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**Dimensions of Tourists' Emotional Experiences towards
Hedonic Holiday Destinations**

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Abstract

Destinations are more likely to be successful if they recognize the experiential qualities of their offerings. However, with some exceptions, research into the emotional content of the destination experience remains largely underexplored. This current research addresses this lacuna and empirically investigates the dimensions of tourists' emotional experiences towards hedonic holiday destinations. Adopting a rigorous scale development procedure, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses identify three salient dimensions to represent the destination emotion scale (DES) namely: joy, love and positive surprise. Additionally, tourists' emotional experiences were related to satisfaction, which in turn has a significant influence on behavioural intentions. Findings offer important implications for destination marketers in relation to branding and emotional experience management.

Keywords: Emotions; tourist experiences; destinations; scale development, post-consumption evaluations

Dimensions of Tourists' Emotional Experiences towards Hedonic Holiday Destinations

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INTRODUCTION

Destination promoters are under increasing pressure to recognize and understand the crucial components of meaningful tourist experiences (Bigné and Andreu, 2004; Gretzel, Fesenmaier, Formica and O'Leary, 2006). Tourism often offers a positive experience with satisfying and pleasurable emotions (Mannell, 1980). Such emotional reactions to the tourism experience are fundamental determinants of post-consumption behaviours such as satisfaction, intention to recommend, attitude judgements and choice (Gnoth, 1997, McIntosh and Siggs, 2005). For example, Goossens (2000) have found that experiential processes such as imaging, daydreams and emotions play an important role in destination choice behaviour. However, with some exceptions (e.g. Oh, Fiore and Jeoung, 2007), research on experiential dimensions of the tourism offerings remains largely underexplored. More specifically, no studies exist to understand and measure tourists' emotional experiences towards destinations. Accordingly, this study aims to answer two research questions: First, what types of emotional responses do tourists associate with destinations? Second, how should these emotional responses be measured?

In the marketing literature, a rich body of research investigates the role of emotions in various aspects of consumption. Researchers have a tendency to borrow and adapt scales from emotion theorists. Four commonly used scale to measure consumer emotional responses can be identified namely: Mehrabian and Russell (1974) Pleasure, Arousal and Dominance (PAD); Izard (1977) Differential Emotion Scale; Plutchik (1980) eight primary emotion scale; and Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scales (PANAS). However, these measures are useful in the circumstances for which they were originally developed, but suffer from several limitations when applied to capture consumption-related emotions. Consumer emotional experiences are very broad and context specific. For example, "emotions that arise in the context of intimate interpersonal relationships are likely to differ in intensity and quality from emotions experienced when buying a pair of shoes" (Richins, 1997: 129). As a result, existing emotion scales are problematic as they fail to take into account tourists and destinations specific characteristics. In order to capture the full range of tourists' emotional responses towards destinations, this study adopts a rigorous approach to scale development consistent with conventional guidelines (e.g. Churchill, 1979).

For the purpose of this research, tourist destinations are conceptualised as amalgam of several components (e.g. hotels, visitor attractions) that combine to form a holistic experience of the area, place or country visited (e.g. Murphy, Pritchard and Benckendorff, 2000). Tourist destinations have been increasingly perceived as brands

to be consumed (e.g. Blain, Levy and Ritchie, 2005; Boo, Busser and Baloglu, 2009) and thus can be portrayed as experience areas. The tourism experience is an extended service transaction (EST) in which *consumption* of the destination entails a sequence of episodes along which tourists and providers (e.g. hotel, restaurants, tour guides) interact at different points in the service transaction. Thus, while emotions are experienced at specific points or episodes along the service process (in-process emotions), in this study, emotional responses were assessed in retrospect and in terms of a holistic evaluation. Previous studies have successfully used post-purchase surveys where respondents are asked to report, in retrospect and from an overall perspective, emotional states during consumption (e.g. Mano and Oliver, 1993).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Symbolic Meanings Associated With Tourist Destinations

Destinations are geographic locations to which tourists travel (Leiper, 2000; Framke, 2002) and consist of a combination of tangible and intangible components (e.g. Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Murphy et al., 2000). Tourist destinations differ in terms of size, physical attractions, infrastructure and socio-cultural dimensions among others (Lumsdon, 1997). From a competitive perspective, tourist destinations are “geographic concentrations of interconnecting companies, specialised suppliers, service suppliers, firms in related industries and associated institutions in particular fields that compete but also cooperate” (Snepenger, Snepenger, Dalbey and Wessol, 2007: 319). As such, a tourist destination consists of a ‘cluster’ of elements, with a complex set of relationships among the various stakeholders (Fyall, Garrod and Tosun, 2006).

Social theorists have long hypothesized that places/destinations are sources of identification and affiliation that provide meaning and purpose to life (e.g. Williams and Vaske, 2003). Places have meanings through attitudes, values and beliefs attached to them (Sack, 1992). For example, Snepenger, Murphy, Snepenger and Anderson (2004) investigate the meanings associated with a spectrum of tourism places. The authors found that tourism places can be differentiated in terms of their normative hedonic, utilitarian, social and consumption meanings. Snepenger et al., (2004) findings establish that places/destinations serve distinct functions in everyday lives of people. High tourism demand destinations generate high hedonic normative meanings such as delightful, fun, thrilling, playful, enjoyable, cheerful and amusing. In contrast, low tourism demand places have high utilitarian meanings but are the least hedonic.

Other studies have established that people can develop an affective connection with specific places/destinations (e.g. Giuliani and Feldman, 1993; Hidalgo and Hernandez, 2001). The place attachment construct consist of two distinct dimensions: place dependence (functional attachment) and place identity (emotional attachment) (e.g. Jorgensen and Stedman 2001; Williams and Vaske, 2003). Place dependence reflects the importance of a place in providing features and conditions that support a person’s goals or desired activities (Stokols and Shumaker, 1981). This functional attachment is entrenched in an area’s physical characteristics and is likely to increase as a result of frequent visits (Williams and Vaske, 2003). Place identity refers to the

symbolic importance of a place as a repository for emotions that give meaning and purpose to life (Giuliani and Feldman 1993).

More recently, a number of empirical investigations have shown that tourists ascribe personality attributes to destinations (e.g. Ekinci and Hosany, 2006; Murphy, Moscardo and Benckendorff, 2007; d'Astous and Boujbel, 2007). Ekinci and Hosany (2006) establish that tourists' perceived destination personality can be represented in terms of three dimensions: sincerity, excitement and conviviality. Murphy et al., (2007) support the hypothesis that tourists evaluate destinations using personality traits. Murphy et al., (2007) found that tourist destinations can be differentiated based on their symbolic meanings. Furthermore, d'Astous and Boujbel (2007) note that countries can be positioned on the six personality dimensions of: agreeableness, wickedness, snobbism, assiduousness, conformity and unobtrusiveness. For example, Australia and Mexico were perceived as the most agreeable countries; United States was qualified as wicked country; France was considered as the most snobbish country; and China was seen as the most conformist country, closely followed by Saudi Arabia and Japan. Overall, it is important to understand the symbolic meanings associated with destinations given its positive influence on tourists' perceptions and attitudes (e.g. Ekinci and Hosany, 2006; d'Astous and Boujbel, 2007).

Experiential Dimensions of Tourists' Experiences

Faced with growing competition, it has become imperative for destination marketers to understand the symbolic value and experiential qualities of the tourism offerings (e.g. King, 2002; Gretzel et al., 2006). For Perdue (2002), successful tourism marketing strategies rest on an appreciation of the distinguishing and unique characteristics of tourists experiences. Tourism experiences can be defined as the "subjective mental state felt by participants during a service encounter" (Otto and Richie, 1996: 166). Research has sought to understand tourist experiences in various settings. For example, some studies have explored tourists' experiences in natural and heritage environments (e.g. Hull and Harvey, 1989; Beeho and Prentice, 1997; McIntosh and Prentice, 1999; Schanzel and McIntosh, 2000). Chhetri, Arrowsmith and Slusarczyk (2004) demonstrate that tourists can be classified in terms of the nature and magnitude of their emotions and feelings experienced while hiking in nature-based destinations. Other research investigates tourist experiences with high-risk adventure leisure activities (e.g. Arnould and Price, 1993; Celci, Rose and Leigh, 1993).

The tourism experience is unique, emotionally charged and of high personal value (McIntosh and Siggs, 2005). Emotions play an important role in tourism given that vacations are rich in terms of experiential attributes (Gnoth, 1997). A number of studies attempt to understand the influence of emotion in tourism and hospitality. For example, past studies investigate the determinants of post-consumption emotions (Muller, Tse and Venkatasubramaniam, 1991), the relationship between emotions and overall satisfaction (e.g. Floyd, 1997; Zins, 2002; de Rojas and Camarero, 2008; del Bosque and San Martin, 2008), customer loyalty (e.g. Barsky and Nash, 2002); behavioural intentions (e.g. Bigné, Andreu, and Gnoth, 2005; Jang and Namkung, 2009), and emotions as a segmentation variable for leisure and tourism services (Bigné and Andreu, 2004). Other studies have examined the influence of emotions on

decisions to purchase tourism and leisure services (e.g. Chuang, 2007; Kwortnik and Ross, 2007). For instance, Kwortnik and Ross (2007) found that tourists experience a variety of positive emotions as they plan their vacations, such as comfort and pleasure. However, empirical studies on the role of emotion in the context of tourist destinations remain sparse. More specifically, while it is recognised that people have emotional responses to their immediate environment (Machleit and Eroglu, 2000), to date, no study has empirically investigated the dimensions of tourists' emotional responses towards destinations. Tourist destinations are rich in terms of experiential attributes and the potential to evoke an emotional response is even greater (Otto and Ritchie, 1996).

Conceptualization of Emotion in Consumer Research

A major problem in emotion research, both in psychology and marketing, remains the interchangeable use of the terms affect, emotion and mood (e.g. Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer, 1999). We first distinguish between these related but conceptually different terms because it has important implications in operationalizing variables and interpreting the research findings. Affect is an umbrella term (or vector) with moods and emotions as instances of this feeling state (Cohen and Areni, 1991). A common distinction between moods and emotions lies in the intensity of the affective episode (Cohen and Areni, 1991). Moods are mild affective states that are easily induced and not attributable to a specific stimuli/object but, rather, are transient and pervasive feeling states (Gardner, 1985). On the other hand, emotions are described as episodes of intense feelings that are associated with a specific referent (Cohen and Areni, 1991). As such, importantly, emotions are tied to a specific referent such as a person, an object or an event and instigate specific response behaviours. For example, a consumer is pleased when a new detergent removes stains from clothing; he/she is angered with poor customer service at a restaurant. In summary, for the purpose of this study, affect and moods are seen to be conceptually distinct from emotions.

Over the past two decades, in the generic marketing literature, a coherent stream of research has established the importance emotion in consumer experiences. For example, early research mainly focuses on emotional responses to advertising (e.g. Edell and Burke, 1987). Other studies examine the relationship between consumption emotions, satisfaction and behavioral intention (e.g. Ladhari, 2007; Martínez Caro and Martínez Garcia, 2007). Scholars mostly rely on an empirical approach to the measurement of emotions using self-reports. Consumption emotions are conceptualised either as a taxonomy of discrete emotions such as joy, interest, sadness, regret, disappointment (Izard, 1977) or as a limited number of basic dimensions such as pleasure, arousal (Watson, Clark and Tellegen, 1988). In general, researchers adapt measures from emotion theorists to fit the consumption context. Such examples include: Mehrabian and Russell (1974) Pleasure, Arousal and Dominance (PAD); Izard (1977) Differential Emotion Scale (DES); Plutchik (1980) ten primary emotions; and Watson et al., (1988) Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scales (PANAS).

Mehrabian and Russell (1974) contend that human responses to environments are explained in terms of three independent bipolar dimensions: Pleasure (P); Arousal (A); and Dominance (D). The PAD scale is a popular measure among researchers to assess the impact of in-store emotional experiences on shopping behaviours such as

patronage, repurchase intentions and satisfaction among others (e.g. Sherman, Mathur and Smith, 1997). For example, in a recent study, Jang and Namkung (2009) extended Mehrabian and Russell (1974) model in the context of restaurant consumption experience and examines the relationship between perceived quality, emotions and behavioral intentions. Results show that emotions mediate between perceived quality and consumer behavioral intentions.

Izard's (1977) differential emotion scale contains 10 subscales that represent the fundamental emotions of: interest, joy, anger, disgust, contempt, sadness, fear, shame, guilt and surprise. A number of studies have established the validity and applicability of the differential emotion scale across various consumption settings. For example, Westbrook (1987) and Westbrook and Oliver (1991), draw on Izard's (1977) theory to examine post-purchase emotions. Oliver and Westbrook (1993) use the differential emotion scale to identify patterns of emotional responses during product ownership and consumption in the context of automobiles.

Plutchik (1980) theory consists of eight basic emotions namely: fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, expectancy (anticipation) and surprise. The author posits that mixtures of any two basic emotions are possible. For example, the emotion of delight consists of a combination of joy and surprise; love is a combination of joy and acceptance. Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005), in their study, adapt Plutchik's (1980) measure to examine the role of customers' emotional responses to complaint handling and service recovery in a retail banking situation. Watson et al., (1988), after realising the need for a reliable and valid measure, develop the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). A number of studies report the successful application of PANAS to capture consumption emotions. For example, the PANAS 20-item measure is employed in studies relating to product and service satisfaction (e.g. Mano and Oliver, 1993); post-purchase behaviours (e.g. Mooradian and Olver, 1997) and advertising (Huang, 2001).

However, knowledge of the most appropriate emotion measure for use in the context of consumer research is limited (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991; Oliver, 1993; Bagozzi et al., 1999). In the literature, few studies attempt to directly compare existing emotion measures for superiority in gauging consumers' experiences (e.g. Halvena and Holbrook, 1986; Machleit and Eroglu, 2000). Halvena and Holbrook (1986) compare two emotion typologies namely Plutchik' (1980) categories of emotion and Mehrabian and Russell (1974) PAD dimensions. Results indicate that, in general, the PAD dimensions capture more information about the emotional character of the consumer experience than did Plutchik's (1980) measure. In contrast, Machleit and Eroglu (2000) found that Izard (1977) and Plutchik (1980) measures perform considerably better than Mehrabian and Russell (1974) PAD dimensions. Consequently, mixed evidence and the lack of an appropriate measure to capture consumption related emotional experiences, have hindered theoretical progress in consumer research.

Realising the need for a more comprehensive theory to comprehend consumption emotions, Richins (1997) developed the Consumption Emotion Set (CES) scale. The CES achieved satisfactory reliability and comprise 16 dimensions namely: anger, worry, sadness, fear, shame, romantic love, excitement, optimism, joy, surprise, discontent, love, envy, loneliness, peacefulness and contentment. However, despite

this fine effort, the CES has received much criticism. For example, Bagozzi et al., (1999) question the discriminant validity of the scale. The dimensions ‘Sexy Love’ and ‘Love’ from the CES scale are very similar. In addition, Mudie, Cottam and Raeside (2003) in their study of emotion in the context of services, report only a five-factor solution. Across the services evaluated a number of emotion descriptors from the CES were experienced either by a small percentage of consumers or, in some cases, not at all. More recently, Huan and Back (2007) adapted the CES to uncover dimensions of consumption emotions in the lodging industry. Similar to Mudie et al., (2003), the authors failed to find support for a 16-dimensional structure. Instead, Huan and Back (2007) identified seven dimensions and therefore call into question the generalisability of Richin’s (1997) Consumption Emotion Set in other settings.

Consequently, altogether, evidence show that emotions differ in character from one context to the next and there are serious concerns about the appropriateness, relevance and validity of adapting existing emotion measures. Indeed, existing emotion measures, are inappropriate i) when the researcher requires a broader assessment of the emotional experience; and ii) when little theory exists about emotional states under investigation. Accordingly, in order to capture the full range of tourists’ emotional experiences our study follows a rigorous approach to scale development (e.g. Churchill, 1979; Anderson and Gerbing, 1982; Nunally and Bernstein, 1994) and take into account both tourists’ and destinations’ specific characteristics. The various stages in developing the destination emotions scale are described in the following sections.

SCALE DEVELOPMENT

Item Generation and Content Validity

The first stage involved conducting pilot tests on the four commonly used and adapted emotion scales in marketing namely: Mehrabian and Russell (1974) Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD); Izard (1977) Differential Emotion Theory (DES); Plutchick (1980) Psychoevolutionary Theory of Emotions; and Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) PANAS scales. Some emotion items from the scales (for e.g. “autonomous”, “guided”) were deleted as they were not relevant in the context of tourism destinations. A small pilot test was carried out with 20 participants (consisting of university students and academics) to investigate whether the existing scales are directly applicable at gauging tourists’ emotional responses towards destinations. To establish content validity of the emotion items, respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they would use these emotion adjectives to describe their feelings towards tourist destinations. The outcomes were inconclusive and suggest that the scales need revision and adaptation. Such a preliminary finding was in line with Richins (1997:129) assertion that “existing measures of emotions have important shortcomings when used to assess emotions in the consumption context”.

Next, as part of the qualitative inquiry, three sets of focus groups were carried out to elicit emotion adjectives that tourists associate with destinations. More specifically, the focus groups explored whether people display emotional responses towards destinations, the nature of these responses (positive vs. negative emotions) and the set of emotion adjectives associated with tourist destinations (tourist destination specific emotion adjectives). Focus group participants were business students studying at a

UK university. The practice of using students in research is well documented in the literature (e.g. Peterson, 2001) and Yavas (1994) further notes that the use of students is appropriate in early stages of scale development. A purposive criterion sampling was used to obtain subjects across various age groups, nationality, and level of education. The first focus group comprised seven undergraduate students of British nationality within the 18 -21 age group. The second focus group consisted of eight postgraduate students from different nationalities and in terms of age was mostly within the 22 – 24 groups. The final focus group was composed of six doctoral students of mixed nationalities within the 25 – 28 age groups. Across the three focus groups, for their most recent vacation, participants visited a wide variety of destinations including popular European destinations such as France, Spain, Italy and Belgium. Other destinations visited include United States of America, China, Hong Kong, Germany, South Africa, and Australia among others.

To generate discussion, focus group participants were asked questions such as “*What was the last tourist destination you have visited?*” and “*Can you please describe the set of emotional responses that come to mind when you think of that tourist destination?*” Participants were also prompted to freely elicit emotion adjectives that can be associated with tourist destinations in general. Focus group data were content analysed to identify common emotion adjectives and were later used to create the item pool. In addition, since emotional responses could exist at the subconscious level, projective techniques were deemed relevant to further generate emotion items (Webb, 1992). To this end, one projective test (word association) was conducted with eight British nationals. Some of the emotion adjectives obtained from word association (such as joy, pleasure, happy, excitement) were similar to emotion terms derived during the focus group stages. Based on the focus groups and word association tests, a number of emotion adjectives emerged but findings provided weak support for negative emotions in respondents’ emotional experiences. A plausible explanation for the absence of negative emotions in respondents’ evaluations could be because vacations are rich in terms of positive experiences and are usually accompanied with pleasurable emotions.

The list of emotion adjectives generated from the qualitative stages was complemented with other positive emotion items from previous studies. A review of the literature was carried out on typologies treating emotions as discrete components (e.g. Izard, 1977; Plutchik, 1980) and as overlapping dimensions (e.g. Mehrabian and Russell, 1974; Watson et al., 1988). Research on the emotional lexicon and prototype analyses from mainstream psychology was also taken into consideration (e.g. Shaver, Schwartz, O'Connor, 1987; Storm and Storm, 1987). In addition, previous studies on emotions in generic marketing and tourism were also useful (e.g. Richins, 1997; Bigné and Andreu, 2004).

An initial list of 75 positive emotions was retained and content adequacy of the items was assessed using three faculty members and two doctoral students. Participants had to evaluate the representativeness of the emotion items at gauging tourists’ responses towards destinations. Based on a variant of Zaichkowsky’s (1985) procedure, emotion items were kept if at least 3 of the 5 judges rated them as being “somewhat representative” of the construct. As a result of this process, a list of 44 emotion items was retained spanning across four primary emotion categories of *Joy, Love, Surprise*

and *Interest*. The first three categories are common in most emotion structures (e.g. Shaver et al., 1987) and interest is based on the work of Izard (1977).

Study 1: Initial Administration

The resultant emotion items form the basis of a structured questionnaire. The issue of whether to use unipolar or bipolar items to measure emotions is underexplored in marketing (Bagozzi et al., 1999) but the debate is well documented in the psychology literature. The bipolar perspective holds that feelings that are described with antonyms, for example, *happiness* and *unhappiness*, *arousal* and *calm*, are, in most circumstances, experienced and expressed inversely (Green, Salovey and Truax, 1999). Despite the support for a bipolar emotion measurement (e.g. Barrett and Russell, 1998), unipolar scales were chosen, following Bagozzi et al.'s (1999) recommendations. In addition, Babin, Darden and Babin, (1998) note that positive and negative consumer emotions may sometimes, but not always, be distinct from each other. Aaker, Stayman and Hagerty (1986) further highlight the problems in identifying emotional opposites and argue that bipolarity of emotions is difficult to establish.

The retrieval hypothesis (Solomon, Bamossy and Askegaard, 1999) was used to capture respondents' emotions. Respondents were instructed to recall the last tourist destination that they have visited for pleasure purposes. Participants were encouraged to remember experiences of their last vacation as vividly as possible. Several stimulating questions about the visit (e.g. country visited, number of previous visits) were included in the questionnaire and clear instructions were given to enable respondents to retrieve their experiences with reasonable accuracy. Self-reports were used to capture respondents' emotional responses as they provide an effective, convenient and efficient method of assessment (Parrott and Hertel, 1999). Such a method is especially pertinent with stimulus-elicited reactions as compared to experimentally induced emotional states (Mano and Oliver, 1993). Other authors have successfully used self-report measures of emotion in consumer research (e.g. Holbrook and Batra, 1987; Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). In addition, self report measures have demonstrated both discriminant and convergent validity with physiological measures such as facial expression (Westbrook, 1987). Consistent with previous research (e.g. Nyer, 1997), respondents had to rate the emotion statements (for e.g., "*I felt a sense of pleasure*") on a 7-point Likert scale with anchors 1 = *not at all* to 7 = *very much*.

Data were collected via a face to face administered questionnaire. Respondents were approached randomly on streets and around shopping malls to participate in the survey. A total of 200 responses were retained for analysis. Table 3 summarises the demographic profile of respondents. The sample is almost equally split between males (51.5%) and females (48.5%). In terms of age group, 27.2% of the respondents were between the age group 16 to 24 years of age, 25.7% between 25 and 34, 18.8% were between 35 and 44, 16.8% were in the 45-54 category and 11.4% were 55 or above. Respondents mostly travelled accompanied by their family (37.1%), partner (33.7%) and friends (20.3%). The majority of respondents (49%) were on their first visit to the destination evaluated. The remaining had repeat visits ranging from 1-2 visits (16.3%), 3-4 visits (11.4%) and more than 4 visits (23.3%).

INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Principal components exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with Varimax rotation and scree test criterion were conducted to identify the dimensions of tourists' emotional experiences. Items with low factor loadings (<0.40), high cross loadings (>0.40) and/or low item-to-total correlations (<0.50) were candidate for deletion (Hair et al., 2006). As a result of item trimming, 21 items were dropped from the analysis. The criteria for the significance of factor loadings were set at 0.40 as based on the Hair et al., (2006) guidelines for a sample size of 200. A final 3-factor model emerged with the remaining 23 items, explaining 60% of the total variance (Table 2). Factor loadings were high ($\geq .54$) and item-to-total correlations exceeded .50. Such results indicate that sample size (N=200) did not affect the quality of the factor solutions (e.g. Guadagnoli and Velicer, 1988; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang and Hong, 1999). The first dimension was labelled 'joy' and explained 24% of the variance (Eigenvalue=5.36). The joy dimension is consistent with the works of Nyer (1997) and Richins (1997). The second dimension, 'love', accounted for 21% of the variance (Eigenvalue=4.90). Previous studies establish Love as an important dimension to represent consumption emotions (e.g. Richins, 1997). The last dimension explained 15% of the variance (Eigenvalue=3.51) and was labelled 'positive surprise'. Richins (1997) and Westbrook and Oliver (1991) identified positive surprise as emotion categories in their studies.

INSERT TABLE 2 HERE

Unidimensionality and Scale Reduction

In order to establish unidimensionality and to further refine the scale, we followed a similar procedure to that of Voss, Spangenberg and Grohmann (2003) and Grohmann (2009) in their scale development studies. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using LISREL 8 (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1996) was used to test for unidimensionality (Pedhazur and Schmelkin, 1991) and as a means of scale reduction (Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma, 2003). The overall fit of the CFA models were examined using common parameters namely: chi-square statistics; Goodness of Fit Index (GFI); Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI); Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA); and the Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Recommended cut-off values for GFI, AGFI, NNFI and CFI is ≥ 0.90 ; and the acceptable threshold level for SRMR and RMSEA is ≤ 0.08 (Hu and Bentler, 1998). Individual CFA measurements models were estimated for each dimension of the destination emotion scale. This process systematically guides refinements and ensures that constructs exhibit both internal and external consistency (Anderson, Gerbing and Hunter, 1987; Garver and Mentzer, 1999).

We followed Voss, Spangenberg and Grohmann (2003) procedure in trimming items that are psychometrically acceptable but otherwise too large. Separate analyses were carried out for each subscale and items with the lowest item-to-total correlation were eliminated. Then, a χ^2 test difference was conducted between the original and reduced CFA models. The reduced scale was considered better if the chi-square difference was significant and the AGFI increased. The procedure was iterated until (i) the χ^2 test difference was not significant; and/or (ii) the AGFI did not increase. The process resulted into a five-item Joy scale ($\chi^2_{(5)}=11.70$, $p=0.04$; GFI=0.98; AGFI=0.93; CFI=0.99; NNFI=0.97; SRMR=0.05; RMSEA=0.08); a five-item scale

for Love ($\chi^2_{(5)}=4.57$, $p=0.47$; GFI=0.98; AGFI=0.97; CFI=0.99; NNFI=0.99; SRMR=0.02; RMSEA=0.00); and a five-item scale for positive surprise ($\chi^2_{(5)}=13.76$, $p=0.017$; GFI=0.97; AGFI=0.92; CFI=0.98; NNFI=0.96; SRMR=0.003; RMSEA=0.07). Psychometrically, the 15-item (5+5+5) destination emotion scale ($\chi^2_{(82)}=137.09$, $p=0.00$; GFI=0.92; AGFI=0.90; CFI=0.96; NNFI=0.95; SRMR=0.04; RMSEA=0.06) performed better than the initial 23-item scale ($\chi^2_{(227)}=498$, $p=0.00$; GFI=0.82; AGFI=0.78; CFI=0.89; NNFI=0.82; SRMR=0.07; RMSEA=0.08). The average variance extracted (AVE) was 0.50 or above (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), suggesting that the sub-scales joy, love and positive surprise are unidimensional. Coefficient alpha and composite reliability exceed recommended standards (Table 2).

SCALE VALIDATION

Study 2: Generalization, Convergent, Discriminant and Predictive Validity

Study 2 examined the generalizability and construct validity of the destination emotion scale. The second study took place in a UK town and data were collected via a mail questionnaire. Over a period of two months, 3000 questionnaires were distributed randomly through household mailboxes. Out of the 3000, a total of 564 were returned, yielding a response rate of approximately 19%. Of these, 44 questionnaires were excluded due to excessive missing data, resulting in a final 520 useable responses. The study sample was split between 36% males and 64% females. Independent sample t-test results indicated no significant differences between males and females in emotion ratings: Joy [$M=5.04$; $F=5.25$; $t=.74$; $p=.46$]; Love [$M=3.67$; $F=3.90$; $t=1.78$; $p=.08$]; and Positive Surprise [$M=3.70$; $F=3.75$; $t=.44$; $p=.66$]. For their most recent vacation, the majority of respondents had travelled to a European destination (53%), with Spain (14%) and France (13%) as the two most popular destinations. Forty-one percent of respondents were on their first visit (FV) to the destination evaluated. The remaining 59% made previous visits (PV) ranging from 1-2 (25%), 3-4 (11%) and more than 4 times (23%). No statistical difference was observed in respondents' ratings for Joy: [FV=5.12; PV=5.22; $t=.93$; $p=.35$] but compared to first time visitors, respondents with previous visits (PV) to a destination (1 or more) display higher levels of Love [FV=3.55; PV=4.01; $t=3.65$; $p=.00$]. In contrast, tourists with no previous experience exhibited higher levels of positive surprise [FV=3.95; PV=3.58; $t=3.12$; $p=.00$]. Such results were in line with existing tourism literatures, wherein previous travel experiences regulate destination evaluations (e.g. Weaver, Weber and McCleary, 2007).

A 15-item, 3-dimensional confirmatory factor model (joy, love and positive surprise) was estimated using LISREL 8.1. An examination of the model indicated a good fit: ($\chi^2_{(74)} = 249.46$, $p = 0.00$; GFI = 0.96; AGFI = 0.93; CFI = 0.90; NNFI = 0.90; SRMR = 0.05; RMSEA = 0.07). Convergent validity was examined by looking at the significance of items loadings on their respective hypothesized dimensions (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Reliability of the destination emotion scale was assessed by computing the composite reliability coefficient for each dimension (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Standardized factor loadings and reliabilities for the dimensions of the destination emotion scale are presented in Table 2. Factor loadings for the individual scale items were highly significant ($p < 0.001$: t values > 10) and substantial with values ranging from 0.61 to 0.90 (Table 2). Composite reliabilities for the three sub-

scales exceed minimum recommended standards of 0.70 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). Such results, thus, establish the convergent validity of the destination emotion scale (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2006).

Discriminant Validity

To test the discriminant validity of the destination emotion scale, we followed a procedure recommended by Bagozzi, Yi and Phillips (1991). A series of one- and two-factor CFA models were conducted for every possible pairs of constructs. We then assessed the resulting change in chi-square between the congeneric (one-factor) and discriminant (two-factor) measurement models. If the two-factor model is superior, there should be a large significant difference in the χ^2 statistic relative to the one-factor model. The dependent variable overall attitude towards the destination was included in the assessment of discriminant validity. Attitudes are enduring beliefs and predispositions towards specific objects and thus should differ from the destination emotion sub-scales. Overall attitudes towards the destination (coefficient $\alpha=0.89$) was measured using the following statements “Please indicate your overall feelings towards the destination” (*disliked very much* [-3], *liked very much* [+3]; and *bad* [-3], *good* [+3]). Results indicate that, for all pairs of constructs, the two-factor solution was better ($p<0.0001$) than the single factor solution. For example, combining love and positive surprise into a single factor, produced a significantly worse fit ($\chi^2_{(35)} = 1064.6$, $p<0.001$; RMSEA = 0.25), than did a two-factor model ($\chi^2_{(30)} = 140.12$, $p<0.00$; RMSEA = 0.08). Chi-square difference test also demonstrate discriminant validity of the destination emotion scale with the overall attitude measure. To further assess discriminant validity, average variance extracted (AVE) for the individual dimensions were compared with the squared correlations between pairs of constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). AVE estimates (Joy=0.55; Love=0.59; Positive Surprise=0.62) exceed squared correlations between the constructs (Joy/Love: 0.49; Positive Surprise/Joy: 0.30; Love/Positive Surprise: 0.27). Taken together, these results establish the discriminant validity of the destination emotion scale.

Predictive Validity

Predictive validity is defined as the ability of the scale to estimate some criterion behaviour that is external to the measuring instrument itself (Nunally and Bernstein, 1994). In order to establish the predictive validity of the DES, regression analyses were performed with the emotion dimensions as independent variables, satisfaction and intention to recommend as dependent variables. Satisfaction (coefficient $\alpha=0.88$) was operationalised using 4 statements): “Please indicate your overall satisfaction towards the destination” (*extremely dissatisfied* [-3] and *extremely satisfied* [+3]; *terrible* [-3] and *delighted* [+3]); “Overall, compared to your expectations, how would you rate your experience with the destination?” (*Much worse than expected* [-3] and *Much better than expected* [+3]); and the last statement was “This is one of the best destinations I could have visited” (*strongly disagree* [-3] and *strongly agree* [+3]). Intention to recommend (coefficient $\alpha=0.93$) was captured using the following two statements: “I would say positive things about this destination” (*strongly disagree* [-3] and *strongly agree* [+3]); and “I would recommend this destination to my friends/family” (*strongly disagree* [-3] and *strongly agree* [+3]). Prior to running regression analyses, the models were checked for multicollinearity effects and none of them had variance inflation factor (VIF) exceeding the recommended maximum level

of 10 (Hair et al., 2006). Table 3 presents regression analyses establishing the relationship between tourists' emotional experiences, satisfaction and intention to recommend.

INSERT TABLE 3 HERE

From Table 3, the three dimensions of emotional experiences were statistically significant in estimating intention to recommend (Model 1: $F(3,515) = 63.71$, $p=0.00$) and overall satisfaction (Model 2: $F(3,515) = 89.35$, $p=0.00$). The multiple R coefficients indicate that correlations between the three sub-scales and the two dependent measures are moderate (multiple R values ≥ 0.52). According to the R^2 statistic, Joy, Love and Positive Surprise explained 27% variance in the intention to recommend model and 35% of variance in satisfaction ratings. Taken together, findings establish the predictive validity of the destination emotion scale (Churchill, 1979). In terms of relative importance in explaining the two outcome variables, joy makes the largest contribution (standardized beta coefficients with the largest values). Furthermore, joy and positive surprise were significant in estimating satisfaction. Westbrook and Oliver (1991) uncover similar results in which clusters of "happy/content" and "pleasantly surprised" were associated with higher levels of satisfaction. In contrast, from the regression models, love was not significantly related to satisfaction and intention to recommend. Such findings are still preliminary and warrant further investigations as studies in other contexts have found that (brand) love was linked to higher levels of brand loyalty and positive word of mouth (e.g. Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006).

Post-Hoc Analysis: Emotional Experiences, Satisfaction and Intention to Recommend

Given the relatively low predictive validity of the scale, post-hoc analyses were performed on the data to further investigate the relationship between dimensions of emotional experiences, satisfaction and intention to recommend. Past studies have established that emotional responses to the consumption experience are fundamental determinants of satisfaction and other post-consumption behaviours (e.g. Liljander and Strandvik, 1997; Mano and Oliver, 1993). For example, Dubé and Menon (2000) found support for the direct relationship between positive emotion and satisfaction. Muller et al., (1991) found that positive emotions are related to future intentions. Research also suggests that emotions significantly add to the predictive power offered by satisfaction in modelling intention to recommend/visit (e.g. Nyer, 1997). In the context of tourism, modelling intention to recommend remains an important area of research (e.g. Bigné, Sánchez, Sánchez, 2001; Hui, Wan and Ho, 2007). Tourists' satisfaction levels are closely associated with behavioural intention (e.g. Bigné et al., 2001). Furthermore, Bigné, Andreu and Gnoth (2005) demonstrate that satisfaction mediates the relationship between positive emotions and behavioural intention. Accordingly, we hypothesise that tourist's emotional experiences will have a positive impact on satisfaction evaluations, which in turn will influence intention to recommend.

Multiple regression analyses (e.g. Holmbeck, 1997; Frazier, Tix and Barron, 2004) were used to investigate the mediating role of overall satisfaction in the relationship between tourists' emotional experiences and intention to recommend. Baron and

Kenny (1986) propose a that three conditions must be met to establish mediation: (1) the independent variable must have a significant association with the dependent variable; (2) the independent variable must have a significant association with the mediator; and (3) when both the independent variable and the mediator are included as predictors, the mediator variable must show a significant effect on the dependent variable. Complete mediation is established when beta coefficients for the independent variables in Condition 1 are significant and the same coefficients in Condition 3 are not. Otherwise, assuming that all three conditions hold, partial mediation is supported (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Satisfaction was considered as the mediator, dimensions of tourists' emotional experiences as predictor variables and intention to recommend as the criterion (dependent) variable.

From Table 3, regression results (Model 1) show a significant relationship between the dimensions of tourists' emotional experiences and intention to recommend ($R^2 = 0.27$, $F_{(3,515)} = 63.71$, $p = 0.00$). The second step in the test for mediation mandates that there is a significant relationship between the independent variable (emotional experiences dimensions) and the mediating variable satisfaction (Model 2). Significant relationship was established between tourists' emotional experiences and satisfaction ($R^2 = 0.35$, $F_{(3,515)} = 89.35$, $p = 0.00$). The final step requires that the independent variables and mediator are regressed on the dependent variable (Model 3). In Model 3, satisfaction (mediator) has a significant effect on intention to recommend and beta coefficients for the independent variables in Model 1 are not significant in Model 3. Results, hence, support the hypothesis that satisfaction mediates the relationship between tourists' emotional experiences and intention to recommend. Similar findings were observed in other hedonic or experiential settings, namely, movie consumption. Ladhari (2007) found that consumption emotions impact on satisfaction which in turn affects what movie-goers will tell other consumers (word-of-mouth communication).

DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In recent years, destination marketing organisations (DMOs) have been under pressure to understand and recognise the experiential qualities of their tourism offerings. Tourists' emotional experiences play an important role in influencing satisfaction levels and intention to recommend. However, while much research concentrates on the role of emotions in the generic marketing literature, empirical studies in the field of tourism remains limited. In order to address this gap, the current study adopts a rigorous methodology in order to identify salient dimensions of tourists' emotional experiences. The study offers important implications for theorising emotion in the context of tourist destinations.

A key theoretical contribution of this study is the development of a scale to measure tourists' emotional responses towards destinations. Preliminary tests on existing emotion scales suggest the need for a context specific measure to represent tourists' emotional experiences. The Destination Emotion Scale (DES) is parsimoniously represented by means of a three-dimensional 15-item measure. In addition, the scale length is line with recommended standards (e.g. Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Burisch, 1997; Rossiter, 2002; Mowen and Voss, 2008). Mowen and Voss (2008:499) advocate that "if a scale has dimensions, each dimension should have from three to five items". From a pragmatic perspective, therefore, the 15-items DES is relatively

short and easy to administer. The DES displayed solid psychometric properties in terms of unidimensionality, reliability and validity of its underlying dimensions. The three dimensions of the DES are theoretically consistent with past and more recent conceptualisations of emotion in consumer research.

During the past decade, a number of studies have established the relevance of love as a marketing construct (e.g. Ahuvia, 2005; Carroll and Ahuvia; 2006; Albert, Merunka and Valette-Florence, 2008). For example, early research suggests that love characterise consumers' feelings toward special consumption objects (e.g. Kleine, Kleine and Alen, 1995). Fournier (1998) posits that consumers develop relationships with brands and proposes six major categories of relationships which include love and passion. More recently, Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) conceptualise love for a brand as the degree of passionate emotional attachment a customer has for a brand. Consumers love for a brand is linked to higher levels of brand loyalty and positive word of mouth. Love has also been a key dimension in understanding consumers' emotional experiences. For example, Richins (1997) identifies *Romantic Love* (sexy, romantic and passionate) and *Love* (loving, sentimental and warm-hearted), out of 16 dimensions, to represent consumption emotions. Furthermore, love is an important dimension in Thomson, MacInnis and Park (2005) scale measuring the strength of consumers' emotional attachment to brands. Accordingly, in line with previous research, our findings further show the significance of love in tourists' representations of their emotional experiences.

The *joy* dimension consists of emotion items such as cheerful and pleasure. Joy is associated with positive outcomes such as getting or achieving something desired or desirable. Furthermore, joy is felt when a person believes that he/she is making reasonable progress towards the realisation of his/her goals (Lazarus, 1991). Joy is an intrinsic component of peak experiences (e.g. Mathes, Zevon, Roter and Joerger, 1982; Yeagle, Privette and Dunham, 1989), is often associated with playfulness (Frijda, 1986) and affirms the meaningfulness of life (de Rivera, Verette and Weiner, 1989). Our results show that joy is an important dimension of tourists' emotional experiences and is a key determinant of satisfaction. A recent study by Johnson, Olsen and Andreassen (2009) with hotel guests observed similar findings wherein joy was a strong and positive driver of customer satisfaction.

The last dimension, *positive surprise*, includes items such as amazement and astonishment. Surprise is commonly characterised as a neutrally valence emotion and arises as a result of an unexpected occurrence (Izard, 1977). However, surprise is often accompanied by another emotion to elicit either negative surprise (e.g. surprise and anger) or positive surprise (e.g. surprise and joy). In the marketing literature, researchers mostly focus their attention on positive surprise and its relationship with consumption related outcome variables such as satisfaction. For example, Westbrook and Oliver (1991) note that positively surprise customers are usually more satisfied and exhibit higher levels of loyalty (e.g. Oliver, Rust and Varki, 1997).

Furthermore, in line with Zins (2002), findings from preliminary qualitative stages (focus groups and projective test) show that tourists are more inclined to describe their experiences high in terms of positive emotions and very low in terms of negative emotions. The absence of negative emotions can be attributed to the hedonic nature of the holistic holiday experience (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Mannell and Iso-

Ahola, 1987). Positive emotions are associated with desirable, pleasant and goal congruent events, whereas negative emotions result from failures of an individual to achieve desired goals (Bagozzi, Baumgartner and Pieters, 1998). People seek pleasurable and subjective benefits through the experiential consumption of their vacation (e.g. Kwornik and Ross, 2007). If the tourist overall expectations are met, he/she is more likely to appraise the experience as satisfying.

However, in this study, tourists' emotional experiences were measured in terms of a holistic evaluation. Although the tourist may wish for only positive goal directed emotions, the holiday experience is full with different service encounters which can trigger both unexpected positive and negative emotions. Indeed, Dubé and Morgan (1998) note that there is a rich potential to explore the dynamics of in-process consumption emotions during extended service transaction. Dubé and Morgan (1998) establish that emotions evolve over the course of a transaction and as a result influence retrospective global judgements. Accordingly, future research is needed to i) monitor tourists' emotional experiences at various episodes or encounters (e.g. hotel, restaurant) during the vacation and; ii) to understand how in turn these in-process emotions combine to form a global evaluation.

Moreover, consistent with previous research, emotions were related to post-consumption evaluations. More specifically, the study provides empirical evidence of a direct association between the dimensions of tourists' emotional experiences, satisfaction and intention to recommend. In particular, emotions play an important role in satisfaction formation. Further analyses reveal that satisfaction mediates between tourists' emotional experiences and intention to recommend. The mediating effects demonstrate how tourists' emotional experiences can affect his/her intention to recommend via satisfaction. In a recent study conducted with tourists in Cantabria, Spain, del Bosque and San Martin (2008) found similar results. Positive emotions largely influenced tourists' satisfaction levels, which in turn has a significant influence on behavioural intentions. Overall, our findings extend current literature on tourists' evaluations of destinations and demonstrate that together, emotions and satisfaction hold considerable explanatory power in predicting tourists' intention to recommend. Thus, the challenge for destination marketers is to generate positive emotional experiences in order to influence tourists' satisfaction levels and ultimately behavioural intention.

Implications For Destination Marketers

From a practical standpoint, the findings of this study offer important implications for destination marketers. The study adds to recent literature recognising the symbolic and experiential characteristics associated with destinations. The overall tourism experience is rich in terms of emotions and tourists are actively involved in the production of their own experiences. An understanding of how tourists react to, or benefit from their emotional experiences will enable the formulation of appropriate marketing strategies (segmentation, positioning and communication). For example, Bigné and Andreu (2004) provide empirical evidence for the suitability of emotions as a segmentation variable in the context of tourism. Tourists enjoying higher levels of pleasure report higher levels of satisfaction and display favorable behavioural intentions in terms of loyalty and willingness to pay more. In this study, three salient emotional dimensions are identified: joy, love and positive surprise. Destination

marketers and specialist organisations such as travel agencies and tour operators should activate, stimulate and promote these positive emotions in their advertising campaigns using more refined photography and promotional videos.

At the same time, tourism providers should strive to engineer positive emotions in order to influence tourists' satisfaction levels, behavioural intentions and attitude judgements. Take for example the success story of Disney Land in engineering positive emotions to create enjoyable and memorable experiences. Disney train its employees to recognize various emotional expressions of consumers during the various in-process episodes. The cast members have a portfolio of scripts to choose from in order to respond to consumers' different emotions. In addition, the company coach prospective employees on how they have to behave in order to portray that they are having fun (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987). However, destination marketers face a huge challenge given that the total tourist experience is an amalgam of several tangible and intangible elements.

In addition, destination promoters could incorporate the findings of this research in order to create a favorable image. Traditionally, the image of a destination is an important component in the pursuit of successful marketing strategies. The perceived destination image is a significant factor in influencing travel choice, satisfaction and behavioural intentions (e.g. Bigné, Sanchez and Sanchez, 2001). However, amid intense competition, focussing on destination image alone is no longer an option and recent literature has witnessed a shift in focus from destination image to destination branding. Tourist destinations around the world (e.g. Spain, Australia, and Singapore) are embracing branding initiatives to differentiate their product offerings. Part of this relatively new development, is to acknowledge the significance of the affective dimensions of tourists' experiences. A recent stream of studies address the experiential qualities of tourism experience (e.g. Hosany, Ekinici and Uysal, 2006; Murphy et al., 2007; d'Astous and Boujbel, 2007). Destination promoters can integrate findings of this study in their quest of developing the ultimate destination brand. Marketers should constantly monitor the nature of tourists' emotional experiences visiting their place. Knowledge of these emotional experiences will enable destinations to better meet the expectations of tourists, resulting in favorable attitudes and intention to recommend behaviours.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The current study entails a number of limitations, which can potentially impact on the strength and generalisability of the findings. One such issue affecting both studies is the specificity of our results to one culture (British nationals). People of different cultures and languages categorise emotions in different way (Russell, 1991). Some emotions may be considered desirable or unacceptable in some cultures (Ellsworth and Scherer, 2003). An area for future research is to validate the destination emotion scale using respondents from different culture/nationalities.

Furthermore, in this study emotions were measured at the retrospective global level (e.g. Mano and Oliver, 1993). Vacations unfold over time and past research show that affective responses often change throughout the consumption experience (e.g. Arnould and Price, 1993). As a result, relying on retrospective evaluations can be problematic in capturing the dynamic aspects of tourists' emotional responses (Cutler,

Larsen and Bruce, 1996). Future research, for example, could use experience sampling methodology (Scollon, Kim-Prieto and Diener, 2003) to capture *in situ* tourists' emotional experiences during their vacation. In experience sampling methodology (ESM), participants respond to repeated assessments over the course of the consumption experience either at specific intervals (e.g. hourly or daily), when a pre-designated event occurs or when prompted by a randomly-timed signal (Scollon et al., 2003). Unlike conventional research designs, ESM would minimise biases associated with retrospective recall (Stewart and Hull, 1996; Vogt and Stewart, 1998). In this study, respondents were instructed to recall their most recent tourist destination visited for pleasure purposes. Respondents were encouraged to retrieve their experiences as vividly as possible. However, the use of retrieval hypothesis is limited in such that the researcher does not have control over respondents' choice of destination. Future research should attempt to further extend this study wherein tourists evaluate multiple familiar destinations in terms of their emotional dimensions. Such studies will enhance the generalisability of the destination emotion scale.

Moreover, the fact that respondents were allowed to choose their own idiosyncratic target destination, could have prompted a bias towards the recollections of positive destination experiences. However, some destinations around the world are judged as risky, elicit fear and tourists worry about visiting them (Larsen, Brun and Øgaard, 2009). In addition, the whole idea of cultural animosity (e.g. Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998) is based on the notion that certain regions feel anger towards other regions of the world. An area for future research is to investigate emotional experiences towards destinations that tourists are apprehensive about travelling to and which are connected with various risks such as terrorism, crime and health-related hazards among others. For example, research could explore conditions under which negative emotions such as regret, disappointment and worry, are likely to be felt and the consequences of these emotional reactions on tourists behaviours (e.g. willingness to travel).

The main objective of this paper was to identify the dimensions representing tourists' emotional responses towards destinations. An important applied development is to investigate the determinants of these emotional experiences. In the psychology literature, cognitive appraisal theories have emerged as a unifying approach to study the antecedents of emotional experiences (e.g. Lazarus, 1991). Appraisal theories contend to explain that emotion arise as result of an individual evaluating or appraising an event, incident or an episode. Such theories might explain *why*, for example, tourists experience joy, love and positive surprise and how in turn these emotional responses influence post-consumption behaviours such as satisfaction and intention to recommend. A number of empirical studies (e.g. Nyer, 1997; Ruth, Brunel and Otnes, 2002) and conceptual papers (e.g. Johnson and Stewart, 2005; Watson and Spence, 2007) on cognitive appraisal theories have appeared in consumer research literatures. However, the development and application of appraisal theories in tourism research remains in its infancy.

Another limitation is that the current study does not take into account the effects of tourists' travel motivation. Tourist motives are conceptualised in terms of push and pull factors. Push factors are socio-physiological motives and are related to the internal or emotional aspects of tourists, whereas pull motives are associated with the destination (Oh, Uysal and Weaver, 1995). Tourists are pushed by their emotional

needs and pulled by the emotional benefits of leisure services and destinations (Goossens, 2000). A combination of push and pull information and hedonic responses motivate tourists to plan a trip. Different travel motivations might influence tourists' evaluations of their destination experience. Accordingly, future research could investigate the impact of emotive needs to travel on the relationship between tourists' emotional experiences and post-consumption evaluations (such as intention to recommend and satisfaction).

Finally, this study introduces a multi-item measure to capture tourists' emotional responses towards destinations. In so doing, the study primarily adopts a positivist approach, although at the early stages, qualitative methods were employed in the form of focus groups and projective method (word association). However, the authors believe in the importance of methodological pluralism for getting the most complete understanding of a phenomenon. As such, in addition to the self-report direct measures, future research can use verbal protocols to capture respondents' emotions.

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Table 1
Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographics	Sample 1 (N=200)	Sample 2 (N=520)
	Percentage	Percentage
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	52	36
Female	48	64
<i>Age</i>		
16-24	27	9
25-34	26	18
35-44	19	18
45-54	17	20
55-64	8	19
Over 64	3	16
<i>Annual personal income (£)</i>		
Less than 15 000	34	30
15 000-24 999	23	23
25 000-34 999	17	16
Over 35 000	26	31
<i>Highest Educational Level Attained</i>		
PhD	3	4
Master Degree	10	15
Bachelor Degree	32	31
Diploma Level	11	15
A Levels	15	11
GCSE	23	12
Professional Qualifications	1	6
No Qualifications	5	6
<i>Number of previous visits</i>		
No previous visit	49	41
1-2 times	17	25
3-4 times	11	11
More than 4 times	23	23
<i>How long ago was that visit?</i>		
Within last 3 months	32	34
4-6 months	17	17
7-12 months	28	30
1-2 years	11	10
More than 2 years	12	10
<i>Travel Companion</i>		
Alone	9	8
Partner	34	41
Family	37	33
Friends	20	15
Others	-	3

Table 2
Scale Items: Initial and Final Scale Statistics

Items ^a	Study 1 (N=200)		Study 2 (N=520)	
	Factor Loading ^b	Item-total Correlation	Factor Loading ^c	Item-total Correlation
<i>Joy</i>				
Cheerful	.83	.76	.71	.72
Pleasure	.70	.73	.71	.77
Joy	.69	.73	.79	.74
Enthusiasm	.69	.69	.69	.71
Delight	.60	.70	.79	.76
Enjoyment	.73	.70		
Happiness	.71	.75		
Entertained	.71	.69		
Comfortable	.69	.61		
<i>Love</i>				
Tenderness	.83	.71	.78	.70
Love	.70	.73	.82	.76
Caring	.70	.67	.80	.71
Affection	.66	.64	.74	.68
Warm-hearted	.66	.69	.71	.66
Sentimental	.74	.61		
Romantic	.64	.60		
Compassion	.58	.60		
Passionate	.55	.61		
<i>Positive Surprise</i>				
Amazement	.84	.78	.90	.77
Astonishment	.80	.70	.86	.74
Fascinated	.77	.71	.72	.65
Inspired	.61	.58	.74	.55
Surprise	.56	.50	.61	.57
AVE^d				
Joy		50%		55%
Love		51%		59%
Positive Surprise		52%		62%
Composite Reliability^d				
Joy		.83		.86
Love		.84		.88
Positive Surprise		.84		.89
Coefficient Alpha (α)				
Joy		.87		.89
Love		.85		.87
Positive Surprise		.84		.85

^a Items in bold compose the final destination emotion scale; ^b From principal components factor analysis; ^c From confirmatory factor analysis; ^d According to Fornell and Larcker (1981)

Table 3

Regressions Establishing the Relationship between Tourists' Emotional Experiences, Satisfaction and Intention to Recommend

Independent/Mediating Variables	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	Dependent Variables					
	Intention to Recommend		Satisfaction		Intention to Recommend	
	Beta	t-value	Beta	t-value	Beta	t-value
Joy	0.48 ^{***}	8.72	0.51 ^{***}	9.77	0.08	1.92
Love	0.02	0.29	0.02	0.45	0.03	0.95
Positive Surprise	0.09 [*]	1.84	0.10 ^{**}	0.01	0.16	0.31
<i>Satisfaction</i>	-	-	-	-	0.79 ^{***}	25.76
Multiple <i>R</i>	0.52		0.59		0.82	
<i>R</i> ²	0.27		0.35		0.68	
<i>F</i> test statistic/ significance	<i>F</i> (3,515)=63.71, <i>p</i> =0.00		<i>F</i> (3,515)=89.35, <i>p</i> =0.00		<i>F</i> (4,514)=275.23, <i>p</i> =0.00	

^{***} Significant at the $p < 0.01$ level; ^{**} Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level; ^{*} Significant at the $p < 0.10$ level