**[IJTR. REVISION]**

**Diaspora tourists' emotional experience**

ABSTRACT

This article attempts to empirically test a model to explain the hypothesized relationships between important constructs such as emotional experience, personal involvement, destination image, destination satisfaction, and place attachment as antecedents of the future intentions of mature/senior diaspora tourists. The hypothesized relationships were explored using a sample of 419 mature/senior diaspora tourists visiting Ghana. A three-step process was used to explore, confirm and test the interrelationships between the constructs. The results showed that emotional experiences related to joy and love influenced personal involvement. While other hypothesized relationships were supported, unpleasantness and positive surprise did not have a direct effect on personal involvement. Future studies can apply this model to understand other types of tourism.

KEYWORDS**:** diaspora tourism, emotional experience, involvement, place attachment, slavery

1. INTRODUCTION

The increasing research interest in diaspora tourism can be attributed to greater awareness of the social, cultural, and emotional bonding to a migrant or ancestral homeland (Huang, Ramshaw, & Norman, 2016; Li & McKercher, 2016a; Mathijsen, 2019; Otoo, Kim & Choi, 2021a; Weaver, Kwek, & Wang, 2017). However, little attention has been devoted to understanding the emotional experiences of diaspora travelers, despite anecdotal evidence that diaspora travel can arouse deep emotional responses related to a tragic past (Boateng, Okoe, & Hinson, 2018; Otoo, Kim, & King, 2021b).

There are some critical gaps in both scholarly and industry treatment of the diaspora tourism phenomenon to date. First, the experiences of diaspora tourists in the destinations visited have been largely ignored (Zou, Meng, & Li, 2021). As a result, studies have often conceptualized the diaspora experience as nostalgic, pleasant, or spiritual, all of which point to positive emotional evocations, even though experiences can involve negative perceptions (Huang, Haller, & Ramshaw, 2013; Mensah, 2015; Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2003; Song, Kim, & Choe, 2019). Second, there is a lack of understanding of the effect of visits to an ancestral homeland by the diaspora community. Some researchers believe that a visit to a "dark" diaspora tourism site, which is symbolic of death, suffering, or a gruesome past, can reinforce cultural and emotional stereotypes towards the perceived perpetrator or even the host (Cohen, 2011; Prayag, Suntikul, & Agyeiwaah, 2018). Thus, attending to emotional experiences at dark diaspora destinations is key to developing visitor and emotional management programs at diaspora tourism sites.

Third, the research on diaspora tourism lacks an empirical examination of the relationship between emotional experience, personal involvement, destination satisfaction, destination image,

place attachment and future intention. The majority of diaspora tourism studies have addressed immigration (Huang et al., 2016; Mathijsen, 2019), motivation (Prayag et al., 2018; Savinovic, Kim, & Long, 2012), ethnification (Lev Ari & Mittelberg, 2008; Xie, 2010), 'hiraeth' or longing (Godis & Nilsson, 2018; Morgan et al., 2003), and typology development (Li, McKercher, & Chan, 2019; Li & McKercher, 2016a). Few empirical studies have explored the affective and cognitive attributes of diaspora experiences or the evaluative attributes of diaspora travel. A recent empirical study by Zou et al. (2021) showed that emotional experiences were linked to both nostalgic memory and affective arousal. However, empirical evidence of pleasant (e.g., love, joy, positive surprise) and unpleasant emotions (Hosany, 2012) for diaspora tourism is not available. In addition, the complexity of the interrelationships between constructs, including personal involvement, destination image, destination satisfaction, place attachment and future intention, have been underexplored.

Fourth, existing studies have only researched a single construct (e.g., personal involvement) at a time rather than an integrated model accounting for the associations between multiple constructs (e.g., Huang et al., 2013; Weaver et al., 2017). As most studies were qualitatively driven, constructs such as emotional experience, personal involvement, and destination image were only conceptually explored. For diaspora tourism destinations to remain competitive, develop tour products and programs, and implement effective marketing strategies, it is crucial to understand the interrelationships between the affective/cognitive and evaluative constructs of emotional experience, personal involvement, destination image, place attachment, destination satisfaction, and future intention.

Taking into account the lack of empirical research on the structural relationships between the constructs of emotional experience, personal involvement, destination satisfaction,

destination image, place attachment, and future intention, the current study had four objectives: (1) to explore the multidimensional nature of emotional experience attributes and their role in understanding the personal involvement of diaspora tourists; (2) to examine the influence of personal involvement on diaspora tourists' destination satisfaction, destination image, and place attachment; (3) to explore the influence of diaspora tourists' destination satisfaction on future intention; and (4) to examine the structural relationship between place attachment and future intention among diaspora tourists. By exploring these objectives, this study (1) uncovers the applicability of emotional experience to understanding diaspora tourists' feelings of involvement and attachment and other destination assessment constructs; and (2) offers an indication of their significance as antecedents of future intention.

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1. Contextualization of diaspora tourism

Diaspora tourism includes the experiences that are consumed by and produced in a diasporic community during travel to their migrant or ancestral homelands (Coles & Timothy, 2004; Huang et al., 2016). As summarized by Huang et al. (2016, p. 60) diaspora tourism is linked to diverse tourism variants such as migrant tourism, heritage tourism, ethnic tourism, ancestral tourism, dark tourism, genealogy tourism, legacy tourism, pilgrimage tourism, roots-tourism and memory tourism. At its core, ancestral diaspora travel can recreate emotions and experiences from politically and socially turbulent times (Huang et al., 2016; Mensah, 2015). For many of the colonized global communities, however, diaspora tourism depicts the "complex institutional heritagization of the colonial past," now suffused with elements of tourism (Boukhris, 2017, p.684).

Diaspora tourism experiences in Africa are typically linked to events of the dark past of the transatlantic slave trade between the 16th and the 19th centuries (Boateng, Okoe, & Hinson, 2018; Otoo et al., 2021b). During this period, 10 to 12 million African people were transported, mainly to the Americas, predominantly from Angola (formerly Reino de Angola), Togo (formerly British Togoland), Benin (formerly French République du Bénin), and Ghana (formerly Gold Coast) (e.g., Yankholmes et al., 2009; Yankholmes & McKercher, 2015).

Within the context of this tragic past in Africa, a flood of mixed emotions engulfs the visiting diaspora tourist who comes face to face with the stark reminders of the transatlantic slave trade at a dark tourism destination (Abaka, 2012; Bruner, 1996; Boateng et al., 2018). The emotional experiences of diaspora tourists distinguish them from other tourists. To the diaspora tourist, a visit to a historic monument such as a slave castle is more than just pleasure – often it is an emotionally draining but necessary experience (Boateng, et al., 2018), and these emotions are also distinct from those of the locals. It is not surprising that in Ghana, locals observe that "African Americans become very emotional during visits to the castle and dungeons" (Bruner, 1996, p. 293). Evidently, the journey to the African homeland by those in the diaspora is often motivated by a longing to understand the experiences of their enslaved ancestors (Otoo et al., 2021a, b; Yankholmes & McKercher, 2015). Thus, the framework of the current study encapsulates the inherent link between diaspora tourism, emotional experience and African dark tourism.

2.2. Relationship between emotional experience and personal involvement

While emotions are often interchangeable with affect, emotion refers to a sociological expression of feelings expressed as personal experiences or states. Emotions tend to be self-

directed and influence subsequent decisions of individuals. By contrast, affect is a non-structured and non-organized response to interpretations of situations and occurs consciously or unconsciously. Thus, affect is 'extraneous' to the individual (Du Toit, 2014; Gorton, 2007; Grossberg, 1992). Emotions are valuable in travel decision-making (Huseynov, Costa Pinto, Maurer Herter & Rita, 2020; Prayag, Hosany, Muskat, & Del Chiappa, 2017; Prayag et al., 2018), inform the connections and meanings of visitor experience (Hosany, 2012; Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Knobloch, Robertson, & Aitken, 2017; Rahmani, Gnoth, & Mather, 2019; Santos, Ramos, & Almeida, 2017; Sharma & Nayak, 2018; Song et al., 2019), and are effective predictors of post-experience behavior (Lee, 2016; Otoo, Badu-Baiden, & Kim, 2019). The consequences of emotional experiences can be seen in how they influence attitudes and behaviors.

Emotional experience refers to a complex blend of intense personal feelings arising from cognitive experiences observed through mental states, biological reactions, and socio-psychological expressions; the latter enacted through interactions with one's environment (Lee, 2016; Prayag et al., 2017; Turner, 2009). The literature offers important clues to the complexity of tourists' emotional experiences. First, both positive and negative emotions can result from a tourist experience (Huseynov et al., 2020; del Bosque & San Martín, 2008; Nawijn, Isaac, Gridnevskiy, & Van Liempt, 2018; Otoo et al., 2019; Song et al., 2019).

Second, emotion theories present emotional experience as a multivalent, multi-dimensional construct (Hosany & Prayag, 2012; Prayag, Hosany, & Odeh, 2013; Zatori, Smith, & Puczko, 2018). Emotions are ubiquitous and indispensable to the tourism experience. Tourism researchers have conceptualized and validated the dimensions of tourist emotional experiences as

love, joy, positive surprise, and unpleasantness (Hosany, 2012; Lee & Kyle, 2013; Prayag et al., 2017).

The experience of joy represents a feeling of pleasant outcomes elicited by progression towards a goal (Lee & Kyle, 2013; Prayag et al., 2017). Joy produces a sense of achievement, confidence, and control, thereby resulting in a higher sense of involvement with little effort while reducing the sense of loss (Tong, 2015). Joy is composed of feelings of delight, pleasure, enthusiasm, joy, and cheerfulness.

Love is an emotional predisposition to think, feel, behave and express passion towards a person or object (Rubin, 1970). For tourism researchers, love represents the degree of passionate emotional bonding to a destination or tourism product (Hosany, 2012; Lee & Kyle, 2013). Love is composed of sentiments such as affection, tenderness, caring, love, and warm-heartedness, and it can arouse positive cognitive involvement feelings when assessing a destination's attributes (Sharma & Nayak, 2018).

The emotion of surprise arises from an unexpected or random destination encounter. A sense of surprise can evoke positive surprise (such as hope, trust, or anticipation) or negative surprise (such as disgust, fear, or sadness) (Sharma & Nayak, 2018). Surprise is composed of astonishment, amazement, fascination, or inspiration. Surprise is distinct from other emotions in that it can have a positive or negative valence; therefore, its relationship with other constructs is complex and often detected in its consequence rather than in an action (Loewenstein, 2019).

The literature pertaining to pleasure-type investigations typically considers joy, love, and positive surprise. However, for culture-type tourists, emotional experiences have been found to evoke unpleasantness (Knobloch et al., 2017; Lee & Kyle, 2013; Nawijn et al., 2018; Prayag et al., 2017; Rahmani et al., 2019). Knobloch et al. (2017) suggest that as different intensities of

positive and negative emotions drive overall experience, an initially negative valence can translate into a pleasant emotional experience. Thus, measuring the relationship between unpleasant emotion and degree of involvement is challenging (Knobloch et al., 2017; Rahmani et al., 2019). In an early clinical experiment, Fields (1999) found that when asked whether a certain stimulus evoked pain, participants responded in the negative. However, when specifically asked whether the sensation produced pleasantness, unpleasantness, or neutrality, they reported 'definitely unpleasantness'. Here, it is worth noting that a Likert-type scale rather than a dichotomous scale may elucidate more reliable responses. Unpleasantness is composed of displeasure, dissatisfaction, disappointment, unhappiness, dislike, and regret.

As for personal involvement, it refers to the degree to which a person is devoted to a tourist activity, tourism product, or tourism experience (Gross & Brown, 2008; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Ramkissoon, Mavondo, & Uysal, 2018). Personal involvement is an important variable for the determination of tourists' attitudinal changes (Zatori et al., 2018; Ramkissoon et al., 2018). As reported by Hwang, Lee, and Chen (2005), personal involvement reflects the level of perceived personal importance evoked by a stimulus in a tourism experience.

More precisely, Huang et al. (2016, p. 73) conceptualized involvement within the context of diaspora tourism as "one's level of involvement in the lifestyle and culture of the homeland", indicating strongly valued personal involvement, with physical and social ties. The level of involvement thus tends to influence the depth of visitor experience. In their study, Li and Chan (2018) also found that respondents who valued personal involvement with physical and social ties demonstrated strong personal attachment to their Chinese homeland. They were also more sensitive to migration background, social relationships, and home return mobility.

Limited previous tourism research has directly investigated the structural relationship between emotional experience and personal involvement; thus a direct effect still needs to be fully established. Empirical understanding, in particular, regarding the nature of emotional experience both as a catalyst and a predictor of personal involvement remains scarce (Altunel & Erkurt, 2015; Zatori et al., 2018). While the existing literature tends to support a conceptual effect of involvement on emotional experience (e.g., Altunel et al., 2015; Zatori et al. 2018), a recent study by Kim and Kim (2018) established that emotional involvement with parasocial experiences influences behavioral involvement. Kim, Kim, and Petrick (2019) reasoned that becoming emotionally engaged can influence tourists' interaction with, and perception and experience of, locations and activities. Drawing from the literature, we test the nature of this relationship in a diaspora tourism context and hypothesize the following:

$H1a_o$: The emotional experience of love has no significant effect on personal involvement.
$H1a_a$: The emotional experience of love is positively associated with personal involvement.

$H1b_o$: The emotional experience of joy has no significant effect on personal involvement.
$H1b_a$: The emotional experience of joy is positively associated with personal involvement.

$H1c_o$: The emotional experience of positive surprise has no significant effect on personal involvement.
$H1c_a$: The emotional experience of positive surprise is positively associated with personal involvement.

$H1d_o$: The emotional experience of unpleasantness has no significant effect on personal involvement.
$H1d_a$: The emotional experience of unpleasantness is positively associated with personal involvement.

2.3. Relationship between personal involvement and destination satisfaction

Satisfaction represents the difference between expected consumption of a tourism product and perceived evaluation after consumption (Altunel et al., 2015, Huang & Crotts, 2019; Hwang

& Lee, 2018). It is perhaps the most important variable for evaluating tourists' visits to a destination and for understanding consumer psychology and business success (Kim, Choe, & Petrick, 2018; Lu, Chi, & Liu, 2015).

Different levels of personal involvement in a tourism experience affect destination satisfaction or choice of a tourism product. For example, Hwang et al. (2005) found that among visitors to Taiwan's national parks, a sense of involvement produced a significant effect on satisfaction. In a sports event context, Brown, Smith, and Assaker (2016) reported a positive direct relationship between sport involvement and event satisfaction. Lu et al. (2015) likewise reported a significant relationship between involvement and satisfaction with tourist experiences at the historic district of Litchi Bay in China. By contrast, Prayag and Ryan (2012) found that among international tourists to the island of Mauritius, involvement was not a significant predictor of overall satisfaction. In a related study, Chaganti and Greene (2002) established no significant difference between level of involvement and level of personal satisfaction among a community of elderly ethnic Mexican Americans. These contrasting studies suggest the complexity of the relationship between tourist involvement and satisfaction. Given the lack of agreement on the causal relationship between personal involvement and destination satisfaction, further research is warranted to establish and contribute to the literature on this field of research. To investigate the varying conclusions within the context of diaspora tourism, the following hypotheses were formulated:

$H2a_o$: Personal involvement has no significant effect on destination satisfaction.
$H2a_a$: Personal involvement is positively associated with destination satisfaction.

2.4. Relationship between personal involvement and destination image

Tourist destination image is a mental or attitudinal construct that represents the amalgam of the beliefs, ideas, and impressions held by a tourist regarding a destination (Chen, 2018; Choe & Kim, 2018; Prayag et al., 2017; Yen & Croy, 2016). Destination image formation is based on cognitive and affective components and has the potential to influence pre-travel, in situ, and post-experience decisions and behaviors (Kim et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2015; Sharma & Nayak, 2018). Understanding destination image is essential in predicting tourists' behaviors and assessment and can influence destination competitiveness (Kim, Stylidis, & Oh, 2019; Lu et al., 2015; Rodríguez-Molina, Frías-Jamilena, & Castañeda-García, 2015).

Previous studies have predicted that positive involvement at a destination can significantly determine and shape the image of the destination. Specifically, Hou, Lin, and Morais (2005) applied the Enduring Involvement Scale and found a positive association between involvement and perceived destination image/attractiveness. Some researchers (Rodríguez-Molina et al., 2015; Yen & Croy, 2016) also established that involvement can facilitate the formation of destination image. In empirical studies (Lu et al., 2015; Prayag & Ryan, 2012), a positive association between personal involvement and destination image among tourists was identified. To investigate this relationship within a diaspora tourism context, we posited the following hypothesis:

H2b$_o$: Personal involvement has no significant effect on destination image.
H2b$_a$: Personal involvement is positively associated with destination image.

2.5. Relationship between personal involvement and place attachment

Place attachment is defined as an emotional or affecting bonding between an individual and a defined place (Kim, Choe, & Petrick, 2018; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Place attachment is relevant to dark diaspora tourism destinations as members of the diaspora community have a 'default' ethnic identity relating to the host society. Within the context of the transatlantic slave trade, a visit to a diasporic homeland is symbolic of a pilgrimage to the setting of a tragic past (Yankholmes & McKercher, 2015). In this regard, diaspora tourism is comparable yet distinct from other forms of pilgrimages, such as religious ones (Cohen, 2011; Bond, Packer & Ballantyne, 2015; Jafari & Scott, 2014). A sense of place is created through involvement between people and place, which consequently forms emotional bonds.

The earliest application of involvement and attachment suggested a significant relationship between the two constructs (Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992). Since then, empirical examinations of the constructs have been conducted. For example, Hou et al. (2005) found that in a cultural tourism context, involvement positively influences place attachment. Gross and Brown (2008) tested a structural relationship of a multidimensional involvement construct hypothesized to influence two dimensions of place attachment, and found partial support for the hypotheses. Some studies reported that personal involvement has a positive direct effect on place attachment (Brown et al., 2016; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Among visitors to wine cellars, for example, wine involvement significantly influenced place attachment (Santos et al., 2017). Chen (2018) also examined the influence of celebrity involvement on place attachment and identified a positive relationship between the two constructs. Regardless of whether personal involvement and place attachment are considered as multi- or uni-dimensional

constructs, there is strong evidence of some statistical associations. Hence, the following

hypothesis was posited:

H2c$_o$: Personal involvement has no significant effect on place attachment.
H2c$_a$: Personal involvement is positively associated with place attachment.

2.6. Relationship between destination image and destination satisfaction

The influence of destination image on satisfaction with the destination has been studied

by various authors (del Bosque & San Martín, 2008; Kim, Mckercher, & Lee, 2009; Lu et al.,

2015; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Chi & Qu, 2008). A positive effect of destination image evaluation

on satisfaction was established, for example, in the studies of Brown et al. (2016) and Lu et al.

(2015). In another study, Prayag and Ryan (2012) reported a positive association between

destination image and international tourists' satisfaction. Similarly, Chi and Qu (2008)

investigated satisfaction as attribute satisfaction and overall satisfaction and reported that

destination image positively impacted both types of satisfaction. Interestingly, del Bosque and

San Martín (2008) found no association between the destination image of Spain and visitor

satisfaction. We examined this relationship among diaspora tourists by exploring the following

hypothesis:

H3a$_o$: Destination image has no significant effect on destination satisfaction.
H3a$_a$: Destination image is positively associated with destination satisfaction.

2.7. Relationship between destination image and place attachment

With some support from *a priori* examinations, this study considers that a positive

destination image has the potential to impact a sense of attachment to a diaspora destination

(Brown et al., 2016; Chen, 2018; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Stylidis, 2020). To illustrate this

relationship, Chen (2018) operationalized destination image regarding celebrity involvement as cognitive and affective and found that both components of image had an equal impact on place attachment. Prayag and Ryan (2012) empirically tested the relationship between destination image and place attachment and reported that destination image positively predicted place attachment at the .001 significance level. However, Brown et al. (2016) suggested that the relationship between destination image evaluation and place attachment can be significant but inverse. To empirically test this relationship, we posited the following hypothesis:

$H3b_o$: Destination image has no significant effect on place attachment.
$H3b_a$: Destination image is positively associated with place attachment.

2.8. Relationship between destination satisfaction and future intention

The inability of diaspora destinations to capitalize on market opportunities can result in unsatisfactory visitor experiences, and limit the likelihood of repeat visits (Li et al., 2019). However, Otoo et al. (2021b) pointed out that there are few empirical studies related to diaspora tourists' satisfaction. For example, Lev Ari and Mittelberg (2008) noted the disparity in satisfaction with the "birthright Israel program" for diasporic Jews in North America and that of Russian Jews. In their examination, they suggested that diaspora tourists who are satisfied are more likely to recommend diaspora events. This is in contrast to Etemaddar, Duncan, and Tucker (2016), who suggested that changes in the diaspora homeland result in dissatisfaction. Currently, the relationship between satisfaction and future behavioral intention remains unclear. Investigating the relationship between satisfaction and future intention, Savinovic et al. (2012) found that the level of a festival audience members' overall satisfaction had a direct effect on the likelihood of future attendance. Prayag et al. (2013) also established empirical support for a direct path between satisfaction and behavioral intentions towards Petra in a heritage tourism

context. In contrast, Ramkissoon, Smith, and Weiler (2013) identified a negative but significant association between satisfaction and future behavioral intention. Beyond this, Brown et al. (2012) found no statistical association between sports event attendees' satisfaction and their future event attendance. Therefore, we proposed the following hypothesis:

$H4_o$: Diaspora tourist destination satisfaction has no significant effect on future intention.
$H4_a$: Diaspora tourist destination satisfaction is positively associated with future intention.

2.9. Relationship between place attachment and future intention

Diaspora tourists attach an "inherited" and/or symbolic meaning to visits to their ancestral homelands (Li et al., 2019; Li & McKercher, 2016b; Otoo et al., 2021b). This sense of attachment to an ancestral homeland seems profound, as studies suggest a higher likelihood to travel to an ancestral homeland by diaspora tourists (Otoo et al., 2021b) as well as greater travel frequency (Brown et al., 2016; Veasna, Wu, & Huang, 2013). However, positive attachment to a diaspora homeland is not always expected and weakens with passing generations (Maliepaard, Lubbers, & Gijsberts, 2010; Maruyama & Stronza, 2011). Interviewing Chinese Americans, Maruyama, Weber and Stronza (2010) found that interviewees did not intend to make return visits to their diaspora homeland. The authors noted that while interviewees took advantage of their identity, they often also felt frustration, anger and ambiguity as a consequence of it.

The relationship between place attachment and its influence on diaspora tourists' future intention has received little empirical scrutiny. The tourism literature nonetheless provides some clues as to the nature of the place attachment-future intention relationship. Ramkissoon et al. (2013) reported a positive effect of place attachment on both low and high pro-environmental behavioral intention. In addition, Prayag and Ryan (2012) established that place attachment positively affected visitors' intentions to both revisit and recommend Mauritius. Brown et al.

(2016) established a positive association between venue (place) attachment and visitation intention. Although few empirical examinations exist for diaspora tourism, Zou et al. (2021) operationalized diaspora tourists' emotional hometown experiences as nostalgic memory and affective arousal. They found these to influence diaspora tourists' hometown attachment. These interrelationships suggest that the desire to travel to return home is complex and thus we proposed the following hypothesis:

H5$_o$: Place attachment has no significant effect on future travel intention.
H5$_a$: Place attachment is positively associated with future travel intention.

The hypothetical relationships among the variables are summarized in the conceptual model shown in Figure 1.

**[FIGURE 1]**

3. Methods

3.1. Study Setting

This study was undertaken in Cape Coast and Elmina, Ghana. Ghana identifies as one of the important diaspora tourist destinations in the transatlantic or triangular slave trade narrative. The government of Ghana and the African diaspora community organize important events that draw attention to the sorrowful memory of slavery and colonialism from the 16th to the 20th century. The most publicized event to commemorate the historic past is the Pan African Historical Festival (PANAFEST), a biannual festival by Africans and people of African ancestry in the diaspora.

The importance of Ghana as a hub of the transatlantic slave trade has drawn studies on dark tourism and heritage tourism (Mensah, 2015; Prayag et al., 2018; Yankholmes & McKercher, 2015). Therefore, understanding the affective and cognitive feelings of diaspora tourists to Ghana offers an important contribution to other heritage tourism forms, including dark tourism, thanatourism, ethnic tourism, personal heritage tourism, and genealogy tourism.

The decision to use these sites was informed by the following: First, the sites are recipients of a large number of visitors to the country (Ghana Statistical Service, 2017). Second, the sites showcase historic landmarks symbolic of the transatlantic slave trade. Several previous studies have similarly investigated these sites because of the linkage of these places with the past (Otoo et al., 2021a; Mensah, 2015). As Bruner (1996) states, African Americans consider the castles as sacred ground. Third, the study is framed within the context of the journey by persons with African heritage in the diaspora who are returning to their "roots" or tracing their ancestry.

Previous studies suggest a pattern where diaspora tourism is more attractive to a mature population of persons in the diaspora, who possess stronger emotional and place attachments (Coles & Timothy, 2014; Maliepaard et al., 2010; Otoo et al., 2021b). Even among the immigrant diaspora community, there is an inherent desire to visit 'the good old days' with all the accompanying emotional and nostalgic feelings (Huang et al., 2016). In addition, it is also expected that larger numbers of the African diaspora community are from the Americas and have been born outside of Africa (Boateng et al., 2018). It is against this backdrop that an understanding of the emotional experiences of mature African diaspora tourists plays a vital role in this study.

3.2. Measurements

In order to measure the emotional experience of diaspora tourists (applied in this study as current travel experiences), material was selected from previous studies on tourists' emotional or sentimental expressions in the context of diaspora tourism (Abaka, 2012; Bruner, 1996; Coles & Timothy, 2014; Gorton, 2007; Etemaddar et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019; Li & McKercher, 2016b; Maliepaard et al., 2010; Maruyama & Stronza, 2011; Nawijn et al., 2018; Otoo et al., 2021b) and those relating to general overseas tourism (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Huseynov et al., 2020; Lee & Kyle, 2013; Prayag et al., 2013). A pool of items to measure personal involvement were selected on the basis of past research (e.g., Brown et al., 2016; Chen, 2018; Gross & Brown, 2008). Items to measure destination image were derived from a review of previous studies (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Kim et al., 2019; Mensah, 2015). Items that reflected place attachment were developed from the literature (Kim et al., 2018; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Veasna, et al., 2013). Destination satisfaction was measured with three items extracted from Veasna et al. (2013), while items relating to future intention were extracted from previous research (Choe & Kim, 2018; Prayag, 2009). All items were measured using 5-point Likert scales. A set of categorical data included both sociodemographic and travel-related variables.

3.3. Data collection

Three stages were completed: (1) a pretest, (2) a pilot study, and (3) a main onsite survey (Pituch & Stevens, 2016; Stevens, 2002). First, in order to evaluate the face validity of the research instrument, a pretest was conducted with 40 doctoral students who were members of various diaspora student unions. Second, a pilot study was conducted to simulate and anticipate

onsite conditions during the main survey and to provide content validation of the questionnaire. The pilot study was conducted with 80 diaspora visitors to Ghana. The participants suggested some modifications, including the removal of terms such as "slaves", "older", and "slave ship", which were considered sensitive.

Third, the main onsite survey was conducted at Cape Coast Castle and St George's Castle (also known as Elmina Castle) in the Central Region of Ghana. They are the main transatlantic slave trade sites in Ghana visited by the African diaspora community. Using convenience sampling, diaspora tourists who had self-identified via prescreening were approached at the visitor reception areas after completing their tours. The onsite tour guides introduced potential participants to the first author, who is a Ghanaian national. With regard to selection of respondents, the literature suggests that mature or senior persons, first, are key patrons of the diaspora tourism market (Coles & Timothy, 2004; Huang et al, 2013; Roberts, 2012; Sim & Leith, 2013). Second, they have a meaningful contribution to the tourism industry as they have multiple geographical boundaries, histories, and cultural spaces (Coles & Timothy, 2004; Li & McKercher, 2016a). Third, with migrant or ancestral ties to their roots, this cohort desires to revisit or to re-establish connections to their past (Coles & Timothy, 2004; Otoo et al., 2021a). Thus, the study targets were persons aged 45 years or more as they qualified as mature or senior diaspora tourists. The survey was undertaken from Monday to Saturday over a three-month period to reflect the diversity in the travel-related features of diaspora tourists. To ensure the right targets were selected, screening questions pertaining to travel purpose, nationality, and age were completed. Therefore, the final participants in the study met the following criteria: travel purpose relating to African heritage/culture or visiting friends/relatives in the diaspora destination; aged 45 years or above; ancestry in Africa but born in the African diaspora. Of the

430 diaspora tourists who participated, 419 completed questionnaires that were useable for data analysis.

4. Results

4.1. Demographics and travel-related profiles

The results of the frequency analysis showed that about 58% of the respondents were female and about half were married. Approximately 43% were in the 45 to 50 age group. In terms of education, 48.4% had attained a college level education or higher. With regard to occupation status, 21.7% worked in the education sector. The largest annual household income category was US$ 70,000 to US$ 89,999 (20.5%), followed by US$ 90,000 to US$ 109,999 (16.7%). The respondents largely originated from the USA (61.1%), Jamaica (11.5%), and African diaspora communities in Guyana, Grenada, Bermuda, Barbados, Trinidad and Tobago, the Dominican Republic, and the Bahamas (11%). Respondents with dual nationalities constituted 19.3% of the sample.

In terms of their travel-related attributes, approximately 62% of the respondents were first-time diaspora visitors to Ghana, whereas 30.8% had visited the country two to four times previously. Nearly one third (32%) had spent from 7 to 14 nights in Ghana. The majority of the respondents (80.7%) were visiting Ghana for its African culture/heritage. In addition, 64.4% identified as having a 5th generation African ancestry and 13.1% were 3rd generation diaspora tourists.

4.2. Exploratory factor analysis and reliability test

To extract the underlying domains of the emotional experience construct, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using the varimax rotation method. All communalities exceeded the .50 criterion, thus indicating at least a moderate level of relation to the set of factors (Pituch & Stevens, 2016). The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.91) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2$= 10599.23, *p*=.000) established the factorability of the emotional experience construct (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The EFA using the 21 items to measure the emotional experience of diaspora tourists generated a four-factor model in which the domains had eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The factor loadings exceeded .61, thus satisfying the .45 criterion (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). The domains were unpleasantness, joy, love, and positive surprise. The Cronbach's alpha reliability scores for the domains ranged from .90 to .96 and thus exceeded the .7 cut-off criterion, thereby demonstrating the internal consistency of items in each domain (Nunnally, 1978). The grand mean values were 1.93, 4.62, 4.60, and 4.47, respectively.

To further identify the dimensionality of personal involvement, destination satisfaction, destination image, place attachment, and future intention, EFAs were conducted. The EFA for personal involvement generated a one-factor model with an eigenvalue of 2.77. The communality ranged from .64 to .75, indicating that each item was at least moderately related to the set of factors (Pituch & Stevens, 2016). All factor loadings of personal involvement items ranged from .80 to .87, satisfying the .5 criterion (Hair et al., 2010). The domain explained 69.2% of the variance, and the Cronbach's alpha value of .85 suggested internal consistency. Likewise, the factor analyses for destination satisfaction, destination image, place attachment, and future intention generated single-factor solutions that explained 84.9%, 65.1%, 73%, and

70.5% of the variance, respectively. All communalities and factor loadings on these four

constructs were satisfactory. With regard to internal consistency, the Cronbach's alpha values of

.91, .86, .87, and .83, respectively, indicated the internal consistency of items in each construct.

Table 1 presents the EFA results for all constructs.

**[TABLE 1]**

4.3. Confirmatory factor analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to guarantee that the proposed

measurement model specified the proposed relations between the latent constructs and observed

variables. The measurement model comprised nine constructs with 41 items. The results revealed

a supportive level of fit for the overall model, with the exception of Chi-square ($\chi^2$= 1619.70),

which is sensitive to sample size (Hair et al., 2010). The fit indices were as follows: goodness of

fit index (GFI) = .83, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .054, comparative fit

index (CFI) = .95, incremental fit index (IFI) = .95, Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) = .94, normed fit

index (NFI) = .91, and normed chi-square ($\chi^2$/df = 2.23). The standardized factor loadings of all

the variables ranged from .66 to .97, exceeding the .50 criterion (Hair et al., 2010).

In addition, the composite construct reliability (CCR) of each construct exceeded the .7

cut-off point, thus indicating an acceptable level of internal consistency (Hair et al., 2010). To

assess the construct validity of the variables, average variance extracted (AVE) was calculated.

The AVE values ranged from .54 to .83, exceeding the .50 criterion and thus confirming

convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). To verify discriminant validity, the

AVE of each construct was compared with the squared correlation coefficient for the

corresponding inter-construct correlation and the maximum shared squared variance (MSV).

Since all AVE values were higher than the squared correlations between constructs and greater

than the MSV, no discriminant validity concern was detected (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Lastly, all items in the measurement model showed significant *t*-values for the latent constructs, indicating that the measurement scales supported high levels of convergence and construct validity. The results of the CFA analyses are shown in Table 2.

**[TABLE 2]**

4.4. Structural model and hypothesis testing

After evaluating the measurement model, structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to test the hypothesized structural model. Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics and inter-construct correlations. Overall, the results show a good model fit, with RMSEA = .057, CFI = .94, NFI = .90, IFI = .94, TLI = .93, GFI =.82, and $\chi^2/df$ = 2.38. The $R^2$ values to predict personal involvement, destination satisfaction, destination image, place attachment, and future intention were .61, .41, .37, .59, and .48, respectively. Thus, the structural model revealed a sufficient level of predictive power to explain each dependent variable.

To determine specific theoretical relationships in the hypothesized model, the significance level was set at the .05 level, so that an alternative model was supported if the *p*-value on the structural model path was less than .05. Overall, the SEM analysis statistically supported 9 out of 11 estimated path coefficients at the .01 and .001 levels, as shown in Table 4. Regarding the relationship between emotional experience and personal involvement, significant relationships were detected on the paths of hypothesis 1a ($\gamma_{13}$ = .36, $t$ = 4.74, $p$ < .001) and hypothesis 1b ($\gamma_{12}$ = .39, $t$ = 6.12, $p$ < .001). The result indicated that the emotional experiences

of love and joy positively influenced diaspora tourists' personal involvement. However, for hypotheses 1c and 1d, significant relationships were not supported.

Hypothesis 2a, which was designed to test the path from "personal involvement" to "destination satisfaction", was supported as a significant association was found ($\beta = .38$, $t = 5.73$, $p < .001$). The result showed that personal involvement from diaspora tourists is likely to result in satisfaction with a destination. Personal involvement had a positive influence on destination image ($\beta = .61$, $t = 8.74$, $p < .001$), showing that Hypothesis 2b was supported. Hypothesis 2c was also substantiated as a positive relationship was found between personal involvement and place attachment ($\beta = .17$, $t = 9.22$, $p < .001$). Therefore, diaspora tourists' personal involvement tends to result in higher place attachment to the diaspora destination.

Hypothesis 3a postulated a positive relationship between destination image and destination satisfaction. The path coefficient supported the hypothesis ($\beta = .34$, $t = 5.00$, $p < .001$). Similarly, for hypothesis 3b, the results supported the path coefficient between destination image and place attachment ($\beta = .17$, $t = 2.81$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 4, which stated a direct influence of destination satisfaction on future intention, was supported, indicating that the path coefficient was statistically significant ($\beta = .52$, $t = 9.85$, $p < .001$). Lastly, hypothesis 5, which postulated a relationship between place attachment and future intention, was confirmed ($\beta = .27$, $t = 5.45$, $p < .001$). A graphical depiction of the structural model is presented in Figure 2.

**[TABLES 3 & 4 & FIGURE 4]**

5. Discussion and implications

The empirical analysis of the survey produced some salient findings and implications. First, the factor analysis on emotional experiences revealed four underlying domains. This outcome is consistent with some previous studies, which emphasized that emotional experiences are a series of emotional states organized around underlying themes expressed as joy, love, positive surprise, and unpleasantness (Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Prayag et al., 2013).

Second, the results of the SEM analysis indicate that the emotional experiences of joy and love are influential in explaining the sense of personal involvement of diaspora tourists at diaspora destinations. The two dimensions (joy and love) are effective in inducing devotion to diaspora-related activities in Ghana. As both joy and love lead to a positive experience, they effectively represent the extent to which consumption emotions affect the degree of involvement or engagement with a diaspora destination. Therefore, promoting elements of enthusiasm, delight, pleasure, care, warm-heartedness, tenderness, and affection can be attractive to persons in the diaspora and can also lead to greater engagement.

Third, the relationship between unpleasantness, positive surprise, and personal involvement remains complex when applied to a diaspora tourism destination. While an unpleasant destination experience results in lower engagement at destinations (Hosany, 2012; Otoo et al., 2019), the current study interestingly finds that positive surprise does not affect personal involvement. According to previous studies, positive surprise can be associated with delight (e.g., Rust & Oliver, 2000). The outcome of this study is nonetheless meaningful, as surprise elements convey a neutral valence emotion that can easily lead to negative surprise (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). A valuable suggestion for dark diaspora destinations is the careful consideration that diaspora tourism is an emotional experience and that an element of surprise

can easily oscillate between positive and negative spectrums. Meanwhile, assessing the pleasantness or otherwise of a situation can systematically differentiate consumption emotions from one another (Hosany, 2012).

Fourth, the relationship between involvement and destination satisfaction is not adequately understood, as studies offer different conclusions (Chaganti & Greene, 2002; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). The results of this study lend empirical support to a theoretical relationship between personal involvement and destination satisfaction, as suggested by some previous studies (Brown et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2005; Lu et al., 2015); that is, as diaspora tourists gain a sense of personal involvement/engagement in the diaspora experience, they become predisposed to greater destination satisfaction. Hence, to improve the destination satisfaction of visitors, elements of involvement, including pride as an African descendant, should be promoted.

Fifth, this study provides empirical support for the hypothesis relating to the effect of personal involvement on the destination image posited by others (Hou et al., 2005; Lu et al., 2015; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Rodríguez-Molina et al., 2015; Yen & Croy, 2016). The findings suggest that personal involvement can be effectively used to enhance the image of a diaspora destination. Strategies that include the engagement of the diaspora community in the planning and organization of diaspora tourism can foster a positive evaluation of the homeland. This finding is important because different cultural identities evaluate the image marketing of destinations differently (Kwek & Lee, 2008; Weaver et al., 2017).

Sixth, the result indicating that personal involvement directly affects the sense of place attachment of diaspora tourists is consistent with findings reported in previous studies (Brown et al., 2016; Chen, 2018; Hou et al., 2005; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Santos et al., 2017). The involvement of the diaspora community at all stages of planning and decision making adds a

deeper meaning to the sense of place attachment of these tourists. In addition, the implication of destination satisfaction on place attachment should include the provision of enhanced and more tailored services in terms of accommodation, accessibility, and visitor education.

Seventh, the hypothetical role of destination image in predicting the degree of destination satisfaction and place attachment of diaspora tourists is in agreement with the extant literature (Brown et al., 2016; Chen, 2018; Lu et al., 2016; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Efforts to enhance destination image attributes, including hospitability, friendliness, quality services, and educational value, can be meaningful in creating a satisfied and attached diaspora clientele. Therefore, destination marketers and managers can benefit from heightened efforts to promote a favorable diaspora destination image to continue to enhance destination satisfaction and attachment to the destination.

Eighth, future intention is identified as an important outcome of destination satisfaction and place attachment (Brown et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019; Prayag et al., 2013; Ramkissoon et al., 2013; Savinovic et al., 2012). Thus, a key focus of the tourism ministry and government of Ghana is to build the diaspora tourism base of the country. Cape Coast Castle, Elmina Castle and other forts are prime memorial sites of the transatlantic slave trade and are most attractive to diaspora tourists. At such sites, visitor satisfaction with tour narratives, cultural enactments, and the physical presence of historical monuments may help to achieve place attachment and boost a sense of destination satisfaction, which subsequently result in a favorable future intention to revisit the destination. Ultimately, understanding why mature/senior diaspora tourists return "home" and the issues resulting in their return would be useful for developing and harnessing the potential of diaspora tourism.

6. Theoretical and practical contributions

This study adds to the existing knowledge and understanding of how emotional experiences contribute to the understanding of diaspora tourism in four ways. First, it conceptualizes the intricate interrelationships between diaspora tourist emotional experiences, personal involvement, destination image, destination satisfaction, place attachment, and future intention. Since previous studies have not explored these complex constructs that explain the cognitive and affective assessments of diaspora tourist experiences, the results can guide future investigations. The study is thus a prompt response to calls for a better understanding of the socio-psychological aspects of diaspora tourism experiences and the process of creating positive diaspora tourism experiences.

Secondly, this study communicates the complexity of tourist emotions of love, joy, positive surprise, and unpleasantness in the context of diaspora tourism. As the emotional experiences associated with diaspora tourism remain largely unknown (Zou et al., 2021), the study demonstrates that dimensions of diaspora tourists' emotional experiences, while in line with the existing literature, have varied effects on diaspora tourists' level of involvement. The positive influence of the 'love' and 'joy' of visiting the ancestral homeland is in contrast to the 'positive surprise' and 'unpleasantness experienced,' so that the latter do not explain diaspora tourists' personal involvement.

Thirdly, this study addresses variables that contribute significantly to repeat visitation to the African ancestral homeland. Previous studies reported that only a few diaspora tourists repeat their visits to Ghana after their initial visit and it is critical to understand how this can be addressed (Yankholmes & Timothy, 2017). Therefore, this study is an important addition to understanding which variables determine future revisit intentions among diasporic visitors to

Ghana. The study demonstrates that the emotional experiences of love and joy are firstly favorable to promoting the personal involvement of diaspora visitors with their homeland, leading to positive destination image, destination satisfaction, place attachment, and consequently to favorable future travel-related intentions towards the homeland.

Fourth, the study supports and adds to the body of literature that contends that emotional experiences are not always seen in a positive light (del Bosque & San Martín, 2008; Nawijn et al., 2018; Otoo et al., 2019). This belief is contrary to the traditional views of tourist emotions (e.g., Tong, 2015). In this regard, exploring emotion on a continuum may better reflect the varied emotions of respondents than a binary approach (e.g., happy/sad).

In terms of practice, the implications of this study include the following. First, evaluations of diaspora homelands by diaspora tourists are important in forming positive word-of-mouth intentions. Such evaluation implies the need to improve the infrastructure and intangible destination attributes, such as hospitality, culture, and memorability. Second, the quality of the emotional experiences of love and joy in the diaspora homeland directly enhances the sense of involvement of visitors and is strongly correlated with their sense of attachment. Therefore, promoting a strong sense of these attributes (love and joy) during the diaspora events may foster social identity, which is valuable to diaspora tourists' motivation to travel (Otoo et al., 2021a).

At the same time, the absence of a statistically significant relationship between the other two emotional experiences (positive surprise and (un)pleasantness) suggests a gap in the promotion of these attributes. The possible cultural gap between African hosts and diaspora guests may easily turn a positive surprise or pleasantry into unexpected cultural shocks during the actual interaction. Although "oneness" is expected in diaspora identity, diaspora destinations

ought to remember that these diaspora tourists are nevertheless "aliens" in their ancestral homelands (Bruner, 1996). In such situations, the services of a cultural broker (e.g., onsite tour guide) may be as relevant in diaspora tourism as they are to pleasure tourists. The study also reinforces the view that marketing a place visited can sustain and promote repeat visitation by enhancing positive cognitive and emotional experiences, as tested in this study (Brown et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Ramkissoon et al., 2013). Destination image directly determines diaspora tourism satisfaction and sense of attachment. Thus, diaspora destination managers need to monitor, evaluate, and adjust traditional elements of image promotion, including advertisement, public relations, and positive word of mouth.

8. Limitations and suggestions for future research

This study has some limitations. First, only mature/senior diaspora tourists were sampled in the study. Hence, further examination is required to identify the emotional experiences of younger cohorts and to determine generational discrepancies in terms of the emotional experience outcomes of diaspora travel. Second, diaspora studies tend to focus on migrant and refugee diaspora communities. Therefore, a future study could test the emotional experience model on a migrant or refugee diaspora community. Third, the interrelationships among six constructs have been examined. Given that the subjects of emotional experience and diaspora tourism are under-researched and underdeveloped, their interrelationships with many other constructs need to be further understood. A future study that includes additional constructs, such as travel constraints and personality traits, is suggested. In addition, emotions are diverse and may include other sentiments such as anger or disgust. Emotional experiences may be informed by contextual issues at each diaspora tourism destination and thus a qualitative study that extracts

deeper emotional connections to diaspora homelands is recommended. Given the inherent limitations of using a priori scale measurements, a future study that explores in-depth qualitative meanings for the constructs investigated is proposed. The interpretation of emotions as love, joy, positive surprise and unpleasantness have been explored and validated in previous studies, providing empirical standard for measuring visitor emotions within the tourism literature. Lastly, other factors can account for the destination image formation, destination satisfaction, place attachment, and future intention of diaspora tourists. Against this backdrop, the mediating role of constructs (e.g., satisfaction and place attachment) can be considered in future research.

REFERENCES

Abaka, E. (2012). *House of slaves and 'door of no return': Gold Coast/Ghana slave forts, castles and dungeons and the Atlantic slave trade*. Trenton, NJ: Africa World Press.

Altunel, M. C., & Erkurt, B. (2015). Cultural tourism in Istanbul: The mediation effect of tourist experience and satisfaction on the relationship between involvement and recommendation intention. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *4*(4), 213-221.

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

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

Boateng, H., Okoe, A. F., & Hinson, R. E. (2018). Dark tourism: Exploring tourist's experience at the Cape Coast Castle, Ghana. *Tourism management perspectives*, *27*, 104-110.

Bond, N., Packer, J., & Ballantyne, R. (2015). Exploring visitor experiences, activities and benefits at three religious tourism sites. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *17*(5), 471-481.

Boukhris, L. (2017). The Black Paris project: The production and reception of a counter-hegemonic tourism narrative in postcolonial Paris. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 25* (5), 684–702.

Brown, G., Smith, A., & Assaker, G. (2016). Revisiting the host city: An empirical examination of sport involvement, place attachment, event satisfaction and spectator intentions at the London Olympics. *Tourism Management*, *55*, 160-172.

Bruner, E. M. (1996). Tourism in Ghana: the representation of slavery and the return of the black diaspora. *American anthropologist*, *98*(2), 290-304.

Chaganti, R., & Greene, P. G. (2002). Who are ethnic entrepreneurs? A study of Entrepreneursapos; ethnic involvement and business characteristics. *Journal of Small Business Management*, *40*(2), 126-143.

Chen, C. F., & Tsai, D. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions? *Tourism Management*, *28*(4), 1115-1122.

Chen, C. Y. (2018). Influence of celebrity involvement on place attachment: Role of destination image in film tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *23*(1), 1-14.

Chi, C. G. Q., & Qu, H. (2008). Examining the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: An integrated approach. *Tourism Management*, *29*(4), 624-636.

Choe, J., & Kim, S. (2018). The effects of local food consumption value on attitude toward local food, food destination image, and behavioral intention. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *71*(April), 1-18. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2017.11.007

Cohen, E. H. (2011). Educational dark tourism at an in populo site: The Holocaust Museum in Jerusalem. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *38*(1), 193-209.

Coles, T., & Timothy, D. J. (2004). 'My field is the world': Conceptualizing diasporas, travel and tourism. In T. Coles & D. J. Timothy (Eds.), *Tourism, diasporas and space* (pp. 1-29). London: Routledge.

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

Du Toit, C. W. (2014). Emotion and the affective turn: Towards an integration of cognition and affect in real life experience. *HTS Theological Studies*, *70*(1), 01-09.

Etemaddar, M., Duncan, T., & Tucker, H. (2016). Experiencing 'moments of home' through diaspora tourism and travel. *Tourism Geographies*, *18*(5), 503-519.

Fields, H. L. (1999). Pain: an unpleasant topic. *Pain*, *82*, 61-69.

Fornell, C. & Larcker, D. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*, 39-50.

Ghana Statistical Service (2017). Trends in the tourism market in Ghana 2005-2014. Retrieved from
ttps://www.statsghana.gov.gh/gssmain/fileUpload/Service/Tourism%20Market%20Trends%20Report%20in%20Ghana1.pdf

Godis, N., & Nilsson, J. H. (2018). Memory tourism in a contested landscape: exploring identity discourses in Lviv, Ukraine. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *21*(15), 1690-1709.

Gorton, K. (2007). Theorizing emotion and affect: Feminist engagements. *Feminist theory*, *8*(3), 333-348.

Gross, M. J., & Brown, G. (2008). An empirical structural model of tourists and places: Progressing involvement and place attachment into tourism. *Tourism Management*, *29*(6), 1141-1151.

Grossberg, L. (1992) 'Mapping popular culture'. In We Gotta Get Out of this Place: Popular conservatism and postmodern culture (pp. 69–87). New York: Routledge.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R.E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hosany, S. (2012). Appraisal determinants of tourist emotional responses. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(3), 303-314.

Hosany, S., & Gilbert, D. (2010). Measuring tourists' emotional experiences toward hedonic holiday destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, *49*(4), 513-526.

Hosany, S., & Prayag, G. (2013). Patterns of tourists' emotional responses, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Business Research*, *66*(6), 730-737.

Hou, J. S., Lin, C. H., & Morais, D. B. (2005). Antecedents of attachment to a cultural tourism destination: The case of Hakka and non-Hakka Taiwanese visitors to Pei-Pu, Taiwan. *Journal of Travel Research*, *44*(2), 221-233.

Huang, S. S., & Crotts, J. (2019). Relationships between Hofstede's cultural dimensions and tourist satisfaction: A cross-country cross-sample examination. *Tourism Management*, *72*, 232-241.

Huang, W. J., Haller, W. J., & Ramshaw, G. P. (2013). Diaspora tourism and homeland attachment: An exploratory analysis. *Tourism Analysis*, *18*(3), 285-296.

Huang, W. J., Ramshaw, G., & Norman, W. C. (2016). Homecoming or tourism? Diaspora tourism experience of second-generation immigrants. *Tourism Geographies*, *18*(1), 59-79.

Huseynov, K., Costa Pinto, D., Maurer Herter, M., & Rita, P. (2020). Rethinking emotions and destination experience: An extended model of goal-directed behavior. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348020936334 .

Hwang, J., & Lee, J. (2018). Relationships among senior tourists' perceptions of tour guides' professional competencies, rapport, satisfaction with the guide service, tour satisfaction, and word of mouth. *Journal of Travel Research*, 0047287518803199.

Hwang, S. N., Lee, C., & Chen, H. J. (2005). The relationship among tourists' involvement, place attachment and interpretation satisfaction in Taiwan's national parks. *Tourism Management*, *26*(2), 143-156.

Jafari, J., & Scott, N. (2014). Muslim world and its tourisms. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *44*, 1-19.

Kim, S., & Kim, S. (2018). Perceived values of TV drama, audience involvement, and behavioral intention in film tourism. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *35*(3), 259-272.

Kim, S., Choe, J., & Petrick, J. (2018). The effect of celebrity on brand awareness, perceived quality, brand image, brand loyalty, and destination attachment to a literary festival. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *9*(September), 320-329.

Kim, S., Kim, S., & Petrick, J. F. (2019). The effect of film nostalgia on involvement, familiarity, and behavioral intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, *58*(2), 283-297.

Kim, S., Mckercher, B., and Lee, H. (2009). Tracking tourism destination image perception. *Annals of Tourism Research, 36*(4), 715-718.

Kim, S., Stylidis, D., & Oh, M. (2019). Is perception of destination image stable or does it fluctuate? A measurement of three points in time. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *21*(4), 447-461.

Knobloch, U., Robertson, K., & Aitken, R. (2017). Experience, emotion, and eudaimonia: A consideration of tourist experiences and well-being. *Journal of Travel Research*, *56*(5), 651-662.

Kwek, A., & Lee, Y. S. (2008). Intra-cultural variance of Chinese tourists in destination image project: Case of Queensland, Australia. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, *16*(1-2), 105-135.

Lee, J. J., & Kyle, G. T. (2013). The measurement of emotions elicited within festival contexts: A psychometric test of a festival consumption emotions (FCE) scale. *Tourism Analysis*, *18*(6), 635-649.

Lee, Y. J. (2016). The relationships amongst emotional experience, cognition, and behavioural intention in battlefield tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *21*(6), 697-715.

Lev Ari, L., & Mittelberg, D. (2008). Between authenticity and ethnicity: Heritage tourism and re-ethnification among diaspora Jewish youth. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *3*(2), 79-103.

Li, T. E., & Chan, E. T. H. (2018). Connotations of ancestral home: An exploration of place attachment by multiple generations of Chinese diaspora. *Population, space and place*, *24*(8), 21-47.

Li, T. E., & McKercher, B. (2016a). Developing a typology of diaspora tourists: Return travel by Chinese immigrants in North America. *Tourism Management*, *56*, 106-113.

Li, T. E., & McKercher, B. (2016b). Effects of place attachment on home return travel: A spatial perspective. *Tourism Geographies*, *18*(4), 359-376.

Li, T. E., McKercher, B., & Chan, E. T. H. (2019). Towards a conceptual framework for diaspora tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1-18. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2019.1634013

Loewenstein, J. (2019). Surprise, recipes for surprise, and social influence. *Topics in Cognitive Science*, *11*(1), 178-193.

Lu, L., Chi, C. G., & Liu, Y. (2015). Authenticity, involvement, and image: Evaluating tourist experiences at historic districts. *Tourism Management*, *50*, 85-96.

Maliepaard, M., Lubbers, M., & Gijsberts, M. (2010). Generational differences in ethnic and religious attachment and their interrelation. A study among Muslim minorities in the Netherlands. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, *33*(3), 451-472.

Maruyama, N. U., Weber, I., & Stronza, A. L. (2010). Negotiating Identity: Experiences of. *Tourism Culture & Communication*, *10*(1), 1-14.

Maruyama, N., & Stronza, A. (2011). Roots tourism of Chinese Americans. *Ethnology: An International Journal of Cultural and Social Anthropology*, *49*(1), 23-44.

Mathijsen, A. (2019). Home, sweet home? Understanding diasporic medical tourism behaviour. Exploratory research of Polish immigrants in Belgium. *Tourism Management*, *72*, 373-385.

Mensah, I. (2015). The roots tourism experience of diaspora Africans: A focus on the Cape Coast and Elmina Castles. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *10*(3), 213-232.

Morgan, N., Pritchard, A., & Pride, R. (2003). Marketing to the Welsh diaspora: The appeal to hiraeth and homecoming. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *9*(1), 69-80.

Nawijn, J., Isaac, R. K., Gridnevskiy, K., & Van Liempt, A. (2018). Holocaust concentration camp memorial sites: An exploratory study into expected emotional response. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *21*(2), 175-190.

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Otoo, F. E., Badu-Baiden, F., & Kim, S. (2019). A qualitative cognitive appraisal of tourist

    harassment. *International Journal of Tourism Research*. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2274

Otoo, F. E., Kim, S., & Choi, Y. (2021a). Developing a multidimensional measurement scale for

    diaspora tourists' motivation. *Journal of Travel Research*, *60*(2), 417-433.

Otoo, F. E., Kim, S. S., & King, B. (2021b). African diaspora tourism- How motivations shape

    experiences. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *20*,

    https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2021.100565

Pituch, K. A., & Stevens, J. P. (2016). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences:*

    *Analyses with SAS and IBM's SPSS* (6th ed.). New York: Routledge.

Prayag, G. (2009). Tourists' evaluations of destination image, satisfaction, and future behavioral

    intentions-The case of Mauritius. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *26*(8), 836-853.

Prayag, G., & Ryan, C. (2012). Antecedents of tourists' loyalty to Mauritius: The role and

    influence of destination image, place attachment, personal involvement, and satisfaction.

    *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(3), 342-356.

Prayag, G., Hosany, S., & Odeh, K. (2013). The role of tourists' emotional experiences and

    satisfaction in understanding behavioral intentions. *Journal of Destination Marketing &*

    *Management*, *2*(2), 118-127.

Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Muskat, B., & Del Chiappa, G. (2017). Understanding the relationships

    between tourists' emotional experiences, perceived overall image, satisfaction, and

    intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research*, *56*(1), 41-54.

Prayag, G., Suntikul, W., & Agyeiwaah, E. (2018). Domestic tourists to Elmina Castle, Ghana: motivation, tourism impacts, place attachment, and satisfaction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *26*(12), 2053-2070.

Rahmani, K., Gnoth, J., & Mather, D. (2019). A psycholinguistic view of tourists' emotional experiences. *Journal of Travel Research*, *58*(2), 192-206.

Ramkissoon, H., Mavondo, F., & Uysal, M. (2018). Social involvement and park citizenship as moderators for quality-of-life in a national park. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *26*(3), 341-361.

Ramkissoon, H., Smith, L. D. G., & Weiler, B. (2013). Testing the dimensionality of place attachment and its relationships with place satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours: A structural equation modelling approach. *Tourism Management*, *36*, 552-566.

Roberts, S. (2012). Assessing the potential of diaspora tourism. *Journal of Eastern Caribbean Studies*, *37*(3/4), 115.

Rodríguez-Molina, M. A., Frías-Jamilena, D. M., & Castañeda-García, J. A. (2015). The contribution of website design to the generation of tourist destination image: The moderating effect of involvement. *Tourism Management*, *47*, 303-317.

Rubin, Z. (1970). Measurement of romantic love. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 16*(2): 265-73.

Rust, R. T., & Oliver, R. L. (2000). Should we delight the customer? *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *28*(1), 86.

Santos, V. R., Ramos, P., & Almeida, N. (2017). The relationship between involvement, destination emotions and place attachment in the Porto wine cellars. *International Journal of Wine Business Research*, *29*(4), 401-415.

Savinovic, A., Kim, S., & Long, P. (2012). Audience members' motivation, satisfaction, and intention to re-visit an ethnic minority cultural festival. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *29*(7), 682-694.

Sharma, P., & Nayak, J. K. (2018). Testing the role of tourists' emotional experiences in predicting destination image, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions: A case of wellness tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *28*, 41-52.

Sim, D., & Leith, M. (2013). Diaspora tourists and the Scottish Homecoming 2009. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *8*(4), 259-274.

Song, H., Kim, M., & Choe, Y. (2019). Structural relationships among mega-event experiences, emotional responses, and satisfaction: focused on the 2014 Incheon Asian Games. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *22*(5), 575-581.

Stevens, J. P. (2002). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (4th ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Stylidis, D. (2020). Using destination image and place attachment to explore support for tourism development: The case of tourism versus non-tourism employees in EILAT. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348020919157.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Tong, E. M. (2015). Differentiation of 13 positive emotions by appraisals. *Cognition and Emotion*, *29*(3), 484-503.

Turner, J. H. (2009). The sociology of emotions: Basic theoretical arguments. *Emotion Review,1*(4), 340–354.

Veasna, S., Wu, W. Y., & Huang, C. H. (2013). The impact of destination source credibility on destination satisfaction: The mediating effects of destination attachment and destination image. *Tourism Management*, *36*, 511-526.

Weaver, D. B., Kwek, A., & Wang, Y. (2017). Cultural connectedness and visitor segmentation in diaspora Chinese tourism. *Tourism Management*, *63*, 302-314.

Williams, D. R., Patterson, M. E., Roggenbuck, J. W., & Watson, A. E. (1992). Beyond the commodity metaphor: Examining emotional and symbolic attachment to place. *Leisure Sciences*, *14*(1), 29-46.

Xie, P. F. (2010). Developing ethnic tourism in a diaspora community: The Indonesian village on Hainan Island, China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *15*(3), 367-382.

Yankholmes, A., & McKercher, B. (2015). Understanding visitors to slavery heritage sites in Ghana. *Tourism Management*, *51*, 22-32.

Yen, C. H., & Croy, W. G. (2016). Film tourism: Celebrity involvement, celebrity worship and destination image. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *19*(10), 1027-1044.

Zatori, A., Smith, M. K., & Puczko, L. (2018). Experience-involvement, memorability and authenticity: The service provider's effect on tourist experience. *Tourism Management*, *67*, 111-126.

Zou, Y., Meng, F., & Li, Q. (2021). Chinese diaspora tourists' emotional experiences and ancestral hometown attachment. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *37*, 100768.
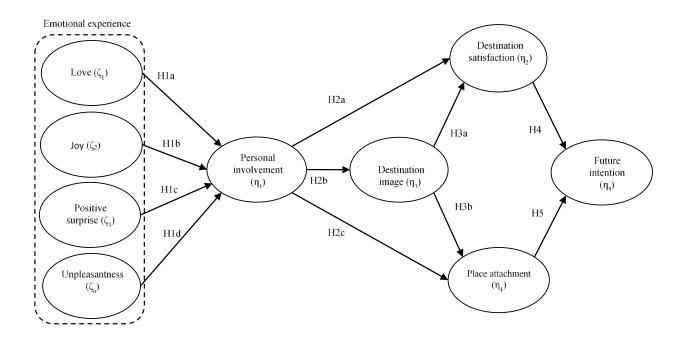
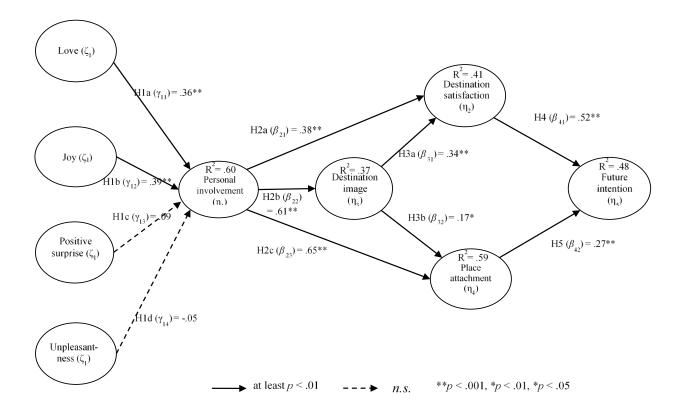Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model

Figure 2. Structural Model Explaining the Role of Emotional Experience on Further Perceptions

Table 1. EFA Results

| Emotional experience | Communality | Factor loading | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| Domain 1: Unpleasantness (Eigenvalue = 9.87; Variance explained = 46.97; Cronbach's α = .95; Grand mean = 1.93) | | | |
| I feel a sense of displeasure towards the African homeland | .87 | .92 | 1.80 |
| I feel a sense of dissatisfaction toward the African homeland | .84 | .90 | 1.84 |
| I feel a sense of disappointment toward the African homeland | .82 | .89 | 2.05 |
| I feel a sense of unhappiness toward the African homeland | .81 | .89 | 2.04 |
| I feel a sense of dislike toward the African homeland | .78 | .87 | 1.77 |
| I feel a sense of regret toward the African homeland | .75 | .86 | 2.11 |
| Domain 2: Joy (Eigenvalue = 4.33; Variance explained = 20.63; Cronbach's α = .96; Grand mean = 4.62) | | | |
| I feel a sense of delight toward the African homeland | .91 | .86 | 4.63 |
| I feel cheerful toward the African homeland | .89 | .86 | 4.61 |
| I feel a sense of joy toward the African homeland | .87 | .84 | 4.59 |
| I feel a sense of pleasure toward the African homeland | .84 | .83 | 4.62 |
| I feel a sense of enthusiasm toward the African homeland | .84 | .82 | 4.65 |
| Domain 3: Love (Eigenvalue = 1.82; Variance explained = 8.67; Cronbach's α = .96; Grand mean = 4.60) | | | |
| I feel warm-hearted toward the African homeland | .90 | .85 | 4.60 |
| I feel a sense of caring toward the African homeland | .89 | .85 | 4.61 |
| I feel a sense of tenderness toward the African homeland | .83 | .80 | 4.58 |
| I feel a sense of affection toward the African homeland | .85 | .79 | 4.59 |
| I feel a sense of love toward the African homeland | .83 | .79 | 4.64 |
| Domain 4: Positive surprise (Eigenvalue = 1.22; Variance explained = 5.81; Cronbach's α = .90; Grand mean = 4.47) | | | |
| I feel a sense of astonishment toward the African homeland | .81 | .86 | 4.39 |
| I feel a sense of surprise toward the African homeland | .78 | .85 | 4.39 |
| I feel a sense of amazement toward the African homeland | .78 | .83 | 4.44 |
| I feel fascinated about the African homeland destination | .69 | .67 | 4.55 |
| I feel a sense of inspiration toward the African homeland | .67 | .61 | 4.61 |
| **Personal involvement** | **Communality** | **Factor loading** | **Mean** |
| Personal involvement (Eigenvalue = 2.77; Variance explained = 69.18; Cronbach's α = .85; Grand mean = 4.45) | | | |
| I gain pleasure by getting involved in the various things to do in African homeland destinations | .75 | .87 | 4.35 |
| Being on holiday in the African homeland is like giving a gift to oneself | .70 | .84 | 4.31 |
| I have a lot of interest in the African homeland as a destination | .68 | .82 | 4.53 |
| I gain pleasure from visiting the African homeland | .64 | .80 | 4.52 |
| **Destination satisfaction** | **Communality** | **Factor loading** | **Mean** |
| Destination satisfaction (Eigenvalue = 2.55; Variance explained = 84.87; Cronbach's α = .91; Grand mean = 4.50) | | | |
| I feel/felt delighted about the African homeland destination | .89 | .94 | 4.50 |
| I feel/felt satisfied about the African homeland destination | .83 | .91 | 4.42 |
| I like/liked the African homeland destination | .83 | .91 | 4.58 |
| **Destination image** | **Communality** | **Factor loading** | **Mean** |
| Destination image (Eigenvalue = 3.25; Variance explained = 65.05; Cronbach's α = .86; Grand mean = 4.53) | | | |

| | Communality | Factor loading | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| African homeland destinations are attractive places | .70 | .84 | 4.45 |
| African homeland destinations are pleasurable places | .66 | .84 | 4.42 |
| African homeland destinations are interesting | .68 | .83 | 4.62 |
| African homeland destinations offer education value | .64 | .80 | 4.56 |
| People in the African homeland are hospitable and friendly | .58 | .76 | 4.50 |
| **Place attachment** | Communality | Factor loading | Mean |
| Place attachment (Eigenvalue = 2.92; Variance explained = 72.99; Cronbach's α = .87; Grand mean = 4.36) | | | |
| African homeland destinations are special to me | .82 | .90 | 4.41 |
| Visiting African homeland destinations says a lot about who I am | .76 | .87 | 4.27 |
| African homeland destinations are more important to me than elsewhere | .75 | .86 | 4.25 |
| I attach special meaning to African homeland destinations | .61 | .77 | 4.51 |
| **Future intention** | Communality | Factor loading | Mean |
| Future intention (Eigenvalue = 2.82; Variance explained = 70.52; Cronbach's α = .83; Grand mean = 4.58) | | | |
| I intend to revisit African homeland destinations within five years | .81 | .90 | 4.66 |
| I intend to recommend a visit to African homeland destinations within five years | .70 | .84 | 4.69 |
| I intend to bring my family/children to visit the African homeland within five years | .70 | .83 | 4.59 |
| I intend to stay longer at an African homeland destination | .61 | .78 | 4.38 |

Table 2. CFA Results

| Domains and items | Standardized factor loading | $t$-value | CCR | AVE |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Emotional experience** | | | | |
| *Unpleasantness* | | | | |
| I feel a sense of dislike toward the African homeland | .92 | a | | |
| I feel a sense of dissatisfaction toward the African homeland | .97 | 40.09 | | |
| I feel a sense of displeasure toward the African homeland | .98 | 41.59 | | |
| I feel a sense of disappointment toward the African homeland | .76 | 20.89 | .94 | .72 |
| I feel a sense of unhappiness toward the African homeland | .74 | 19.97 | | |
| I feel a sense of regret toward the African homeland | .69 | 17.81 | | |
| *Joy* | | | | |
| I feel a sense of enthusiasm toward the African homeland | .91 | a | | |
| I feel a sense of delight toward the African homeland | .96 | 35.11 | | |
| I feel cheerful toward the African homeland | .95 | 30.16 | .96 | .83 |
| I feel a sense of pleasure toward the African homeland | .86 | 26.09 | | |
| I feel a sense of joy toward the African homeland | .88 | 27.77 | | |
| *Love* | | | | |
| I feel a sense of caring toward the African homeland | .90 | a | | |
| I feel warm-hearted toward the African homeland | .90 | 42.27 | | |
| I feel a sense of tenderness toward the African homeland | .90 | 28.23 | .96 | .82 |
| I feel a sense of love toward the African homeland | .92 | 28.08 | | |
| I feel a sense of affection toward the African homeland | .92 | 29.86 | | |
| *Positive surprise* | | | | |
| I feel a sense of amazement toward the African homeland | .71 | a | | |
| I feel a sense of astonishment toward the African homeland | .66 | 19.12 | | |
| I feel a sense of surprise toward the African homeland | .67 | 16.53 | .87 | .58 |
| I feel a sense of inspiration toward the African homeland | .86 | 14.21 | | |
| I feel fascinated about the African homeland destination | .89 | 14.59 | | |
| **Personal involvement** | | | | |
| I gain pleasure from visiting the African homeland | .70 | a | | |
| I have a lot of interest in the African homeland as a destination | .82 | 14.39 | .83 | .54 |
| Being on holiday in the African homeland is like giving a gift to oneself | .70 | 12.73 | | |
| I gain pleasure by getting involved in the various things to do in African homeland destinations | .71 | 14.45 | | |
| **Destination satisfaction** | | | | |
| I feel/felt satisfied about the African homeland destination | .83 | a | | |
| I feel/felt delighted about the African homeland destination | .78 | 24.64 | .91 | .78 |
| I like/liked the African homeland destination | .69 | 22.77 | | |
| **Destination image** | | | | |
| People in the African homeland are hospitable and friendly | .67 | a | | |
| African homeland destinations offer education value | .73 | 14.36 | | |
| African homeland destinations are interesting | .80 | 13.17 | .85 | .54 |
| African homeland destinations are attractive places | .74 | 12.41 | | |
| African homeland destinations are pleasurable places | .73 | 12.25 | | |
| **Place attachment** | | | | |
| I attach special meaning to African homeland destinations | .70 | a | | |
| African homeland destinations are more important to me than elsewhere | .80 | 15.08 | | |
| African homeland destinations are special to me | .89 | 16.50 | .88 | .65 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Visiting African homeland destinations says a lot about who I am | .83 | 15.66 | | |
| Future intention | | | | |
| I intend to bring my family/children to visit the African homeland within five years | .70 | [a] | | |
| I intend to stay longer at an African homeland destination | .68 | 14.40 | | |
| I intend to revisit African homeland destinations within five years | .90 | 16.20 | .87 | .62 |
| I intend to recommend a visit to African homeland destinations within five years | .86 | 15.74 | | |

[a] Estimated parameter was fixed at 1.0.

Table 3. Correlations among Constructs

|     | Mean | SD | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
|-----|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| (1) | 1.93 | 1.12 | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| (2) | 4.62 | .57 | -.26[a]*(.07[b]) | 1 | | | | | | | |
| (3) | 4.60 | .57 | -.20*(04) | .70*(.49) | 1 | | | | | | |
| (4) | 4.47 | .63 | -.16*(.03) | .54*(.29) | .63*(.40) | 1 | | | | | |
| (5) | 4.43 | .62 | -.09(.01) | .59*(.35) | .54*(.29) | .38*(.14) | 1 | | | | |
| (6) | 4.53 | .52 | -.27*(.07) | .43*(.19) | .56*(.31) | .47*(.22) | .39*(.15) | 1 | | | |
| (7) | 4.50 | .59 | -.23*(.05) | .52*(.27) | .52*(.27) | .50*(.25) | .40*(.16) | .51*(.26) | 1 | | |
| (8) | 4.36 | .68 | -.26*(.08) | .52*(.27) | .51*(.26) | .38*(.14) | .60*(.36) | .50*(.25) | .41*(.17) | 1 | |
| (9) | 4.58 | .55 | -.17*(.03) | .49*(.24) | .48*(.23) | .40*(.16) | .44*(19) | .39*(.15) | .58*(.34) | .48*(.23) | 1 |

*Note*: *Correlations significant at the .001 level; [a]=inter-construct correlations; [b]=squared correlations.
(1) Unpleasantness, (2) Joy, (3) Love, (4) Positive surprise, (5) Personal involvement, (6) Destination image, (7) Destination satisfaction, (8) Place attachment, (9) Future intention

Table 4. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) Analysis

| Regression path | Standardized coefficient | *t*-value | *p*-value | Decision of hypotheses |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| H1a: Love → Personal involvement | .36 | 4.74 | .000** | **Support** |
| H1b: Joy → Personal involvement | .39 | 6.12 | .000** | **Support** |
| H1c: Positive surprise → Personal involvement | .09 | 1.43 | .153 | Reject |
| H1d: Unpleasantness → Personal involvement | -.05 | -1.20 | .230 | Reject |
| H2a: Personal involvement → Destination satisfaction | .38 | 5.73 | .000** | **Support** |
| H2b: Personal involvement → Destination image | .61 | 8.74 | .000** | **Support** |
| H2c: Personal involvement → Place attachment | .65 | 9.22 | .000** | **Support** |
| H3a: Destination image → Destination satisfaction | .34 | 5.00 | .000** | **Support** |
| H3b: Destination image → Place attachment | .17 | 2.81 | .005* | **Support** |
| H4: Destination satisfaction → Future intention | .52 | 9.85 | .000** | **Support** |
| H5: Place attachment → Future intention | .27 | 5.45 | .000** | **Support** |
| $\chi^2(746) = 1775.14$ ($p = .000$); TLI = .93; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .057; NFI = .90; IFI = .94; GFI = .82 | | | | |

** $p < .001$, * $p < .05$.