have a direct impact on desire and behavioral intention. Desire was also theorized to mediate the relationship between environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives and behavioral intention.

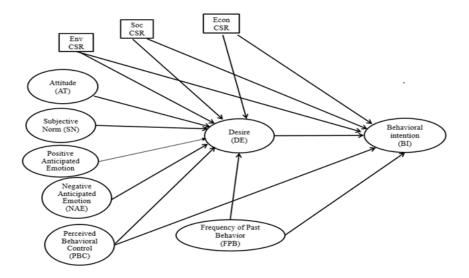


Figure 3.1: The proposed study model using the EMGB. The rectangles represent the three CSR initiatives.

Hypothetical Relationships

For the sake of clarity, hypothetical relationships pertaining to environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives were presented first, followed by relationships related to the MGB and EMGB. To make it simple, relationships associated with the construct of desire were given the label "H1" and a letter related to each relationship. The relationships related to behavioral intention were referred to as "H2", with a letter pertaining to each relationship.

Recent research has suggested that companies' CSR activities can positively affect consumers' attitudes towards those companies (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Du et al., 2010; Marchoo et al., 2014; Martin & Ruiz, 2007; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2003, 2004).

Mohr and Webb (2005) used an experimental design to test the influence of CSR (environment and philanthropy dimensions) and prices on consumer responses. The result

showed that the CSR domains had a positive direct impact on consumer purchase intentions.

In the tourism context, studies have documented the positive effect of CSR on purchase intention (Marchoo et al., 2014; Sparks, Perkins, & Buckley, 2013). Sparks et al. (2013) found that CSR embedded in online reviews had a positive direct effect on purchase intention. Marchoo et al's (2014) study revealed that CSR initiatives (i.e., codes of ethics and accreditation) had an indirect, positive effect on purchase intention in the context of tour brochures depicting social responsibility clues. Several studies have revealed the positive effects of CSR on loyalty and repurchase intention (often operationalized as a sub-dimension of loyalty). CSR has a positive direct effect on loyalty (Chen, Chang, & Lin, 2012), a direct and indirect positive effect upon loyalty and repurchase intention (Deng & Xu, 2017; Liu et al., 2014; Mandhachitara & Poolthong, 2011), and a totally indirect effect on loyalty (Homburg et al., 2013; Martínez & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2013). In the context of the MGB, a study conducted by Song et al. (2012) found that the perception of a responsible gambling strategy employed by casinos and the gambling industry (which they claimed was conceptually similar to CSR) had a positive effect on desire, and a positive effect on behavioral intention. In this regard, this study tested the following hypotheses:

H1: CSR initiatives have a positive, direct effect on desire.

H1a: Environmental CSR initiative has a positive, direct effect on desire.

H1b: Social CSR initiatives has a positive, direct effect on desire.

H1c: Economic CSR initiatives has a positive, direct effect on desire.

H2: CSR initiatives have a positive, direct effect on behavioral intention.

H2a: Environmental CSR initiatives has a positive, direct effect on behavioral intention.

H2b: Social CSR initiatives has a positive, direct effect on behavioral intention.

H2c: Economic CSR initiatives has a positive, direct effect on behavioral intention.

Relationship Between Attitude and Desire

An attitude towards a behavior refers to the extent to which an individual has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of performing a specific behavior (Ajzen, 1991). An individual is inclined to have positive attitudes towards behaviors when their outcomes are evaluated positively, which means that he/she is likely to have strong attitudes to perform those behaviors (Ajzen, 1991). In other words, the more favorable attitude an individual has towards the behavior, the stronger their intention will be to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 2001). In the tourism context, attitude is the predisposition or feeling towards a travel destination or service, based on several perceived product attributes (Moutinho, 1987). Several studies have revealed the influence of attitude on behavior and behavioral intentions (Han et al., 2010; Lam and Hsu, 2004). For example, Lam and Hsu (2004) conducted a study with mainland Chinese travelers that found attitudes were related to visit intention. Han et al. (2010) found that TPB model constructs, including attitude, have positive impacts on the intention to stay at a green hotel.

An attitude towards a specific behavior reveals a whole evaluation of that behavior, and influences the individual's desire to perform the behavior (Song et al., 2012). The influence of attitude on desire has been shown in several studies using the MGB (Lee et al., 2012; S. Lee, Bruwer, & Song, 2017; Song et al., 2012, 2014). Based on the literature review, the conceptual framework (MGB), and the empirical results found in previous studies, this tested the following hypothesis:

H1d: Attitude has a positive influence on desire.

The Relationship Between Subjective Norm and Desire

When performing a given behavior, an individual is likely to take into account and comply with the opinions of other people, such as friends, family, and colleagues (Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Cheng, 2006). According to Ajzen (1988), "people who believe that most referents with whom they are motivated to comply think they should perform the behavior will perceive social pressure to do so" (p. 121). A number of studies have revealed that subjective norm was an important variable in the formation of behavioral intention in the TPB (Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Baker, Al-Gahtani, & Hubona, 2007; Laroche, Bergeron, & Barbaro-Forleo, 2001; Quintal et al., 2010).

In the MGB, subjective norm does not directly influence behavioral intentions, but indirectly affects the behavioral intention through desire (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Prestwich, Perugini, & Hurling, 2008). Various studies revealed that subjective norm was a significant factor in desire formation in the MGB (Lee et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2017;

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Meng & Choi, 2016; Song et al., 2014). Based on previous literature and the conceptual model (MGB), the following hypothesis was investigated:

H1e: Subjective norm has a positive influence on desire.

Relationship Between Anticipated Emotions and Desire

It has been suggested by several researchers that the anticipated affective preresponse to the performance and non-performance of a behavior might be a significant determinant of intention (Conner & Armitage, 2001). Gleicher et al. (1995) identified anticipated emotions as prefactuals that exert influence on intention and behavior.

In the MGB, both positive and negative anticipated emotions are theorized to affect desire which, in turn, affects intentions. Many studies have found that anticipated emotion for a target behavior exerted significant influence on the individual's desire-related target behavior (Meng & Choi, 2016; Richetin, Perugini, Adjali, & Hurling, 2008; Taylor, Ishida, & Wallace, 2009). Based on the literature review and the conceptual model, the following hypotheses were posited:

H1f: Positive anticipated emotion has a positive influence on desire.

H1g: Negative anticipated emotion has a positive influence on desire.

The Relationship Between Perceived Behavioral Control and Desire

Perceived behavioral control can be described as "the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 122). When the necessary resources or opportunities for performing a behavior are perceived as available, the individual's

intention to perform the behavior tends to be greater (Ajzen, 1991). In this sense, if individuals believe they have more opportunities or resources, and fewer obstacles or impediments, they will have greater perceived control over their behavior (Ajzen, 1991). A number of studies have demonstrated that people's behavioral intentions were positively influenced by their self-confidence in their ability to perform the behavior (Baker et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2006; Conner & Abraham, 2001).

In the MGB, the role of perceived behavioral control is theorized to influence desire, behavioral intention, and actual behavior. Perceived behavioral control also influences behavioral intention directly and indirectly through desire. Lee et al. (2017) and Meng and Choi (2016) found that perceived behavioral control was a significant factor in desire formation.

H1h: Perceived behavioral control has a positive influence on desire.

Relationship Between Frequency of Past Behavior and Desire

Past behavior is considered as a proxy of habit, thus it is believed to influence both desire and intention (Conner & Abraham, 2001; Leone, Perugini, & Ercolani, 2004). In the MGB, it is posited that frequency of past behavior influences desire, intention, and behavior (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001, 2004). Lee et al. (2012) and Meng and Choi (2016) found that there was a positive relationship between the frequency of past behavior and desire. Therefore, the following hypotheses were posited:

H1i: The frequency of past behavior has a positive effect on desire.

The Relationship Between Behavioral Control and Behavioral Intention

In the MGB, the role of perceived behavioral control is theorized to influence desire, behavioral intention, and actual behavior. Perceived behavioral control also influences behavioral intention directly and indirectly, through desire. Lee et al. (2017) and Meng and Choi (2016) found that perceived behavioral control was a significant factor in behavioral intention formation. Therefore, the following hypothesis was examined:

H2d: Perceived behavioral control has a positive influence on behavioral intention.

The Relationship Between Past behavior and Behavioral Intention

The frequency of past behavior was found to have an effect on individual behavioral intention in several studies, including behavior studies (Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1992; Meng & Choi, 2016). Frequency of past behavior implies that an individual's past experience will reflect his/her behavioral pattern, thus it affects the individual's behavioral intentions and future behaviors (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Therefore, the following hypothesis was examined:

H2e: The frequency of past behavior has a positive influence on behavioral intention.

Relationship Between Desire and Behavioral Intention

Desire is considered a state of mind whereby an individual is stimulated to get engaged in an action or achieve a goal (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004). In the MGB, desire is regarded as the most proximal determinant of intention (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

Studies have shown that desire is influential in predicting intentions (S. Lee et al., 2017; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; H. J. Song et al., 2012). Song et al. (2012) confirmed that desire, the most important determinant of behavioral intention, predicts gamblers' behavioral intention in visiting casinos that adopted responsible gambling policies. Based on the literature review and conceptual model, the following hypotheses were examined:

H3: Desire has a positive influence on behavioral intention.

According to Bagozzi (1992), desire is a proximal determinant of behavioral intention, and the influence of other variables in the MGB is mediated by desire.

Accordingly, hypothesis four (H4) is concerned with the role of desire as a mediator of the effects of CSR initiatives, attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, positive anticipated emotion, and negative anticipated emotion on behavioral intentions to attend the music festival.

H4: The influence of environmental (H4a), social (H4b), economic CSR initiatives (H4c), attitude (H4d), subjective norm (H4e), positive anticipated emotion (H4f), negative anticipated emotion (H4g), perceived behavioral control (H4h), and frequency of past behavior (H4i) on behavioral intentions is mediated by desire.

Research Method

The goals of this study were the following: 1) to examine the impact of different types of CSR initiatives (environmental, social, and economic) upon respondents' decision-making processes within a music festival context, and 2) to develop a conceptual framework by adding environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives to

the MGB (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) forming the Extended MGB (EMGB). To accomplish those goals, this study employed a scenario-based experimental design to investigate the effect of environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives on desire and behavioral intention. The use of the EMGB as a theoretical framework broadened the scope of this study by combining different potential predictors of behavioral intentions that range from emotional (i.e., positive and negative anticipated emotion), to cognitive (i.e., attitude), and to socially-and environmentally-oriented variables (i.e., environmental CSR initiative). Based on CSR-relevant literature, the MGB (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), and previous relevant studies; the roles of environmental, social and economic CSR initiatives; attitudes; subjective norms; perceived behavioral control; two anticipated emotions (positive and negative); desire; frequency of past behavior on desire; and behavioral intentions were tested. The study was conducted online using the Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk) platform, whereby the survey contained the experiment, along with the variables of the MGB and demographic questions.

Experiment

Experiment is defined as "a study in which an intervention is deliberately introduced to observe its effects" (Shadish et al., 2002, p. 12). An experimental design is a quantitative research method that can be used to infer cause and effect relationships (Babbie, 2013). Experimental design is also a well-known method for examining casual relationships (Kline, 2011). Furthermore, experimental design is effective in controlling

extraneous variables to a greater extent when compared with other methods, such as a survey. As a result, it is used widely in social science, especially in psychology and marketing (Oh, Kim, & Shin, 2004). The basic tenet of experimental design is to examine the impact of a treatment (an intervention) on an outcome variable, while controlling for other factors that might also have an impact (Babbie, 2013). Accordingly, experimental design has more internal validity when compared to other methods, such as a questionnaire (Shadish et al., 2002). Internal validity refers to whether the effects are really the result of the interventions (Shadish et al., 2002). On the other hand, experimental design has less external validity, due to the artificiality associated with such a design (Babbie, 2013). External validity refers to whether the results and conclusions drawn from experiments can be generalized to the real world (Babbie, 2013).

The experimental method includes different types with different levels of external and internal validities. First, an experiment can be classified into one of two main types based on its nature: laboratory and field experiments. A laboratory experiment is conducted using laboratory settings in an establishment specifically prepared for that purpose (Babbie, 2013). A high control of extraneous variables and high internal validity are the major advantages of using this type of experiment (Fong, Law, Tang, & Yap, 2016). It is noted that conclusions about causal relationships attained through laboratory experiments are characterized as being low in external validity. Therefore, field experiments are suggested for enhancing external validity (Babbie, 2013). These experiments are conducted in natural environments, where a real situation is selected as the experimental setting (Neuman, 2006). The natural setting provides high external

validity; however, it is difficult to control for all possible extraneous variables in a real situation, which indicates that field experiments have less internal validity (Babbie, 2013).

There are many types of experiments, based on experimental procedures followed by researchers. The first is a classical experiment, which involves the random allocation of subjects to experimental treatments, and a high level of control of extraneous variables, through the use of pre-test/post-test and a control group (Malhotra, Hall, Shaw, & Oppenheim, 2002; Neuman, 2006). The second is a pre-experimental design, used when it is difficult to use the classical design (Neuman, 2006). This type does not use randomization and there is no control of the extraneous variables (Malhotra et al., 2002). The third type is a quasi-experiment used in specific situations or when the researcher has limited control of independent variables (Neuman, 2006). Last is factorial design, which involves simultaneous study of more than one independent variable. Each variable could have more than one value (Neuman, 2006).

This study adopted a scenario-based factorial experimental design to assess the impact of environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives upon desire and behavioral intention. The experimental design was adopted because it offers (1) cause and effect relationship inference (Babbie, 2013), and (2) controls for extraneous variables (Kline, 2011). Another justification to use experimental design is the issue of access to festivals with adequate levels of CSR initiatives reflecting the three types of CSR initiatives. Furthermore, experimental design is widely employed in CSR research. A

factorial design was adopted specifically because it allows researchers to test more than one independent variable simultaneously.

Measurements and Variables

The three CSR initiatives were operationalized using sustainability dimensions: economic, social, and environmental (the triple bottom line). Using written scenarios, those three variables were manipulated at two levels (presence vs. absence - see Table 3.1). Manipulation refers to the process of making changes to variables in an experiment to determine whether those changes will cause an effect in an outcome-dependent variable or more (intervention). The things/issues that are changed on purpose are referred to as the manipulated variables, or as independent or manipulated independent variables. For example, in this study, some respondents received a scenario that involved an environmental CSR initiative. Other respondents received scenarios with no information about environmental CSR initiatives. The logic here was to see how the two groups would differ in terms of their ratings on desire and behavioral intention. This process of manipulation includes an independent variable (environmental CSR initiative), and the means to deliver the manipulated variables (independent variables) in the scenario. Different experimental conditions are also known as treatments (interventions). Generally, the process is known as manipulation. Desire and behavioral intention were dependent variables (see Table 3.2). Desire also acted as a mediating variable between CSR initiatives and behavioral intention. Desire and behavioral intention were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1 strongly disagree – 7 strongly agree).

Table 3.1: Independent variables used in the experiment

Independent variables	Manipulated at two levels (absence vs. presence)
Environmental CSR	Operationalized using written scenario
Social CSR	Operationalized using written scenario
Economic CSR	Operationalized using written scenario

Table 3.2: Dependent variables used in the experiment

Dependent variables used in the experiment

Behavioral intention

I will make an effort to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I intend to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I am planning to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I will certainly invest time to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I will certainly invest money to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

Desire

I would enjoy attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I would have fun when I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I would like to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I hope to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I wish to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I am eager to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

Sources: (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Meng & Choi, 2016; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Song et al., 2012; Song et al., 2014)

Realism, commonness, and manipulation checks were included with the independent and dependent variables in the experiment (see Table 3.3). Realism was used to confirm whether respondents perceived scenarios used in the experiments as realistic (Park & Jang, 2016). This is important to confirm the experiment's validity.

Commonness was used to assess whether respondents perceived the scenario as being popular in the marketplace. This implied that this type of music festival was similar to

other music festivals. This provides more support for the validity of the experiment. Manipulation checks were used to assess the effectiveness of manipulations of the independent variables (treatment). Specifically, manipulation checks were employed to confirm whether the respondents perceived the messages that the scenario was supposed to deliver (Shadish et al., 2002). For example, a scenario with environmental manipulation would be deemed effective if respondents with scenarios that contain information about environmental CSR initiative rated the environmental CSR initiative higher than those who had scenarios with no information about an environmental CSR initiative. Manipulation checks in this case were questions that asked the respondents to rate the environmental CSR initiative of the music festival. This procedure was used to make sure that the scenario placed the respondent in the situation suitable for the experiment purpose (i.e., music festival with an environmental CSR initiative), by identifying the corresponding change that may occur to the dependent variables.

Table 3.3: Items used for manipulation check, realism, and commonness

Realism

The description of the spring music festival is realistic.

Commonness

This type of music festival probably occurs in real life.

Environmental manipulation check items

The Spring Spirit music Festival is an environmentally responsible festival

The Spring Spirit Music Festival respects and protects the environment

Social manipulation check items

The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes and provides several community initiatives and services

The Spring Spirit Music Festival to serving the local community beyond the mere profit generation

Economic manipulation check items

The Spring Spirit Music Festival increases the economic benefits for the local community by hiring local workers and vendors

The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes the use of local goods and services

Experimental Design

This study adopted a 2 (environmental CSR initiative: absence vs. presence) × 2 (social CSR initiative: absence vs. presence) × 2 (economic CSR initiative: absence vs. presence) fully-crossed between-subjects factorial design. Between-subjects design involved the assignment of each respondent to only one treatment condition. Factorial design allowed researchers to simultaneously study more than one variable (Shadish et al., 2002).

Scenarios and Stimulus

The stimulus reflected different versions of a hypothetical scenario designed to ensure that respondent engaged in a situation considering a fictitious music festival. The fictitious name (the Spring Spirit Music Festival) was used in order to exclude the influence of potentially confounding effects associated with attitudes and judgments formed during previous music festival experiences. Trevino (1992) argued that scenarios or vignettes are commonly used when testing a decision-making process or judgment in a hypothetical situation. In a scenario-based study, written descriptions of real situations are presented to subjects who use a rating scale to respond. Scenario-based experimental design has been employed in several studies in the tourism and hospitality field (Butcher & Heffernan, 2006; Crouch & Louviere, 2004; Liu et al., 2014; Marchoo et al., 2014; Sparks & Browning, 2011).

This study created scenarios using a range of issues based on the literature and existing practices of festivals. Elements and guidelines of different initiatives related to festival sustainability from the not-for-profit company "a greener festival" (http://www.agreenerfestival.com), were also used. Each written scenario was composed of the following:

- General introduction identical in all versions of the scenario.
- The manipulated variable(s).
- Filler paragraph(s) used when the manipulated variable was absent (absence level).

All aspects and content of the scenarios (treatments) were identical, except for the manipulated independent variables (environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives). The scenarios involved a situation in which respondents were asked to imagine that they were planning to attend a music festival. Among respondents' options was the "Spring Spirit Music Festival". Respondents were then asked to imagine they had visited the festival web page and were exposed to information about the event; although no web page was actually presented to the respondent. Rather, they read a written description depicting the description of the music festival's features and its CSR initiatives.

The General Introduction of the Scenario

The scenario's introduction provided a general description of the fictitious music festival, and was consistent across all the scenarios (treatment conditions). All respondents in the different experimental conditions (different scenarios) read the introduction first, presented below:

Please take your time and read the following scenario carefully.

Imagine that you are planning to attend a music festival next spring. One option you have found is the Spring Spirit Music Festival. You visit its official web page where you learn the following information:

The Spring Spirit Music Festival is an annual three-day outdoor event run by Spring Spirit Productions. Held since 1999, it is hosted in an area which is within a driving distance from your home. Spring Spirit Productions is a reputable

festival organizer, offering quality services to festival-goers, and the Spring Spirit Music Festival offers a rich experience. You further learn that the festival has multiple stages that feature several genres of music, including rock, indie, hip hop, jazz, country, and pop. Along with these performances, food and drinks, an art market and a kid's area are offered. A three-day general admission ticket costs the typical average fees. The general admission ticket includes a walk-in tent camping pass. If you would like to have your vehicle at your camp spot, you need to get the car pass for an additional fee.

The general introduction was crafted with careful process to ensure its tone was as neutral as possible, to avoid any confounding effects. For example, the scenario read that the cost would be an average cost typical of other festivals, to avoid the confounding effect of cost as much as possible.

The location of the music festival was not specific; rather it was referred to in reference to the respondent's place of residence. This was adopted to avoid confounding effects associated with place attitude and image. For example, if Clemson, SC, or Boston, MS, were presented as festival locations, there could be a potential confounding effect.

The Manipulations of the Independent Variables

The independent variables were manipulated and developed following a rigorous process that consulted literature on sustainability, CSR initiatives, events and festivals, and the current practices posted on festival web pages. The treatments (manipulated independent variables) were finalized after conducting three pilot tests with

undergraduate and graduate students at the Department of Park, Recreation, and Tourism Management at Clemson University. The process involved changing wording, content, and tone of the manipulations, as well as the wording of the manipulation checks.

The Environmental CSR Initiative

The festival organizer is committed to protecting the environment. Recycling and compost bins are available and clearly marked, solar panels provide approximately one-fifth of the power needed for the event, and there are multiple free water refilling stations to reduce the use of plastic bottles. In addition, the festival organizer encourages carpooling.

The Social CSR Initiative

The festival organizer has a commitment to being a good neighbor to the local community. In this regard, it supports several community initiatives such as the development of hiking trails, community art centers, and renovation of local schools. In addition, it offers free music lessons, partners with non-profit organizations, and supports youth activities.

The Economic CSR Initiative

The festival organizer is committed to increasing the economic benefits for the local community through hiring locals and contracting local craft, merchandise, and food vendors. Further, it purchases as much foods, goods, and supplies as possible

locally and encourages vendors to do the same. In addition, it participates in the yearly regional marketing campaigns.

The three manipulated variables were presented using a similar length and tone. The word counts were 52, 53, and 54 for the environmental, social, and economic manipulations. This procedure was used to avoid any confounding effects that may be related to the length of the manipulations of any of the independent variables.

Filler Paragraphs

Filler paragraphs were used to prevent any confounding variable that could have been caused by reading less, or more, information about the festival. To clarify – suppose one respondent had a scenario that did not contain social and economic manipulations, and another had a scenario containing three manipulations. The second person would read more, which may affect the results. Filler paragraphs of neutral tone were therefore used when any of the manipulations were absent. For example, if a respondent was exposed to a scenario that contained no environmental CSR or social initiative, but that did include an economic CSR initiative manipulation, there would be two filler paragraphs. The three filler paragraphs are presented below:

A wristband will be used as an admission ticket to enter the festival, and will be shipped to the address specified when placing your order. You can update your shipping address by calling us, or sending an email to cus@springspirit.com. If you buy your ticket after the cut-off date, to have your wristband mailed to you, visit the wristband kiosk at the main gate to get it.

We encourage you to register your wristband for the Spring Spirit Music Festival as soon as you get it. You can use the registration link on the web page that leads you to the registration site, you can also use our mobile app to get it registered. Once you register your wristband, you can register for the cashless payment system which makes it easier and more convenient to pay.

In the event of a cancellation of the Spring Spirit Music Festival, the tickets will be refunded. If the festival is postponed, tickets will remain valid and requests for refund will be accepted until the new revised date of the festival. In the case of a cancellation or postponement, notifications will be sent to the email addresses provided by you during the ordering process

The 2 x 2 x 2 design resulted in eight different experimental conditions (treatments) (see Table 3.4). Each condition had a combination of three independent variables, with their two levels of manipulation (presence vs. absence). A filler paragraph was used when a given variable manipulation was absent. For example, the first condition had all three manipulated variables identified at the absence level, so all three filler paragraphs were used.

Table 3.4: Scenarions used in the experiment

Scenario	Environmental CSR	Social CSR	Economic CSR	Num of filler paragraphs included
1	Absence	Absence	Absence	Three paragraphs
2	Presence	Presence	Presence	Zero paragraph
3	Absence	Presence	Presence	One paragraph
4	Presence	Absence	Presence	One paragraph
5	Presence	Presence	Absence	One paragraph
6	Presence	Absence	Absence	Two paragraphs
7	Absence	Presence	Absence	Two paragraphs
8	Absence	Absence	Presence	Two paragraphs

Note: When a given manipulated variable was at the absence level, a filler paragraph was used instead.

Combinations of manipulated variables were randomized to ensure that the order presented to every respondent was different. Some conditions had the environmental manipulation first, while others had the economic manipulation first. This randomization was adopted to counterbalance any confounding effect pertaining to the order of the manipulated variables and the filler paragraphs. The eight different possible conditions of the manipulated variables were equally presented to the respondents. Those eight conditions were randomized, resulting in twenty-four different experimental conditions (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5: Fully randomized scenarios

Conditions		Manipulations and Fill	ers
1	Fill	Fill	Fill
2	Env	Soc	Eco
3	Eco	Fill	Soc
4	Fill	Eco	Env
5	Soc	Env	Fill
6	Fill	Fill	Soc
7	Fill	Eco	Fill
8	Env	Fill	Fill
9	Fill	Fill	Fill
10	Eco	Env	Soc
11	Soc	Fill	Eco
12	Env	Eco	Fill
13	Fill	Soc	Env
14	Fill	Soc	Fill
15	Eco	Fill	Fill
16	Fill	Fill	Env
17	Fill	Fill	Fill
18	Soc	Eco	Env
19	Eco	Fill	Soc
20	Fill	Env	Eco
21	Env	Soc	Fill
22	Soc	Fill	Fill
23	Fill	Fill	Eco
24	Fill	Env	Fill

The independent variables (manipulated variables) were presented to the respondents in a way that ensured manipulated variables and filler paragraphs occurred evenly, with reference to the order the respondent was exposed to. This would counterbalance any potential confounding effect pertaining to order.

Pilot Testing

Pilot tests were conducted to clarify the process, refine the manipulated independent variables (treatments), and fine-tune the process of refining the scenarios used as the means to deliver those treatments. The study included three pilot tests. The pilot tests were used to: (1) refine the survey instrument through preliminary reliability tests and to assess the variability of response to individual items; (2) check for the effectiveness of the scenarios and their manipulated variables, as suggested by Perude and Summers (1986); and (3) assess the credibility of the stimulus material. The pilot tests for this study were primarily used to confirm the effectiveness of the manipulations and their pertaining manipulation checks. Based on the findings of the pilot tests, the wording of the manipulated independent variables were modified. Furthermore, social and economic manipulation check questions were modified and re-worded to better catch the messages delivered by the manipulated variables. The process of modifications for the independent variables (environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives) and manipulations check was guided by statistical analyses and respondent feedback. Statistical analyses helped detect the presence of problems, while respondents' feedback helped determine causes and solutions for identified problems. For example, if the manipulation check results for the economic CSR initiative were insignificant, this implied that either the manipulated independent variables or manipulation check (used to confirm the effectiveness of the independent manipulated variable) needed changes, or that they both needed further refinement. The respondents' feedback helped determine the causes as perceived by respondents.

The First Pilot Test

The first pilot test was conducted with 55 undergraduate students attending a tourism management class at Clemson University's Department of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management during the Fall Semester in 2016. The survey was administered to students after a brief description and instructions about how to complete the survey. The students were informed that the purpose of this study was to study music festivals. The detailed purpose of the study was not revealed to students prior to the administering the survey to avoid any demand effect. Demand effect refers to changes in behavior by the respondents because of cues about what constitutes appropriate behavior (Zizzo, 2010). The following are the manipulations and manipulation checks tested:

The Environmental Dimension

The festival organizer is committed to protecting and improving the environment.

Recycling and compost bins are available and clearly marked, solar panels provide approximately one-fifth of the power needed for the event, and there are multiple free water refilling stations to reduce the use of plastic bottles. In addition, the festival organizer encourages carpooling.

The manipulation check for the environmental CSR initiative was measured using two items. ANOVA was used to examine the effectiveness of the manipulated environmental CSR initiative. The independent variable was the environmental CSR initiative (presense vs. absence), while dependent variables were the two questions pertaining to environmental CSR initiative of the music festival, as rated by the

respondents. The two questions were treated independently; no composite measure was created. This helped to determine whether one or both of the questions were suitable for testing manipulation effectiveness.

The manipulation check questions and their statistical results are as follows:

- The Spring Spirit Music Festival is an environmentally responsible festival. F(1, 52) = 30.97, p = 0.018, partial $\Pi^2 = 0.391$
- The Spring Spirit Music Festival respects and protects the environment. F(1, 52) = 28.80, p = 0.027. partial $\Pi^2 = 0.361$

Based on the results, the effectiveness of the manipulated variable and manipulation check questions were demonstrated. Specifically, the respondents who had scenarios containing environmental CSR initiative information rated the environmental CSR initiative of the festival higher (M = 5.88, S.D = 1.30) than those who received scenarios without environmental CSR initiative information (M = 4.00. S.D = 1.24) for the first question. For the second question, the respondents who were exposed to the environmental CSR initiative rated the environmental CSR of the festival (M = 5.63, S.D = 1.35) higher than those who were not exposed to the manipulation at all (M = 4.25. S.D = 1.12). As a result, the effectiveness of the manipulated environmental CSR initiative and the manipulation check questions were demonstrated.

The Social Dimension

The festival organizer is committed to caring about the local community. In this regard, opinions and concerns of the local people are considered seriously. The festival supports such community projects as the development of hiking trails and community art

centers. In addition, it offers free music lessons, partners with non-profit organizations and supports diverse youth activities.

Manipulation check questions and their statistical results are as follows:

- The Spring Spirit Music Festival cares about the local community. F(1, 52) = 0.67, p = 0.417. Non-significant
- The Spring Spirit Music Festival actively plays a role in the local community that goes beyond mere profit generation. F(1, 52) = 5.13, p = 0.028, partial $\Pi^2 = 0.091$

Based on the results, it was concluded that the manipulated variable (social CSR initiative) and one of the manipulation check questions were not working well because of wording. The researcher asked the respondents about how they perceived the manipulated social CSR initiative delivered by the scenario and the manipulation checks. It seemed that the social part had some economic elements, which explained why it was not working as intended.

The Economic Dimension

The festival organizer is committed to increasing the economic benefits for the local community through hiring locals and contracting local craft, merchandise and food vendors. Further, it purchases as many foods, goods and supplies as possible locally and encourages vendors to do the same. In addition, it participates in the yearly regional marketing campaigns.

Manipulation check questions and their statistical results are as follows:

- The Spring Spirit Music Festival contributes to the economic development of the community. F(1,52) = 1.03, p = 0.65,

The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes the use of local goods and services. F (1,52) = 12.95, p = 0.001, partial $\Pi^2 = 0.20$

Based on the results, the first question pertaining to the economic manipulated variable was not effective. There was no significant difference among people who had the economic CSR treatment and those who had not received that treatment. Based on feedback from some respondents, the first question was re-worded. Specifically, "economic development" was reworded to "economic benefits". Some respondents said that economic development could be misunderstood in the context of music festivals as identifying short-term events. The second question worked fine, as indicated by the results.

Second Pilot Test

The second pilot test was conducted with 48 undergraduate students (different from those who took part in the first pilot test) in Clemson University's Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management, during the Fall Semester in 2016. The survey was administered to students after a brief description and instructions about how to fill them out. The students were informed that the study's purpose was to study music festivals. Similar to the first pilot test, the detailed purpose of the study was not revealed to students prior to administering the survey, to avoid any demand effect. Demand effect refers to changes in behavior by the respondents because of cues about what constitutes appropriate behavior (Zizzo, 2010). The following are the manipulations and manipulation check tested:

The Environmental Dimension

The festival organizer is committed to protecting and improving the environment.

Recycling and compost bins are available and clearly marked, solar panels provide

approximately one-fifth of the power needed for the event, and there are multiple free

water refilling stations to reduce the use of plastic bottles. In addition, the festival

organizer encourages carpooling.

Manipulation check questions and their statistical results are as follows:

- The Spring Spirit Music Festival is an environmentally responsible festival. F (1, 42) = 18.63, p < 0.001, partial Π^2 = 0.21
- The Spring Spirit Music Festival respects and protects the environment. F (1,42) = 5.24, p = 0.027, partial $\Pi^2 = 0.11$.

Based on the results, the respondents who were placed in a scenario with an environmental CSR initiative rated the environmental CSR initiative of the festival (M = 5.32, S.D = 1.03) higher than those who were placed in a scenario with no environmental CSR initiative (M = 4.10. S.D = 0.82) for the first question. For the second question, the respondents who were exposed to the environmental CSR initiative rated it higher (M = 5.63, S.D = 1.01) than those who were not exposed to the environmental initiative (M = 4.35. S.D = 1.12). As a result, the effectiveness of the environmental CSR initiative was demonstrated.

The Social Dimension

The festival organizer is committed to caring about the local community. In this regard, opinions and concerns of the local people are considered seriously. The festival

supports such community projects as the development of hiking trails and community art centers. In addition, it offers free music lessons, partners with non-profit organizations and supports diverse youth activities.

Manipulation check questions and their statistical results are as follows:

- The Spring Spirit Music Festival cares about the local community. F (1, 42) = 11,44 p = 0.002, partial $\Pi^2 = 0.18$
- The Spring Music Festival actively plays a role in the local community that goes beyond mere profit generation. F (1, 42) = 15.39, p = 0.002, partial $\Pi^2 = 0.26$.

The respondents who were exposed to the social CSR initiative rated the social CSR of the festival higher (m = 5.28, S.D = 0.76) than those who were not exposed to the manipulation (m = 4.35. S.D = 1.03) for the first question. For the second question, the respondents who read a scenario with the social CSR initiative rated the social CSR of the festival higher (m = 5.63, S.D = 0.78) than those who did not read a scenario with social CSR initiative (m = 4.25. S.D = 1.02). As a result, the effectiveness of the manipulation was established.

The Economic Dimension

The festival organizer is committed to increasing the economic benefits for the local community through hiring locals and contracting local craft, merchandise and food vendors. Further, it purchases as many foods, goods and supplies as possible locally and encourages vendors to do the same. In addition, it participates in the yearly regional marketing campaigns.

Manipulation check questions and their statistical results are as follows:

- The Spring Spirit Music Festival contributes to the economic development of the community. F (1,42) = 0.16, p = 0.69
- The Spring Music Festival promotes the use of local goods and services F (1, 51) = 13.03, p = 0.001, partial Π^2 = 0.24

Based on the results, the first manipulation check was not significant, indicating that there was no significant difference in the ratings of economic CSR initiatives between respondents with scenarios containing information about the festival's economic CSR initiative and those without. The feedback indicated that the use of the words, "economic development" was not clear. A festival is a short-term event. The use of economic development may not therefore be relevant.

The Third Pilot Test

The third pilot test was conducted with 58 graduate students and some faculty members attending a graduate seminar at Clemson University's Department of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management, during the Fall semester in 2016. Similar to the previous pilot tests, the respondents were told that the aim of the study was to study music festivals. They were not informed about the real purpose of the study to avoid the demand effect issue (Zizzo, 2010).

The Environmental Dimension

The festival organizer is committed to protecting the environment. Recycling and compost bins are available and clearly marked, solar panels provide approximately one-fifth of the power needed for the event, and there are multiple free water refilling stations

to reduce the use of plastic bottles. In addition, the festival organizer encourages carpooling.

Manipulation check questions and their statistical results are as follows:

- Q1: The Spring Spirit Music Festival is an environmentally responsible festival. (F (1, 46) = 5.97, p =0.018, partial Π^2 = 0.115
- Q2: The Spring Spirit Music Festival respects and protects the environment. (F (1, 46) = 13.02, p = 0.012, partial $\Pi^2 = 0.129$

Based on the results, the manipulated environmental CSR initiative and the manipulation check questions were effective, indicating the respondents who read the environmental CSR initiative rated the environmental CSR of the festival higher (m = 5.58, S.D = 1.18) than those who did not read the environmental initiative (m = 4.71, S.D = 1.30). Results for the second question were (m = 5.50, S.D = 1.25), (m = 4.46, S.D = 1.50). As a result, the effectiveness of the environmental CSR initiative as a manipulated variable and manipulation check was confirmed.

The Social Dimension

The festival organizer has a commitment to being a good neighbor to the local community. In this regard, it supports several community initiatives such as the development of hiking trails, community art centers, and renovation of local schools. In addition, it offers free music lessons, partners with non-profit organizations, and supports youth activities.

Manipulation check questions and their statistical results are as follows:

- Q1: The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes and provides several community initiatives and services. (F (1, 46) = 10.83, p =0.002, partial Π^2 = 0.191
- The Spring Spirit Music Festival is concerned with local community involvement beyond mere profit generation. (F (1, 46) = 3.12, p =0.074, non-significant

Based on the results, the first question was found to be suitable for checking the effectiveness of the manipulated social CSR initiative. The respondents who were placed in scenarios related to social manipulation had higher ratings (m = 6.00, S.D = 0.75) of the social CSR of the festival than those who were not placed in scenarios pertaining to the social CSR initiative (m = 5.09, S.D = 1.15). The second question was not found to provide statistical evidence for the effectiveness of the manipulation. According to the respondents' feedback, the wording of the second question was the cause of the trouble. The word involvement may have many different interpretations. To address the issue, the question was reworded and no further testing was conducted. The social question was found effective in previous pilot tests. The re-worder question ispresented below:

- The Spring Spirit Music Festival is committed to serving the local community beyond mere profit generation.

The Economic Dimension

The festival organizer is committed to increasing the economic benefits for the local community through hiring locals and contracting local craft, merchandise, and food vendors. Further, it purchases as much foods, goods, and supplies as possible locally and encourages vendors to do the same. In addition, it participates in the yearly regional marketing campaigns.

Manipulation check questions and their statistical results are as follows:

- The Spring Spirit Music Festival increases the economic benefits for the local community by hiring local workers and vendors. (F (1, 42) = 16.44, p < 0.000, partial $\Pi^2 = 0.26$.
- The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes the use of local goods and services. (F (1, 42) = 12.89, p =0.001, partial $\Pi^2 = 0.22$

Based on the result attained by running ANOVA the first question was found to be suitable for checking the effectiveness of the economic CSR variable. Specifically, the results revealed that respondents who were exposed to the economic manipulation had higher ratings (M = 6.20, S.D = 0.81) on the social CSR initiative of the festival than those who were not exposed to social manipulation (M = 4.83, S.D = 1.47). The second question was found to provide statistical evidence for the effectiveness of the manipulation. The respondents rated the economic CSR initiative of the festival higher (M = 6.08, S.D = 0.81) when the economic initiative was presented compared to the ratings when economic CSR initiative was absent (M = 5.00, S.D = 1.24). As a result, the effectiveness of the manipulation related to social CSR initiative and its pertaining manipulation check questions was demonstrated.

Survey Instrument

An online questionnaire containing the experiment, MGB constructs, and demographic variables was used to obtain responses to the research questions using Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk). All the variables of the MGB were measured with multiple items. Using multiple items for measuring theoretical constructs can improve

validity by covering various facets of the construct (Kline, 2011). A set of measures is believed to be more reliable and valid than an individual measure (Kline, 2011). The survey's introduction described the nature of the study; asking for the respondents' consent and promising anonymity. If the respondents agreed, they progressed to the survey. Respondents were then asked a screening question pertaining to their past experience attending music festivals. Respondents who met the criteria of the screening question (attending a music festival within the last five years) progressed to the survey. The next section contained the scenario, including items for measuring manipulation checks, and its realism and commonness. The remaining sections were related to the MGB constructs and demographic variables. The final page thanked the respondent for their time and effort.

As presented in Table 3.6, the respondent's desire toward attending the music festival was measured by six items on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

An attention check question (please choose disagree) was incorporated into the set of questions pertaining to desire. The aim was to figure out which respondents paid little attention while completing the questionnaire.

Table 3.6: Items used to measure desire

I would enjoy attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I would have fun when I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I would like to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I hope to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I wish to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I am eager to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

Sources: (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Meng & Choi, 2016; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Song et al., 2012; Song et al., 2014)

As shown in Table 3.7, the respondents' behavioral intentions to attend the music festival were measured by five items rated on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Table 3.7: Items used to measure behavioral intention

I will make an effort to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I intend to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I am planning to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I will certainly invest time at the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I will certainly invest money to the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

Sources: (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Meng & Choi, 2016; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Song et al., 2012; Song et al., 2014)

Attitude (see Table 3.8) towards the festival was measured using seven items rated on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Table 3.8: Items used to measure attitude

I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be fun.

I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be enjoyable.

I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be exciting.

I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be interesting.

I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be delightful.

I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be thrilling.

I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be a good experience.

Sources: (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Meng & Choi, 2016; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Song et al., 2012; Song et al., 2014)

As presented in Table 3.9, the subjective norm was measured by five items on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). An attention check was incorporated into the set of the questions pertaining to subjective norm. The aim was to detect people who did not pay enough attention when answering survey questions.

Table 3.9: Items used to measure subjective norm

Most people who are important to me support that I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival. Most people who are important to me understand that I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival. Most people who are important to me recommend attending the Spring Music Festival. I think most people who are important to me will themselves attend the Spring Music Festival. I think music festivals are popular among most people who are important to me.

Sources: (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Meng & Choi, 2016; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Song et al., 2012; Song et al., 2014)

The positive anticipated emotion (see Table 3.10) was measured by four items on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Table 3.10: Items used to measure positive anticipated emotion

If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be excited

If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be glad

If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be satisfied

If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be happy

Sources: (Carrus et al., 2008; Meng & Choi, 2016; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Prestwich et al., 2008; Song et al., 2012; Song et al., 2014)

As presented in Table 3.11, the negative anticipated emotion norm was measured by four items on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Table 3.11: Items used to measure negative anticipated emotion

If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be sad.

If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be disappointed.

If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be upset.

If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be angry.

Sources: (Carrus et al., 2008; Meng & Choi, 2016; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Prestwich et al., 2008; Song et al., 2012; Song et al., 2014)

The perceived behavioral control (see Table 3.12) was measured by four items on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Table 3.12: Items used to measure perceived behavioral control

Whether or not to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival is completely up to me.

I am capable of attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival.

I am confident that if I want, I can attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival

I have enough money to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival

I have enough time to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival

Sources: (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Meng & Choi, 2016; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Song et al., 2012;

Song et al., 2014)

Table 3.13 indicated the frequency of past behavior which was measured by three

items on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from never (1) to more than three times (5).

Table 3.13: Items used to measure frequency of past behavior

How many times have you attended a music festival in the past 12 months?

How many times have you attended a music festival in the past 3 years?

How many times have you attended a music festival in the past 5 years?

Sources: (Bagozzi et al., 1998; Meng & Choi, 2016; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Song et al., 2012)

Table 3.14 represented items used to measure the importance of general attributes of music festivals along with the environmental, social, and economic attributes. The items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Table 3.14: The importance of different music festival attributes

The types of music played at the festival

The bands playing at the festival

Entertainment other than music provided at the festival

The reputation of the festival

The image of the festival

The ticket price for the festival

Amenities provided at the festival

The location of the festival

The environmental sustainability of the festival

The festival relationships with the local community

The economic benefits to the local community resulted from the festival

Building the Survey Online

The survey was created using Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com), an online software program. The software allows researchers to create surveys containing several blocks. Each block can be devoted to one or more sections. For this study, the survey was created with different blocks pertaining to the experiment and its EMGB variables. Twenty-four versions of the scenario were created as different blocks, then Qualtrics was programmed to randomly and evenly assign the respondents to different experimental conditions. This function was very useful for factorial design, whereby different combinations of the manipulated variables were assigned to the respondents.

Data Collection

The study participants were recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk, (Mturk) (https://www.mturk.com), an online platform where people can receive monetary compensation for completing different kinds of tasks. The advent of the Internet and its widespread presence has provided researchers with an additional means for conducting studies. Researchers are increasingly employing Internet technologies for conducting academic research (Mason & Suri, 2012). The use of online platforms to recruit participants to take part in research is referred to in the social sciences as crowdsourcing (Litman, Robinson, & Rosenzweig, 2015). The term can be attributed to Howe (2006), who modified the term outsourcing to crowdsourcing in order to describe the process of recruiting an online workforce, without the need for a traditional outsourcing company. Howe (2006) further indicated that the term was limited to businesses leveraging a workforce through the internet.

Mturk is currently one of the most popular crowdsourcing websites among social scientists (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Chandler, Mueller, & Paolacci, 2014) because of the popularity of the Amazon brand, and the trust users have in Amazon related to privacy, security, and financial transactions (Litman et al., 2015). Mturk is characterized by its demographic diversity, low cost, and similar level of reliability to other data collection methods (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Mturk's audience reach is larger than most university's sample pools, and is demographically more diverse than typical college and online samples (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012).

Mturk offers many benefits, as highlighted above; however, Mturk samples may also have some disadvantages, such as the validity and quality of data. Although researchers outlined above indicated that Mturk provides a means of getting data of a similar level of reliability to other collection methods, some researchers drew different conclusions. For example Buhrmester et al., (2011) found that Mturk participants were likely to pay less attention to experimental materials. However, this argument has been applied to all online-based experiments (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009). One way to deal with this issue is to apply attention check (catch trials) to the survey, which uses a catch trial question to identify inattentive respondents (Oppenheimer et al., 2009). This study had two attention check questions, which were used to screen out respondents who paid little attention while taking part in the study.

Another issue with Mturk is that some participants have a tendency to cheat (Horton, Rand, & Zeckhauser, 2011), and provide socially desirable responses (Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011). However, rewards (fees) perceived as fair decreased participants' tendency to cheat (Goodman et al., 2012) and increased their tendency to provide thoughtful responses (Behrend et al., 2011). After this study was approved by the Clemson University Institutional Review Board (IRB) (See Appendix A), data was collected in two phases. A "hit" (human intelligence task) was created and posted on Mturk for each phase of data collection. On the Mturk platform, respondents can log in and search for hits that suit them. They then view and accept hits that contain specific screening and specifications matching their own profiles. For the purposes of this study, after respondents viewed and accepted the hit, they followed these steps:

- 1. Reading the participation invitation (see Appendix B).
- Reading the cover letter (see Appendix C) and directions for participating in the study.
- 3. Moving on to the online survey (see Appendix D).
- 4. Respondents were exposed to a scenario, and asked to carefully read a set of questions related to its dependent variables, and the MGB and EMGB variables.
- 5. Upon finishing the survey, a thank you message was presented.
- 6. Respondents who did not meet the screening question (i.e., visiting a music festival in the last 5 years) were not allowed to proceed to take part in the study.

Data Collection – First Phase

During the last week of November 2016, the researcher created a "hit" (human intelligence task) on Mturk. Seventy-five responses were obtained. Reponses were not included in the final data for this study. This step was instead adopted to increase the researcher's familiarity with Mturk, determine the best approach to collect data, and check whether the price was appropriate.

Survey respondents had to be at least 18-years old, living in the United States, and had visited a music festival in the last five years. Respondents were rewarded US\$1.10 for their participation. Data obtained had many issues, such as missing data, responses following the same patterns (i.e., the same respondents answered the same way all the time).

The Second Phase of Data Collection

Based on the first data collection phase, consulting online reviews and blogs pertaining to conducting research using Mturk, and the literature, the following performance metrics were set as minimum eligibility for respondents. The respondent had to be at least 18-years old, living in the United States, and had to have successfully completed at least 1,000 Mturk projects. To solicit quality data, this study was made available to workers (users) who also had a lifetime task-acceptance rating of 90% or higher (workers with an approval rating of less than 90% were not able to view the study). Several studies have employed specific performance metrics for respondent eligibility (Tasci, Khalilzadeh, & Uysal, 2017; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2016). Tasci, et al. (2017) made their online study available to workers with a minimum of an 80% approval rating of their past work submissions (hits). Similarly, Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016) specified that their online study was available to workers with an at least 98% approval rating of their previous work submissions (hits). There was also a screening question asking whether the respondents had attended a music festival in the last five years. Workers who did not match the screening question were screened out of the study. Workers who met these recruitment criteria were then offered US\$1.10 for completing the online study. This amount was determined by noting other studies that used Mturk to collect data.

The full study was posted online on the Mturk platform during the first week of December 2016. The respondents who answered "yes" to the screening question related to their past visit to a music festival were able to proceed to the study, whereas those who

answered 'no' (n = 9) were directed to the end of the questionnaire, and a "thank you message" clarifying they were not able to proceed to the main study. As a result, 578 responses were obtained. Among those, 25 responses were eliminated for not passing attention check questions. An additional 32 responses were excluded because they were incomplete. Twenty responses were screened out for minimal time spent answering the survey (respondents who spent less than four minutes were screened out). A usable sample of 500 responses was therefore used for the final analysis.

Data Analysis

Several data analysis procedures and techniques were used such as ANOVA, ANCOVA, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and structural equation modelling. The study followed data analyzing procedures, such as data cleaning, conducting CFA, and running the proper model to test the hypotheses underlying the proposed theoretical relationships among the constructs included in the conceptual model.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter describes the findings of the statistical analysis conducted for this study, including a discussion about descriptive statistics, ANOVA and ANCOVA, the experiment, CFA, validity, reliability tests, and structural equation models.

Outliers

The data (N = 500 responses) was screened for both univariate and multivariate outliers. A Z-score was used to detect univariate outliers. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2006), a Z-score for an item of more than 3.29 should be deleted. Accordingly, 10 cases, which had a Z-score greater than 3.29 and were identified as statistical outliers were removed from the database. Mahalanobis' Distance was then employed to identify multivariate outliers. The chi-square value of the 39 items (observed variables pertaining to the latent variables used in this study) was used to test Mahalanobis' Distance. Since the critical chi-square value at an alpha of p < 0.001 with 39 degrees of freedom was 72.055, all cases with a calculated chi-square above that number could be considered potential outliers (Tabachick & Fidell, 2006). Of the total 14 cases that exceeded the cutvalue, six cases were close enough to the rest of the data to warrant their continued inclusion for further data analysis. The remaining eight cases were determined to be outliers and excluded from the analysis. Additionally, five cases were deleted when running structural equation modeling (SEM), as they showed high values of multivariate

kurtosis when compared to other cases reported with Mardia's coefficient. The remaining 477 responses were included in the subsequent analysis.

Descriptive Statistics: Demographics

The demographic profile of study participants is presented in Table 4.1. Over half of the respondents (53.5%) were male, and the remaining (46.5%) female. The ethnicity distribution shows that the majority of respondents were White/Caucasian (71.5%), followed by Black/African American (8.8%), Hispanic/Latino (8.6%), Asian (8.2%), Pacific Islander (2.0%), and Indian/Native American (2.0%). The majority of the respondents were single (56.0%), followed by married (27.50), married with children (9.0%), and separated/divorced (7.5%). With reference to the educational level of the respondents, (40.0%) had earned a Bachelor's Degree, followed by (35.8%) with Community College Associate Degrees, (12.6%) with a high school education, (10.5%) hold a Master's Degree, and only (1.0%) had a Ph.D. Degree. With respect to household income, the highest frequency was \$21,000–\$39,999 (26.8%), followed by \$40,000–\$59,999 (22.6%), \$60,000–\$79,999 (18%), Less than \$20,999 (14.7%), \$80,000–\$99,999 (8.2%), \$100,000–\$199,999 (4.4%), \$140,000 or more (4%), and \$120,000–\$139,999 (1.3%). The minimum age was 18, and the maximum 70.

Table 4.1: Demographic profile of the respondents (477)

Category	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	255	53.5
Female	222	46.5
Ethnicity		
White/Caucasian	341	71.5
Black/African American	42	8.8
Asian	39	8.2
Hispanic/Latino	41	8.6
Pacific Islander	1	0.2
American Indian/Native	1	0.2
Other	12	2.5
Marital status		
Single	267	56.0
Married	131	27.5
Married with children	43	9.0
Separated/divorced	36	7.5
Education		
High school	60	12.6
Community college (associated degree)	171	35.8
University (bachelor)	191	40.0
Master's degree	50	10.5
Doctorate	5	1.0
Household income		
Less than \$20,999	70	14.7
\$21,000 - \$39,999	128	26.8
\$40,000 – \$59,999	108	22.6
\$60,000 - \$79,999	86	18.0
\$80,000 - \$99,999	39	8.2
\$100,000 - \$199,999	21	4.4
\$120,000 - \$139,999	6	1.3
\$140,000 or more	19	4.0
Age $M = 35$ SD = 10.80 Media	n 33	

The average age was 35 with a standard deviation of 10.8. The median age was 33. Age was measured as a continuous variable. Specifically, respondents provided the year they were born in.

As indicated in Table 4.1, some demographic variables had very low frequencies for certain groups, such as respondents with PhD degrees. This study employed the demographic variable as control variables. To accurately include the demographic variables into statistical analysis models, some were re-grouped to provide reasonable frequencies that could plausibly be included in the analysis. Table 4.2 showed the variables that were re-grouped. Specifically, ethnicity was re-grouped into White (71.5%) and Non-white (28.5%). Marital status was re-grouped into single (63.5%), and married (36.5%). Education was categorized into four groups; high school (12.6%), community college (35.8%), Bachelor's Degree (40.0%), and advanced degree (11.5%). Household income was re-grouped into five categories, with most people earning \$21,000–\$39,999. Age was recoded to provide a clue on the frequencies of different categories. The majority of the respondents were ages 30–39 (38.2%) and ages 20–29 (31.0%), followed by ages 40–49 (17.2%), 50–59 (9.2%), over 60 (4.0%) and finally ages 18–19 (4.0%).

Table 4.2: Demographic profile of respondents with re-grouping (477)

Category	Frequenc	Percent
Ethnicity	•	
White/Caucasian	341	71.5
Non-white	174	28.5
Marital status		
Single	303	63.5
Married	174	36.5
Education		
High school	60	12.6
Community college (associated degree)	171	35.8
University (bachelor)	191	40.0
Advance degree	55	11.5
Household income		
Less than \$20,999	70	14.7
\$21,000 - \$39,999	128	26.8
\$40,000 - \$59,999	108	22.6
\$60,000 - \$79,999	86	18.0
\$80,000 or more	85	17.8
Age		
18 - 29	150	31.4
30 - 39	182	38.2
40 - 49	82	17.2
50 – 59	44	9.2
Over 60	19	4.0

Descriptive statistics: MGB variables

As shown in Table 4.3, the average respondents' desire toward visiting a music festival was 5.95. As indicated by the table, all items had a high average, with the lowest value of 5.65. All items show reasonable standard deviation, skewness (-2, +2) and

kurtosis value (-3, +3), with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.92 indicating a high degree of construct reliability (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

Table 4.3: Descriptive statistics for desire

Items	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
I would have fun when I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	6.17	0.82	-0.942	0.913
I would enjoy attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	6.10	0.85	-1.040	1.527
I would like to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	6.07	0.91	-1.020	1.056
I wish to attend to the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	5.90	1.01	-0.884	0 .573
I hope to attend to the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	5.84	1.03	-0.745	0.274
I am eager to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	5.65	1.15	-0.818	0.441
Overall	5.95	0.87	-0.930	0.848
Cronbach's a (0.92)				

Note: Responses range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)

As shown in Table 4.4, the average respondents' behavioral intention toward vising a music festival was 5.40. All items show a reasonable standard deviation, skewness (-2, +2), and kurtosis value (-3, +3). Cronbach's alpha was 0.95, indicating a high degree of internal consistency (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 4.4: Descriptive statistics for behavioral intention

Items	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
I intend to the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	5.46	1.27	-0.814	0.239
I am planning to the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	5.40	1.34	-0.849	0.151
I will certainly invest time the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	5.37	1.35	-0.884	0.363
I will make an effort to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	5.22	1.21	-0.853	0.411
I will certainly invest money to the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	5.29	1.37	-0.946	0.597
Overall	5.40	1.24	-0.895	0.388
Cronbach's a (0.95)				

Note: Responses range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)

The average respondent's attitude towards the music festival was 6.04 (see Table 4.5). Respondents showed a high positive attitude towards music festivals. All items show reasonable standard deviation, skewness (-2, +2) and kurtosis value (-3, +3). Cronbach's alpha was 0.93, which confirmed a high degree of reliability (Hair et al., 2011)

Table 4.5: Descriptive statistics for attitude

Items	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be enjoyable.	6.17	0.82	-0.942	0.913
I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be fun.	6.10	0.85	-1.040	1.527
I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be exciting.	6.07	0.91	-1.020	1.056
I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be delightful.	5.90	1.01	-0.884	0.573
I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be interesting.	5.84	1.03	-0.745	0.274
I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be thrilling.	5.65	1.15	-0.818	0.441
Overall	6.04	0.78	-1.090	2.23
Cronbach's a (0.93)				

Note: Responses range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)

The average score of respondents' subjective norm with reference to attending a music festival was 5.98 (see Table 4.6). All items and variables show reasonable standard deviation, skewness (-2, +2), and kurtosis value (-3, +3), with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.89, indicating a high level of internal consistency (Hair et al., 2011).

Table 4.6: Descriptive statistics for subjective norm

Items	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
Most people who are important to me understand that I to visit a music festival.	6.17	0.82	-0.942	0.913
Most people who are important to me support that I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	6.10	0.85	-1.040	1.527
Most people who are important to me recommend attending the Spring Music Festival.	6.07	0.91	-1.020	1.056
I think music festival are popular among most people who are important to me.	5.90	1.01	-0.884	0.573
I think most people who are important to me will themselves attend the Spring Music Festival.	5.84	1.03	-0.745	0.274
Most people who are important to me support that I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	5.65	1.15	-0.818	0.441
Overall	5.98	1.14	-0.579	0.581
Cronbach's a (0.89)	(Z)			

Note: Responses range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)

The average score of respondents' positive anticipated emotion was 6.03 (see Table 4.7). All items show reasonable standard deviation, skewness (-2, +2), and kurtosis value (-3, +3), with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.92, which indicated a high degree of internal consistency (Hair et al., 2011).

Table 4.7: Descriptive statistics for positive anticipated emotion

Items	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be happy.	6.11	0.88	-1.141	1.889
If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be glad.	6.09	0.89	-1.289	2.744
If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be satisfied.	6.00	0.93	-1.013	1.124
If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be excited.	5.94	0.93	-1.045	1.85
Overall	6.03	0.82	-1.233	2.255
Cronbach's a (0.92)				

Note: Responses range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)

As shown by Table 4.8, the average of respondents' negative anticipated emotions was 3.91. Respondents therefore expressed a low level of negative anticipated emotion about attending music festivals. All items show reasonable standard deviations, skewness (-2, +2), and kurtosis value (-3, +3). With reference to internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha was 0.84 (Hair et al., 2011).

Table 4.8: Descriptive statistics for negative anticipated emotion

Items	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be disappointed.	4.64	1.69	-0.622	-0.546
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be sad.	4.21	1.61	-0.289	-0.763
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be upset.	3.92	1.67	-0.810	-0.973
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be angry.	2.88	1.58	0.680	-0.321
Overall	3.91	1.44	-0.289	-0.600
Cronbach's a (0.84)				

Note: Responses range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)

The average score of respondents' perceived behavioral control was 5.93 (see Table 4.9). Respondents expressed a high level of believing in their ability to attend the music festival. All items show a reasonable standard deviation, skewness (-2, +2), and kurtosis value (-3, +3). Cronbach's alpha was 0.87, indicating a high degree of internal consistency (Hair et al., 2011).

Table 4.9: Descriptive statistics for perceived behavioral control

Items	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
I am capable of attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival	6.16	0.95	-1.477	2.894
Whether or not to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival is completely up to me	6.14	1.03	-1.791	2.223
I am confident that if I want, I can attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival	6.07	1.06	-1.562	3.012
I have enough time to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival	5.69	1.19	-1.033	1.042
I have enough money to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival	5.61	1.41	-1.205	0.972
Overall	5.93	0.90	-1.233	2.156
Cronbach's a (0.87)				

Note: Responses range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)

Table 4.10 illustrates respondents' experiences as indicated by the frequency of past behavior. The overall average score was 3.19. This indicates that respondents attended an average of two music festivals over the past five years. All items show reasonable standard deviation, skewness (-2, +2), and kurtosis value (-3, +3). Cronbach's alpha was 0.86, indicating a high degree of internal consistency (Hair et al., 2011).

Table 4.10: Descriptive statistics for frequency of past behavior

Items	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
How many times have you attended a music festival in the past 12 months?	2.42	0.86	0.785	0.905
How many times have you attended a music festival in the past 3 years?	3.34	1.17	-0.148	-0.95
How many times have you attended a music festival in the past 5 years?	3.91	1.17	-0.561	-1.091
Overall	3.19	1.18	-0.191	-0.965
Cronbach's a (0.86)				

Note: Responses range from never (1) to more than three

Table 4.11 indicates the importance of different festival attributes, as perceived by the respondents. The descriptive statistics indicate that the type of music played at the festival (M = 6.42) is followed by the bands playing at festivals (6.21). The environmental (M = 4.63), social (M = 4.01), and economic responsibilities (M = 4.21) (sustainability) pertaining to music festivals were least important to the respondents when they evaluated different attributes. This indicates that traditional attributes are the most important factors affecting the decision-making process of festival-goers.

Table 4.11: Descriptive statistics for the importance of music festival attributes

Items	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
The types of music played at the festival.	6.42	0.74	-1.642	4.628
The bands playing at the festival.	6.21	0.90	-1.328	2.135
The ticket price for the festival.	6.12	1.02	-1.571	3.193
The location of the festival.	6.09	0.99	-1.591	4.38
Amenities provided at the festival.	5.63	1.07	-1.038	1.851
The reputation of the festival.	5.61	1.41	-1.205	0.972
Entertainment other than music provided at the festival.	5.07	1.38	-0.671	0.057
The image of the festival	4.98	1.40	-0.697	0.373
The environmental sustainability of the festival.	4.63	1.56	-0.526	-0.269
The economic benefits to the local community resulted from the festival.	4.21	1.53	-0.537	-0.301
The festival relationships with the local community.	4.01	1.50	-0.637	-0.101

Note: Responses range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)

Statistical Analysis

This study followed several analysis procedures and types. ANOVA and ANCOVA using SPSS 23 were employed, because the SPSS analyses (i.e., ANOVA and ANCOVA) are the primary statistical analyses used for experiments, through group mean differences and the F test (Fong et al., 2016).

Manipulation Check, Realism, and Commonness

Prior to conducting the final analysis pertaining to the experiment, it was essential to conduct realism, commonness tests, and manipulation checks. The manipulation check was used to confirm the effectiveness of the treatments (manipulated independent variables) conveyed through the scenario. Specifically, a manipulation check confirms

whether the respondents perceive the scenario as intended (Shadish et al., 2002). It confirms that the scenario conveyed its message effectively, and placed the respondents in the needed hypothetical situation. For example, to confirm the effectiveness of the environmental CSR initiative that was manipulated at two level (absence vs. presence), respondents who were given a scenario depicting environmental CSR initiative should have rated the environmental CSR initiative of the music festival higher than those who did not have the environmental CSR initiative. If there were no significant differences between the two groups of respondents, this would imply failure of the experiment and those independent variables (manipulated variables) and/or manipulation check. Realism is employed to determine whether the scenario was perceived as realistic by the respondents (Park & Jang, 2016). Commonness is used to assess whether the respondents perceived the scenario as being common in the marketplace. In other words, commonness is about confirming that the type of music festival outlined in the scenario is popular in the marketplace. Table 4.12 shows the items used to verify the effectiveness of those manipulated variables, along with items used for realism and commonness.

Realism and Commonness

Realism was assessed using the following question: "The description of the spring music festival is realistic" (Strongly disagree = 1, strongly agree = 7) (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.12: Items used for commonness, realism, and manipulation ckecks

				
Items used for manipulation check, realism and commonness	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
Realism				
The description of the spring music festival is realistic.	5.93	0.96	-1.491	4.350
Commonness				
This type of music festival probably occurs in real life.	5.85	1.09	1.428	3.024
Environmental manipulation check items (Cronbach $a=0.91$)	5.78	1.20	-0.867	0.775
The Spring Spirit Music Festival respects and protects the environment.	5.95	1.20	-0.845	0.776
The Spring Spirit music Festival is an environmentally responsible festival.	5.65	1.20	-0.888	0.774
Social manipulation check items (Cronbach a = 0.89)	5.71	1.19	-1.076	1.325
The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes and provides several community initiatives and services.	5.81	1.17	-1.170	1.423
The Spring Spirit Music Festival is committed to serving the local community beyond the mere profit generation.	5.62	1.21	-0.982	1.227
Economic manipulation check items (Cronbach a = 0.88)	5.695	1.24	-0.965	0.685
The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes the use of local goods and services.	5.71	1.25	-0.971	0.589
The Spring Spirit Music Festival increases the economic benefits for the local community by hiring local workers and vendors.	5.68	1.24	-0.958	0.781

Note: Responses range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)

The respondents rated the scenario as highly realistic (Mean = 5.77, SD = 1.06).

Commonness was confirmed using the following question: "This type of music festival

probably occurs in real life" (Strongly disagree = 1, strongly agree = 7). The scenario was rated as highly common in the marketplace (Mean = 5.72, std deviation = 1.143). As a result, it is believed that the scenarios placed the respondents in a situation similar to the real marketplace. This enhanced the external validity of the experiment.

Environmental CSR Initiative

To help determine if the treatment (manipulated variable) of the environmental CSR initiative was effective, respondents were asked to answer two questions pertaining to the initiative (The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes and provides several community initiatives and services; The Spring Spirit Music Festival respects and protects the environment). A one-way ANOVA was conducted on a composite variable of the two items. Results indicated a significant effect for environmental CSR initiative (F (1, 475) = 146.74, p < .001), with respondents who had scenarios containing the environmental CSR initiative (presence level) (M =6.20, SD =.78) expressing higher ratings of the environmental CSR initiative of the festival than those who had scenarios with no environmental CSR initiative (M = 5.06, SD = 1.20). As a result, the effectiveness and success of the environmental CSR initiative treatment (manipulation) was demonstrated.

Social CSR Initiative

To help determine if the treatment of the social CSR initiative was effective, respondents were asked to answer two questions pertaining to the environmental CSR initiative (The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes and provides several community

initiatives and services; The Spring Spirit Music Festival is committed to serving the local community beyond the mere profit generation). A one-way ANOVA was run, and the results indicated a significant effect for the social CSR initiative (F(1, 475) = 50.23, p < .001, partial $\Pi^2 = 0.096$). The results indicated that respondents who were exposed to the social CSR initiative (presence level) (M =6.07, SD =.83) submitted higher ratings on the social CSR initiative than those who were not exposed to the social CSR information (absence, filler paragraph) (M = 5.38, SD = 1.23). As a result, the effectiveness of the social CSR initiative treatment was demonstrated.

Manipulation Check: Economic CSR Initiative

ANOVA results indicated that the economic CSR initiative treatment was effective (F(1,475) = 104.34, p < .001, $\Pi^2 = 0.180$). There was a significant difference in the ratings of the economic CSR initiative for the music festival between respondents who read the scenario containing economic CSR initiative information (M = 6.19, SD = .88), and those who read the scenario with no economic CSR information (absence, filler paragraph) (M = 5.18, SD = 1.25). As a result, the effectiveness of the environmental CSR initiative treatment was demonstrated. All the manipulated variables were effective, meaning that the experiment was successful in placing respondents in different hypothetical situations. Each situation (scenario) delivered specific messages (treatment) concerning the responsibility of the music festival, and the respondents were able to react to the messages as they were supposed to.

Hypothesis Testing: The experiment

ANCOVAs were conducted in order to investigate the effects of the environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives, and their interactions on desire and behavioral intention to attend the music festival. All independent variables were manipulated at two levels (absence and presence). Control variables were included into the ACNOVA models. Control variables were recoded demographic variables (age, education, income, marital status, and ethnic group). Controlling for variables is the attempt to reduce the effect of confounding variables on the outcome variable. This implies that when examining the effect of one variable, other variables are held constant.

Desire

ANCOVA was run to test the effect of envoronmnetal, social, and economic CSR initiatives on desire. The results (see Table 4.13) revealed a significant main effect of the environmental CSR initiative on desire (F (1,458) = 4.96, p = 0.027, Π^2 = 0.011). The respondents who read the scenario with the environmental CSR initiative information showed more desire (M = 6.03) than those who read the scenario with the environmental CSR initiative (M = 5.89). As a result, **H1a**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between environmental CSR initiatives and desire, was accepted.

The results indicated that the social CSR initiative had no significant main effect on desire (F (1,458) = 0.01, p = 0.930). There was no significant difference between the respondents who had read scenarios including the social CSR initiative, and those who had read a scenario with no social CSR initiative, with reference to their desire to attend

the music festival. Therefore, **H1b**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between social CSR and desire, was rejected

Table 4.13: Environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives impact on desire

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared			
Corrected Model	33.282 ^a	18	1.849	2.593	0.000	0.092			
Intercept	1090.068	1	1090.07	1528.79	0.000	0.769			
Env_manip	3.533	1	3.533	4.955	0.03	0.011			
Soci_manip	0.005	1	0.005	0.008	0.93	0.000			
Econ_manip	0.041	1	0.041	0.058	0.81	0.000			
Ethnic_group	0.034	1	0.034	0.048	0.83	0.000			
Marital_status	0.949	1	0.949	1.331	0.25	0.003			
education	8.531	3	2.844	3.988	0.01	0.025			
Houshold_income	2.799	4	0.700	0.981	0.42	0.008			
Gender	9.793	1	9.793	13.735	0	0.029			
Age	0.262	1	0.262	0.368	0.55	0.001			
Env_manip * Soci_manip	0.447	1	0.447	0.627	0.43	0.001			
Env_manip * Econ_manip	0.597	1	0.597	0.838	0.36	0.002			
Soci_manip * Econ_manip	0.351	1	0.351	0.492	0.48	0.001			
Env_manip * Soci_manip * Econ_manip	0.776	1	0.776	1.088	0.3	0.002			
Error	326.567	458	0.713						
Total	17272.833	477							
Corrected Total	359.849	476							
a. R Squared = .092 (Adjusted R Squared = .057)									

The effect of economic CSR initiative information on desire was also insignificant (F(1,458) = 0.06, p = 0.810). The results revealed no significant differences in the ratings of desire to attend the music festival between the group of respondents who read the economic CSR initiative and the group that did not. Accordingly, **H1c**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between economic CSR and desire, was rejected. The interaction effects (two-way and three-way) among environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives were non-significant, indicating that manipulated variables on desire were not affected by either the presence or absence of other manipulated variables.

This study included age (F (1,458) = 0.37, p = 0.55), gender (F (1,458) = 13.34, p = 0.001), education (F (3, 458) = 3.99, p = 0.008), ethnicity (1, 458) = 0.05, p = 0.83), income (F (4, 458) = 0.98, p = 0.42), and marital status (F (1, 458) = 1.33, p =0.25) as control variables.. As indicated by the results, gender and education were significant predictors of a respondent's desire to attend the music festival.

Behavioral Intention

ANCOVA was run to test the influence of environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives on behavioral intention. The results (see Table 4.14) revealed a significant main effect of environmental CSR initiative on behavioral intention (F (1, 854) = 9.12, p = 0.003, Π^2 = 0.02). This implied that respondents expressed stronger behavioral intentions (M = 5.63, SD = 1.21) to attend the music festival when the environmental CSR initiative was present, compared behavioral intention ratings of those

reading scenarios without the environmental CSR initiative (filler paragraphs) (M = 5.11, SD = 0.93). Therefore, **H2a**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between environmental CSR initiative and behavioral intention, was supported.

The results indicated that the social CSR initiative had no significant main effect on behavioral intention (F(1,458) = 0.02, p = 0.900). There was no significant difference in the ratings of behavioral intention between the respondents who were exposed to the social CSR initiative, and those who were not . Therefore, **H2b**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between social CSR initiative and behavioral intention, was not supported. In addition, the effect of economic CSR on behavioral intention was insignificant (F(1,458) = 0.39, p = 0.531). The results also indicated that there was no difference in the level of behavioral intention between the respondents when the economic CSR present vs. its absence. Accordingly, **H2c**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between economic CSR initiative and behavioral intention, was not supported.

This study included age (F (1,458) = 0.68, p = 0.410), gender (F (1,458) = 3.30, p = 0.070), education (F (3, 458) = 4.59, p = 0.004), ethnicity (1, 458) = 0.00, p = 0.990), income (F (4, 458) = 0.53, p = 0.710), and marital status (F (1, 458) = 4.27, p =0.040) as control variables. Educational level and marital status were significant predictors of behavioral intention.

The interaction effects (two-way and three-way) among environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives were non-significant, indicating manipulated variables on

behavioral intention to attend the music festival were not affected by the presence or absence of other manipulated variables.

Table 4.14: Environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives impact on behavioral intention

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	58.880 ^a	18	3.271	2.231	0.003	0.081
Intercept	876.931	1	876.931	598.193	0.000	0.566
Env_manip	13.362	1	13.362	9.115	0.003	0.020
Soci_manip	0.023	1	0.023	0.016	0.900	0.000
Econ_manip	0.576	1	0.576	0.393	0.531	0.001
Q61	4.849	1	4.849	3.307	0.070	0.007
Ethnic_group	0.000	1	0.000	0.000	0.990	0.000
Marital_status	6.262	1	6.262	4.271	0.039	0.009
education	20.185	3	6.728	4.59	0.004	0.029
Houshold_income	3.091	4	0.773	0.527	0.716	0.005
Age	0.994	1	0.994	0.678	0.411	0.001
Env_manip * Soci_manip	1.559	1	1.559	1.064	0.303	0.002
Env_manip * Econ_manip	0.077	1	0.077	0.052	0.819	0.000
Soci_manip * Econ_manip	0.584	1	0.584	0.398	0.528	0.001
Env_manip *						
Soci_manip *	1.103	1	1.103	0.752	0.386	0.002
Econ_manip						
Error	671.413	458	1.466			
Total	14678.52	477				
Corrected Total	730.293	476				

a. R Squared = .081 (Adjusted R Squared = .044)

Desire Impact on Behavioral Intention

A linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the impact of desire on behavioral intention. The results (see Table 4.15) revealed a significant main effect for desire on behavioral intention (β =.774, p < 0.001). The explained variance (R^2) was 0.60. Accordingly, **H3**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between desire and behavioral intention, was supported.

Table 4.15: Behavioral intention regressed on desire

Variable	В	SE B	β
Desire	1.103*	0.41	0.774
$R^2 = 0.600$			
* p < .001			

Mediation (Indirect Effect)

Mediation (indirect effect) refers to the process by which one independent variable (IV) exerts an influence on a dependent variable (DV) through a mediator variable (MV). In this sense, a "mediation hypothesis posits how, or by what means, an independent variable (X) affects a dependent variable (Y) through one or more potential intervening or mediators (M)" (Preacher & Hayes, 2008, p. 879). Sobel's (1982) approach (see Figure 4.1) was used to assess the indirect relationships included in the study model. Sobel's approach obtains two coefficients – one related to the relationship between the Independent variable (IV) and the mediator variable (MV), and the second related to the relationship between the MV and the DV.

The Sobel (1982) approach procedures:

- The product of paths from the IV to MV (a path), and the MV to DV (b path).
- An estimation of the standard error for path a (the IV to MV).
- An estimation of the standard error for path b (the MV to DV).
- A ratio of a*b to its standard error provides a test statistic that can be checked for significance using z-value.
- Equation for z-vale: z-value = a*b/SQRT(b2*sa2 + a2*sb2), SQRT = square root.

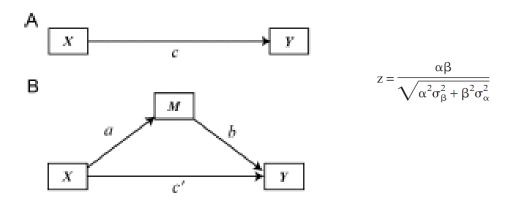


Figure 4.1: The Sobel Approach

The Sobel test was used to test for mediation effect by confirming whether a mediator variable significantly carried the influence of an independent variable to a dependent variable (Ramayah, Lee, & In, 2011). The results (see Table 5.16) indicated that the environmental CSR initiative did not have a significant indirect effect on behavioral intention (B = 0.029, z = 0.687). As a result, **H4a**, which hypothesized the relation between the environmental CSR initiative and behavioral intention mediated by

desire, was rejected. Similarly, results indicated that the social CSR initiative did not have a significant indirect effect on behavioral intention (B = 0.042, z = 0.972). Accordingly, **H4b**, which hypothesized the relation between the social CSR initiative and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was rejected. Similarly, results indicated that the economic CSR initiative did not have a significant indirect effect on behavioral intention (B = 0.003, z = 0.077). As a result, **H4c**, which hypothesized the relation between the environmental CSR initiative and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was rejected.

Table 4.16: Indirect effect of social, environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives on behavioral intention

Sobel test		ENVcsr	SOC	esr	ECONcsr		
	Mediation effect	Z value	Mediation effect	Z value	Mediation effect	Z value	
DE	0.0297	0.21	-0.065	-0.366	0.06	0.348	

Note: to be significant Z-value should > or < 1.96 at P = .05

A summary of the Results of the Experiment

The statistical analysis revealed that all manipulations included in the experiment were effective. In other words, the messages conveyed by the scenarios were effective in placing the respondents in the required hypothetical situation. The results indicated that the environmental CSR initiative was a significant variable in forming both desire and behavioral intention towards attending the music festival. The social and economic CSR initiatives were found to be insignificant predictors of both desire and behavioral intention to attend the music festival. Desire was significantly effective in predicting

behavioral intention. The next step was to run CFA and structural equation models pertaining to the MGB and the EMGB to test the MGB and the extended model (EMGB). Before conducting the analyses pertaining to the MGB and the EMGB, it was necessary to test the effect of the independent variables used in the experiment on the latent constructs of the MGB. Desire and behavioral intention were included in the experiment as outcome variables. Other variables of the MGB (attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, positive anticipated emotion, negative anticipated emotion, and frequency of past behavior) were not included in the experiment. A series of one-way AVOVAs (see Table 4.17) were conducted to confirm that the manipulated variables (environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives) had no influence on the variables of the MGB (except for desire and behavioral intention).

Table 4.17: the relationship between CSR initiatives and the variables of the MGB

	Environmental CSR		Social	CSR	Economic CSR	
The MGB Variables	F value	P value	F value	P value	F value	P value
Attitude	2.995	0.084	0.755	0.385	1.877	0.171
Subjective norm	2.258	0.134	0.035	0.851	0.422	0.516
Positive anticipated emotion	2.552	0.033	0.140	0.708	3.358	0.068
Negative anticipated emotion	2.139	0.144	0.536	0.464	0.353	0.533
Percieved behavioral control	2.388	0.123	0.001	0.994	2.043	0.154
Frequency of past behavior	0.096	0.757	0.612	0.434	0.38	0.538

As indicated by Table 4.17, the environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives had no effect on the variables of the MGB, with the exception of environmental CSR effect on positive anticipated emotion. However, as indicated by confirmatory factor analysis results in the next section of this chapter, positive

anticipated emotion was excluded from the final model of this study. Accordingly, it is concluded that the respondents who were exposed to the environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives had similar responses and ratings pertaining to the MGB variables (attitude, perceived behavioral control, negative anticipated emotion, perceived behavioral control, and frequency of past behavior) to the responses and ratings of those who were not exposed to the three types of CSR initiatives. As a result, the combination of the three CSR initiatives within the MGB was justified.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to assess measurement scale properties, and to test data quality and measurement theory (Hair et al., 2010) using EQS 6.3 software. CFA is widely used in measuring and confirming scales and testing construct validity (MacCallum & Austin, 2000). CFA was employed in this study to specify the hypothesized relationships of the observed variables to the latent constructs of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control, positive anticipated emotion, negative anticipated emotion, desire, behavioral intention, and frequency of past behavior (Kline, 2011).

Each construct was evaluated separately, and the the overall measurement model evaluated by adding constructs one by one. Within EQS, the variance of each factor was fixed to 1.0. This procedure is called unit variance constraints (Kline, 2011).

Additionally, the Lagrange Multiplier (LM) test was selected to identify sources of misfit. Specifically, the LM test was used to specify error covariance (PEE: Phi coefficient from

error to error). Misspecified covariance between error terms was checked to detect poor and multidimensional items. In this regard, error covariance within the same target factor could be interpreted as the amount of variance shared between a set of items and not accounted for by the given latent construct, which may indicate potentially poor items or even the need to consider the dimensionality of the given factor being specified.

Similarly, error covariance among indicators related to different factors may indicate measurement issues, specifically the multidimensionality of the observed variables under investigation. Univariate increment scores attained from the LM test were investigated to determine which parameters were significant and affecting the overall model fit to an unacceptable level. Parameterseligible for addition were added to subsequent models.

The Measurement Model

The Initial Measurement Model

After running CFAs for each latent construct separately and adding one construct at a time, the initial measurement model was constructed and run. Mardia's standardized coefficient was employed to assess the data's multivariate normality. According to Benteler (2006), a Mardia's standardized coefficient larger than five indicates the data are multivariate and non-normally distributed, and that a robust maximum likelihood method should be used. The result of this initial measurement model resulted in a standardized coefficient of 220, an indicator of multivariate non-normally distributed data (Bentler, 2006). Therefore, a robust maximum likelihood method was employed. As presented in Table 4.18, fit indices demonstrate that this measurement model was a poor fit (S-B χ 2 =

1759.703, df = 674, NFI = 0.801, NNFI = 0.847, CFI = .0861, RMSE = 0.063, with a confidence interval of (RMSEA) = 0.059 - 0.065).

The Lagrange Multiplier (LM) test was used to identify sources of misfit associated with error terms that needed to covary. The LM test indicated large, misspecified error covariance between items of the latent construct of Desire. The modification index of the error terms for those items was larger than those remaining. Specifically, the result showed the presence of a large mis-specified error covariance between Items 1 and 2 (I would enjoy attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival; I would have fun when I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival). In addition, a large misspecified error covariance was detected between Items 1 and 3 (Item 1: I would enjoy attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival; Item 3: I would like to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival). Furthermore, there was a large mis-specified error covariance between Items 2 and 3 (Item 2: I would have fun when I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival; Item 3: I would like to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival). The statistical evidence for the mis-specified covariance between error terms associated with those items indicated that there was a pattern of mis-specified error covariance among the error terms for those items, indicating a considerable amount of variance not accounted for by the same factor. Accordingly, a second-order factor was proposed to deal with such a situation. The new second-order factor was composed of the two sub-factors, the first factor (Item 1, Item 2, & Item 3), and the second factor (Item 4, Item 5, & Item 7). By examining the wordings of those items, it was obvious that the first factor items were about enjoyment (would enjoy, have fun, & would like). The second factor items were

more about wishes (hope, wish to, & eager). This provided extra justification for splitting Desire into two combined factors, using the second-order factor.

The LM test also indicated sources of misfit related to items of the latent construct of attitude. Specifically, the result showed the presence of a large mis-specified error covariance between Items 1 and 2 (Item 1: I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be fun; Item 2: I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be enjoyable). In addition, Items 3 and 5 had a large mis-specified error covariance (Item 3: I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be exciting; Item 5: I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be delightful). Furthermore, there was a large mis-specified error covariance between Items 3 and 6 (Item 3: I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be exciting; Item 6: I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be thrilling). In addition, results indicating an error covariance between Items 5 and 6 needed to be specified (Item 5: I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be delightful; Item 6: I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be thrilling). This error covariance among Items 3, 5, and 6 indicated a pattern of error covariance among those items, meaning there was a considerable amount of variance not accounted for by the same factor. Accordingly, it was decided to split the factor into two factors and add a second-order factor combining both. The new second-order factor is comprised of the two sub-factors - the first factor (Item 1, Item 2, & Item 7), and the second factor (Item 3, Item 5, & Item 6).

The LM test results also showed sources of misfit associated with behavioral intention. The results demonstrated that error terms associated with Items 1 and 3 should

be specified (Item 1: I will make an effort to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival; Item 3: I am planning to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival). In addition, Items 4 and 5 had a large mis-specified error covariance (Item 4: I will certainly invest time at the Spring Spirit Music Festival; Item 5: I will certainly invest money to the Spring Spirit Music Festival).

Additionally, the LM test indicated Item 4 (If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be angry), assessing negative anticipated emotion, had a large mis-specified error covariance with the other three items for the same construct. It was decided to delete the item (Item 4) as it was harming the fit significantly, and had shared variance with other items not accounted for by the latent construct - negative anticipated emotion. Similarly, the second item associated with the subjective norm (Most people who are important to me understand that I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival) had a large, mis-specified covariance with Items 1, 3, and 5. Consequently, it was decided to remove it. Furthermore, Item 4, associated with the latent construct of behavioral control (I have enough money to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival), was a source of misfit, having large error covariance with Items 5 and 1. A decision was also made to delete it if the model is run again.

The Revised Measurement Model

Issues identified with the initial measurement model were addressed by deleting poor items, adding error covariance as needed, and adding new second-order factors. The results of running the revised model demonstrated improvement in the model-fit indices.

Table 4.18 makes it clear that the measurement model fit indices still need some work (S-B $\chi 2 = 930.5607$, df = 605, NFI = 0.860, NNFI = 0.880, CFI = .890, RMSE = 0.052, confidence interval of (RMSEA) = 0.045 – 0.051).

The Final Measurement Model

All items with positive anticipated emotion had error covariance with each other, and with items on attitude factor. The correlation was high between the construct 0.91. A decision was made to remove the positive anticipated emotion construct for the next phase of the study. This was done to avoid potential suppression and multicollinearity issues associated with high correlation. The positive anticipated emotion construct was deleted rather than attitude, due to the number of error terms associated with covariance. After deleting items with error covariance and sources of misfit , the model was run again. Results indicated that all fit indices were of satisfactory level, an indication that the measurement model fit the data well. Table 4.18 demonstrates this (S-B χ 2 = 607.7991, df = 422, NFI = 0.940, NNFI = 0.977, CFI = .981, RMSE = 0.031, confidence interval of (RMSEA) = 0.026 – 0.037).

Table 4.18: Goodness-of-fit indicies of initial, revised, and final measurement models

	S-B χ2 (df)	NFI	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA	90% Confidence interval of (RMSEA)
Initial measurement model	1759.703 (674)	0.8	0.82	0.83	0.068	0.059 - 0.065
Revised measurement model	930.5607 (605)	0.86	0.88	0.89	0.052	0.045 - 0.051
Final measurement model	607.7991 (422)	0.94	0.98	0.98	0.031	0.026 - 0.037

Reliability and Validity

Kline (2011) suggests convergent and discriminant validities should be considered and confirmed when conducting CFA models. Convergent validity refers to the degree to which measurement items of a given construct share high common variance (Hair et al., 2010). Convergent validity helps researchers assess the strength of relationships between a single latent construct and the items theorized to represent that construct (Byrne, 2006). Accordingly, Byrne (2006) argues that the items theorized to represent a given construct must be strongly related to each other and represent only one factor.

Convergent validity for the final measurement model was confirmed using Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability (Rho), and the average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2010). In this regard, Cronbach's alpha relies on average loading between the latent construct and the items, assuming all load the same. On the other hand, composite reliability (Rho) does not assume loading equality. The value of these statistics exceeded the minimum recommended values of 0.7 for Cronbach's alpha and Rho, indicating sufficient internal consistency across all items in each construct (Hair et al., 2010) (see Table 4.19).

Table 4.19: CFA results for the final measurement model

Indicators and factors	Alpha (a)	Rho	AVE	Standardized loadings
F1: Desire1	0.933	0.933	0.82	
I would enjoy attending the Spring Spirit Music festival.				0.92
I would have fun when I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.9
I would like to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.9
F2:Desire2	0.935	0.935	0.83	
I hope to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.92
I wish to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.92
I am eager to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.89
F3: Behavioral Intention	0.97	0.979	0.87	
I will make an effort to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.94
I intend to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.94
I am planning to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.96
I will certainly invest time to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.92
I will certainly invest money to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.9
F4: Attitude	0.925	0.925	0.8	
I think attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival would be fun.				0.89
I think attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival would be enjoyable.				0.9
I think attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival would be a good				0.9
experience.				0.7
F5: Positive Emotion	0.935	0.936	0.78	
If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be excited.				0.86
If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be glad.				0.91
If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be satisfied.				0.85
If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be happy.				0.92

CFA results for the final measurement model (Cont.)

Indicators and factors	Alpha (a)	Rho	AVE	Standardized loadings
F6: Negative Emotion.	0.906	0.908	0.77	
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be sad.				0.87
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be disappointed.				0.96
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be upset.				0.79
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be angry.				
F7: Subjective Norms.	0.882	0.884	0.66	
Most people who are important to me support that I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.77
Most people who are important to me recommend attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.92
I think most people who are important to me will themselves attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.81
I think music festivals are popular among most people who are important to me.				0.73
F8: Behavioral Control	0.859	0.865	0.62	
Whether or not to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival is completely up to me.				0.72
I am capable of attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.91
I am confident that if I want, I can attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.9
I have enough time to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.				0.58
F9: Past behavior frequency	0.906	0.91	0.77	
How many times have you attended a music festival in the past 12 months?				0.75
How many times have you attended a music festival in the past 3 years?				1
How many times have you attended a music festival in the past 5 years?				0.87

Discriminant validity refers to the relationships among a given latent construct and other constructs (Byrne, 2006). Discriminant validity is established when the square root of AVE of each factor is greater than the correlations with other factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As indicated in Table 4.20, the AVE exceeded the correlation estimate for perceived behavioral control, negative anticipated emotion, and frequency of past behavior. This established the discriminant validity for those constructs.

As indicated by the results presented in Table 4.20, positive anticipated emotion, and negative and attitude (F5, F4 respectively) correlated highly. A decision was made to exclude positive anticipated emotion from the analysis, because attitude had less error covariance and provided the same effect with more parsimonious relationships.

Table 4.20: Factor correlation matrix and Average Variance Explained

	AVE	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
F1	0.822	0.907								
F2	0.801	0.921	0.91							
F3	0.801	0.733	0.798	0.932						
F4	0.791	0.811	0.805	0.673	0.897					
F5	0.784	0.802	0.801	0.71	0.93	0.885				
F6	0.768	0.548	0.59	0.576	0.527	0.533	0.876			
F7	0.657	0.562	0.548	0.565	0.527	0.581	0.44	0.811		
F8	0.623	0.41	0.473	0.44	0.434	0.445	0.274	0.309	0.79	
F9	0.773	0.125	0.132	0.156	0.151	0.151	0.11	0.178	0.12	0.88

a. The diagonal elements are the square root of the average variance extracted (the shared Variance between the factors and their items).

Note: F1= desire1, F2 = desire2, F3 = behavioral intention, F4 = attitude, F5 = positive anticipated emotion, F6 = negative anticipated emotion, F7 = subjective norm, F8 = perceived behavioral control, F9 = frequency of past behavior.

b. The off-diagonal elements are the correlations between factors.

Based on the CFA models run for this study and its validity tests, the following items were deleted:

- 1- Item 4 pertaining to the latent construct of negative anticipated emotion: "If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be angry".
- 2- Item 4 associated with the latent construct of behavioral control: "I have enough money to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival".
- 3- Items 3, 5, and 6 pertaining to the latent construct of attitude: "I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be exciting; I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be delightful; I think attending the Spring Music Festival would be thrilling". These items were included with the remaining items as part of the second order factor. However, they had significant error covariance, and correlated highly with other items on other factors. This affected the discriminant validity, so they were removed.
- 4- The latent construct of positive anticipated emotion. The construct had high correlation with attitude. The correlation was also higher than AVE, which demonstrated poor discriminant validity. It was therefore removed, as attitude items had less error covariance, which provided a more parsimonious model.

The Structural Model

After establishing the measurement properties for the latent constructs within the theoretical model using CFA, the MGB and the EMGB were run. This implies testing the effect of the three CSR initiatives along with the latent constructs of the MGB.MGB was completed first to test hypotheses pertaining to the study's theoretical model. This was followed by the EMGB, which added environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives.

The MGB

The structural equation model (SEM) is estimated using the maximum likelihood estimation under the assumption of multivariate normality for the data (Byrne, 2006). Mardia's standardized coefficient was used to assess the multivariate normality, with a coefficient (156.46) greater than the criteria of five, which indicated that the data were multivariate non-normally distributed (Byrne, 2006). As a result, a robust maximum likelihood method was used to estimate SEM for the MGB. As reflected in table 4.19, the MGB fit indices indicated the MGB fit the data well (S-B χ 2 =73.2929, df = 429, NFI = 0.934, NNFI = 0.940, CFI = 0.931,RMSEA = 0.038).

Hypotheses Testing

This study included age, gender, education, ethnicity, income, and marital status as control variables. Controlling for a variable is the attempt to reduce the effect of confounding variables on the outcome variable. This implies that when examining the effect of one variable, all other variables are held constant.

Dependent Variable: Desire

The results (see Table 4.21) indicated that attitude had a significant impact upon desire (B = 0.492, Z = 11.29). As a result, **H1d**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between attitude and desire, was accepted. Additionally, subjective norm was found to have a statistically significant impact on desire (B = 0.115, Z = 4.19). As a result, **H1e**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship

between subjective norm and desire, was accepted. Similarly, negative anticipated emotion was found to have a positive, significant impact on desire (B = 0.108, Z = 4.40). Therefore, **H1g**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between negative anticipated emotion and desire, was accepted.

Table 4.21: Parameter estimates of the MGB

	Hypotheses	В	Beta	Z-score	Test of hypotheses
H1d	$AT \rightarrow DE$	0.492	0.665	11.29 *	Accepted
H1e	$SN \rightarrow DE$	0.115	0.156	4.19 *	Accepted
H1g	$NAE \rightarrow DE$	0.108	0.146	4.44 *	Accepted
H1h	$PBC \to DE$	0.047	0.063	1.821	Rejected
H1i	$\text{FPB} \to \text{DE}$	-0.001	-0.001	-0.051	Rejected
H2d	$\mathrm{PBC} \to \mathrm{BI}$	0.173	0.115	2.88 *	Accepted
H2e	$\text{FPB} \to \text{BI}$	0.027	0.024	0.84	Rejected
Н3	$DE \rightarrow BI$	1.056	0.71	13.31 *	Accepted
\mathbb{R}^2	DE = 0.789			BI = 0.671	

Fit indices S-B $\chi 2$ =73.2929, df = 429, NFI = 0.934, NNFI = 0.940, CFI = 0.931, RMSEA = 0.038

Note: AT = Attitude; SN = Subjective Norm; PBC = Perceived Behavioral Control;

 $NAE = Negative \ Anticipated \ Emotion; \\ FPB = Frequency \ of \ Past \ behavior; \\ DE = Desire; \\ BI = Behavioral \ Intention$

^{*} significant at p < 0.05

Perceived behavioral control was not found to be statistically significant in predicting desires (B = 0,047, Z = 1.821). Thus, **H1h**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between perceived behavioral control and desire, was rejected. Frequency of past behavior did not have a significant direct impact on desire (B = -0.001, z = -0.051). Therefore, **H1i**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between frequency of past behavior and desire, was rejected.

Dependent Variable: Behavioral Intention

Perceived behavioral control was statistically significant in predicting behavioral intention (B = 0,173, Z = 2.880). Accordingly, **H2d**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention, was accepted. In addition, frequency of past behavior did not have a significant direct impact on behavioral intention (B = 0.029, Z = 0.840). Accordingly, **H2e** hypothesizing a positive relationship between frequency of past behavior and behavioral intention was rejected. The result indicated that desire had a positive significant impact on behavioral intention (B = 1.056, Z = 13.310). **H3**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between desire and behavioral intention, was accepted.

Mediation/Indirect Effect

Desire was hypothesized to act as a mediating variable in the MGB. The Sobel approach/test was used to assess the mediating/indirect effect, with results obtained from the EQS 6.3 software. The Sobel test provided by EQS does not specify the indirect

effect for each path, rather it provides the overall indirect effect for independent variables. However, in the hypothesized theoretical model, there was only a one-path mediation for latent constructs. Specifically, desire was theorized as the mediator variable in this study model. This implies that the reported Sobel test results would be the right ones to report.

The Sobel test results (see Table 4.22) indicated that attitude had a significant, indirect impact upon behavioral intention (B = 0.544, Z = 7.31). Thus, **H4d**, which hypothesized the relationship between attitude and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was accepted. The indirect relationship between subjective norm and behavioral intention was also statistically significant (B = 0.121, Z = 4.39). As a result, **H4e**, which hypothesized the relation between subjective norm and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was accepted. Additionally, negative anticipated emotion was found to have a significant indirect effect on behavioral intention (B = 0.123, Z = 3.86). Therefore, **H4g**, which hypothesized the relationship between negative anticipated emotion and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was accepted.

Furthermore, the results indicated that perceived behavioral control did not have a significant, indirect impact on behavioral intention ($B=0.049,\,Z=1.871$). Consequently, **H4h**, which hypothesized the relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was rejected. In addition, frequency of past behavior was found to had no significant, indirect impact on behavioral intention ($B=-0.001,\,Z=-0.051$). As a result, **H4i** hypothesizing that the relationship between frequency of past behavior and behavioral intention was mediated by desire, was rejected.

Table 4.22: Sobel test related to the MGB

	variables	Beta		Z-score	Hypotheses test
	$IV \rightarrow MV \rightarrow DV$				
H4d	$AT \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	0.548	0.548	7.31*	Accepted
H4e	$SN \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	0.121	0.112	4.39*	Accepted
H4g	$NAE \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	0.123	0.129	3.86*	Accepted
H4h	$PBC \to DE \to BI$	0.049	0.052	1.871	Rejected
H4i	$FPB \to DE \to BI$	-0.001	-0.003	-0.51	Rejected

^{*} significant at p < 0.05

Note: AT = Attitude; SN = Subjective Norm; PBC = Perceived Behavioral Control;

NAE = Negative Anticipated Emotion; FPB = Frequency of Past behavior; DE = Desire; BI

= Behavioral Intention

The results indicated that the MGB was effective in predicting the decision-making process of festival-goers. After successfully running the MGB, the next step was to run the EMGB and test the hypotheses pertaining to it.

Hypotheses testing for the EMGB

This study included age, gender, education, ethnicity, income, and marital status as control variables. To assess the multivariate normality for the data, Mardia's standardized coefficient was used. Mardia's coefficient was (172.12) greater than the criteria of five, which indicated that the data were multivariate non-normally distributed (Byrne, 2006). As a result, a robust maximum likelihood method was used to estimate SEM for the EMGB. As indicated in Table 4.23, the fit indices indicated that the EMGB fit the data very well (S-B χ 2 =797.1896, df = 492, NFI = 0.910, NNFI = 0.921, CFI = 0.910, RMSEA = 0.042).

The results (see Table 4.22) revealed that environmental CSR initiative did not have a significant impact on desire (B = 0.026, Z = 0.688). As a result, **H1a**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between environmental CSR initiative and desire, was rejected. Social CSR initiative also did not have a statistically significant impact on desire (B = .003, Z = 0.077). Therefore, **H1b**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between social CSR initiative and desire, was rejected. In addition, economic CSR did not have a significant impact on desire (B = 0.038, z = 0.984). Consequently, **H1c**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between economic CSR initiative and desire, was rejected.

The results indicated that attitude had a significant main impact upon desire (B = 0.492, z = 11.36). As a result, **H1d**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between attitude and desire, was accepted. Additionally, subjective norm was found to have a statistically significant impact on desire (B = 0.115, Z = 4.19). As a result, **H1e**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between subjective norm and desire, was accepted. Similarly, negative anticipated emotion was found to have a positive, significant impact on desire (B = 0.107, Z = 4.40). Therefore, **H1g**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between negative anticipated emotion and desire, was accepted.

Perceived behavioral control was not found to be statistically significant in predicting desire (B = 0.047, Z = 1.846). Thus, **H1h**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between perceived behavioral control and desire, was rejected.

Frequency of past behavior did not have a significant direct impact on desire (B = 0.001, Z = -0.064). Therefore, **H1i**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between frequency of past behavior and desire, was rejected.

Table 4.23: Parameter estimates of the EMGB

	Hypotheses	В	Beta	Z-score	Test of hypotheses
H1a	Env CSR \rightarrow DE	0.026	0.017	0.688	Rejected
H1b	$Soc\ CSR \to DE$	0.003	0.002	0.077	Rejected
H1c	Eco CSR \rightarrow DE	0.038	0.026	0.984	Rejected
H1d	$AT \rightarrow DE$	0.492	0.665	11.36 *	Accepted
H1e	$SN \rightarrow DE$	0.115	0.155	4.19 *	Accepted
H1g	$NAE \rightarrow DE$	0.107	0.145	4.40 *	Accepted
H1h	$PBC \rightarrow DE$	0.047	0.064	1.846	Rejected
H1i	$FPB \rightarrow DE$	-0.001	-0.001	-0.064	Rejected
H2a	Env CSR \rightarrow BI	0.128	0.057	1.98 *	Accepted
H2b	$Soc\ CSR \to BI$	-0.025	-0.011	-0.390	Rejected
H2c	Eco CSR \rightarrow BI	-0.013	-0.006	-0.200	Rejected
H2d	$PBC \rightarrow BI$	0.172	0.153	2.88 *	Accepted
H2e	$FPB \rightarrow BI$	0.290	0.026	0.930	Rejected
Н3	$DE \rightarrow BI$	1.106	0.730	13.70 *	Accepted
\mathbb{R}^2	DE = 0.796			BI = 0.683	

Fit indices S-B $\chi 2$ =797.1896, df = 492, NFI = 0.910, NNFI = 0.921, CFI = 0.910 RMSEA = 0.042

Note: AT = Attitude; SN = Subjective Norm; PBC = Perceived Behavioral Control;

NAE = Negative Anticipated Emotion; FPB = Frequency of Past behavior; DE = Desire; BI = Behavioral Intention; env CSR = environmental CSR, soc CSR = social CSR, econ CSR = economic CSR

^{*} significant at p < 0.05

Dependent Variable: Behavioral Intention

The results of the structural model revealed that environmental CSR initiative had a positive, significant impact on behavioral intention (B = 0.128, Z = 1.89); thus **H2a**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between environmental CSR initiative and desire, was accepted. The results indicated that social CSR initiative had no significant impact on behavioral intention (B = -0.025, Z = -0.391). Therefore, **H2b**, hypothesizing a positive relationship between social CSR initiative and behavioral intention, was rejected. Economic CSR initiative had no significant impact on behavioral intention (B = -0.013, Z = -0.200). Therefore, **H2c**, which hypothesized a positive relationship between economic CSR initiative and behavioral intention, was rejected.

Perceived behavioral control was statistically significant in predicting behavioral intention (B = 0.172, Z = 2.88). Accordingly, **H2d**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention, was accepted. In addition, frequency of past behavior did not have a significant direct impact on behavioral intention (B = 0.29, Z = 0.930). Accordingly, **H2e**, hypothesizing a positive relationship between frequency of past behavior and behavioral intention, was rejected. The result indicated that desire had a positive significant impact on behavioral intention (B = 1.106, z = 13.70). **H3**, which hypothesized a positive, significant relationship between desire and behavioral intention, was accepted.

Mediation/Indirect Effect

In order to assess the mediation effect that desire exerted on the relationships between independent variables and behavioral intentions, the Sobel test was employed. The results of the Sobel test were obtained from EQS software. Sobel test results (see Table 4.24) indicated that environmental CSR initiative did not have a significant indirect effect on behavioral intention (B = 0.029, Z = 0.690). As a result, **H4a**, which hypothesized the relationship between environmental CSR initiative and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was rejected. Similarly, results indicated that social CSR initiative did not have a significant indirect effect on behavioral intention (B = 0.003, D = 0.080). Accordingly, **H4b**, which hypothesized the relationship between social CSR initiative and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was rejected.

Table 4.24: Sobel test for the EMGB

variables $IV \rightarrow MV \rightarrow DV$	В	Beta	Z-score	Hypotheses test
$ENV \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	0.029	0.011	0.69	Rejected
$SOC \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	0.003	0.001	0.08	Rejected
$ECON \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	0.042	0.026	0.97	Rejected
$AT \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	0.548	0.548	7.30*	Accepted
$SN \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	0.121	0.112	4.35*	Accepted
$NAE \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	0.123	0.129	3.91*	Accepted
$PBC \to DE \to BI$	0.052	0.052	1.89	Rejected
$\overline{\text{FPB} \to \text{DE} \to \text{BI}}$	-0.001	-0.003	-0.06	Rejected

^{*} significant at p < 0.05

Note: AT = Attitude; SN = Subjective Norm; PBC = Perceived Behavioral Control;

NAE = Negative Anticipated Emotion; FPB = Frequency of Past behavior; DE = Desire; BI = Behavioral Intention; env = environmental CSR, soc CSR = social CSR, econ = economic CSR

Similarly, results indicated that economic CSR initiative did not have a significant indirect effect on behavioral intention (B = 0.003, Z = 0.080). As a result, **H4c**, which hypothesized the relationship between environmental CSR initiative and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was rejected. The results indicated that attitude had a significant, indirect impact upon behavioral intention (B = 0.548, Z = 7.30). Thus, **H4d**, which hypothesized the relationship between attitude and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was accepted. The indirect relationship between subjective norm and behavioral intention was also statistically significant (B = 0.121, Z = 4.35). As a result, **H4e**, which hypothesized the relationship between subjective norm and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was accepted. Additionally, negative anticipated emotion was found to have a significant indirect effect on behavioral intention (B = 0.123, Z = 3.91). Therefore, **H4g**, which hypothesized the relationship between negative anticipated emotion and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was accepted.

Furthermore, the results indicated that perceived behavioral control did not have a significant, indirect impact on behavioral intention (B = 0.052, Z = 1.89). Consequently, **H4h**, which hypothesized the relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was rejected. In addition, frequency of past behavior was found to have no significant, indirect impact on behavioral intention (B = -0.001, Z = -0.051). As a result, **H4i**, hypothesizing a relationship between frequency of past behavior and behavioral intention mediated by desire, was rejected.

In summay, the results revealed that both the MGB and the EMGB were effective in predicting the decision-making process of festival-goers. Specifically, they were effective in predicting desire and behavioral intention, and desire acted as a mediating variable as theorized by the MGB. Table 4.25 and Figure 4.2 summarize the research questions pertaining to the models used in this study and their corresponding hypotheses.

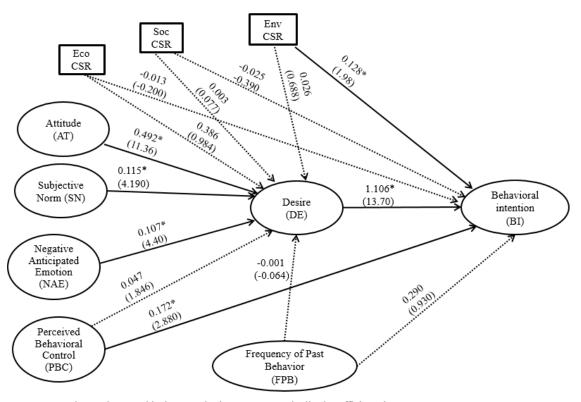
Table 4.25: Models, research questions, and their corresponding hypotheses

Research question	<u>n</u>				
The experiment	MGB	EMGB	Hypothesis	Relationship	Result
Q1a		Q3a	H1a	Env CSR \rightarrow DE	Rejected*
Q1b		Q3a	H1b	Soc CSR \rightarrow DE	Rejected
Q1c		Q3a	H1c	Eco CSR \rightarrow DE	Rejected
	Q2a	Q3a	H1d	$AT \rightarrow DE$	Accepted
	Q2a	Q3a	H1e	$SN \rightarrow DE$	Accepted
	Q2a	Q3a	H1g	$NAE \rightarrow DE$	Accepted
	Q2a	Q3a	H1h	$PBC \rightarrow DE$	Rejected
	Q2a	Q3a	H1i	$FPB \rightarrow DE$	Rejected
Q1d		Q3b	H2a	Env $CSR \rightarrow BI$	Accepted
Q1e		Q3b	H2b	Soc CSR \rightarrow BI	Rejected
Q1f		Q3b	H2c	Eco CSR \rightarrow BI	Rejected
	Q2b	Q3b	H2d	$PBC \rightarrow BI$	Accepted
	Q2b	Q3b	H2e	$FPB \rightarrow BI$	Rejected
	Q2b	Q3b	Н3	$DE \rightarrow BI$	Accepted
		Indirect ef	fect		
Q1g		Q3c	H4a	$ENV \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	Rejected
Q1g		Q3c	H4b	$SOC \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	Rejected
Q1g		Q3c	H4c	$ECON \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	Rejected
	Q2c	Q3c	H4d	$AT \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	Accepted
	Q2c	Q3c	H4e	$SN \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	Accepted
	Q2c	Q3c	H4g	$NAE \rightarrow DE \rightarrow BI$	Accepted
	Q2c	Q3c	H4h	$PBC \to DE \to BI$	Rejected
	Q2c	Q3c	H4i	$FPB \to DE \to BI$	Rejected

Note: AT = Attitude; SN = Subjective Norm; PBC = Perceived Behavioral Control;

 $NAE = Negative \ Anticipated \ Emotion; FPB = Frequency \ of \ Past \ behavior; DE = Desire; BI = Behavioral \ Intention; env = environmental \ CSR, soc \ CSR = social \ CSR, econ = economic \ CSR$

^{*} The hypothesis was accepted with the analysis of the experiment, however when environemntal CSR initiative was added to the MGB, the variable lost its significant effect on desire



Note: a. The numbers outside the parenthesis represent standardized coefficient, the numbers in parenthesis indicate Z-value.

b. *p < 0.05

c. Covariance relationships between exogenous variables are not shown for clarity

Figure 4.2: Results of the EMGB

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Discussion

Previous chapters outlined the experiment's approach, its results, CFAs, and structural equation models. This chapter discusses experiment findings and implications. Conclusions, limitations, and future research directions are discussed.

The study's goal was to examine the effect of different CSR initiatives (environmental, social, and economic) on the decision-making process of festival-goers (desire and behavioral intention). Specifically, the study extended the MGB by incorporating new constructs of environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives to the existing model, which provided a better conceptual framework for studying the decision-making process within the context of music festivals. Hypotheses and their corresponding sub-hypothesis were developed and tested, and empirical results of the proposed model provided statistical evidence that CSR initiatives influenced festival-goer behavioral intentions, to some extent.

The results indicated that environmental CSR initiative had a significant effect on the decision-making process of festival-goers. Specifically, environmental CSR initiative had a positive impact on desire and behavioral intention to attend music festivals. The effect of environmental CSR initiative on behavioral intention was consistent across the experiment and the EMGB. However, the effect of environmental CSR initiative on desire was not consistent. The analysis revealed that environmental CSR initiative had a

significant, small effect on desire, however when combined with the MGB, environmental CSR initiative lost its significant effect on desire. This indicated that the effect of environmental CSR initiative upon desire was dependent on and sensitive to the differences among respondents related to their attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and frequency of past behavior. This study revealed that the relationships between environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives and behavioral intention were not mediated by desire.

The influence of environmental CSR initiatives on consumer behavioral intentions was recognized by previous studies. Manaktola and Jauhari (2007) indicated that the green activities of hotels positively affected behavioral intention to visit those hotels. Liu et al. (2014) indicated that environmental CSR initiatives positively affected brand preference. In addition, green hotel images can result in favorable behavioral intentions by hotel guests, including an intention to revisit (Lee et al., 2010; Manaktola & Juahri, 2007). In the same vein, (Berezan et al., 2013) found that green hotel practices had a positive relationship on guests' satisfaction levels and return intentions for different nationalities. In the context of tours, Marchoo et al. (2014) highlighted that eco-labelling positively affected tour booking intentions.

This study revealed that social and economic CSR initiatives did not have a significant impact on both desire and behavioral intention. Results were also not in agreement with several studies that have confirmed the significance of social CSR initiatives (Murray and Vogel, 1997; Ricks, 2005). Murray and Vogel (1997) indicated that corporate CSR activities tailored to societal issues could positively affect people's

impression of businesses and their image. Similarly, an experiment with undergraduate students revealed that philanthropic activities enhance businesses' brand association (Ricks, 2005).

Regarding economic CSR initiative, previous studies revealed inconsistent results on the effect of economic CSR activities on consumer responses. Kim et al. (2017) found that economic CSR activities predicted a positive businesses image, though it had no significant impact on behavioral intention to revisit a gaming company. A study conducted by Xiao, Heo, and Lee (2017) revealed that economic CSR initiatives had a significantly negative effect on behavioral intention. Podnar and Golob (2007) indicated that economic CSR has insignificant effects upon CSR support by consumer.

These results shed further light on the controversy and inconsistency associated with adopting CSR initiatives and sustainability initiatives. Findings from past research on the effect of CSR initiatives on the responses of consumers have been inconsistent. While previous studies have revealed that CSR initiatives had a significant effect on behavioral intention (purchase intention) (Deng & Xu, 2017; Klein & Dawar, 2004; Marchoo et al., 2014), several authors claim that CSR initiatives do not have a significant impact on behavioral intention and that other factors, including price, quality, brand, and styles are far more important and influential than ethical responsibility (Carrigan & Attala, 2001; Iwanow et al., 2005; Memery et al., 2005). Consumers' purchase intentions, which are primarily determined by traditional factors such as price and quality, has started to be influenced by CSR, and the degree of these effects varies in different economies and cultural contexts (Ramasamy & Yeung, 2009).

Literature on ethical decision-making (Jones, 1991; Robin, Reidenbach, & Forrest, 1996) may provide insights for explaining the discrepancy pertaining to the effect of CSR initiatives upon consumer responses, and the presence of differences among different types of CSR initiatives. The traditional ethical decision-making model (Jones, 1991; Robin et al., 1996) proposes that the ethical behavior of people has four distinct steps: (1) recognition of the ethical issue, (2) judgment with reference to that ethical issue, (3) establishing the ethical intent, (4) engaging in the ethical behaviors. The model resists that ethical decision-making is progressive, implying that awareness of the presence of an ethical issues/problem is a prerequisite to initiate the process of ethical decision-making (Street, Douglas, Geiger, & Martinko, 2001). Ethical judgment refers to the degree to which a person perceives an issue or action as unethical (Robin et al., 1996).

A person's ethical decision-making is related to the extent to which an individual perceives or is aware of an ethical issue (Street et al., 2001). According to a qualitative study conducted by Pomering and Dolnicar (2009), consumers, in general, have a low level of awareness about different CSR initiatives adopted by businesses. Consequently, in the tourism context, it is the level of tourists' awareness of ethical issues that stimulates his/her responsible tourist behavior (Chiappa, Grappi, & Romani, 2016). This may provide an explanation for the differences revealed between the effect of environmental, social, and economic CSR initiative on the desire and behavioral intention of festival-goers. Specifically, it seemed that festival-goers cared more about the environmental issues when compared to social and economic issues related to CSR

activities adopted by music festival. This was reflected with the descriptive statistics of the data (see Table 5.1), whereas environmental issues were rated as more important when deciding to attend a music festival, compared to social and economic issues. This could be due to, in part, the importance of environmental issues globally, intense media coverage of environmental issues such as climate change, and the immediate results of environmental CSR initiatives, which may help explain the significant effect that environmental CSR has on the decision-making process. In the same vein, Fatma, Rahman, and Khan (2016) indicated that tourists assigned more importance to environmental CSR initiatives than their social and economic counterparts.

Table 5.1: The importance of different music festival attributes

Items	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
The types of music played at the festival.	6.42	0.74	-1.642	4.628
The bands playing at the festival.	6.21	0.90	-1.328	2.135
The ticket price for the festival.	6.12	1.02	-1.571	3.193
The location of the festival.	6.09	0.99	-1.591	4.38
Amenities provided at the festival.	5.63	1.07	-1.038	1.851
The reputation of the festival.	5.61	1.41	-1.205	0.972
Entertainment other than music provided at the festival.	5.07	1.38	-0.671	0.057
The image of the festival	4.98	1.40	-0.697	0.373
The environmental sustainability of the festival.	4.63	1.56	-0.526	-0.269
The economic benefits to the local community resulted from the festival.	4.21	1.53	-0.537	-0.301
The festival relationships with the local community.	4.01	1.50	-0.637	-0.101

Note: Responses range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)

Study results were consistent with previous research, which indicated individual tourists do not place the same level of importance on economic, socio-cultural, and

environmental aspects of responsible tourism (Chiappa et al., 2016; Stanford, 2008; Weeden, 2011). Specifically, tourist attitudes or behavioral intentions towards ethical issues differs based on varying levels of ethical values or concerns that they attach to issues (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2008). Gao, Huang, and Zhang (2017) assert that tourists assign different levels of importance regarding ethical/responsible travel issues, with environmental aspects being ranked as the most important issue.

As indicated by Table 5.1 the three CSR initiatives were ranked as less important by festival-goers comparing to other attributes such as types of music, location and ticket prices. When it comes to buy a product – either tangible or intangible – consumers, including festival-goers, evaluate different classical product features such as price, quality, and convenience, as well as CSR activities offered by the businesses (Pomering & Dolincar, 2009). Furthermore, nature of the products, cost, and rewards (Belk, Devinney, & Eckhardt, 2005); and geographical distance, age, and consumption habits (Becchetti & Rosati, 2007) play different roles in forming attitudes and reactions towards different actions and types of CSR. This may provide, in part, some clues regarding the previous results, which indicated the effectiveness of environmental CSR in forming festival-goers' behavioral intentions, while social and economic CSR were less effective. Specifically, it seemed that festival-goers care more about environmental issues than social and economic issues related to CSR activities adopted by the music festival. This could be due in part to the importance of environmental issues globally, intense media coverage of environmental issues such as climate change, and the immediate results of environmental CSR initiatives. According to the ethical decision-making model, if

festival-goers are more aware of environmental issues, they will judge those issues as being more important than social and economic issues. Another explanation for the difference among the three CSR initiatives could be attributed to the short time period of music festival operations, as festival-goers may underestimate the event's real social, cultural, and economic effects, whereas environmental impacts – either positive or negative – would be more visible.

Study findings concerning the MGB and EMGB were consistent with previous studies of the relationships among variables (Lee et al., 2012; Meng & Choi, 2016; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Song et al., 2012), and validated these models in explaining the decision-making process of festival-goers. The EMGB provided a comprehensive framework for explaining the decision-making process, by providing different set of variables used to predict desire and behavioral intentions. Those variables represented cognitive, affective, past experience and socially-environmentally oriented activities adopted by music festivals.

In particular, the study revealed that attitude, negative anticipated emotion, and subjective norm played important roles in forming desire to attend the music festival, which in turn led to behavioral intention to attend. In addition, perceived behavioral control and desire were found to also be significantly predictive variables for behavioral intention. Attitude was the most important predictor of desire in the decision-making process. Desire was the most important determinant of the behavioral intention in the decision-making process. This results were confirmed by previous studies (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Preswich, Perugini, & Hurling, 2008; Lee et al., 2012; Song et al., 2012).

The results indicated that perceived behavioral control is not effective in creating a desire to attend a music festival. However, results demonstrated that perceived behavioral control is an effective factor in forming behavioral intention to attend music festivals. This result was confirmed through several MGB studies, which revealed that perceived behavioral control is a significant factor in intention formation (Lee et al., 2012; Song et al., 2014; Song et al., 2012;). The study indicated that the frequency of past behavior did not have a statistically significant effect upon desire and behavioral intention. This could be explained by referring to the screening questions at the beginning of the questionnaire. People who have never attended a music festival were screened out at the beginning of the questionnaire.

Conclusion

This study examined the effect of different CSR initiatives (environmental, social, and economic) on the decision-making process of festival-goers. Specifically, the study extended the MGB by incorporating these new constructs into the model. The effect of adding these different types of CSR initiatives was examined by means of an online survey-embedded experiment – a scenario-based, factorial design involving the manipulated variables of environmental, social, and economic CSR initiatives.

Results indicated that environmental CSR initiatives were an effective variable in the decision-making process. Specifically, environmental CSR was found to play an effective role in forming desire and a behavioral intention to attend a music festival. The effect of environmental CSR on desire was not consistent across the experiment and the

EMGB; however, it became significant when the experiment was run and analyzed. That said, when the experiment was combined with the MGB, the effect of environmental CSR on desire was insignificant. The results revealed that economic and social CSR had no effect on behavioral intention to attend music festivals.

The results of this current study validated both the MGB, and the EMGB in explaining the decision-making process of festival-goers. Specifically, the results indicated that attitude, negative emotions and subjective norm were effective in forming the desire to attend a music festival, which, in turn, affected person's behavioral intention to attend. However, perceived behavioral control and frequency of past behavior were not significant predictors of desire. Instead, perceived behavioral control and desire were effective in forming a person's behavioral intention to attend the music festival.

Overall, the proposed model (EMGB) used in this study is believed to provide a cohesive theoretical framework that enables researchers to study complex decision-making in the context of music festivals. The EMGB outperformed the MGB, providing slightly more explanatory power.

Theoretical Implications

This study contributed to the literature by investigating different types of CSR initiatives within the context of a music festival. The study attempted to fill the gaps in the literature with reference to tourism, event tourism, and consumer responses to CSR activities and initiatives. Moreover, this study included desire as a potential outcome for

different CSR initiatives. This study adopted a factorial experiment, which was finalized after conducting three pilot tests. The experimental design has been employed in a limited fashion in the tourism field (Fong et al., 2016). The experiment provides a novel way of operationalizing the three pillars of sustainability, and the study confirmed that each type of CSR initiative had a different effect upon behavioral intention, indicating the validity of dealing with those CSR initiatives as related, but distinct constructs. Another important contribution was that this study successfully combined experimental design with correlational study, which provides a new framework that includes emotional states, rational thinking, and socially-environmentally-economically responsible business practices. The study also validated the extension of the MGB by incorporating the three CSR initiatives.

Practical Implications

This study provided evidence that environmental CSR initiatives played a significant role in the decision-making process of festival-goers. Specifically, environmental CSR initiatives exerted a significant impact on behavioral intention towards visiting music festivals, indicating that festivals with environmental CSR activities would be more appealing to those festival-goers. On the other hand, social and economic CSR seemed to have no significant impact on festival-goers' decision-making process. In this respect, it is suggested that music festivals prioritize the environmental aspects of its CSR initiatives and activities, and communicate those activities to current and potential festival-goers in an effective manner. On the business level, the role of

environmental CSR could be linked with the business case of CSR (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). The business case for CSR refers to financial and other reasons used to document and justify adopting CSR initiatives (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). The business case could be employed to convince festival organizers to invest more in this discipline, particularly in environmental considerations. This does not suggest that music festivals neglect other aspects or types of CSR, as CSR is, in its essence, a voluntary activity based on of altruistic values and motives. It is suggested that festivals also invest in social and economic CSR, and find ways to convey effective messages about those activities.

This study provided evidence supporting that attitude, desire, negative emotion, and subjective norm were effective in forming a desire to attend a music festival, which in turn affected a person's behavioral intention. This may indicate a need for positive images of the festival through different marketing communication channels. In addition, when using the subjective norm to form desire, it is important that festivals understand how perceptions and decisions could affect the individual decision-making process. Thus, group information could be relevant here. Subjective norm may also help festivals promote different types of CSR, through an increased understanding of the relation between CSR support and subjective norm for festivals with CSR credentials.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has several limitations that can be further examined in future research. The use of Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk) could affect the generalizability of the results, making it questionable whether the results obtained from a non-internet

population of festival-goers would be the same. For example, the study's sample population was not randomly assigned. Mturk is a tool that attracts people who seek financial rewards in exchange for their participation in studies, and for completing tasks (Callegaro et al., 2014). This may imply that the sample obtained for this study could be potentially biased towards a lower income online population, and may exclude a population of festival-goers who do not have an internet connection or are not enrolled members of crowdsourcing websites. Another limitation may be related to social desirability (King & Bruner, 2000). Social desirability refers to a tendency of respondents to respond to measurement items in a way that ensures their reactions are in line with how other people think and react (King & Bruner, 2000). This study screened the respondents out against their prevouis experience (during the last five years), this may have affected the results, as people with past experience may be more willing to attend music festivals. Future research could without as screening question pertaining to previous experience may provide different insights and results.

This study also used experimental design to test the effect of different CSR initiatives on desire and behavioral intention. The artificial atmosphere created for this study may also have affected its results. Future research adopting quasi-experiment and correlational study designs, combined with qualitative inquiry, would provide a more indepth explanation of results. Quasi-experiments have more external validity, and less internal validity, while a qualitative study would help provide a deeper understanding of statistical data.

There is a need to include additional variables when testing the effect of CSR on different consumer outcomes such as trust and personal value. For example, perceived value related to CSR is a potential area for further investigation. Values related to CSR from a consumer perspective remains an under-developed area of research within tourism and the business literature as whole (Peloza & Shang, 2011).

Future research that examines the effect of CSR initiatives in different types of festivals is warranted. It is believed that perceptions of importance and priorities assigned by festival-goers will be different, according to different festival types. For example, food festival attendees may prioritize CSR initiatives related to food production and waste management. There is also a need to examine CSR initiatives within different sectors of the tourism industry, such as tour operations, attractions, and cruise sector. A potential area of future research would be to examine the relationships between different psychological traits and travel-related habits, and their response to CSR initiatives. These characteristics may include travel history and personality types, as well as effects of other people (reference group). Local people reponses to and perceptions of different CSR initiatives is also a potential area of future research.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

IRB Compliance Email

Dear Dr. Norman.

The Clemson University Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed the protocol identified above using exempt review procedures and a determination was made on August 11, 2016 that the proposed activities involving human participants qualify as Exempt under category B2 based on federal regulations 45 CFR 46. Your protocol will expire on 02/28/2017.

The expiration date indicated above was based on the completion date you entered on the IRB application. If an extension is necessary, the PI should submit an Exempt Protocol Extension Request

form, http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/forms.html, at least three weeks before the expiration date. Please refer to our website for more information on the extension

procedures, http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/guidance/reviewprocess.ht ml.

No change in this approved research protocol can be initiated without the IRB's approval. This includes any proposed revisions or amendments to the protocol or consent form. Any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects, any complications, and/or any adverse events must be reported to the Office of Research Compliance immediately. All team members are required to review the IRB policies on "Responsibilities of

Principal Investigators" and "Responsibilities of Research Team Members" available

at http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/regulations.html.

The Clemson University IRB is committed to facilitating ethical research and

protecting the rights of human subjects. Please contact us if you have any questions and

use the IRB number and title in all communications regarding this study.

Sincerely,

Elizabeth

B. Elizabeth Chapman '03, MA, CACII

IRB Coordinator

Clemson University

Office of Research Compliance

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

223 Brackett Hall

Voice: (864) 656-6460

Fax: (864) 656-4475

E-mail: <u>bfeltha@clemson.edu</u>

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IRB Extension Approval

Dear Dr. Norman,

The Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) reviewed your

extension request using exempt review procedures and a determination was made on

November 21, 2016 that the proposed activities involving human participants continue to

qualify as **Exempt under category B2**, based on the federal regulations 45 CFR

46. Your protocol will expire on February 28, 2018.

No change in this approved research protocol can be initiated without the IRB's

approval. This includes any proposed revisions or amendments to the protocol or consent

form. Any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects, any complications, and/or

any adverse events must be reported to the ORC immediately.

The Clemson University IRB is committed to facilitating ethical research and

protecting the rights of human subjects. Please contact us if you have any questions and

use the IRB number and title in all communications regarding this study.

I wish you the best with your study.

Sincerely,

Elizabeth

B. Elizabeth Chapman, MA, CACII

IRB Coordinator

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Appendix B

Participation Invitation

Dear Sir/Madam

You are invited to participate in a research study about festival-goers' attitudes towards and opinions about music festivals. The study will include a hypothetical scenario describing a music festival.

To take part in this study you must be 18 years old or older, reside in USA, and have attended a music festival in the past five years. It should ta you about 10-11 minutes to complete.

To be compensated, you must follow instructions, correctly answer randomly placed attention check items, and respond thoughtfully to all questions. Participants who finish the survey faster than the predetermined minimum completion time (4 minutes) will not be compensated. Please do not complete this survey more than once.

Instructions

Step 1. Please read all the instructions and information shown in the study thoroughly. You will be presented with a hypothetical scenario about a music festival, please read it thoroughly. The survey questions will be related to the scenario. You will be presented with two attention check items located randomly throughout the survey to ensure that you are paying attention.

Step 2. Access the study with the link provided below.

Step 3. Please enter the survey code below to indicate that you have participated and completed the study so you can be paid.

Make sure to leave this window open as you complete the survey. When you are finished, you will return to this page to paste the code into the box.

Appendix C

Cover Letter

Information about Being in a Research Study Clemson University

The Decision Making Process of Festival-goers: Insights from a Survey-embedded Experiment.

Description of the Study and Your Part in It

Dr. William C. Norman and Yahya Alzghoul are inviting you to take part in a research study. Dr. William C. Norman is a Professor at Clemson University. Yahya Alzghoul is a graduate student at Clemson University, running this study with the help of Dr. William C. Norman. The purpose of this research is to examine the festival-goers' attitudes and behaviors with regards to music festivals.

Your part in the study will be to read the scenario about the Spring Spirit Music Festival and then complete the questionnaire. It will take you about 10-15 minutes to be in this study.

Risks and Discomforts

We do not know of any risks or discomforts to you in this research study.

Possible Benefits

We do not know of any way you would benefit directly from taking part in this study. However, this research may help us to better understand festival-goers' opinions about attitudes towards music festivals, which in turn helps planner and service providers provide better music festivals.

Protection of Privacy and Confidentiality

If you choose to participate in this study, your individual responses will be kept confidential and there will be no way to trace any individual responses to you.

Choosing to Be in the Study

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may choose not to take part and you may choose to stop taking part at any time. You will not be punished in any way if you decide not to be in the study or to stop taking part in the study.

Contact Information

If you have any questions or concerns about this study or if any problems arise, please contact Dr. William C. Norman at Clemson University at 864-617-3582.

If you have any questions or concerns about your rights in this research study, please contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at 864-656-0636 or irb@clemson.edu. If you are outside of the Upstate South Carolina area, please use the ORC's toll-free number, 866-297-3071.

Clicking on the "agree" button indicates that:

- · You have read the above information
- · You voluntarily agree to participate
- · You are at least 18 years of age

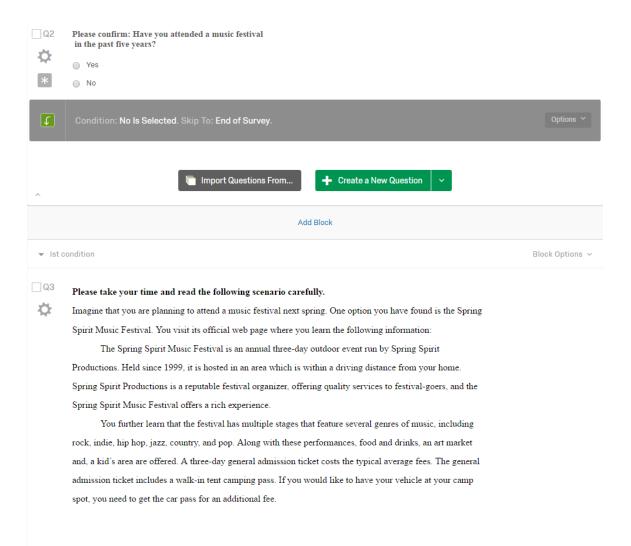
You may print a copy of this informational letter for your files.

Do you agree to participate in this study?

- lagree
- I do not agree

Appendix D

The Questionnaire





The festival organizer is committed to protecting the environment. Recycling and compost bins are available and clearly marked, solar panels provide approximately one-fifth of the power needed for the event, and there are multiple free water refilling stations to reduce the use of plastic bottles. In addition, the festival organizer encourages carpooling.

The festival organizer has a commitment to being a good neighbor to the local community. In this regard, it supports several community initiatives such as the development of hiking trails, community art centers, and renovation of local schools. In addition, it offers free music lessons, partners with non-profit organizations, and supports youth activities.

The festival organizer is committed to increasing the economic benefits for the local community through hiring locals and contracting local craft, merchandise, and food vendors. Further, it purchases as much foods, goods, and supplies as possible locally and encourages vendors to do the same. In addition, it participates in the yearly regional marketing campaigns.



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Q51

Please read and answer the following questions carefully keeping in mind to respond as if you are the festival-goer who is considering the Spring Spirit Music Festival. Some of the questions may appear to be similar but they are all gathering slightly different information.



1. Based on the scenario you have read above, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements regarding the Spring Spirit Music Festival. Please choose one answer for each statements.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
The description of the Spring Spirit Music Festival is realistic.							
This type of music festival probably occurs in real life.							
The Spring Spirit Music Festival is an environmentally responsible festival.		0		0		0	
The Spring Spirit Music Festival respects and protects the environment.	0	0	0	0			
The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes and provides several community initiatives and services.	0	0	0	0			
The Spring Spirit Music Festival is committed to serving the local community beyond the mere profit generation.	0	0	0	0			
The Spring Spirit Music Festival increases the economic benefits for the local community by hiring local workers and vendors.	0	0	0	0			
The Spring Spirit Music Festival promotes the use of local goods and services.	0	0	0	0		0	0

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Mather										
				Neither agree						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree			
I would enjoy attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
I would have fun when I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	0			0	0	0	0			
I would like to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	0			0	0	0	0			
I hope to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.										
I wish to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.										
Please answer disagree										
I am eager to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	0									

3. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements regarding your intention to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival. Please choose one answer for each statement.

__ Q53

Q

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I will make an effort to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.		0	0	0	0	0	0
I intend to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.							
I am planning to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.		0	0	0	0		
I will certainly invest time to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.		0	0	0	0		
I will certainly invest money to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.		0	0	0	0		

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
think attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival would <u>be fun.</u>		0		0			0
think attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival would be enjoyable.				0			0
think attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival would be exciting.							0
think attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival would be interesting.							0
think attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival would be delightful.							0
I think attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival would be thrilling.		0				0	0
think attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival would be <u>a good experience.</u>						0	0
	the followin	ng statem	ents related	l to your e			
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	_				-	-	

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If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be glad.

If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be satisfied.

If I get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival,

I will be happy.

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	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewha	t Agree	Stron	
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be sad.				0		0		
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be disappointed.	0						0	
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be upset.	0			0		0	0	
If I do not get to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival, I will be angry.								
. Please indicate your level of agreement witl		ring state		ed to wha	nt people w			
7. Please indicate your level of agreement with important to you think about you attending th	the follow	ring state	ments relat	ed to wha	nt people w		for	
7. Please indicate your level of agreement witi important to you think about you attending tl each statement.	the follow	ring state	ments relat	ed to wha Please c	nt people w		for	
7. Please indicate your level of agreement with mportant to you think about you attending th	n the follow ne Spring S	ring state	ments relat sic Festival. Som	ed to what Please constitution Not a sewhat	nt people w hoose one a either agree nor Som	inswer i	for	Strongly
7. Please indicate your level of agreement with mportant to you think about you attending th	on the following Spring S	ring states pirit Mus ongly agree Dis	ments relat sic Festival Som agree disa	ed to wha Please c	nt people w hoose one a either agree nor Som sagree ag	inswer i		
7. Please indicate your level of agreement with mportant to you think about you attending the ach statement. Most people who are important to me support that attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival. Most people who are important to me understand	str dis	ongly agree Dis	ments relation Festival. Somagree disa	ed to what Please construction Not a sewhat gree dis	nt people w hoose one a either agree nor Som sagree a	inswer f	Agree	agree
7. Please indicate your level of agreement with important to you think about you attending the each statement. Most people who are important to me support tha	st l	ving stater pirit Mus ongly agree Dis	ments relatice Festival. Som agree disa	ed to what Please co	nt people w hoose one a either ggree nor Som sagree at	newhat	Agree	agree
7. Please indicate your level of agreement with mportant to you think about you attending the each statement. Most people who are important to me support the attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival. Most people who are important to me understand that I attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival. Most people who are important to me recommend	str dis	ongly agree Dis	som agree disa	Please cl	nt people w hoose one a either ggree nor Som sagree at	newhat gree	Agree	agree

people who are important to me. Please answer somewhat agree

 \bigcirc

 \bigcirc

8. Please indicate your level of agreement with the f Spring Spirit Music Festival. Please choose one ansv				your abi	lity to atten	d the	
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Whether or not to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival is completely up to me.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I am capable of attending the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I am confident that if I want, I can attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	0	0	0	0	0		0
I have enough money to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	0	0	0	0	0		0
I have enough time to attend the Spring Spirit Music Festival.	0		0		0		0

----- Page Break ------

9. How important are the following attributes when you choose a music festival to attend? Please choose one answer for each statement.

Q59

	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Somewhat unimportant	Neutral	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
The types of music played at the festival.	0						
The bands playing at the festival.							
Entertainment other than music provided at the festival.	0	0	0		0		
The image of the festival.							
The reputation of the festival.							
The ticket price for the festival.							
Amenities provided at the festival.							
The location of the festival.							
The environmental sustainability initiatives adopted by the festival.	0	0	0		0	0	0
The festival relationships with the local community.	0	0	0		0	0	0
The economic benefits to the local community resulted from the festival.	0	0	0	0	0		

Q60	10. Previous experiences with at	tending mu	sic festiva	ıls			
₩ W			Never	0	nce Twic	e Three time	More than three times
*	How many times have you attende music festival in the past 12 month		0		0 0	0	0
	How many times have you attende music festival in the past 3 years?				0 0	0	0
	How many times have you attende music festival in the past 5 years?				•	•	0
				Pa	ge Break – – –		
	11. Demographic characteristi	ics					
Q61	What is your gender?						
*	Male					Female	
	•					0	
	You were born in the year						
Q62	6						
*							
Q63	What is your ethnicity?						
\$	American White/ Indian/Native	Black/Africa	an				Other
*	Caucasian American	American	,	Asian	Hispanic/Latino	Pacific Islander	0

Q64	What is your ma	rtial status?						
\$	Single, never mar	ried	Married	Married with childre	n Separated/ D	ivorced Mar	ried with children	
*	0		•	0	•		0	
Q65	What is the high	est level of e	ducation you hav	re completed?				
#		Community						
*		College (Associated		University (Four-			Other	
	High School	Degree)	Some college	year Degree)	Master's Degree	Doctorate		
♥ Q66	What is your app Less than \$20, \$21,000 - \$39, \$40,000 - \$79 \$80,000 - \$99 \$100,000 - \$11 \$120,000 - \$13	,999 ,999 ,999 ,999 ,999 19,000	nual household	income?				
Q67	What is your M	Turk worke	er ID?					
\$				4				
*								

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