INVESTIGATING THE EFFECT OF FESTIVAL VISITORS' EMOTIONAL EXPERIENCES ON SATISFACTION, PSYCHOLOGICAL COMMITMENT, AND LOYALTY

A Dissertation

by

JI YEON LEE

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2009

Major Subject: Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences

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Approved by:

Chair of Committee,	Gerard Kyle
Committee Members,	David Scott
	James Petrick
	Jane Sell
Head of Department,	Gary Ellis

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ABSTRACT

Investigating the Effect of Festival Visitors' Emotional Experiences on Satisfaction, Psychological Commitment, and Loyalty. (May 2009)

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In rural destinations, community festivals and events displaying agricultural and livestock exhibits with a combination of entertainment activities are one of the heritage attractions that draw large numbers of visitors. They have not only provided an economic stimulus along with social and cultural benefits to these small communities, but also played a role in increasing the tourism appeal to nonlocal visitors. Considering the significance of a rural community festival to its hosting local residents and out-of-town visitors, attracting and keeping a flow of visitors has been of great importance for both the festival organizers and destination marketing organizations. In this respect, identification with and retention of loyal visitors who are psychologically committed to the festival are a practical means for ensuring a consistent number of visitors to that festival and its hosting community.

The present study examined how festival visitors' develop loyalty to festivals and hosting communities through the affective and psychological processes within the

Mehrabian-Russell (M-R) model. Specifically, this study explored how emotions engendered through tourism product consumption influence visitors' psychological attachment, evaluations of their festival and place experiences, and loyalty in a festival context. The study further examined if festival visitors' positive experiences could have an influence on their preference of festival communities.

Through an onsite and follow-up mixed-mode survey, data were collected during Spring/Summer 2008 from visitors to three community festivals in Texas. Data analysis was performed using structural question modeling (SEM). The study findings provided empirical evidence in support of the M-R model within the festival contexts. The study results revealed that festival atmospherics had a positive indirect effect on festival loyalty via positive emotions, festival commitment, and festival satisfaction, which in turn positively influenced place loyalty. Additionally, the findings in this study provided empirical support for the applicability of product consumption emotions to visitors' emotions generated from tourism product consumption situation specific to the festival contexts.

The findings of the study have theoretical and practical implications. For theory, these findings offer support for the M-R model within festival context. The model's focus on emotional response to environmental stimuli is an important addition to established cognitive-based models of loyalty development processes. For practice, the study offers some guidance for festival organizers and destination marketing managers for developing effective marketing strategies that focus on the festival atmospherics that ultimately retain and attract new festival goers.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. FESTIVALS AND EVENTS AS TOURISM ATTRACTIONS

Festivals and events have a long tradition of attracting visitors and continue to draw a significant number of visitors across North America. For example, according to the annual *Texas Events Calendar* published by the Texas Department of Transportation's Travel Division (official website of Texas Tourism by the Office of the Governor, Economic Development and Tourism), about 2,500 events and festivals were held in the state of Texas in 2008. Events and festivals vary in their type and scale, ranging from county and state fairs and wildlife and nature festivals to performing arts and sporting events at the international, national, state, and local levels. Of those, festivals displaying agricultural and livestock exhibits with a combination of entertainment activities (e.g., food, shows, and musical entertainment) are one of the heritage tourism attractions that draw large numbers of visitors to a given community in a short period of time (Cook, Yale, & Marqua, 2006).

Festivals and events can play an important role in enhancing the attractiveness of a destination for nonlocal visitors (Getz, 1991). Heritage festivals and cultural events have become unique attractions for rural destinations that appeal to many urban residents by creatively blending the best of rural life and cultural traditions (Getz, 1991). They bring rural destinations to life by attracting people who might not otherwise visit and by encouraging people to visit repeatedly. Although most community festivals and events

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This dissertation follows the style of *Tourism Management*.

are dependent on local visitors, they can attract a significant number of tourists by providing their unique physical settings and cultural traditions.

Hosting festivals also offers a comparative advantage to communities located in rural areas with little tourism infrastructure and no other industry alternatives. Visitor spending at these events and festivals has provided an economic stimulus to many local communities (Crompton, Lee, & Shuster, 2001; Kim, Scott, Thigpen, & Kim, 1998; Long & Perdue, 1990; Lynch, Harrington, Chambliss, Slotkin, & Vamosi, 2003; Uysal & Gitelson, 1994). In addition to substantial economic impacts for host communities, festivals are usually organized by nonprofit organizations in local communities for many other reasons including: (1) providing recreational opportunities to both visitors and residents, (2) maintaining natural or cultural heritage, and (3) creating a positive image of a community (Gursoy, Kim, & Uysal, 2004). For instance, a birding and wildlife festival can create political, local, and financial support to conserve wildlife and its habitat (Kim et al., 1998).

1.2. IMPORTANCE OF RESEARCH

Festivals and events are "public themed celebrations" (Getz, 1997) that are staged to increase the tourism appeal to nonlocal visitors (Uysal & Gitleson, 1994) and to offer social, cultural, and economic benefits to local residents (Getz, 1991).In general, festivals and events have a key role in helping to create the image of a destination and in enhancing visitors' experiences by providing a distinct setting, food and drink, and recreation activities (Morgan, 2006). It is particularly true of destinations where there are

otherwise few differences in the tourism product and service offerings. Although the duration of each occasion is temporary, its direct and indirect impacts on local economies have been found to be significant (e.g. Çela, Knowles-Lankford, & Lankford, 2007; Crompton et al., 2001; Hodur & Leistritz, 2006; Lee & Crompton, 2003; Tyrrell & Johnston, 2001; Uysal & Gitleson, 1994). For example, three festivals (i.e., Springfest, Sunfest, and Winterfest) held in Ocean City, Maryland, have provided a powerful vehicle to generate tourism-related direct income ranging from $600,000 to $1,424,000 by attracting almost 100,000 visitors during the shoulder months of the tourism season (Lee & Crompton, 2003). In addition, festivals offer communities "an integrated approach to creating the vibrant communities to which people aspire" (Derrett, 2003, p.49), by encouraging local business, promoting sustainable employment and helping build a sense of place and community. Considering the significance of these festivals to the rural communities in many aspects, attracting and keeping a flow of visitors have been of great importance for both the festival and destination marketing organizations.

In this respect, identification with and retention of repeat visitors who are psychologically committed to the festival are a practical means for ensuring a consistent number of visitors to that festival and its hosting community. As suggested earlier, loyal visitors who are psychologically committed repeat visitors are considered desirable to a community for guaranteeing long-term income by retaining a certain level of tourist arrivals and for providing participatory opportunities that nurture and sustain a strong sense of place. The development of effective marketing strategies that identify and retain loyal visitors is also a destination manager's and festival organizer's top priority because

(1) it costs less to retain repeat visitors than to attract new visitors (O'Boyle, 1983; as cited in Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998) and (2) repeat visitors play a key role in transmitting positive word-of-mouth recommendations (Petrick, 2004; Reichheld & Teal, 1996; Reid & Reid, 1993; as cited in Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2007). Given the fact that many festival goers rely on informal sources for their information search (Çela et al., 2007; Shanka &Taylor, 2004), the importance of loyal visitors cannot be overemphasized for attracting potential visitors. Therefore, it is essential to recognize and maintain loyal visitors by creating more memorable experiences and offering high quality tourism products and services. The question of how these memorable experiences are developed at festivals remains prominent. How can those memorable affective experiences be engendered at festivals? Can affective experiences created at the festivals lead to visitors' post-visit appraisal of, psychological attachment to, and loyalty to those festivals? Can positive festival experiences be translated into promoting loyalty to the hosting communities? The present study attempts to answer these three questions.

The marketing and management implications of repeat visitors for a destination have caught the attention of tourism and leisure researchers aiming to identify this market segment and explore the antecedents of loyalty (e.g., Alexandris, Kouthouris, & Meligdis, 2006; Backman & Crompton, 1991a, b; Baloglu & Erickson, 1998; Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004a; Lee, 2003; Lee, Graefe, & Burns, 2007; Li, 2006; Morais, 2000; Niininen, Szivas, & Riley, 2004; Oppermann, 1999, 2000; Petrick, 2004; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Yet, a lack of consensus on the definition of loyalty and its inconsistent operationalization across loyalty studies

(Rundle-Thiele, 2005) has resulted in various claims on what it is, how it is developed, and what the loyalty-related outcomes are. For instance, much of the work is derived from operational definitions rather than from theoretical conceptualization of loyalty (Muncy, 1983). Tourism research has often measured loyalty using a single indicator of either visit frequency or intention to revisit in the near future (Chen & Gursoy, 2001). The subtleties of complex loyalty phenomenon cannot be captured by a single indicator or predictor (Rundle-Thiele, 2005) without considering other factors such as perceived value (Petrick, 2004), switching costs (Backman & Crompton, 1991a, b; Li, 2006), and attitudinal elements (i.e., preference and commitment) (Dick & Basu, 1994; Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard, 1999), which have been shown to account for why some individuals choose to visit certain places repeatedly (Oppermann, 1998, 2000).

Another issue is that principles applied to packaged goods or generic services cannot be always applied to destination loyalty. Many studies on packaged goods and generic services tend to focus primarily on cognitive processes that have been adopted from existing service models of quality-satisfaction-loyalty without considering an affective process in the loyalty formation model (Dick & Basu, 1994; Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978; Oliver, 1999; see also Chebat, 2002). Compared to these goods and services, tourism products are intangible, consisting of personal experiences engendered through usage. Festivals and events, in particular, are an amalgam of services and tangible products, which lend emphasis to their unique atmosphere and social interactions that provide the opportunity for an experience. Cognition is a necessary, but insufficient, condition that elicits affective states and predicts eventual festival visitors'

behaviors (Lazarus, 1991; Oliver, 1980; see also Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005). Therefore, alternative models underscoring affective processes have been introduced to complement the cognitive process. Affective processes have been shown to be a significant influence on consumer information processing and decision making (Westbrook, 1987). Emotions have also been shown to be better predictors of consumer behaviors (Chebat & Michon, 2003). Consequently, integration of emotions into the conventional cognitive process model may provide a more holistic approach to understanding loyalty formation.

Environmental psychologists and service marketing researchers have provided a valuable theoretical framework to address this issue by explaining how people's behaviors related to various environments are influenced by emotions and environmental stimuli. Mehrabian and Russell (1974), in particular, demonstrated how environmental perceptions elicit different sets of emotions, and these emotions, in turn, influence people's reaction to the environment either positively or negatively. The Mehrabian-Russell model is based on a stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) paradigm of human information processing in learning theory and behavioral psychology (Woodworth, 1929). The S-O-R paradigm underlines the internal states (O) as a mediator of the relationship between environmental stimulus (S) and complex human behaviors (R) that differ from animals' mechanical responses to stimulus (White, 1993). Stimuli are external to the individuals (i.e., environmental conditions that affect their behaviors), organism is internal response to external conditions (i.e., emotional states and personality), and response refers to certain behaviors as a result of cognitive and affective processes.

Marketing researchers have adopted the Mehrabian-Russell model to suggest how the physical environments in service organizations (e.g., retail stores) can be used to influence customers' behaviors (Boom & Bitner, 1982; Castro et al., 2007; Chebat & Michon, 2003; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn, & Nesdale, 1994; Huang, 2003; Tai & Fung, 1997; Yüksel, 2007). Correspondingly, tourism researchers have recently focused on the role of emotion elicited from physical and social stimuli within a destination in predicting repeat patronage intention and creating positive word of mouth recommendations (e.g., Lee et al., 2005; Lee, Lee, Lee, & Babin, 2008). Most recently, Lee et al. (2008) examined how festivalscapes (festival environment atmosphere) affected visitors' emotional experiences, satisfaction, and loyalty to the particular festival. Their study revealed some limitations of different investigative methods. For example, they explored only one aspect of the loyalty construct, future revisit intentions, although psychological commitment is considered a necessary element that leads to true loyalty (Pritchard et al., 1999). As the authors indicated, another limitation is that the study was conducted at a large-scale international festival in Korea. Thus, they recommended that further research in different geographical locations and with different sizes and types of festivals and events be conducted.

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Drawing on the Mehrabian-Russell model from environmental psychology, the present study explored how emotions engendered through tourism product consumption influence visitors' post-visit evaluations and loyalty within a festival context. Specifically, this study investigated visitors' emotional states at festival settings and then examined the mediating role of these emotions on festival visitors' satisfaction with, psychological attachment to, and loyalty to both the festivals and hosting communities.

The hypothesized relationships depicted in Figure 1 below, guided this investigation. Broadly, it is hypothesized that the stimuli (perceptions of festival atmospheric attributes) induce positive emotions which, in turn, results in positive evaluations of, psychological commitment to, and behavioral loyalty to the festivals and hosting communities (approaching responses).

The findings of the study offer both theoretical and practical implications. For theory, this study contributes to advancing the M-R model based on the S-O-R paradigm through within a festival context. Also, the M-R model contributes to the existing loyalty literature that model loyalty development processes within the context of cognitive development theory with stronger emphasis on the emotional responses to the setting in which leisure experiences are enjoyed. For practice, this study provides festival organizers and destination marketing managers with useful insight for pinpointing the provisions of festival atmospherics that will contribute to generating more unique and satisfying experiences at festivals and, ultimately, attracting and retaining more visitors to festivals and hosting communities.

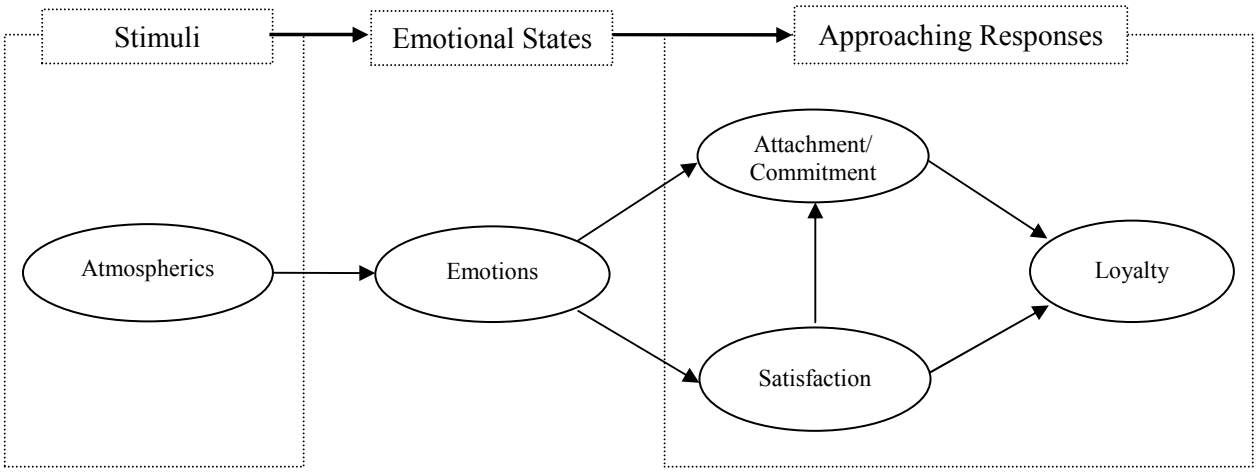

Fig. 1. Conceptual model based on the Mehrabian-Russell model and Stimulus-Organism-Response theory

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK: STIMULUS – ORGANISM – RESPONSE (S-O-R) PARADIGM

The S-O-R paradigm (Woodworth, 1929) was introduced as an extension of the stimulus-response (S-R) theory in behaviorism (Moore, 1996). The S-R paradigm has become a theoretical foundation in understanding animal behaviors for many experimental psychologists. Of those behaviorists, John B. Watson (1878-1958), Ivan P. Pavlov (1849-1936), Edward L. Thorndike (1874-1949), and Burrlus F. Skinner (1904-1990) took the lead in the development of classical S-R behaviorism (Snodgrass, Levy-Berger, & Haydon, 1985; White, 1993). In the psychological discipline, Watson (1913) was the first to use the term "behaviorism" that is generally designated as the classical S-R theory (Schneider & Morris, 1987; see also Moore, 1996). Later, a Russian physiologist, Pavlov (1927), in his book, *Conditioned Reflexes*, conducted a laboratory experiment on dogs' salivary reflex response to stimuli (Snodgrass et al., 1985; White, 1993). A bell-like sound was the conditioned stimulus, whereas the smell and/or the sight of food was the unconditioned stimulus. He conditioned the salivary reflexes of dogs to the sound of a tuning fork. Through a number of paired trials of the conditioned stimulus (bell sound) and the unconditioned stimulus (smell and/or sight of food), he observed that the dog salivated at the bell sound without food as much as he had when food had been present. Therefore, he believed the basic process in learning was the

formation of an association between a stimulus and a response because of their simultaneous reaction. The Pavlov's classical conditioning posits that certain stimuli gradually cause a particular response without any mediation (i.e., thinking or feeling).

Thorndike (1898) also contributed to advancing the understandings of animal learning behaviors with an introduction of reward psychology in his dissertation, *An Experimental Study of the Associative Process in Animal* (Snodgrass et al., 1985; White, 1993). Thorndike's learning theory (1932), called the *law of effect*, was established based on his experiments on starved cats learning to escape from a puzzle box. He explained the cats' ability to learn how to successfully escape the puzzle box in order to consume fish within the S-R theory. He argued that the animal's learning behavior is governed by rewards (i.e., the escape behavior and the consumption of the fish) and automatic trial-and-error procedures.

Skinner (1938) further extended Thorndike's reward psychology theory with the principles of *operant conditioning* on the S-R theory (see Snodgrass et al., 1985, p. 152). Similar to Thorndike's experiments, Skinner placed a starved animal (either rats or pigeons) in a Skinner box, which was equipped with the dispenser of a measured portion of food in response to the animal's bar pressing behavior. With manipulation of the animal's response by external reinforcement (i.e., reward), he observed that accidental discoveries became associated with certain problems or needs and, by their success, developed into habitual responses, which is consistent with the S-R linkage. According to him, a behavioral sequence starts with a behavior emitted by the animal, followed by a

reinforcement of that behavior. A positive reinforcement that is usually pleasant or satisfying tends to increase the repetition of the particular behavior.

Classical behaviorism has been criticized for reducing complicated human's mental activities to a simple and automatic process within a frame of S-R associations (Moore, 1996; White, 1993). Thus, Woodworth (1929) proposed the S-O-R paradigm with the hope of accounting for internal cognitive and affective processes of organism, which could not be explained by classical behaviorism. He included mediating variables (O) that intervened between stimulus and response, representing such organic variables as motives, response tendencies, and purposes, which were presumed to determine the effects of other stimuli (Moore, 1996, p. 347). Throughout extensive research endeavors in the psychology and learning disciplines, organism (O) has encompassed a wide range of intervening variables beyond "Woodworth's original sense of organic states" (Smith, 1986; see also Moore, 1996). The intervening variable of organism includes a wide variety of non-behavioral acts, states, mechanisms, and processes.

2.2. MEHRABIAN – RUSSELL (M-R) MODEL

The environmental psychologists Mehrabian and Russell (1974) adopted and extended the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) theory in behavioral psychology to understand how people respond to physical environments. As illustrated in Figure 2, they underlined the mediating effect of emotions on the relationship between environmental stimuli and people's response to the physical environment. The associations between stimuli, internal responses, and actions were conceptualized within

the stimulus-organism-response paradigm (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Eroglu, Machleit, & Davis, 2001). The S-O-R paradigm posits that the physical and social environment (S) has a stimulating effect on people's internal evaluation (O), which, in turn, generates positive or negative behaviors toward the environment (R). Likewise, the Mehrabian-Russell model (see Figure 2) addresses the role of emotions that are elicited by different environmental stimuli in affecting human behaviors in various settings (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Mebrabian, 1980; Russell & Pratt, 1980). The model assumes that an individual's perception and interpretation of the physical and social environment influence how s/he feels in that environment. The model further assumes that such feelings as pleasure, arousal, and dominance affect the behaviors that govern whether people either approach or avoid an environment.

Researchers in the services marketing and retailing disciplines have tested the effect of emotions evoked from attributes in the physical environment (i.e., "atmospherics," "servicescapes," or "festivalscapes") on consumer behaviors and attitudes at various settings such as hotels (Barsky & Nash, 2002), theme parks and museums (Bigné & Andreu, 2004; Bigné, Andreu, &Gnoth, 2005; Bonn, Joseph-Mathews, Dai, Hayes, & Cave, 2007), festivals (Lee et al., 2008), banks (Baker, Berry & Parasuraman, 1988), retail stores (Babin & Babin, 2001; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; McGoldrick & Pieros, 1998; Yüksel, 2007), and online retailing (Eroglu et al., 2001). The common denominator of these studies is that an individual is likely to display approach behaviors in pleasant environments, creating positive emotions, and avoidance behaviors in unpleasant environments, creating negative emotions. Babin and Babin

(2001), for instance, explored the effect of the typical atmosphere of a given store on customers' emotions and patronage intention. Interestingly, they found that customers felt both some discomfort and a certain excitement when they perceived that the store did not have some prototypical designs, which in turn significantly influenced the likelihood to revisit.

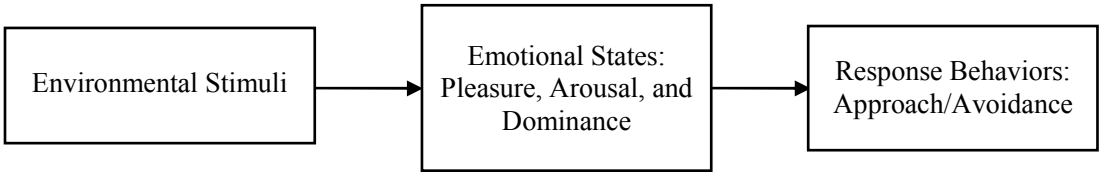

Fig. 2. The Mehrabian-Russell model (adapted from Lovelock & Wirtz, 2004, p. 289)

2.2.1. Environmental Stimuli

Place is considered to be one of the most significant features of the total product and provides a context where the tangible product or service is bought or consumed (Kotler, 1973/74). The place atmosphere on some occasions is either more influential than the product itself in the purchasing decision or becomes the primary product itself. This aspect of place, what was originally called "atmospherics" by Kotler, has become an effective marketing tool for retail stores and service organizations. Atmospherics can be defined as visitors' perception of "the conscious designs of buying environments to produce specific emotional effects in the buyer that enhance his purchase probability" (p. 50). It is often used to describe the quality of the surroundings and is apprehended through the main sensory channels such as sight, sound, scent, and touch.

Various environmental stimuli in the atmosphere of a set of surroundings have been examined to uncover their impact on people's behaviors toward and within an environment. The stimuli that Mehrabian and Russell (1974) empirically tested were noise, unpleasant odor, chemical pollutants, and crowding in particular settings. They discovered that these environmental qualities lowered pleasure and increased arousal, thus resulting in avoidance behaviors to those settings. Following Mehrabian and Russell's studies, researchers in retail and services marketing have further investigated the effect of various in-store atmospherics on consumers' shopping behaviors. The retail/service atmospherics that marketing scholars have studied include color (Bellizzi, Crowley, & Hasty, 1983; Bellizzi & Hite, 1992; Crowley, 1993), music type and tempos (Chebat, Gélinas & Vaillant, 2001; Dubé, Chebat, & Morin, 1995; Milliman, 1982; Yalch & Spangenberg, 1990), lighting (Golen & Zimmerman, 1986), odor (Chebat & Michon, 2003; Spangenberg, Crowley, & Henderson, 1996; Spangenberg, Sprott, Grohmann, & Tracy, 2006), perceived clutter and cleanliness (Bitner, 1990), and a combination of color and music, also referred to as ambience (Lin, 2003). It has been suggested that the atmospherics in various contexts (e.g., servicescape and festivalscape) are significantly related to environmental preferences, perceptions/evaluations of the product offerings, and consumers' behaviors (Bitner, 1990; Lee et al., 2008).

According to Kotler (1973/74), there is an important distinction between an intended atmosphere and a perceived atmosphere. The intended atmosphere is "the set of sensory qualities that the designer of the artificial environment sought to imbue in the space" (p. 51). Spatial aesthetics in the intended atmosphere can be particularly effective

as a marketing tool for the service organizations because the "products" have intangible characteristics and are produced and consumed simultaneously (Boom & Bitner, 1982). The atmosphere also plays a key role in communicating the images and purposes of the organizations. A good example of the intended atmosphere is a chain restaurant that conveys an inviting atmosphere by furnishing the dining areas with comfortable chairs and using bright paint in pleasing primary colors (i.e., yellow at MacDonald's and red and white at TGI Friday's).

The intended atmosphere in the service environment contains three components: ambience, layout/design, and social service environment (Baker, 1986; Bitner, 1990; Bonn et al., 2007). Ambience deals with non-visual, background elements of atmospherics that influence the senses by manipulating attributes such as lighting, music, noise, temperature, signage, and wall color. In the case of festivals, organizers can manipulate program content and types of food to create a pleasant atmosphere and ensure visitors' positive experience. Layout/design is associated with functionality and aesthetic aspects of the physical environment. This element is useful in a retail setting because it helps to attract and hold consumers' attention (Marans & Spreckelmeyer, 1982), thereby creating a positive image of a store and encouraging their purchase (Buttle, 1984). In a festival context, it encompasses the efficient layout of many venues (e.g., food and attractions venues, parking lots, and restrooms) that facilitate traffic flow and ensure visitors' comfort as well as effective and informative signage. The social service environment involves service encounters and social interactions between visitors and employees. The social environment at a festival includes visitors' evaluations of

employee service quality and experiences through interaction with other visitors (Bitner, 1990).

In contrast, the perceived atmosphere is in the eye of the beholder, because one's reactions to various environmental stimuli are partly learned (Kotler, 1973/74) and differ depending on one's response ability. This has partially posed a difficulty in developing adequate stimulus taxonomy in any given environment (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). Yet, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) conceptualized environmental stimulation applicable across a wide variety of physical and social settings as the "information rate" or "load" of an environment. The load of an environment can be measured by the degree of novelty and complexity. Novelty refers to an environment that is new, unfamiliar, and unanticipated to an individual, whereas complexity involves the number of elements or features and the extent of motion or change in an environment. The model suggests that environmental loads have a direct influence on the degree of arousal induced by the environment. In a high-load environment (i.e., a highly novel and complex environment), a person is more likely to feel stimulated, excited, and alert. Conversely, a low-load environment will most likely make the person feel calm, relaxed, and sleepy.

Furthermore, the extent of arousal responses to the environmental load is different depending on an individual's ability to respond to external information (Mehrabian, 1976, 1980). A series of Mehrabian's studies indicated that there are two types of individual differences in arousability: screeners on one extreme and nonscreeners on the other. Screeners are apt to filter incoming stimuli selectively, thus becoming less distracted by unfamiliar surroundings and imposing a pattern on the

features of a complex environment. Consequently, they tend to have a decreased information rate or low load of the environment. Compared to screeners, nonscreeners are less selective in what they attend to and more sensitive to stimulus changes; as a result, they experience more arousal by novel, complex stimuli of the environment.

2.2.2. Emotional States

Emotions are understood as a mental reaction consciously experienced as a subjective feeling state (Westbrook, 1987) and generated through the exchange of interpersonal interactions (Chebat, 2002). Principally, consumption emotion refers to "the set of emotional responses elicited specifically during product usage or consumption experiences" (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991, p.85). Emotions are distinguishable from the related affective state of mood (Gardner, 1985) based on "emotion's relatively greater psychological urgency, motivational potency, and situational specificity" (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991, p.85). In other words, mood is a temporary state of affect that is "the feeling side of consciousness, as opposed to thinking, which taps the cognitive domain" (Oliver, 1997, p.294). According to Oliver (1997), emotion encompasses both arousal and broader forms of affect including its cognitive domain. Yet, the concepts of emotion and affect are frequently used interchangeably in the literature.

As there is no consensus on defining emotions in the literature, several taxonomies have been proposed to describe diverse emotional experiences (i.e., Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Izard, 1977; Russell & Pratt, 1980; Richins, 1997). They

are “described either by the distinctive categories of emotional experience and expression (e.g., joy, anger, and fear) or by the structural dimensions underlying emotional categories such as pleasantness/unpleasantness, relaxation/action, or calmness/excitement” (see also Russell, 1980; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991, P.85).

Mehrabian and Russell claimed that any environment induces emotions that can be encapsulated into the three dimensions. These emotional states, known by the acronym PAD, include pleasure, arousal, and dominance. They are factorially orthogonal (i.e., uncorrelated) and expressed on the continuum of bipolar emotions: pleasure-displeasure, arousal-nonarousal, and dominance-submissiveness (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Pleasure refers to the degree to which an individual feels happy, good, delighted, or satisfied in the situation, which is subject to the individual’s preference to the environment. Arousing state refers to the degree to which a person is excited, stimulated, or alert in the situation. Dominance is the extent to which the person feels in control of the situation. These three emotional dimensions are considered to account for people’s emotional responses to diverse environments.

Mehrabian and Russell’s (1974) original tridimensional conceptualization of emotions was retested and modified in a subsequent study by Russell and Pratt (1980). They identified an eight-descriptor circumplex model of emotional reactions to environments using factor analysis of a 105-item list of affect-denoting adjectives. The eight major emotional states (pleasant-unpleasant, relaxing-distressing, exciting-gloomy, and arousing-sleepy) were found to be encapsulated into two basic emotions—pleasure and arousal. Russell and Pratt suggested that only the pleasure and arousal dimensions

are applicable to a broader range of situations because the dominance dimension works through the cognitive process and becomes insignificant in situations where affective responses are called for. Their two-dimensional emotion scheme has been widely adopted and tested in the consumer behavior literature to measure emotions associated with physical goods (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986) and service settings such as theme parks (Bigné & Andreu, 2004; Bigné, Andreu, &Gnoth, 2005), interactive museums (Bigné & Andreu, 2004), and retail stores (Ruiz, Chebat, & Hansen, 2004; Yüksel, 2007).

Likewise, Izard (1977) proposed the Differential Emotions Scale (DES), which consists of 10 primary emotional responses to increase an organism's survival chance: interest, joy, surprise, sadness, anger, disgust, contempt, fear, shame, and guilt. His emotion categories have been used to test emotive experiences in diverse contexts (e.g., Holbrook, 1986; Westbrook, 1987). However, some researchers have commented that his emotional scale tends to have a preference of reflecting negative emotions (Mano & Oliver, 1993, as cited in Richins, 1997). Similar to the Izard's scale, Plutchik (1980) developed the Emotions Profile Index to understand the use of emotional responses as a survival tool from an evolutionary perspective. According to Plutchik, there are eight emotional categories that can be conceptually reorganized and mixed into various combinations: acceptance, fear, surprise, sadness, disgust, anger, anticipation, and joy. Holbrook and Westwood (1989) tested the validity of Plutchik's emotional typology in the context of research on advertising effects. Their study findings uncovered four primary emotional descriptors (i.e., joy, acceptance/anticipation, fear/sadness, and

aversion (anger/disgust)) and two key dimensions (i.e., negative-positive and serious-light) underlying the associations among emotional responses to television commercials. They concluded that Plutchik's typology might be applicable to the context of emotional responses to advertising.

Richins (1997) pointed out that existing emotional scales (i.e., Mehrabian and Russell's PAD scale and Izard's DES) were developed to cover the entire range of fundamental emotional responses to physical environments. Yet, emotions are more context specific, with different emotions salient depending on the context in which they are used. She developed the Consumption Emotion Set (CES) in order to provide emotions elicited through personal interaction occurring in product and service consumption experience. The CES contains emotional descriptors frequently experienced in consumption such as worry, shame, envy, and love. Her scale was adopted by Collishaw, Dyer, and Boies (2008) in leisure studies to examine the impact of customers' perceptions of instructors' emotional expressions on customer satisfaction and loyalty to a fitness club. Of Richins' (1997) emotional descriptors, Collishaw et al. chose a set of four emotional adjectives that were particularly related to the fitness context—enthusiastic, happy, encouraged, and proud—and measured them on a 7-point Likert scale.

Andrew and Withey (1976) also proposed the Delighted-Terrible scale (D-T scale) in order to assessing affective aspects of American adults' life quality. The D-T scale includes 7 on-scale affects: terrible, unhappy, mostly dissatisfied, mixed (about equally satisfied and dissatisfied), mostly satisfied, pleased, and delighted. In addition,

the D-T scale consists of 3 off-scale categories to effectively address concerns that are irrelevant or difficult for some respondents to express their feelings. Their data showed that the D-T scale produced greater differentiation at the positive end of the scale than other existing scales of satisfaction (e.g., the Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers' (1976) seven-point Satisfaction Scale, the Faces, the Circles, and the Ladder Scale). However, Ganglmair and Lawson (2003) noted that the D-T scale produced skewed results, which required further examination of the scale. In order to overcome this shortcoming of the D-T scale, Ganglmair and Lawson conceptualized "Affective Response to Consumption (ARC)," measuring emotional responses specifically related to satisfaction. ARC, containing unidimensional experience of unfavorable-favorable consumption, has been argued to yield inconclusive results because mixed emotions are simultaneously experienced in a situation (Larsen, McGraw, & Cacioppo, 2001).

These emotional states were further reclassified into positive and negative emotions by aggregating specific emotion types with a similar valence (e.g., Lee et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2008; Yoo, Park, & MaInnis, 1998). These two feelings have also been empirically tested to examine the linkage between satisfaction and loyalty in international sport events (Lee et al., 2005) and dance festivals (Lee et al., 2008). Using aggregated, bipolar emotional states (i.e., positive and negative emotions) allows researchers to maintain a psychologically consistent representation of complex human emotions as well as to obtain a substantial level of economy. Yet, this approach could entail some limitations because "several discrete emotion types exist at a lower level of aggregation, and have different antecedents and consequences" (Söderlund &

Rosengren, 2004, p. 27). Richins (1997) and Holbrook and Westwood (1989) also argued that the summed, unidimensional affect measures are incapable of fully capturing the nuance, diversity, and pattern of emotional responses to different contexts.

Some emotion theorists in social psychology have suggested that people's knowledge about emotions is organized hierarchically (e.g., Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, & O'Connor, 1987). Notably, Shaver et al. pointed out a vague categorization of emotions and used prototype analysis to detect cognitive representation of the structure of emotions. The prototype approach, first introduced by Rosch (1973, 1978) and Rosch, Mervis, Gray, Johnson, and Boyes-Braem (1976) to categorize colors and physical objects, underlines category systems or taxonomies containing hierarchical relationships among categories. These relationships contain three levels of structure of the superordinate (e.g., furniture), the basic (e.g., chair), and the subordinate (e.g., kitchen chair). Of those hierarchical structures, the basic-level categories afford the most representative and typical example of the category, called "prototypes." Emotions categorization, based on their prototypicality, is particularly useful because these categories are most salient and are frequently used by ordinary people. In Shaver et al.'s empirical study, six primary prototypical emotions (love, joy, anger, sadness, fear, and surprise) were identified. The prototype emotions maximize the within-category similarity relative to the between-category similarity. Each prototype of emotions subsumes many subordinate emotions. For example, the love prototype entails adoration, affection, fondness, liking, attraction, caring, tenderness, compassion, sentimentality, arousal, desire, lust, passion, infatuation, and longing (pp. 1070-1071; see Table 1).

Table 1
Measures of emotion

Researchers	Emotions	Study Context	Adopted by
Mehrabian & Russell (1974)	pleasure, arousal, dominance	various physical environments	Donovan & Rossiter (1982); Huang (2003)
Russell & Pratt (1980)	arousing-sleepy (intense-inactive, arousing-drowsy, active-idle, alive-lazy, forceful-slow), exciting-gloomy (exhilarating-dreary, sensational-dull, stimulating-unstimulating, exciting-monotonous, interesting-boring), pleasant-unpleasant (pleasant-dissatisfying, nice-displeasing, pleasing-repulsive, pretty-unpleasant, beautiful-uncomfortable), distressing-relaxing (frenzied-tranquil, tense-serene, hectic-peaceful, panicky-restful, rushed-calm)	general physical environments (wilderness area, nightclub, bathroom, elevator, beach, etc.)	
Russell (1980)	pleasure, arousal		Bigné & Andreu (2004); Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth (2005); Donovan et al. (1994); McGoldrick & Pieros (1998); Van Kenhove & Desrumaux (1997)
Chebat & Michon (2003)	pleasure (happy-unhappy, pleased-annoyed, satisfied-unsatisfied, contended-melancholic), arousal (relaxed-stimulated, calm-excited, sleepy-wide awake)	retail stores	Roy & Tai (2003); Ruiz et al. (2004); Yüksel (2007); Yüksel & Yüksel (2007)
Westbrook (1987)	pleasure (comfort, bored, satisfied, pleased), arousal (wide-awake, excited, active, gloomy)	retail stores	Allen, Machleit, & Kleine (1992); Tai & Fung (1997)
Izard (1977)	anger, contempt, disgust, distress, fear, guilt, enjoyment, interest, shame, surprise		Chebat & Slusarczyk (2005); Gountas & Gountas (2007)
Plutchik (1980)	acceptance, expectancy, joy, surprise, anger, disgust, fear, sadness		Hicks, Page, Behe, Dennis, & Fernandez (2005); Holbrook and Westwood (1989); Laros & Steenkamp (2005)

Table 1 Continued

Researchers	Emotions	Study Context	Adopted by
Richins (1997)	peacefulness, contentment, optimism, joy, surprise, excitement, eagerness, romantic love, love, envy, relief, pride, guilt, anger, discontent, worry, sadness, fear, shame, loneliness	retail stores	Collishaw et al. (2008)
Yoo et al. (1998)	positive (pleased, attractive, excited, contended, proud, satisfied), negative (ignored, anxious, nullified, displeased, angry)	retail stores	
Lee et al. (2008)	positive (pleased, satisfied, excited, energetic), negative (bored, sleepy, annoyed, angry)	festival	
Lee et al. (2005)	bad-good, unpleasant-pleasant, nasty-nice	destination (country)	
Mattila (2001)	nice, awful, good, bad, beneficial, harmful, desirable, undesirable	restaurant	
Barsky & Nash (2002)	comfortable, content, elegant, entertained, excited, excited, extravagant, hip (or cool), important, inspired, pampered, practical (or sensible, realistic, prudent), relaxed, respected, secure, sophisticated, welcome	hotel	

2.2.3. Approaching Responses

Based on behaviorism in the experimental psychology and learning literature and Miller's (1944) approach-avoidance conflict model, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) proposed that there are two types of behavior within an environment: approach and avoidance. They contended that positively reinforcing environmental stimuli elicits approach behaviors, while negatively reinforcing environmental stimuli elicits avoiding behavior. Approach behaviors are positive responses to an environment, including physical movements toward environment, attention and exploration of unfamiliar environment, favorable attitudes through verbal and nonverbal communication (i.e.,

preference or liking), facilitation of social interaction in the environment (i.e., affiliation, attraction, positive evaluation), and enhancement of task performance and satisfaction within the environment. Avoidance behaviors reflect an opposite set of approach behaviors, which are a desire to leave, indifference in, and detachment from the environment.

Each of these behaviors has been applied to responses to retail store environments in the services and tourism literature. Donovan and Rossiter (1982) have found that approach behaviors to a retail store include (1) store patronage intentions, (2) willingness to readily search for products and services that the store offers, (3) willingness to interact with sales personnel at the store, and (4) increased time and money expenditures as well as shopping frequency in the store. Similarly, Yüksel (2007) has found that emotions induced by shopping environments in a tourist destination influence such shopping behaviors as future revisit intention as well as perceived value. In a hotel setting, Barsky and Nash (2002) demonstrated that emotions influence customer loyalty toward hotels. In particular, they indicated that certain emotions, such as comfort, played a strong role in the decision-making process regarding willingness to pay and return to a given hotel property.

Bigné and Andreu (2004) also conducted a study of tourist segmentation based on consumption emotions evoked by the enjoyment of leisure and tourism services at tourist attractions (i.e., interactive museums and a theme park). They provided empirical evidence that those experiencing greater emotions (i.e., pleasure and arousal) displayed an increased level of satisfaction and greater degree of willingness to pay more. Bigné

and his coauthors (2005) further suggested that pleasure is directly linked to visitors' satisfaction, loyalty to a theme park, and willingness to pay a higher price, whereas arousal mediates the relationship between pleasure and cognitive evaluations of theme park experience.

In the context of events and festivals, Lee et al. (2005) examined the effect of visitors' affect, created by the images of a destination hosting an international sport event, on their evaluations, revisit intentions, and willingness to recommend. They found that positive emotions, engendered by favorable images of the destination and positive perceived service quality, had a significant direct effect on visitors' satisfaction and their willingness to recommend but no effect on revisit intentions. Most recently, Lee and others (2008) tested the relationship between various environmental cues at an international festival and emotions, satisfaction, and loyalty. They found that certain attributes of the setting, including food and facility quality and program contents, directly affected visitors' emotions and satisfaction, which, in turn, significantly influenced their loyalty to that festival.

2.2.3.1. Place Attachment

The construct of place attachment has been adapted in many disciplines to study human behavior in relation to the physical environment. Geographers and environmental psychologists have defined attachment to a place ranging from homes, communities, and societies (e.g., Altman & Low, 1992; Hidalgo & Hernández, 2001; Kaltenbron, 1997; McAndrew, 1998; Milligan, 1998; Tuan, 1976). Leisure researchers, through extensive

empirical research, have recently shown that the construct is useful not only for better understanding recreationists' leisure behavior but also to address managerial issues in resource management (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Warzecha & Lime, 2001). Compared to other disciplines, the construct of place attachment to explore tourists' behavior has received little attention. The place attachment construct could be useful for the present study because it offers the potential for better assessment of visitors' attitudes (i.e., values, meanings, and preferences) toward the physical settings and might more effectively predict their repeat visit behaviors.

The word "attachment" emphasizes affect and the word "place" focuses on the environmental settings to which people are emotionally and culturally attached (Altman & Low, 1992). Each individual is likely to be "attached" to places if they have emotional links and if they derive meanings through social interactions in the place (Milligan, 1998). This affective bond to a particular place may vary in intensity from immediate sensory to long-lasting and deeply rooted attachment (Tuan, 1976). The environmental psychology literature has defined the concept of place attachment by embracing the broader phenomenon of human-environment relations. It "subsumes or is subsumed by a variety of analogous ideas, including topophilia, place identity, insidedness, genres of place, sense of place or rootedness, environmental embeddedness, community sentiment and identity, to name a few" (Altman & Low, 1992, p. 3). It could also be expended in the tourism context. Tourism embodies "service relationships with emotional attachment through the special interest focus (activity and/or destination) and the kind (situational and/or enduring) and level (high/low) of involvement on the part of participants" (Trauer

& Ryan, 2005, p. 486). Reflecting the definition in the previous literature from various disciplines, place attachment in this study corresponds to an individual visitor's emotional tie to a physical setting, particularly a destination, which evolves through interaction and is derived from past travel experiences.

In an attempt to define "place attachment" in a leisure context, Schreyer, Jacob, and White (1981) suggested that the meanings a recreationist ascribes to a particular setting have two dimensions: emotional-symbolic meanings and functional meanings. The recreationist gives a meaning to a particular place because it is perceived as special to him/her for emotional and symbolic reasons or because it is a suitable setting to take on a certain activity (Moore & Graefe, 1994). Williams and Roggenbuck (1989) later developed scales to measure three theorized dimensions of place attachment by testing 129 students from different universities. These distinct dimensions are place identity, place dependence, and place indifference. The place identity dimension corresponds to emotional-symbolic meanings proposed by Schreyer et al. (1981), whereas the place dependence dimension corresponds to functional meanings. Many researchers have noted that (1) each dimension of the construct tends to predict other constructs differently and (2) association between variables is heterogeneous depending on the types of activity and setting and individual characteristics (Backlund & Williams, 2003; Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000; Kyle, Graefe et al., 2003, 2004a, 2004b, 2004c; Kyle, Bricker et al., 2004; Kyle, Mowen, & Tarrant, 2004).

Place identity refers to "the dimensions of the self that define the individual's personal identity in relation to the physical environment" (Proshansky, 1978, p. 155). It

can be developed through (1) positively balanced cognitions rather than negatively balanced cognitions (Proshansky, Fabian, & Kaminoff, 1983) and (2) repeated exposure of a place regardless of whether that exposure is based on actual experiences (mere-repeated-exposure theory, Zajonc, 2001; see also Backlund & Williams, 2003). Another dimension of place attachment is place dependence, which deals with "the opportunities a setting affords for fulfillment of specific goals or activity needs" (Williams, Anderson, McDonald, & Patterson, 1995). The concept of place dependence, based on transactional theory (Stokols & Schumaker, 1981; see also Backlund & Williams, 2003), is used to assess how the current setting compares with other available settings that may provide the same attributes (Stokols & Schumaker, 1981; Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992). For example, golfers may become attached to a physical setting (e.g., a golf course) due to its attributes or characteristics given for desired activities (Petrick, Backman & Bixler, 2000). These two dimensions of place attachment have found to be reliable across various samples (Lee et al., 2007; Moore & Graefe, 1994; Moore & Scott, 2003; Mowen, Graefe, & Virden, 1997; Warzecha & Lime, 2001; William &Vaske, 2003).

In addition to the place identity and place dependence dimensions of place attachment, social bonding has been noted by environmental psychologists and leisure researchers (Hidalogo & Hernández, 2001; Kyle, Graefe, & Manning, 2005; Kyle et al., 2004b; Kyle, Mowen, & Tarrant, 2004; Low & Altman, 1992; Mesch & Manor, 1998). They agreed that meaningful social interactions in specific settings could be an essential element of emotional attachment to those settings. It is particularly true of a festival

setting that provides the context for social relationships and shared experiences. Mesch and Manor (1998) found a significant positive impact of residents' social investments within their neighborhood on their affects toward the neighborhood. Consistent with their findings, Hidalogo and Hernández (2001) observed that social attachments were stronger than setting attachments in three different contexts (i.e., houses, neighborhoods, and cities). Their findings underline the importance of social interaction in developing place attachment. Campbell, Nicholson, and Kitchen (2006) further revealed that social bonding was prominent in creating true loyalty among private health club members.

Leisure and tourism researchers have identified variables associated with the attachments formed by recreationists and visitors to particular settings (see Appendix A). The series of studies examining recreationists' relationships with leisure activities and settings by Kyle et al. (2003, 2004a, 2004b) found that involvement in leisure activities plays a key role in developing emotional attachment to particular places. Other salient factors that have been found to determine the level of place attachment are past experiences (Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler, 2004, 2006; Young, 1999) and substitution for alternatives (Hammitt & MacDonald, 1983). According to Hammitt and MacDonald (1983), the relationship between recreational place bonding and resource substitution behavior correlated with place attachment. Furthermore, attachment to a particular place has been found to be predicted by frequency of use and proximity of destination (Moore & Graefe, 1994), as well as level of satisfaction in the setting (Hou, Lin, & Morais, 2005; Lee, 2001; Petrick et al., 1999). Lee (2001) also found that other factors influence visitors' attachment to different destinations with varying physical features. His findings

indicated that destination attractiveness, past experience, satisfaction, family trip tradition, and tourists' age at their first visit were the significant variables of attachment to a particular beach area, while only place attractiveness and family trip tradition were the significant predictors of attachment to the city.

2.2.3.2. Psychological Commitment

The concept of psychological commitment was originally drawn from sociological and psychological disciplines and has expanded into social psychological studies to explain how social and cognitive commitment affects actions, behavioral disposition, marriage, and jobs (Buchanan, 1985; Pritchard et al., 1999). Commitment refers to "the pledging or binding of an individual to behavioral acts," which is synonymous with "dedication, loyalty, devotion, and attachment, which encompasses a wide range of meaning" (Buchanan, 1985, p. 402). According to Buchanan (1985), there are three necessary conditions for commitment: behavioral consistency, affective attachment, and side bets. Commitment requires consistent goal-oriented behaviors by displaying a willingness to devote time and effort to a brand or product over time. It results in a rejection of alternative behaviors, which leads to living up to the promises and sacrifices. Therefore, an individual's susceptibility to alternatives is likely to decrease as one's commitment increases.

Commitment also involves some degree of affective attachment and evolves along a continuum starting from the continuation stage through the cohesion stage to the control stage. In the continuation stage, a person may show stronger affect for the

current product (e.g., activity, good, or brand) than for alternatives due to higher termination costs in comparison to maintenance costs. In the cohesion stage, behavioral persistence develops positive emotional attachment to and the sense of belonging with the group that shares the same goals, thus deriving satisfaction. In the last stage of control, the person has a tendency to dedicate himself or herself to, and accept the norms and values, of the principal actors within a social network. In sum, commitment is best viewed as "a process through which individual's interests become attached to carrying out of socially organized patterns of behavior which express the needs of the individual" (p. 405). In this sense, commitment can be understood within the concept of recreational specialization in the leisure and outdoor recreation literature (Scott & Shafer, 2001). Similar to the developmental process of commitment, recreational specialization refers to "a continuum of behavior from the general to the particular, reflected by equipment and skills used in the sport and activity setting preferences" (Bryan, 1977, p. 175). Highly specialized individuals have a tendency to commit their time, money, and energy to the activity and use sophisticated techniques and equipment.

Furthermore, Kyle et al. (2004a) have noted that the commitment construct shares conceptual similarity with the place attachment construct. They have argued that psychological commitment underlying the mechanisms that bind individuals to consistent behaviors parallels place attachment emphasizing emotional or affective bonds between a person and a particular setting. Furthermore, they have further suggested that psychological commitment and place attachment display similarity in the dimensions that conceptualize each construct. The identification dimension in

commitment, referred to as "position involvement" by Pritchard et al. (1999), conceptually corresponds to the place identity dimension of place attachment. Both dimensions are associated with a cognitive process that relates self-images to a particular brand and places emphasis more on symbolic value than on utilitarian value. The place dependence dimension of place attachment is also conceptually consistent with the informational dimension of commitment (Pritchard et al., 1999). Information processes highlight the notion of informational complexity and cognitive consistency where individuals maintain a relationship to maximize psychological benefits and reduce economical costs when facing with the complex decision-making process to fulfill their needs. Likewise, place dependence concerns individuals' continuation of a relationship with a place where its attributes satisfy their desired activities compared to other alternative places.

Many researchers have further recognized psychological commitment as one component of the loyalty construct (e.g., Assael, 1987; Beatty, Kahle, & Homer, 1988; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Kyle et al., 2004a; Lee et al., 2007; Pritchard et al., 1999). Psychological commitment is used to assess the relative degrees of attitudinal aspect of loyalty (Backman & Crompton, 1991b; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Kyle et al., 2004a; Park, 1996) and to predict brand patronage or revisit places (Beatty et al., 1988; Kyle et al., 2004a; Lee et al., 2007). Therefore, it is viewed as an essential basis to distinguish true loyal customers from others whose brand or place choice fluctuates depending on situational factors such as scarcity of alternatives, availability of other options, and involuntary choice (Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Pritchard et al., 1999).

In addition, commitment can play a key role in mediating the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty (Bloemer & Odekerken-Schroder, 2002; Pritchard et al., 1999). Positive evaluation of products and services develops commitment to a brand (i.e., resistance to change), which finally leads to consumer patronage (Pritchard et al., 1999). Bloemer and her colleagues (2002) analyzed the data from a study of 357 shoppers at a large European supermarket chain to examine the effect of different antecedents (i.e., positive affect, consumer relationship proneness, and store image) on the conceptual model of satisfaction-trust-commitment-loyalty. They found that all three antecedents had a positive impact on store satisfaction, accounting for 67% of its variance. Further, satisfaction positively influenced commitment through trust, which, in turn, predicted store loyalty (i.e., increased word-of-mouth, purchase intentions, and price sensitivity).

Previous investigations of the relationship between commitment, attitudinal loyalty, and place attachment have suggested that these three constructs are conceptually similar. Although some efforts in the tourism and leisure literature have been made to embrace the concept of customer loyalty from the marketing discipline and introduced the destination loyalty construct to capture the repeat visitation phenomenon (e. g., Alexandris et al., 2006; Baloglu & Erickson, 1998; Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Kyle et al., 2004a; Lee et al., 2007; Niininen et al., 2004; Oppermann, 1998, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), empirical examinations on the causal relationship between place attachment and destination loyalty were still limited. Studies by Lee (2003) and Alexandris et al. (2006) demonstrated that place attachment was a strong predictor of loyalty to destination (i.e.,

national forest and ski resort). Based on the past literature, the present study postulates that place attachment can be a useful construct to effectively assess the attitudinal aspect of destination loyalty that plays a formative role in developing behavioral loyalty (i.e., repeat visit). Place attachment also has the potential of mediating the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty. This study, therefore, attempts to provide insight into the developmental processes of loyalty that is applicable in the context of the festival destination.

2.2.3.3. Satisfaction

Satisfaction can be defined as "a judgment that a product, or service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption–related fulfillment, including levels of under or over fulfillment" (Oliver, 1997, p. 13, as cited in Nash, Thyne, & Davies, 2006). Satisfaction, also referred to as a post-purchase attitude (Swan & Combs, 1976), has been used as an assessment tool for the evaluation of past experiences, performance of products and services, and perceptions of the physical environments such as a neighborhood, an outdoor recreation setting, and a tourist destination (Bramwell, 1998; Ringel & Finkelstein, 1991; Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991). It has been linked to destination choice, consumption of tourism products and services, and decision to return (Alegre & Juaneda, 2006; Baker & Crompton, 2001b; Bigné et al., 2005; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000).

Various research paradigms and approaches have been used in operationalizing the customer satisfaction concept in the literature. These include (1) expectancy-

disconfirmation, (2) norm theory, (3) perceived actual performance-only measure, and (4) equity theory. Among these approaches, the expectancy-disconfirmation theory has arguably received the widest acceptance among researchers in the studies of customer satisfaction since it was introduced by Oliver (1980). Based on Helson's (1964) work in environmental biology that linked expectations with adaptation levels, Oliver's (1980) paradigm suggests four elements to evaluate customer's service experiences: pre-purchase expectation, perceived performance, disconfirmation, and satisfaction. The level of satisfaction is determined through a cognitive comparison between the expectations that a customer develops prior to purchase and the perceived performance of products and services. Confirmation refers to a state of just being satisfied, which means that actual performance met pre-purchase expectations. When the actual performance is superior or inferior to the customer's expectation, disconfirmation is derived. Positive disconfirmation equates to a customer's satisfaction resulting from superior actual performance in comparison with the customer's expectations, whereas negative disconfirmation is equivalent to a customer's dissatisfaction where performance falls short of expectations.

In the tourism and leisure literature, the expectancy-disconfirmation approach is a dominant paradigm that has been widely used to investigate visitors' satisfaction in various contexts and populations such as a wildlife refuge (Tian-Cole, Crompton, & Willson, 2002), a sporting event (Madrigal, 1995), travel agency services (Millán & Esteban, 2004), and shopping experiences at certain destinations (Wong & Low, 2003; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2007). Tian-Cole et al. (2002) found that overall visitors' satisfaction

with their visit to a wildlife refuge, along with overall service quality, directly influenced their future behavioral intentions. In a study of fan satisfaction with attending women's college basketball games, Madrigal (1995) found that his data from 232 attendees was supportive of the hierarchical model of disconfirmation-affect-satisfaction, suggesting that team identification positively influenced affect and enjoyment and had a dominant influence on fan satisfaction. Millán and Esteban (2004) developed a scale for measuring clientele satisfaction with travel agencies' services using the expectancy-disconfirmation approach. They came up with six dimensions to assess agency services satisfaction, including service encounters, empathy, reliability, service environment, advice efficiency, and additional attributes. Wong and Low (2003) in their investigation on the shopping satisfaction levels of visitors to Hong Kong found that there were significant differences between the expectations and perceived satisfaction of different tourist groups for service quality, quality of goods, variety of goods and price of goods. They also found that Western tourists reported the higher levels of satisfaction with most attributes that Asian counterparts did. Yüksel & Yüksel (2007) also used the expectancy-disconfirmation approach to measure satisfaction judgment of tourists' shopping experiences and to test its association with risk perception in shopping (i.e., being mugged, conned, or subject to an inconsiderate treatment). Their results revealed that a higher perception of external and internal risk had a significant, but weak, effect on shopping satisfaction.

Within the framework of expectation-disconfirmation paradigm, tourism researchers sought to identify and measure visitors' satisfaction with their touring

destinations (Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel, 1978; Schofield, 1999). Pizam et al. (1978) identified eight factors of tourist satisfaction with Cape Cod, Massachusetts as a tourist destination area and suggested a means to measure them. The identified factors relevant to tourist satisfaction using a factor analysis procedure were beach opportunities, cost, hospitality, eating and drinking facilities, accommodation facilities, environment, and extent of commercialization. Schofield (1999) also identified the determinant attributes of visitors' expectations about, and satisfaction with, day trip destinations using free elicitation technique. In particular, Tribe and Snaith (1998) proposed the measurement of visitors' satisfaction with a holiday destination by comparing their expectations and actual experiences. Their measurement scale referred to as "HOLSAT scale" is based on the SERVQUAL analysis by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985, 1988).

Similar to the expectation-disconfirmation theory, Latour and Peat (1979) proposed norm theory as a theoretical framework to conceptualize consumer satisfaction. This theory highlights norms as reference points to evaluate the specific product in relation to these norms, thereby determining satisfaction. In the tourism context, past experiences, other alternative destinations, previous destination images, or types of perceived benefits can be norms (i.e., reference points) that weigh against present experiences at the destination, which leads to assessment of the level of satisfaction (e.g., Chon, 1989; Scott, Tian, Wang, & Munson, 1995; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). In a study of the relationship between travel motivation, satisfaction, and destination loyalty, Yoon and Uysal (2005) used other vacation destinations that offer similar features as reference points to evaluate the quality of holiday experiences in northern Cyprus. Chon (1989)

also suggest that previous destination images created by various sources can act as a comparison standard to appraise actual experiences at the destination. Likewise, the types of benefits tourists experience during their visit can play a role as a reference point in determining overall satisfaction and intentions to recommend and revisit (Scott et al., 1995). In a residential or neighborhood context, residents use their needs as reference points in comparison to the ability of the physical environment to assess their satisfaction (Ringel & Finkelstein, 1991).

Another research approach to evaluate satisfaction is by using only perceived actual performance (Tse & Wilton, 1988). This assessment disregards customers' expectations that have been constructed by various factors (e.g., past experiences, alternatives, and recommendation) because of a lack of accurate measurements of expectations that a customer anticipates (Cronin & Taylor, 1992). Despite its discount on consumer anticipation, the performance-only approach can be an effective method when a consumer does not have any knowledge and experience about what a product or service offers (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Lee and Beeler (2007) have further provided empirical evidence that the performance-only measure was a better predictor of their hypothesized model (service quality-satisfaction-future intention) than the disconfirmation measure in a festival setting. Using this approach, researchers have examined visitors' evaluations of different physical attributes as well as performance of service quality in specific study contexts such as tourism destinations (e.g., Turkey and Mallorca in Kozak's [2001] study; Thailand in Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Mongknonvanit's study [2002]; Mongolia in Yu & Goulden's study [2006]) and tourism service providers

(e.g., cruises in Qu & Ping's study [1999]; accommodations in Nash et al.'s study [2006]). These studies have focused on identifying key attributes of tangible products and intangible services and measuring the satisfaction level by evaluating perceived performance of those elements.

The performance-only approach has also been applied to measure the overall level of satisfaction with experiences in particular destinations (e.g., Füller & Matzler, 2008; Kozak, 2001; Qu & Ping, 1999; Severt, Wang, Chen, & Breiter, 2007; Yu & Goulden, 2006). Visitors' overall satisfaction has been argued to be "a summation state of the psychological outcomes they have experienced over time" (Tian-Cole et al., 2002, p. 4). Therefore, a high or low level of overall satisfaction can be induced through multiple positive or negative experiences during a visit. Empirical research has provided evidence that overall visitor satisfaction is the appropriate measure to evaluate the quality of their experiences at different settings such as parks and wilderness areas (Stewart & Cole, 2001; Tian-Cole el al., 2002). It has been noted that satisfaction with various attributes of products and services leads to overall satisfaction with both consumption and purchase (e.g., Chi & Qu, 2008; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000).

However, previous literature has pointed out that global visitor satisfaction measures contain some methodological issues. Manning (2003), in response to Stewart and Cole's (2001) study, criticized their use of an overall satisfaction measure because he maintained that it is "so broad and coarse a measure that changes in recreation opportunities potentially important to visitors may simply not register in a substantive way" (p. 108). He supported his claim by pointing out high levels of visitor satisfaction

and its low variance in previous studies (e.g., Stewart & Cole, 2001). According to Manning, this issue occurs due to (1) "the potentially overwhelming character of natural and/or cultural features in many national parks and wilderness areas which may simply overpower most other variables that could influence visitor satisfaction," and "the fact that recreation activities are generally self-selected thereby contributing to the likelihood of finding relatively and uniformly high levels of visitor satisfaction" (p. 108). Despite the common use of global measures of visitor satisfaction, Manning (2003) claimed that the multidimensional construct containing a stronger, multi-item scale is superior to a simplistic single-item measure in assessing a broad array of visitors' experiences.

Finally, equity theory is a framework that has been used to explain customer satisfaction (Oliver & Swan, 1989). The theory holds that individuals tend to assess the proportion of their inputs and outcomes relative to those of their counterparts in an exchange situation. If they perceive that their proportion is greater than their counterparts', they are likely to feel inequity. Therefore, satisfaction can be determined by the benefits individuals receive compared to the costs of what they spend (e.g., time, value, and efforts).

While there is a general consensus among researchers that customer satisfaction and service quality are distinct in their conceptualization, the measures of these two constructs, based on common theoretical basis (i.e., Parasuraman et al.'s SERVQUAL), have been interchangeably used in many studies (Bowen, 2001; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Oliver, 1980; Tian-Cole et al., 2002). For example, Millán and Esteban (2004) adopted Parasuraman et al.'s SERVQUAL scale to assess satisfaction with travel agency

services. Tribe and Snaith (1998) also modified the SERVQUAL scale and developed a scale called HOLSAT to evaluate visitors' satisfaction with a tourist destination.

Service quality, referred to as "quality of performance," can be defined as a consumer's perception of the physical attributes of products and services and can be controlled by management. In contrast, satisfaction has been referred to as "quality of experience" that derives "the psychological outcomes" or "visitors' perceived benefits they obtain from the experience" (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Mackay & Crompton, 1988; Tian-Cole et al., 2002). Customer satisfaction has been argued to be experience specific and subjective, while service quality is not (Oliver, 1993, 1997). Bowen (2001), referring to work by Iacobucci, Grayson, and Ostrom (1994) and Zeithaml and Bitner (1996) suggested that satisfaction is considered to be more affective or emotional, whereas quality is cognitive. Additionally, satisfaction is found to be superordinate to quality (Tian-Cole et al., 2002; Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996) and to "have a stronger and more consistent effect of purchase intentions than does quality" (Cronin & Taylor, 1992, p. 64). Oliver (1993) indicated that consumers' quality of experience evaluation in comparison to service quality tends to be engendered through a complicated process and is influenced by a broader array of inputs. Even though these two constructs are positively correlated, their relationship always does not seem to be linear (Crompton & Love, 1995). It has been noted that a high level of satisfaction may result even when service quality is perceived to be low due to the outweighing effect of other factors such as positive social interactions (Crompton & MacKay, 1989). In contrast, a low level of satisfaction may also result when perceived service quality is high.

2.2.3.4. Loyalty

2.2.3.4.1. Repeat Visitation

Repeat visitation refers to "a trip to a primary destination which previously had been visited for any purpose" (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984, p. 205). It is generally conceptualized as visit frequency, regardless of time lapse. Many tourism researchers have indicated the importance of repeat visitation to tourist destinations. In particular, mature tourist destinations such as beaches and resorts depend heavily on repeat business because their competitive position is often situated at the later stages of the lifecycle curve (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984; Oppermann, 1998). Repeat business is often regarded as a result of the high quality of the holiday experience and performance of the service providers (Lehto, O'Leary, & Morrison, 2004).

Earlier tourism studies on loyalty have attempted to understand an individual's recurrent visitation to a tourist area by identifying tourist behaviors in comparison with first-time visitors. Researchers have indicated significant differences between first-timers and repeat visitors in motivations, activities that they engaged in at those destinations, travel expenditures, and perceptions of the destination attributes (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984; Godbey & Graefe, 1991; Lau & McKercher, 2004; Lee & Beeler, 2007; Lehto et al., 2004; Shanka & Taylor, 2004). Compared to first-timers, repeat visitors have been found to be motivated by seeking relaxation and reinforcing social interrelationships with family, friends, and other visitors, which lead to less novel and touristic experiences (Fakeye & Crompton, 1992; Gitelson & Crompton, 1984; Godbey & Graefe, 1991; Gitelson & Crompton, 1984; Lau & McKercher, 2004; Lehto et al.,

2004; Oppermann, 1999). They also return to a familiar destination due to (1) reduction of risk associated with unsatisfied experiences from new, unfamiliar alternatives; (2) emotional attachment; (3) further experience that had been omitted in past trips; and (4) sharing their satisfied experiences from past trips with significant others (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984). In terms of trip characteristics, repeaters visit fewer destinations and attractions and partake in fewer and limited sets of activities compared to first-timers (Lau & McKercher, 2004; Lehto et al., 2004; Oppermann, 1999). Furthermore, they are likely to spend less on a daily basis but spend more during the entire trip than first-timers (Godbey & Graefe, 1991; Gyte & Phelps, 1989; Lehto et al., 2004; Oppermann, 1999). As for perceptions of the festival attributes, there were differences between first-time and repeat visitors. Compared to repeaters, first-timers put a higher emphasis on specific festival attributes (e.g., parking and services) for their satisfaction with the festivals (Lee & Beeler, 2007; Shanka & Taylor, 2004).

In a tourism context, repeat visitation parallels the behavioral aspect of destination loyalty due to similar conceptualization and operationalization. Tourism research has often measured loyalty using a single indicator of either visit frequency or intention to revisit in the near future (Chen & Gursoy, 2001). The subtleties of complex loyalty phenomenon cannot be captured by a single indicator or predictor (Rundle-Thiele, 2005) without considering other factors such as perceived value (Petrick, 2004), switching costs (Backman & Crompton, 1991b; Li, 2006), and attitudinal elements (i.e., preference and commitment) (Dick & Basu, 1994; Pritchard et al., 1999), which have been shown to account for why some individuals choose to visit certain places

repeatedly (Oppermann, 1998, 2000). If an individual visits the airport in Houston many times to pick up one's friends and relatives, can the person be considered to be truly loyal to the destination? Understanding destination loyalty with the sole measure of frequent visit has the added drawback of overlooking its attitudinal, psychological aspect (Day, 1969; Dick & Basu, 1994; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Pritchard et al., 1999). An individual may return to the same place out of convenience but not necessarily have positive attitudes of or psychological commitment to it. More important, examining the characteristics of repeat visitors does not provide an in-depth understanding of why some individuals choose to visit a certain place multiple times. The studies rather have focused on the differences in travel characteristics between first-timers and repeaters but did not consider the meanings that the visitors may ascribe to the destinations as a potential explanatory factor.

2.2.3.4.2. Definition and Dimensions of Brand Loyalty

The concept of loyalty has gained in popularity among researchers in various disciplines due to its significant marketing implications since it was first introduced about a century ago. However, despite the increasing numbers of studies dedicated to loyalty, there remains little general agreement among researchers as to what loyalty is and how it should be measured. Traditionally, loyalty has been used to describe one's fidelity and devotion to a certain country or individual (Lovelock, 2001). It has extended in a business context to explain customers' repetitive purchasing patterns of the same brand or product/service category (i.e., store, activity, agency, program, destination or

recreational setting). It is Copeland (1923) who initially conceptualized different consumers' buying habits of durable goods as three types: brand recognition, preference, and insistence.

Many researchers have agreed that customer loyalty consists of a combination of behavioral consistency and attitudinal predisposition toward brand purchase (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978; Morais, 2000; Rundle-Thiele, 2005). Customer loyalty is "the customer's willingness to continue patronizing a business over a long term, purchasing and using its goods and services on a repeated and preferably exclusive basis, and voluntarily recommending the firm's products to friends and associates" (Lovelock, 2001, p. 151). It also represents irrational behavior as a result of "a deeply held commitment to repatronize a preferred product/service consistently" (Oliver, 1997, p. 392). According to Jacoby and Chestnut (1978), some necessary elements have to be satisfied to be brand loyal, which requires biased (i.e., nonrandom) and consistent responses (i.e., repeat purchase) expressed over time by some decision-making unit, associated with one or more alternative brands out of a set of such brands, and caused as a result of psychological processes.

Brand loyalty research has been defined in conceptualization and operationalization through three philosophical approaches: stochastic, purposive, and philosophical/anthropological/sociological (Fournier & Yao, 1997). The first two approaches have their basis on the cognitive processes, whereas the last approach concerns the meaning and emotional aspects of brand loyalty. The researchers in the stochastic school of thought have focused on developing the loyalty measurement based

on descriptive statistics on purchase or use frequency (i.e., repeat-purchase proportions or sequences), which is equivalent to the behavioral aspect of loyalty (e.g., Brown, 1952; Cunningham, 1956; Oppermann, 1998, 2000; Ostrowsk, O'Brien, & Gordon, 1993; Rundle-Thiele, 2005). On the other hand, the purposive approach underlines individual preference to certain products or services, which corresponds to an attitudinal aspect of loyalty (e.g., Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978; Pritchard et al., 1992). Some researchers have called attention to the limited exploratory power of relying on only one approach (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978) and have suggested an integrated approach to these two separate constructs, so-called composite loyalty (Day, 1969). The loyalty index proposed by Day is the ratio of the purchase proportional to the attitude toward the brand over a certain time period.

The last approach places greater emphasis on the role of emotions and meanings in developing brand loyalty. In particular, a series of studies by Fournier and her colleagues (1997, 1998) have reframed the conventional notion of brand loyalty from the perspective of interpersonal relationship theory. They argued that person-to-person relationships could be extended to understand the phenomenology of consumer-brand bonds since not all loyal brand relationships are alike, in strength or in character. This approach is valuable in that it helps to better explain why many brand relationships have failed to be embraced by dominant theoretical conceptions.

There has been a general consensus that customer loyalty is a multidimensional construct; however, determining the dimensions of loyalty remains debatable. A traditional two-dimensional loyalty framework has been dominant in the literature:

behavioral and attitudinal dimension. Behavioral loyalty is synonymous with repeat purchase, underlying behavioral consistency of patronage. As mentioned earlier, it is a stochastic view of consumer behavior, characterizing randomness (Rundle-Thiele, 2005), which focuses on understanding how people make repeat purchases rather than why they buy. Behavioral loyalty has been operationalized using one particular measure or a combination of more than two measures. The common measures include (1) the proportion of one brand purchase to the total purchase of the same product category (Brown, 1952; Cunningham, 1956; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998), (2) the relative purchase frequency (Frank, 1962; Ostrowsk et al., 1993), (3) purchase sequence of the same brand in one product category (Brown, 1952; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Pritchard et al., 1992), (4) duration, representing length of total use or participation (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Park, 1996), (5) time devotion to purchase or use per day, week, month, or year (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998), and (6) the number of purchases, uses, or participations (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998).

Another dimension, attitudinal loyalty, has been proposed to complement the shortcomings of the behavioral aspect of loyalty (Day, 1969; Dick & Basu, 1994). The attitudinal dimension explains why people patronize a product or service and primarily encompasses a preference, liking, and positive attitude over time. Most important, the attitudinal dimension of loyalty encompasses psychological commitment (Backman & Crompton, 1991b; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Park, 1996). Yet, conceptual deficiencies of attitudinal loyalty contribute to obstructing its psychometrically sound measures (Fournier & Yao, 1997; Pritchard et al., 1992). Fournier and Yao (1997) noted that little

attempt has been made to dimensionalize the types or sources of affect/preference that may comprise and distinguish loyalty responses. As a consequence, it contributes to insignificant relationships with other constructs such as brand commitment, perceived product importance, and perceived risk (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978).

Researchers have, more recently, paid increasing attention to additional dimensions such as cognitive (i.e., beliefs and knowledge) and conative loyalty (i.e., future intention to repurchase) (Lee, 2003; Li, 2006; Oliver, 1999). In particular, Oliver (1999) claimed that these four dimensions develop in a hierarchical order: consumers first become cognitively loyal, which develops a belief that one brand is preferred to its alternatives based on the attribute information. At the second stage, affective loyalty, a customer forms a preference to the brand through cumulative satisfaction from its usage occasions. Once such affects are formed, the customers most likely remain committed to patronizing only a particular brand product or service regardless of situational factors and competitors' marketing promotions. In the third stage, the customers have an intention to repurchase the same brand, referred to as conative loyalty. Last, these dimensions follow sequential stages, which, in turn, lead to eventual patronage. Oliver's hierarchical process of loyalty development has been inconsistent across studies. For example, in studies of customer brand loyalty to hotels (Back, 2001) and cruise ships (Li, 2006), other dimensions such as cognitive and conative loyalty are subsumed in the attitudinal loyalty that had a direct effect on behavioral loyalty.

Previous literature investigating the loyalty construct has consistently pointed out the shortcomings of (1) a lack of consistent definition (Li, 2006; Oppermann, 1998,

2000), (2) inclusion of different measures across loyalty studies (Oppermann, 2000; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996), and (3) a lack of concrete theoretical basis (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978). Inconsistent loyalty definitions not only have often led to failure to go beyond simple exploration, but also yield different results across study subjects and contexts (Fournier & Yao, 1997; Li, 2006). Depending on which measures are used, a customer can be categorized as being loyal or disloyal (Morais, 2000), which results in limitation of the full account of the loyalty construct (Zeithaml et al., 1996). For instance, Cronin and Taylor (1992) exclusively used repeat purchase intentions in measuring loyalty as a single item, whereas Boulding, Kalra, Staelin, and Zeithaml (1993) included repurchase intentions and word-of-mouth recommendation in their measurements. Lacking a conceptual standpoint, therefore, has resulted in producing only a snapshot of the dynamic process of loyalty (Dick & Basu, 1994).

2.2.3.4.3. Loyalty Studies in Hospitality/Tourism/Leisure

Studies in hospitality, tourism, and leisure have centered on loyalty to product, service, or brand and a combination of both products and services. Product-level loyalty is associated with consumer goods and recreation activities, while service- or brand-level loyalty involves tourism services (e.g., hotels, airlines, restaurants, and travel agencies) and recreational services (e.g., fitness centers and government agencies). Loyalty, which combines products and services, is relevant to tourist destinations and recreational settings that facilitate certain leisure activities. However, the level of loyalty perception toward tourist destinations may be lower than that of loyalty to products and services in

retailing (Michels & Bowen, 2005). Tourists are more likely to be influenced by situational factors and to partake in fewer revisits to destinations compared to patronage of packaged goods and generic services.

Oppermann (2000) have argued that the behavioral aspect of loyalty has been commonly used as a measure because of (1) the difficulty in assessing precise attitudinal loyalty derived from lacking psychometrically sound instruments, as mentioned earlier, and (2) easier study implementation from readily available data on consumers' repeat purchase or use history. He measured the pattern of actual destination choice during an 11-year period for New Zealand residents' loyalty to Australia as a tourism destination. He chose the measures of proportion of visits and probability of revisits. The study results revealed that a very small percentage of respondents (5 percent) were considered to be very loyal visitors (six or more visits) when he used an arbitrary cut-off point of greater than 50 percent of all years. It was also found that respondents who had never or rarely traveled to Australia in the proceeding 5 or 10 years were less likely or unlikely to do so in the near future.

Leisure researchers also have used a composite measure of loyalty using Day's loyalty index. Although Oppermann (1998) has agreed that it is the most comprehensive approach to measure loyalty, he has criticized Day's index as being impractical. He claimed that it is not clear what weights should be given to either/both proportion and/or attitude. There is also the issue of inconsistent time elapse between proportion and attitude. When proportion is an assessment of an interval estimate using longitudinal data, attitude is usually measured at a single point in time using cross-sectional data. As

a result, attitudes toward products or services may not be accurate during the time period when proportion is measured. Oppermann (2000) further indicated that reliable composite measures of loyalty have yet to be operationalized; therefore, Petrick (2004) suggested that behavioral and attitudinal loyalty should be treated as distinct constructs and measured separately.

2.3. HYPOTHESIZED MODEL

This study adapts a Mehrabian-Russell model that has its basis in the Stimulus-Organism-Response paradigm in order to better explain why visitors go back to the same community festivals and hosting towns. This study identifies tourism product consumption emotions relevant to festivals and examines the application of the M-R model that focuses primarily on visitors' behavioral responses to the environments situated at three festival contexts. It also further extends Lee et al.'s (2008) study about examining how the atmosphere at a festival in Korea influenced visitors' satisfaction and loyalty as they called for greater consideration of emotion's impact on loyalty within other festival contexts.

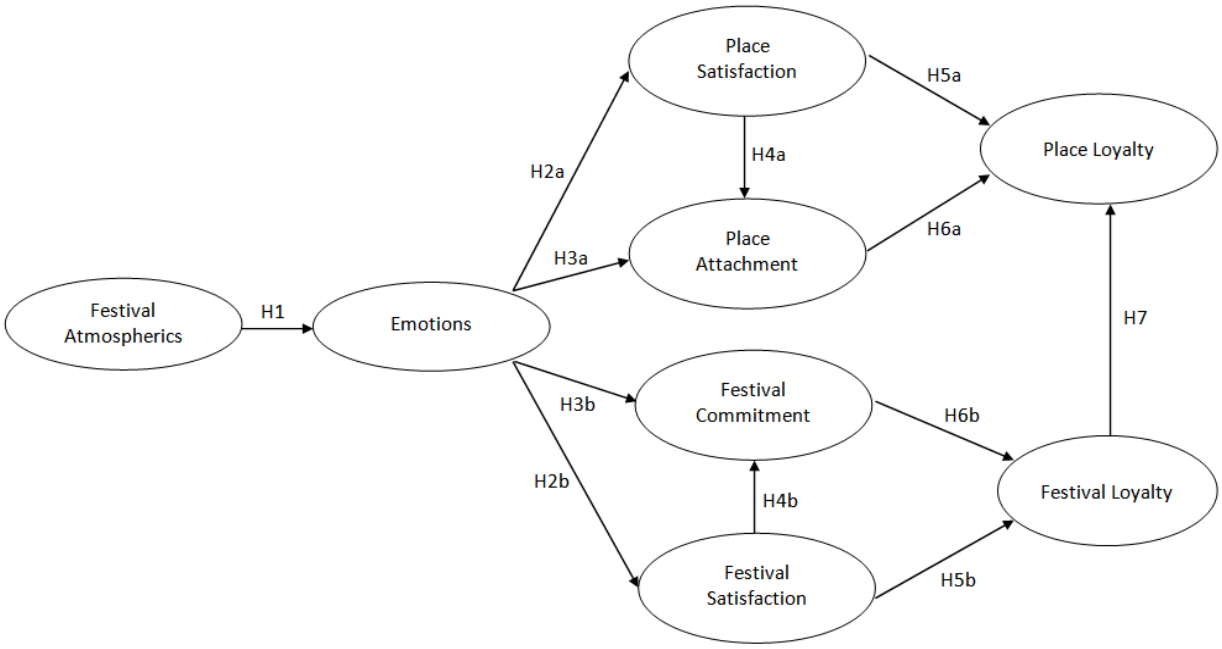

Fig. 3. A hypothesized conceptual model

In the model above (Figure 3), it posits that repeat attendance to a festival and visits to hosting towns can be understood as the product of approaching behaviors in response to the emotions elicited from festival atmospherics. This study hypothesized that true behavioral loyalty develops from attitudinal loyalty (psychological commitment to a festival and place attachment) and positive universal evaluations of the festival as well as its hosting town. Thus, it is hypothesized that the stimuli (perceptions of festival atmosphere attributes) induce emotional responses, which in turn induce overall evaluations of a festival and the setting where the festival is situated (global satisfaction), place attachment and psychological commitment to the festival (attitudinal loyalty), and eventual repeat visitation to the festival and its hosting setting (behavioral loyalty). Based on the theoretical and empirical evidence, the twelve hypotheses are constructed as presented below.

H_1: Positive perceptions of festival atmospherics leads to a higher level of positive emotions.

H_2: Positive emotions positively influence festival visitors' overall evaluation with the physical environment.

H_{2a}: Positive emotions have a significant and positive effect on visitors' overall satisfaction with the festival hosting communities.

H_{2b}: Positive emotions have a significant and positive effect on visitors' overall satisfaction with the festivals.

H_3: Positive emotions significantly influence festival visitors' psychological attachment to the physical environment.

H_{3a}: Positive emotions have a significant and positive effect on visitors' emotional tie to the festival hosting communities.

H_{3b}: Positive emotions have a significant and positive effect on visitors' psychological attachment to the festivals.

H_4: Festival visitors' overall satisfaction with the physical environment has a significant and positive influence on psychological attachment to that environment.

H_{4a}: A high level of festival visitors' satisfaction with the hosting communities positively influences emotional ties to the festival hosting communities.

H_{4b}: A high level of festival visitors' satisfaction with the festivals positively influences their psychological attachment to the festivals.

H_5: Visitors' satisfaction with the physical environment is significantly and positively related to loyalty to that environment.

H_{5a}: A high level of festival visitors' satisfaction with the hosting communities has a significant and positive influence on loyalty to the festival hosting communities.

H_{5b}: A high level of festival visitors' satisfaction with the festivals has a significant and positive influence on loyalty to the festivals.

H_6: Psychological attachment to the physical environment has a significant, positive impact on loyalty to that environment.

H_{6a}: Festival visitors' emotional attachment to the hosting communities significantly and positively influences loyalty to those communities.

H_{6b}: Festival visitors' psychological attachment to the festivals has a significant and positive impact on loyalty to the festivals.

H_7: A high level of visitors' loyalty to the festivals significantly and positively leads to a high level of loyalty to the hosting communities.

2.3.1. Emotions to Place Attachment

Prior to investigating the impact of emotions on place attachment, it is necessary to clarify the association between place attachment and attitude. Jorgensen and Stedman (2001, 2006) and Stedman (2002) have argued that the concept of place attachment can be understood within attitude theory. Attitude refers to a summarized evaluative judgment expressed in cognitive (i.e., beliefs and perceptions), affective (i.e., emotions

and feelings), and behavioral domains (e.g., Bagozzi, 1978; Bagozzi, Tybout, Craig, & Sternthal, 1979). Similarly, attitude in environmental psychology is understood as an evaluative judgment that "incorporates cognitive, affective and conative response to spatial settings" (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006, p. 317). Grounded by the structural similarity that these two concepts share, Jorgensen and his coauthor have claimed that sense of place can be regarded as a general attitude toward a spatial setting, a complex psychosocial structure that organizes self-referent beliefs, emotions, and behavioral commitment. "Sense of place" is a broad term to delineate the relationship between people and spatial settings. It encompasses the meanings that an individual or a group ascribes to a specific setting and consists of three domains such as place identity, place attachment, and place dependence. Place identity is a cognitive component of sense of place, focusing on beliefs about the relationship between oneself and place. Place attachment is affective relationships with human environments and highlights the positive feelings or emotional bonding with a place. Place dependence is the conative component of sense of place, dealing with the behavioral exclusivity of the place in comparison to alternatives. Underlining place attachment as one dimension of sense of place and sense of place as a general attitude toward a place, it is logical to regard place attachment as an attitude that influences particular behaviors with relation to spatial settings.

Previous studies have demonstrated that emotions generated from social and physical interactions within a place play a key role in shaping visitors' experiences, attitudes, and behaviors (Allen et al., 1992; Bitner, 1990, 1992; Booms & Bitner, 1982;

Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Oliver, 1993). When a certain level of emotions (pleasure/arousal) within an environment is reached, consumers' cognitive activity is enhanced and contributes to developing positive attitudes (e.g., Allen, Machleit, Kleine, & Notani, 2005; Chebat et al., 2001). The study by Chebat et al. (2001) provides empirical evidence of the emotion-attitude relationship. They examined the effects of store background music tempo on salespersons' persuasiveness in a store environment. The study results showed that soothing music improved customers' attention to their surroundings and deeper information processing, which created more positive attitudes. On the other hand, a music genre that did not fit in the type of store made consumers uncomfortable, which impeded cognitive activity and enforced negative attitudes toward the store and the salesperson.

In sum, it is possible that emotional states can contribute to developing an emotional tie with a place when place attachment is conceived as an attitude toward a place. However, the linkage between emotions and place attachment has not been yet explored in the literature.

2.3.2. Emotions to Satisfaction

The effects of emotions on satisfaction can be understood within two competing theories: congruence theory and consistency theory (Chebat, 2002). According to Chebat, congruence theory assumes that people's emotions make certain environmental cues to become more salient and to evoke deeper information processing and better memory elicitation. Affective states can play a role as a piece of information in

evaluating an individual or a situation as long as these feelings account for the object to be evaluated (Schwartz & Clore, 1983, 1988). Furthermore, these emotions afford judgmental responses that are (1) generally faster, (2) more consistent across individuals, and (3) more predictive of people's thoughts compared to nonaffective, reason-based evaluation of the stimuli (Pham, Cohen, Pracejus, & Hughes, 2001). For example, positive emotions such as happiness and pleasure can be provoked by some familiar music heard at a festival, bringing forth memory of an affectionate relationship or another positive experience, which in turn may make other positive cues (e.g., friendly, attentive staff) more prominent. In contrast, if the visitor is annoyed by the music because it is too loud, s/he may focus on some negative cues at the festival such as the poor hygiene at the restroom or perceived crowding.

As far as the consistency theory, it assumes that a positive emotion is a better predictor of evaluative judgments than a negative emotion. The theory underlines that the more positive the emotions, the more intense is the cognitive activity. Forgas and Bower (1987, as cited in Chebat [2002, p. 34]) stated that "happy subjects made more judgments than did sad subjects about realistic description containing negative and positive details."

Yet, Chebat has noted that the effects of pleasing-displeasing feelings on individuals' attention to and processing of environmental cues are no longer linear beyond a certain threshold. In other words, the effects of excessive displeasure on cognitive activity are more severe than the effects of excessive pleasure. When visitors are overwhelmed by overly pleasing environmental cues at the festival, they tend to be

less cognitively active and play less attention to those cues. In case visitors are minimally pleased (i.e., low level of pleasure), they are unlikely to be aware of the quality cues signified by the tourism service providers.

The causal relationship between emotions and satisfaction has been well documented. Mano and Oliver (1993), Westbrook (1987), and Westbrook and Oliver (1991) have found that consumption emotions are predictive of postpurchase satisfaction within the service and retail environment. Their studies underline that customers who experience positive consumptive emotions are more likely to report a high level of satisfaction. Of those emotions, customer delight, referring to a positive emotional state that combines joy, pleasure, and excitement, has particularly caught marketing researchers' attention in that it is related to extraordinarily high customer satisfaction (Füller & Matzler, 2008). Tourism studies have also empirically shown that emotions play an important role in creating tourist/visitor satisfaction with shopping at a tourism destination (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2007) and with tourist attractions such as museums and theme parks (Bigné & Andreu, 2004). In a sporting event context, Madrigal (1995) tested a model of sport fan satisfaction based on the notion that emotions influence satisfaction. He found that fan identification with a team had a strong predictor of affect and enjoyment and, in turn, these emotions lead to team satisfaction among sport fans.

2.3.3. Satisfaction to Place Attachment

Although the satisfaction and place attachment constructs have been persistently investigated in addressing managerial issues, little empirical work has been done in the leisure and tourism literature that simultaneously examines the relationship between satisfaction and place attachment within the context of a recreational setting and tourist destination. Only a handful of research has dealt with the satisfaction–place attachment relationship, and the findings of these studies on the causal relationships between these two constructs have been inconsistent.

Some researchers have indicated that there is no relationship or no specification between place attachment and satisfaction with a setting (e.g., Lee, 2001; Lee & Allen, 1999; Lee et al., 2007). Lee and his colleagues (1999, 2001) made an attempt to identify the place attachment determinants (i.e., destination attractiveness, satisfaction, familiarity, past experience, family vacation as a tradition, and age of the first visit). They found that variables such as destination attractiveness and trip experiences as a family tradition were better predictors for residents' attachment to the surrounding destinations. Although multidimensional measures they used appear to be methodologically sound, their study findings could be limited because they used a unidimensional measures of each construct. Their study also employed the importance-perceived quality instrument to assess satisfaction with the destination, which manifests the limitation of satisfaction measures equivalent to service quality measures, as indicated earlier in this paper.

Interestingly, Alexandris et al. (2006) indicated that different dimensions of service quality in a ski resort offer significant contributions to the place attachment dimensions. The service quality dimensions equate to consequences of recreational activity involvement and include personal interaction, physical environment, and outcome. They found that the effect of personal interaction quality on place identity was stronger than that of physical environmental quality, whereas the effect of physical environmental quality on place dependence was stronger than that of interaction quality. In Lee et al.'s (2007) study on identification of destination loyalty antecedents with a sample of national forest visitors, the satisfaction–place attachment relationship was not specified. Rather, they focused on the role of service quality and activity involvement in predicting place attachment.

Conversely, environmental psychologists have provided empirical evidence that satisfaction with home/neighborhood environments is closely related to the extent that an individual values or identifies with a particular setting (Handal, Barling, & Morrissy, 1981; Ringel & Finkelstein, 1991). Satisfaction with a home/neighbor can be defined as positive perceptions and evaluations of the home or neighborhood setting (Ringel & Finkelstein, 1991).

2.3.4. Satisfaction to Loyalty

Although there has been steady research on the relationships between satisfaction and loyalty, no agreement has been reached on how the relationship works. The association between the two constructs has varied depending on the industry type, product category, and customer characteristics (Jones & Sasser, 1995; Oliva, Oliver, & MacMillan, 1992; Yang & Patterson, 2004). On one hand, in a car sales context, Bloemer and his colleague (2002) revealed that satisfaction was a major determinant of loyalty. Specifically, customer satisfaction with the car was a major determinant of brand loyalty, whereas satisfaction with sales service and after-sales service had a direct effect on loyalty to the car dealer. On the other hand, Oppermann (1999) has suggested that there may be no direct effect of satisfaction on destination loyalty among international visitors. Compared to the repurchase of consumer products, repeat visits to tourism destinations are relatively rare due to considerable travel time and cost constraints and the many available alternative destinations. Therefore, many tourists may be unable or unwilling to revisit a foreign destination, even if they are highly satisfied with their experience at the destination.

Researchers in the tourism and leisure literature (e.g., Bitner, 1999; Chi & Qu, 2008; Oliver, 1999; Reichheld & Teal,1996; Stevert, Wang, Chen, & Breiter, 2007; Tian-Cole et al., 2002; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Yu & Goulden, 2006) have indicated that there is a direct effect of satisfaction on loyalty as often measured by future behavioral intention. It is based on a belief that satisfaction determines future patronage behaviors by minimizing efforts to consider alternatives (Russell-Bennett, McColl-Kennedy, &

Coote, 2007). Inter-regional tourists who are highly satisfied with their experience at a setting are likely to repeatedly visit that particular setting and actively engage in disseminating positive word-of-mouth recommendations to other potential visitors (Tian-Cole et al., 2002). It was found that every satisfied consumer would spread favorable words to an average of five others (Heskett, Sasser, & Schelsinger, 1997), whereas those who were unsatisfied were known to spread unfavorable words to an average 11 people (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990).

The satisfaction-loyalty relationship in the tourism context appears to be more salient and stronger when satisfaction with a setting/specific attributes of the setting is assessed by means of its overall level (e.g., Chi & Qu, 2008; Mittal, Kumar, & Tsiros, 1999; Severt et al., 2007; Tian-Cole et al., 2002; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Yu & Goulden, 2006). The findings across these studies were consistent in that there was a significant, positive relationship between overall satisfaction and behavioral intentions and that overall satisfaction was a stronger predictor than satisfaction with some attributes of the setting/product/service. Chi and Qu (2008) found that overall satisfaction with a tourist destination mediates the relationship between attribute satisfaction and destination loyalty as measured by behavioral intention.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

In this chapter, I describe the research design and methods that were used to investigate the causal relationships among environmental stimuli, visitors' emotional experiences, and their responsive behaviors toward the environment (i.e., satisfaction with festivals and places, festival commitment, place attachment, and loyalty to festivals and places). I first address the study sites, the design of this research, followed by a discussion of the procedures for developing the survey and collecting data. I then provide a description of the statistical procedures used to analyze the data.

3.1. STUDY SITES

Data were collected in April through November 2008 from visitors to two strawberry festivals and one wine festival in Texas: the Poteet Strawberry Festival, the Pasadena Strawberry Festival, and Texas Reds Steak and Grape Festival. The Poteet Strawberry Festival is the one of largest agricultural festivals in Texas and is held every year in Poteet, which is located about 20 miles south of San Antonio ("Poteet Strawberry Festival" website, 2008). This festival features a variety of events and attractions such as music concerts, a barbeque cook-off, children's entertainment, arts and crafts, and a rodeo show. It has been held since 1944, currently attracting nearly 100,000 visitors during the 3-day event (C. Rivera, personal communication, April 4, 2008).

The Pasadena Strawberry Festival, also held annually, is located in Pasadena, Texas, known as the "Strawberry Capital of the South." It receives about 55,000 attendees from nearby cities such as Houston and Beaumont, as well as the local community (L. Page, personal communication, May 9, 2008). Similar to the Poteet Strawberry Festival, it provides visitors with various entertainment attractions (e.g., parade, beauty pageant, sport tournaments, and circus) and food over the 3-day period. The festival was started in 1974 by a small group of local residents to raise money for the opening of their museum. Income generated through the annual 3-day event benefits the local community through student scholarships, book donations for college libraries, Texas and Pasadena history preservation and promotion, and donations to civic, youth, and nonprofit organizations ("Pasadena Strawberry Festival" website, 2008).

The last study setting was a small community festival located in the downtown area of the city of Bryan, Texas where is situated in central Texas and surrounded by four metropolitan areas of Houston, San Antonio, Dallas, and Austin. Bryan neighboring with College Station makes up the metropolitan area, the sixteenth largest city in Texas with around 190,000 people. The city of College Station has a large university and other tourist attractions such as a presidential library that have drawn many out-of-town visitors to these two communities. Unlike the two strawberry festivals, Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival has a short history. Held annually in June to celebrate the beef and wine industry's history in the area, the two-day festival drew approximately 6,000 to 8,000 visitors in its first year in 2007 (G. Shillings, Personal Communication, March 5, 2008). Traffic to the downtown area is blocked off, which allows visitors to enjoy food

and wine offerings and to take part in various activities themed around wine and steak cook-offs. Visitors can also view live entertainment and browse arts and crafts exhibits along the street.

3.2. SAMPLING AND DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Data were collected in two phases using the onsite survey and follow-up survey procedure. Onsite survey as the first phase was conducted in April through June 2008 through collaborations with the festival organizers at the three study sites. Onsite surveys were administered over 3 days at various sites at the two strawberry festivals and over 2 days at the wine and steak festival. The purpose of having an onsite survey was to establish a sampling frame. In order to ensure representativeness of the festival goers, the respondents were randomly selected and intercepted by four interviewers at various venues of each site (e.g., food venues, event arenas, and entrance/exit). The interviewers, who were graduate students and had had experience with data collection, handed out self-administered questionnaires and collected them on the spot as soon as they were completed. Each respondent in this phase was asked about whether s/he was over the age of 18 and was willing to participate in both the onsite and follow-up survey. Visitors agreeing to participate were asked to rate their feelings at the festivals and contact information along with past visit, trip purpose, number of group members, and age and gender (see Appendix B for the onsite survey questionnaire).

The second phase involved the follow-up survey procedure using a postal mail and/or e-mail/web. Based on the preference of a follow-up survey distribution method

indicated by respondents at the previous phase, each individual received a self-administered survey questionnaire via postal mail and/or e-mail/web. This mixed-mode approach has recently caught survey researchers and evaluators' interests to produce higher response rates (Converse, Wolfe, Huang, & Oswald, 2008; de Leeuw, 2005; Dillman, 2007). This approach is found particularly effective when a survey was sent via email that directed respondents to a web-based questionnaire with either the initial or a follow-up contact via postal mail according to Converse et al. (2008). They argued that the web-based survey technique has been widely employed as an alternative to traditional approaches due to its potential benefits—convenient access to samples, reduced costs, faster responses, more interactive or tailored formats, quick troubleshooting, automated data collection, scoring, and reporting, and access to larger samples. However, it has the potential of excluding some respondents who do not have internet access or lack computer skills. In order to overcome the shortcomings of using the web-based survey, Dillman (2007) and other researchers (Converse et al., 2008; de Leeuw, 2005) have recommended the mixed survey methods. They have provided evidence that this type of approach could be particularly effective in situations where individuals who do not respond to initial web-based contacts ask to complete the survey using different modes, typically by postal mail.

A follow-up survey was implemented following procedures reflected in Dillman's (2007) Tailored Design Method (Figure 4). The sample in this phase was chosen from those who agreed to take part in the follow-up survey in the onsite survey phase. Potential respondents received a follow-up contact via either postal mail or email.

As for those who requested to receive the follow-up survey via postal mail, I prepared the packet containing a cover letter describing the purpose of study and a questionnaire along with a preaddressed stamped return envelope. As for those who chose the follow-up survey via email, they received an email that directed them to a web-based questionnaire. A pre-notice letter explaining that a survey would be arriving soon, which was used in Dillman's procedure, was not necessary in this study since the initial contact had been made through an onsite survey and the respondents had acknowledged that they would receive the follow-up survey. After 2 weeks, a reminder postcard or email was sent to the individuals who did not respond. A second survey instrument was distributed out through either postal mail or email to nonrespondents approximately 1 month following the initial contact. After 6 weeks from the initial contact, a third survey instrument was sent to nonrespondents again via either postal mail or email that directed the participant to the web-based questionnaire.

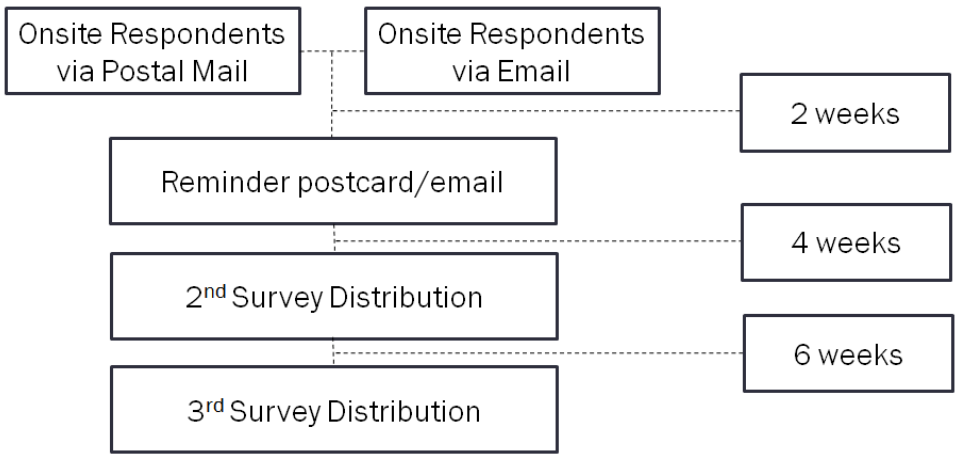

Fig. 4. Data collection procedures using mixed-mode approach

As for this phase of survey instrument, the self-administered questionnaire using the mixed-mode data collection procedure consisted of 24 questions. The first 17 questions were related to each latent variable (i.e., perceptions of festival atmosphere, frequency of emotional experience, overall satisfaction with festivals and their hosting setting, festival commitment, place attachment, festival loyalty and place loyalty) and the last 7 questions were associated with the respondents' sociodemographic characteristics.

3.3. SURVEY INSTRUMENT

This study utilized a quantitative approach to explore the effect of emotions elicited from festival atmospherics on their satisfaction with festivals and places (i.e., festival hosting towns/cities), festival commitment, place attachment, festival loyalty and place loyalty. Measures for all constructs consisted of multiple items on the basis of previous literature and were modified to fit the context of this study. All measures of these constructs have been empirically tested and found to be valid in various contexts.

3.3.1. Festival Consumption Emotions

For the measures of emotions, it has been common to adopt the existing scales such as Mehrabian and Russell's PDA scale, Izard's Differential Emotions Scale, and Richins' Consumption Emotion Set regardless of the contexts (e.g., Lee et al., 2008). Instead, I carried out a four-stage exploratory study prior to data collection at the designated sites in order to identify emotions measures that best reflected festival

visitors' emotional experience. These exploratory stages were guided by the Richins (1997) study, in which she measured consumption-related emotions (i.e., a purchase of a clothing, food, durable goods, and services). Figure 5 presents the four steps to construct emotions scale specific to the festival context.

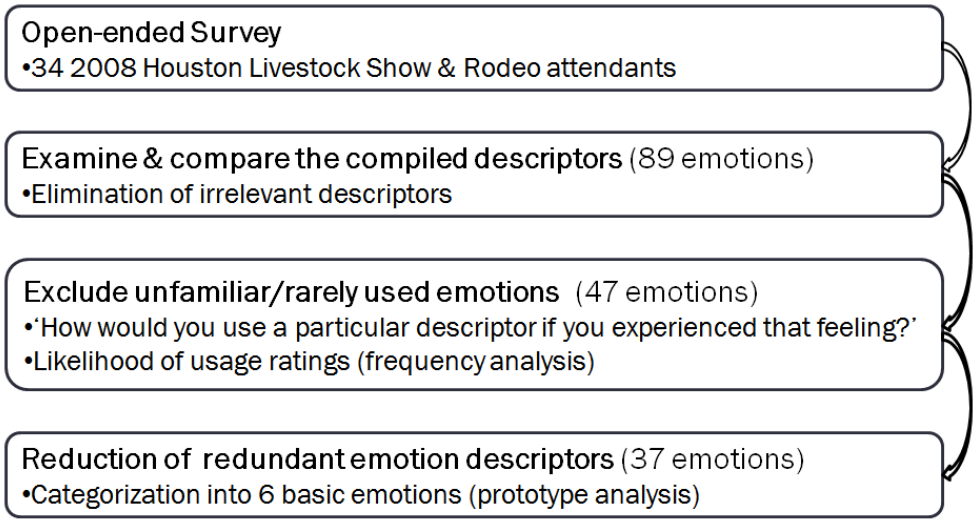

Fig. 5. Four steps to construct emotions scale

First, an open-ended survey was used to compile the full range of emotions relevant to the festival contexts. The questionnaire contained one item about feelings experienced when visiting to a festival in an adjective form. The survey was completed by a total of 34 individuals (e.g., undergraduate and graduate students, staff, and faculty) who had attended the 2008 Houston Livestock Show and Rodeo. Although the scale and context of the Houston event are distinct from the sites designated in this study, it is an agricultural festival that offers similar types of attractions (e.g., music, foods, attractions,

and recreational activities related to livestock) to the three other festivals in Poteet, Pasadena, and Bryan. Consequently, a large variety of festival-related emotions were documented in this stage. Positive emotions were salient among the feelings described by respondents: happy, excited, joyful, and amazed were mentioned most frequently. The negative emotions such as sad, overwhelmed, and anxious were also commonly mentioned.

At the second stage, the compiled emotion descriptors from the previous stage were examined and incorporated with other emotional descriptors suggested in earlier consumer research and environmental psychological studies (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Richins, 1997). Some irrelevant emotion descriptors were eliminated based on the criteria suggested by Ortony, Gerald, and Collins (1988). These descriptors unrelated to emotions were (1) words referring to bodily states (e.g., "exhausted," "hungry"), (2) subjective evaluations that become emotion-like only when juxtaposed with the word "feeling" (e.g., "feeling confident," "feeling overwhelmed"), (3) behaviors (e.g., "talkative"), and (4) action-tendency words (e.g., "hesitant," "tempted"). In addition, descriptors that have been singled out by previous researchers as being largely cognitive in nature (e.g., "interested," "confused"), or rated as not an emotional state or were unfamiliar to subjects in prior studies, as Richins (1997) suggested, were also deleted with the exception of some descriptors such as "surprise" and "interest" (p. 130). As a result, 89 emotion items were included for further exploratory study.

The third stage involved reducing these 89 emotion descriptors by eliminating items that were unfamiliar or rarely used by respondents. This procedure also determined

which descriptors with similar meanings were least likely to be used by festival visitors to describe their own feelings. A total of 104 undergraduate students were asked to indicate how likely they would use a particular descriptor if they experienced that feeling at a festival on a four-point scale (1 = least likely, 4 = most likely). They were also provided an option to indicate a word that is unfamiliar to them.

Inappropriate descriptors were further eliminated using likelihood of usage ratings through frequency analysis (Francis & Kucera, 1982; as cited in Richins, 1997). The items that were indicated as unfamiliar by more than 5 percent of the sample (e.g., "melancholic," "frenzied," or "jittery") that had mean likelihood ratings less than 0.5 (e.g., "humiliated," "threatened," or "homesick") were removed. As a result, a total of 47 emotion descriptors were retained for further analysis.

The remaining 47 items were categorized under the six basic emotions (i.e., love, joy, anger, sadness, fear, and surprise) proposed by the Shaver et al.'s (1987) prototype analysis. Some of these descriptors contained a number of synonyms that were required to be eliminated. The categorization employing the prototype analysis is particularly useful to avoid redundancy by sorting out synonymous words (Richins, 1997). In addition, it allows not only identifying the emotions that are most relevant and frequently used by average people, but also understanding the hierarchical relations of those emotions (Shaver et al., 1987). The subcategorical descriptors that had a substantially lower likelihood of usage rating within a basic category were removed. Through this procedure, 23 emotion descriptors were eliminated, leaving 24 as the final instrument to measure emotional states at the festivals. The emotions that were identified

at the final phase included: caring, compassionate, and loving (*love* category); happy, pleased, cheerful, contented, glad, and joyful (*joy* category); amazed, surprised, and astonished (*surprise* category); annoyed, frustrated, irritated, and aggravated (*anger* category); worried, tense, uneasy, and nervous (*fear* category). These selected emotions were measured along a 5-poing scale where 1 is almost never, 2 is seldom, 3 is occasionally, 4 is often, and 5 is very often. This scale indicated the frequency of emotions that visitors experienced at the site. Accordingly, the sum of the item scales indicated the strength of visitors' emotional experiences at the festivals (Oliver, 1997).

3.3.2. Festival Atmospherics

In terms of festival atmospherics, Bitner's (1992) three composite dimensions of the intended atmospherics in the service environment were adopted in this study. The three domains are ambiance conditions, spatial layout functionality, and sign, symbols, and artifacts. According to Baker (1986), the importance and perception of particular environmental components can vary across different types of service organizations. Therefore, it is necessary to modify the dimensions that fit the festival context. Borrowing from work on retail and service environment, Lee et al. (2008) proposed 'festivalscapes' that represent the general atmosphere experienced by festival visitors. 'Festivalscapes' included various environmental cues that may affect festival visitors' experiences: quality of festival event program, service quality by staff members/volunteers, quality and availability of auxiliary facility, food quality, souvenirs, convenience and accessibility, and information availability (i.e., signage).

Besides the Lee et al.'s measures, a review of the literature related to festivals (e.g., Baker & Crompton, 2000; Crompton, 2003; Crompton & Love, 1995) and interviews with the festival organizers resulted in including additional items as measures of festival atmospherics. A total of 23 items were used to assess three dimensions of festival atmospherics: (1) *ambience* dimension consists of 8 items (i.e., availability of activities/programs for all ages, quality of entertainment, uniqueness of themed activities/programs, availability of types of food/refreshments, quality of food/refreshments, availability of various souvenirs/products, feeling of safety on the site, and affordable); (2) *layout/design* dimension includes 9 items (i.e., visually appealing decorations, easy access to parking lots, availability of restrooms, enough picnic tables and rest areas, availability of proper signs for site directions, enough available information, convenient access to food/event venues, cleanliness of the festival site, and safe and well-maintained equipment and facilities); and (3) *service encounter/social interaction* dimension is comprised of 6 items (i.e., acceptable crowd level, attentive staff who willingly respond to my requests, friendly and courteous staff, staff's willingness to help me and other visitors, knowledgeable staff in response to my requests, and availability of prompt services). A 7-point numeric bipolar scale ranging from very poor (1) to very good (7) was attached to each item. The items in one dimension were switched from those in other dimensions to avoid response bias.

3.3.3. Festival Commitment

Commitment to festivals was measured using the psychological commitment scale proposed by Pritchard et al.'s (1999). Wordings from their original scale to test the relationship between commitment and loyalty in service contexts (e.g., airlines and hotels) were modified to reflect the festival context. Similar to the psychological commitment instrument, festival commitment as a multidimensional construct consisted of position involvement, volitional choice, information complexity, and resistance to change.

Position involvement, which included 5 items such as "This festival means a lot to me," "I am very attached to this festival," "I identify strongly with this festival," "I have a special connection to this festival and the people who visit this festival," and "This festival means more to me than any other festival I can think of", was used to assess the extent to which visitors were able to reflect their social representation and self-identity to their festival visit. *Volitional choice*, representing visitors' perception of free choice from a set of alternatives, included 2 items: "The decision to visit to this festival was not entirely my own" and "The decision to go to this festival was primarily my own." Items of the information complexity dimension were related to understanding festival visitors' complex information processing as a mechanism for attitudinal stability of commitment. *Information complexity* items, including "I don't really know much about this festival," "I consider myself an educated visitor regarding this festival," and "I am knowledgeable about this festival."

Resistance to change, which Pritchard et al. (1999) treats it as a distinct variable that mediates the relationship between three other dimensions (i.e., position involvement, volitional choice, and information complexity) and loyalty, was measured as another dimension of festival commitment in this study. However, it appeared to be more reasonable to include the resistance dimension in the construct as another component since *resistance to change* as a principle evidence of commitment is a key variable in determining loyalty (Pritchard et al., 1999). Adapted from Pritchard et al.'s work and reworded to reflect an individual visitor's psychological commitment to a festival, a total of four items in the resistance dimension included: "Even if close friends recommended another festival, I would not change my preference for this festival," "To change my preference from going to this festival to another leisure alternative would require major rethinking," "I wouldn't substitute any other festival for recreation/entertainment that I enjoy here," and "For me, lots of other festivals could substitute for this festival." All items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree) to* 7 (*strongly agree*).

3.3.4. Place Attachment

In order to assess psychological commitment to place (i.e., festival hosting towns/cities), this study adapted 18 items from the Kyle, Mowen and Tarrant's (2004) place attachment scale. In the study of the relationship between motivation and attachment to a large urban park among visitors, they adapted items from the Williams and Roggenbuck's (1989) measures to conceptualize the place identity and place

dependence dimensions. Yet, they broke down items from the Williams and Roggenbuck's (1989) place identity measure into those reflecting two distinct dimensions of affective attachment and the identification processes. They also included additional items to encompass the social bonding dimension from Gruen, Sommers, and Acito's (2000) organizational commitment scale. As indicated earlier, the two-dimensional place attachment measure has been widely tested across studies and shown to be persistently salient in previous studies.

Consequently, *place identity* had four items to measure the emotional-symbolic meanings people ascribe to place. They were "I feel my personal values are reflected in this town," "I identify strongly with this town," "(Visiting) this town says a lot about who I am," and "I feel that I can be myself when I visit/am in this town." *Affective attachment* items underlining visitors' emotional ties to the festival hosting settings were "This town means a lot to me," "I am very attached to this town," "I feel a strong sense of belonging to this town," and "I have little, if any, emotional attachment to this town."

Place dependence consisted of four items to measure the functional value of and dependence on place for supporting desired experiences, they included "For the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, this town is the best," "I prefer this town over other places for the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy," "For what I like to do for leisure, I could not imagine anything better than the setting than this town," "Other places cannot compare to this town," and "When other suggest alternatives to this town for the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, I still choose this town."

In addition to the items from the three dimensions, *social bonding* items were included based on findings from past research that suggests that meaningful social interactions in specific settings are precursors of emotional attachment to those settings (Hidalogo & Hernández, 2001; Kyle et al., 2004b, 2005; Low & Altman, 1992; Mesch & Manor, 1998). It is particularly true that a festival setting provides a context for social relationships and shared experiences. All place attachment items were measured on a seven-point scale, having endpoints of strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7).

3.3.5. Festival and Place Satisfaction

The universal scale of satisfaction with the festivals were measured using 11 items suggested by Oliver's (1980, 1997) evaluative set of cumulative satisfaction measures. His measures encompass cognitive and affective aspects of overall satisfaction although he did not organize the items into two distinct dimensions. Some items from his measurement scale were selectively adapted to examine the antecedents and outcomes of satisfaction in tourism studies (e.g., Bigné & Andreu, 2004; Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005; Zin, 2002). Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on the eleven items using a 7-point Likert scale. The cognitive satisfaction items were "My choice to visit this festival was a wise one," "I am sure it was the right decision to visit this festival," "My experience at this festival wasn't what I expected," "This was one of the best festivals I have ever visited," "My experience at this festival was exactly what I needed," and "If I had to do it over again, I'd visit a different festival or go somewhere else." Items with relevance to affective satisfaction included "I am satisfied with my

decision to visit this festival," "I feel bad about my decision concerning this festival visit," "This festival made me feel happy," "Sometimes I have mixed feelings about visiting this festival," and "I really enjoyed myself at this festival."

Place satisfaction was measured using Ringel and Finkelstein's (1991) scale to assess attitude or a summary of judgment about a particular town where the festival was held. Unlike other multi-dimensional constructs, place satisfaction was treated as a unidimensional construct, consisting of three items. They included: (1) "How satisfied are you with the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreation/leisure activities)?"; (2) "How good is the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreation/leisure activities)?"; and (3) "How much do you like the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreation/leisure activities)?" The first item was coded using a 7-point semantic differential scale, from 1 (extremely dissatisfied) to (extremely satisfied). The second item was also rated on a 7-point semantic differential scale, anchored with notations: 1 = worst, 7 = best. Similarly, the last item was scored on a 7-point semantic differential scale where 1 = not like at all and 7 = like very much.

3.3.6. Festival and Place Loyalty

Both festival and place loyalty were measured using the Jones and Taylor's (2007) service loyalty scale. Jones and Taylor proposed their measurement scales from previous literature and tested the validity of an 8-dimensional model in the context of customer-based services. The dimensions in their study were repurchase intentions (Jones, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty, 2000), strength of preference (Mitra & Lynch, 1995),

willingness to pay more (Zeithaml et al., 1996), switching intentions (Bansal & Taylor, 1999), advocacy (Zeithaml et al., 1996), exclusive purchasing intentions, identification with the service company (Ganesh, Arnold, & Reynolds, 2000), altruistic intentions (Pierce, 1975), perceived service quality (Dabholkar, Shepherd, & Thorpe, 2000), and exclusive consideration (Shapiro, MacInnis, & Heckler, 1997).

In terms of festival loyalty, I selectively adapted some scales that were applicable to festival contexts (i.e., behavioral loyalty, advocacy, willingness to pay more, and strength of preference). The first three dimensions were assigned 9 items and were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, with anchors (1) not at all likely and (7) extremely likely. Responses to four items on the last dimension were also indicated on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 7 represented "strongly agree." Similarly, the place loyalty measurement scale was selectively adapted and modified to assess festival visitors' loyalty to its hosting town. The dimensions of behavioral intentions, advocacy, and strength of preference, consisting of 10 items, were included in this study. In particular, two items that assessed the behavioral intentions of place revisit were adapted from the Crompton et al.'s (2001) scale. The first two dimensions were measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = least likely and 7 = most likely while the last dimension was measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

3.4. PRETEST RESULTS

A pilot test was conducted using a convenient sample of students in order to ensure internal consistency of the measurement scale prior to the final data collection. Existing measurement scales do not require a pretest because they provide considerable certainty with some degrees of validity and reliability (Babbie, 2001); yet, the pilot study was still necessary to check wording and ensure the validity and reliability of the proposed constructs.

A total of 220 undergraduate students recruited from two large classes offered at the Conrad N. Hilton College at the University of Houston and asked to participate. Because a majority of students did not attend the three festivals, the items were modified to measure students' experience at any festival that they had visited within the past 5 years. Students who had never attended a festival, or hadn't visited attended a festival within the past 5 years, were excluded from this pilot test. The results of this pretest have shown that all measurement subscales had the desirable Cronbach's alpha values within a range between 0.74 and 0.94 with exceptions of two subscales in the festival commitment construct (e.g. 0.64 for volitional choice and 0.69 for information complexity). While these values were lower than the recommended value of 0.70, responses were considered internally consistent across the items in respective constructs because their differences were trivial. Cortina (1993) has also suggested that a coefficient alpha lower than 0.60 is acceptable when the number of the items is less than six, which is the case of these subscales. In addition, the wording of some items were awkward and irrelevant were altered to reflect visitors' experience at festivals.

3.5. DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

This study focuses on (1) identification of visitors' emotions elicited at the festivals, (2) the effects of these emotions created by the festival environments on festival commitment-festival satisfaction-festival loyalty and place attachment-place satisfaction-place loyalty, and (3) the effect of visitors' experiences at festivals on their loyalty to festival hosting communities. In order to fully understand (1) emotions generated through the festival visitors' experiences and (2) the determinants of loyalty to festivals and festival hosting settings, a structural equation modeling technique with maximum likelihood (ML) estimation was used in LISREL (8.7 version). It is also known as covariance structural analysis since it utilizes the covariance matrix in analyzing the data (Long, 1983). Figure 6 presents a hypothesized conceptual model that has eight latent variables (i.e., festival atmospherics, emotions, place satisfaction, place attachment, festival commitment, festival satisfaction, place loyalty, and festival loyalty) and their respective subscales.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a statistical tool that combines multiple regression and factor analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). This statistical approach has been widely used across disciplines due to some advantages of data analysis (Byrne, 1998). The causal relationships among theoretical constructs can be presented pictorially, which allows an efficient and effective analysis of the model. It also simultaneously tests the entire system of variables in a hypothesized model to determine its consistency with the data and the pattern of intervariable relations. In particular, it is found to be indispensable for theory evaluation in marketing, in which

theoretical constructs are typically difficult to operationalize in terms of a single measure and unavoidable measurement errors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

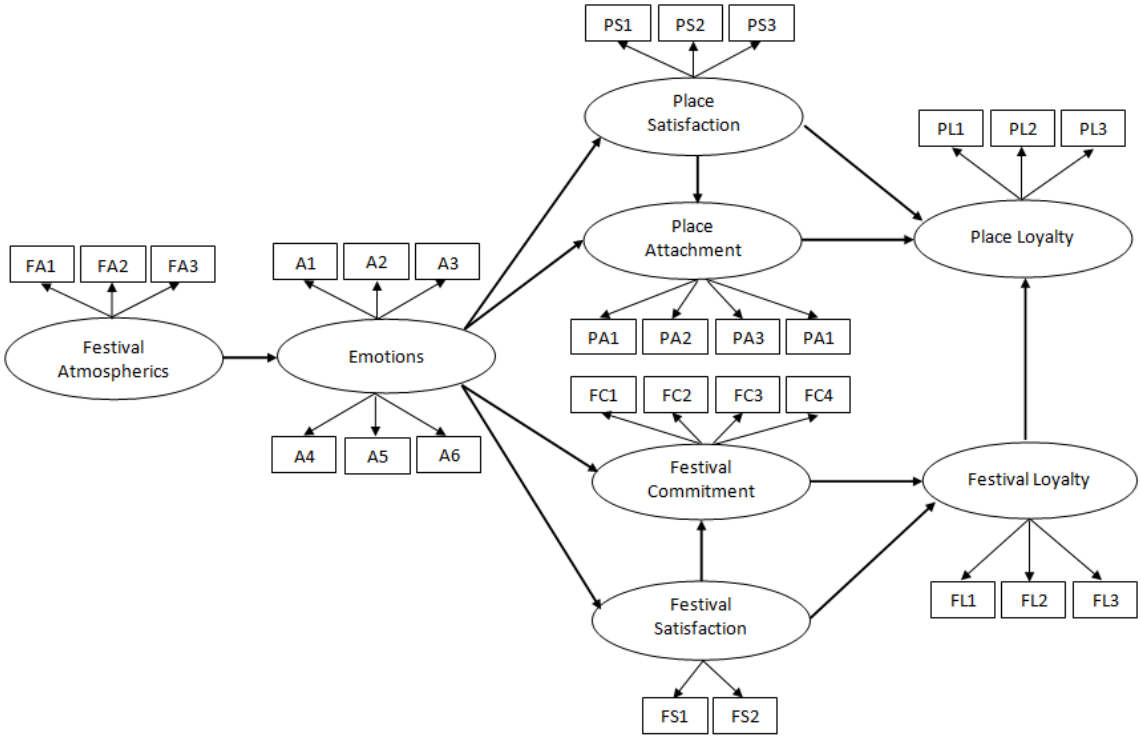

Fig. 6. A hypothesized conceptual model with 8 latent factors (festival atmospherics, emotions, place satisfaction, place attachment, festival commitment, festival satisfaction, place loyalty, and festival loyalty) and their respective subscales

SEM deals with exogenous and endogenous variables that are similar to independent and dependent variables (Hair et al., 1995). These variables can either be a construct that is not observed directly from the data but is derived from the theory, or an indicator variable that can be measured from direct observation of the data (Byrne, 1998). The unobserved construct is usually called a latent variable, and the indicator

variable is called a manifest variable. Due to the fact that latent constructs cannot be observed from the data, they are required to be indicated through multiple manifest variables in order to substantiate a theory under study. In the current study, there are four exogenous variables including four latent variables (i.e., environmental perceptions, emotions, place attachment, and satisfaction) and one endogenous variable (i.e., festival destination loyalty). Each latent construct has multiple manifest variables.

SEM involves a two-step approach: (1) examination of a measurement model; and (2) examination of a structural model (Bollen, 1989; Byrne, 1998). First, the measurement model can be examined through confirmatory factor analysis. In this procedure, construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity can be verified by assessing the extent to which the observed measures in the measurement model adequately represent each latent construct. The subsequent analysis is then associated with simultaneously testing the hypothetical relationships among the constructs. The investigation of the structural model allows obtaining the predictive validity of the latent constructs.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

My analysis of the data progressed in six steps. The first step entailed data screening and correction to prevent data- and measurement-related problems. It included performing (1) the descriptives and frequencies analyses of the raw data set to detect any irregularity and (2) the analyses of univariate and multivariate normality to meet the underlying assumption of SEM. I then tested the conceptualizations of each hypothesized latent construct using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The next step involved grouping subscale items of respective underlying constructs and summing these items to yield subscale scores. Using the summed subscale scores as the indicators of each construct, I then tested measurement model to validate the factorial structure of the hypothesized model through confirmatory factor analysis. Once the adequacy of the proposed factor structure and the relationships among the latent and measured variables was established, construct validity (i.e., convergent and discriminant validity) was tested. Lastly, the hypothesized structural model was tested to examine the causal relationships among latent variables. This structural model was also evaluated in terms of direct, indirect, and total effects, which is referred to as effects decomposition (Hayduk, 1987).

4.1. RESPONSE RATES

At the onsite data collection stage, visitors agreeing to participate in the follow-up study were asked to give their names and mailing/email addresses. Of those who were asked to participate in the onsite survey, 1 out of 3 festival visitors, on average, had elected not to take part in lacking interests, being preoccupied with festival activities, or attending accompanying visitors. Altogether, 743 individuals, surveyed at three different sites, agreed to take part in the study (see Table 2). Of those participants, 283 were from the Poteet Strawberry Festival, 265 from the Pasadena Strawberry Festival, and 195 from the Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival. After eliminating individuals whose names and/or mailing/email addresses were missing, a total of 579 potential respondents with valid names and mailing/email addresses were identified for the follow-up survey distribution.

Using Dillman's (2007) Tailored Design Method, a three-wave survey questionnaire and a postcard reminder were distributed via either postal mail or email over a 6-week period. As shown in Table 2, a total of 224 completed questionnaires were returned from respondents who agreed to participate in the study at the previous onsite survey, which resulted in an overall effective response rate of 38.69%. Differences in response rates at the Pasadena Strawberry Festival were evident compared to those at the other two festivals, the Poteet Strawberry Festival and Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival. Response rates from the Texas Reds visitors were highest (46.20%), followed by the respondents from the Poteet Strawberry Festival (43.19%) and the Pasadena Strawberry Festival (29.37%). In order to check non-response bias, socio-demographic

characteristics were compared between respondents who returned the completed follow-up survey and those who participated in the onsite survey but didn't respond to the later survey. No significant differences were found between these two groups.

Table 2
Sample sizes and response rates of the three different festivals

	Poteet Strawberry Festival	Pasadena Strawberry Festival	Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival	Total
Onsite survey responses				
Total	283	265	195	743
No mailing addresses/emails provided	44	45	24	113
Undeliverable mailing addresses/emails	18	9	12	39
Follow-up survey responses				
Total valid	213	208	158	579
Mailing	34	18	13	65
Email	58	41	60	159
Total	92 (43.19%)	59 (28.37%)	73 (46.20%)	**224 (38.69%)**

4.2. CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Sociodemographic characteristics of respondents from the three festivals are presented in Table 3. Overall, respondents were predominantly female (68.3%) at the three festivals, which was more evident at the two strawberry festivals (74.1% and 72.5%). Compared to these festivals, males and females were more equally represented in the Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival. An average age of respondents at the three festivals was 41. Respondents from the Poteet Strawberry Festival, on average, were

older (M = 45) than those from other two festivals (M = 40 for the Pasadena Strawberry Festival, M = 38 for the Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival). Although approximately half of all respondents were between the age of 25 and 44, the percentage of Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival respondents in the age category of less than 25 years old were notably high (26.6%) compared to those of the two strawberry festivals.

Approximately half of all respondents in each of the surveys indicated that they had graduated from college and/or earned an advanced degree. Respondents to the Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival reported much higher levels of education (8 out of 10 with college and higher post-secondary graduate) than the strawberry festivals (42% and 39%, respectively). In terms of annual household income before taxes, respondents to the Pasadena Strawberry Festival and Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival survey reported higher incomes than respondents to the Poteet Strawberry Festival survey. Over 28% of Texas Steak & Grape Festival visitors and 22% of Pasadena Strawberry Festival visitors earned $100,000 or more in 2007, compared to 11% of Poteet Strawberry Festival visitors. In general, white visitors to the three festivals were dominant (61.8%). This pattern was more evident at the Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival, representing 89% of all respondents to the survey. However, Hispanic/Latino respondents made up a significant proportion of respondents to the surveys at the Poteet Strawberry Festival and Pasadena Strawberry Festival. A majority of respondents (between 51.8% and 84.4%) indicated that they did not have any children under the age of 18 in their household.

Trip characteristics of visitors to the three festivals are presented in Table 4. The proportion of non-local visitors was significantly higher at the two strawberry festivals

than at the Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival. Visitors categorized into local residents in this study are defined as individuals who live within the limit of the city/town where the festival is held. Between 96.7% and 89.8% of respondents at the two strawberry festivals reported they were non-local visitors, compared to 43.8% of visitors to the Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival.

Table 3
Sociodemographic characteristics of respondents to three different festivals

Characteristics of respondents	Total (%)	Poteet Strawberry Festival (%)	Pasadena Strawberry Festival (%)	Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival (%)
Sex				
Female	68.5	74.1	72.5	57.8
Male	31.5	25.9	27.5	42.2
Age				
Less than 25 years old	13.5	4.7	11.8	26.6
25-44 years old	46.5	49.4	51.0	39.1
45-64 years old	34.5	34.1	35.3	34.4
65 years older	5.5	11.8	2.0	-
Level of education				
High school graduate or less	18.0	29.4	17.6	3.1
Some college	28.0	27.1	43.1	17.2
College degree	32.5	31.8	25.5	39.1
Post college degree	21.5	11.8	13.7	40.6
Annual household income				
Under $20,000	15.6	16.7	13.7	15.6
$20,000 to $49,999	26.6	28.5	25.5	25.0
$50,000 to $69,999	14.1	17.8	9.8	12.5
$70,000 to $99,999	24.6	26.2	29.4	18.8
$100,000 or more	19.1	10.7	21.6	28.1
Race/ethnicity				
Hispanics/Latinos	31.2	44.0	41.2	6.2
Whites	61.8	46.4	52.9	89.1
Other	7.0	9.6	5.9	4.7
Number of child(ren) in a household				
None	62.5	51.8	52.9	84.4
1-2	31.5	42.3	35.3	14.0
3 or more	6.0	5.9	11.8	1.6

Table 4
Trip characteristics of respondents to three different festivals

Trip characteristics of respondents	Total (%)	Poteet Strawberry Festival (%)	Pasadena Strawberry Festival (%)	Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival (%)
Residence				
Local residents	22.3	3.3	10.2	56.2
Non-local visitors	77.7	96.7	89.8	43.8
Previous visit				
First-time	44.2	25.0	39.0	73.2
Repeat visits	55.8	75.0	61.0	26.8
Information source				
Festival website	16.3	11.8	15.5	23.1
Internet search engine or other website	8.7	9.4	12.1	4.6
Newspaper/magazine article/ad	32.9	32.1	31.0	35.4
Friend/business associate/relative	60.4	61.2	62.1	57.8
TV/radio show/commercial	26.6	30.6	15.5	31.2
Billboard	15.5	18.8	22.4	4.7
Flyer from local sponsorships	11.6	5.9	19.0	12.5
Purpose of trip				
Specifically attend the festival	90.5	91.2	85.4	93.4
Business	3.2	5.0	2.1	1.6
Visiting friends/relatives	16.4	21.2	12.5	13.1
Passing through/side trip	2.6	1.2	4.2	3.3
Others	16.1	12.0	15.3	28.9
Number of people in group				
Alone	3.6	-	8.3	4.8
2 people	21.9	17.6	27.1	23.8
3-5 people	50.0	50.6	45.8	52.4
6-9 people	18.4	23.6	10.5	17.4
10 or more people	6.1	8.2	8.3	1.6
Number of accompanying children				
None	49.2	30.1	44.7	77.8
1-4 children	47.2	60.3	51.0	12.2
5 or more children	3.6	9.6	4.3	-

Generally, respondents to the three festivals indicated they had visited that particular festival about 5 times and to other similar festivals about 13 times. The strawberry festivals had more repeat visitors (75% to Poteet and 61% to Pasadena) whereas the Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival had more first-time visitors (73.2%). Most survey respondents took a trip, primarily, to attend the festivals (85.4% to 93.4% of respondents), followed by visiting friends and relatives (12.5% to 21.2% of respondents). Half of the respondents were accompanied to the festival sites with 3 to 5 other friends and family members. The size of groups at the Poteet Strawberry Festival appeared to be bigger than that at other two festivals, accounting for 31.8% of festival goers with 6 or more other visitors. Two strawberry festivals were kid-friendly or family-friendly because many visitors accompanied 1 or more children (69.9% and 55.3%) whereas a majority of visitors to the Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival did not bring any child (77.8%).

For more than half of visitors to the three festivals, word-of-mouth recommendation from their friends, relatives, and business associates was found to be the most popular information source (61.2%, 62.1%, and 57.8% of respondents to each festival), followed by newspaper/magazine article/ad (32.1%, 31.0%, and 35.4% of respondents to each festival). In addition to these two information sources, TV/radio show/commercial was commonly used as an information source among the Poteet Strawberry Festival (30.6%) and Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival (31.2%) visitors while billboard (22.4%) and flyer from local sponsorships (19.0%) were used among the Pasadena Strawberry Festival visitors.

4.3. DATA PREPARATION AND SCREENING

Data preparation and screening involved three steps: (1) checking the data set for errors and outliers; (2) dealing with missing observations in the data file; and (3) screening the data to check the normal distribution of observed variables. I used the descriptive statistics in SPSS to detect any errors in each of observed variables and corrected them in the data file. I also inspected the data set for scores that were out-of-range by running distributions of *z* scores (i.e., for univariate outlier detection) and the Mahalanobis distance statistic (i.e., for multivariate outlier detection) (Kline, 2005). Consequently, it was evident that none of the individual scores were considered extreme.

It is critical to deal with missing data because they can produce biased results and jeopardize the accuracy and the statistical power and validity of results (Sinharay, Stern, & Russell, 2001). There are various methods of approaching the analysis of data sets in which some of the data are missing (e.g., available case methods, single imputation methods, model-based imputation methods, and some multivariate estimation methods) (Kline, 2005). Among these approaches, model-based imputation methods including multiple imputation and maximum likelihood methods have been favored among researchers.

Multiple imputation method has some advantages over traditional imputation techniques (Allison, 2001). Multiple imputation maintains the original variability of missing data not only by creating imputed values which are drawn from a multivariate distribution representing the true sample parameters, but also by incorporating the uncertainty caused by estimating missing data. The multiple imputation approach also

yields unbiased parameter estimates which reflect the uncertainty related to estimating missing data. Moreover, multiple imputation is considered robust to departures from normality assumptions and produces reliable results in the presence of small sample sizes or many missing observations in the data set. Therefore, the multiple imputation method was employed using PRELIS to replace missing values.

For the next step of the data preparation and screening, the data was screened for univariate and multivariate normal distribution because the parameter estimation procedures used in this study required a normal distribution of the data (Kline, 2005). Statistical tests of skewness and kurtosis of the items in each construct were examined using PRELIS 2 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1999). Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations of the 23 items of the festival atmospherics scale. All but two items from the *Layout/design* (the "enough picnic tables and rest areas" item) and *Service encounter/social interaction* (the "knowledgeable staff in response to my requests" item) subscale were negatively skewed. Overall, respondents positively evaluated all items of festival atmospherics (Means $\geq$ 5.0) except the "affordable," "enough picnic tables and rest areas," "availability of proper signs for site directions," and "attentive staff who willingly respond to my requests" items.

As shown in Table 6, all but one item of the emotions scale did not meet the normal distribution requirement (the "surprised" item). The results from the skewness and kurtosis tests suggested that transformations of all these items that were skewed and/or had extreme kurtosis were required. On average, respondents reported that *Joy* was the most salient emotion when they visited the festivals (M = 3.84). Respondents

either seldom or occasionally experienced the feeling of *Love* (M = 2.83) and *Surprise* (M = 2.65) during their visit to the festivals. Visitors to the festivals did not report feeling of *Anger* (M = 1.74), *Sad* (M = 1.64), and *Fear* (M = 1.53).

Table 5
Descriptive statistics of the festival atmospherics scale[a]

Items		Mean (St. Dev.)	Skewness[b]	Kurtosis[b]
Festival atmospherics				
FA1	*Ambience*			
	Availability of activities/programs for all ages	5.13 (1.45)	-3.18**	0.10
	Quality of entertainment	5.40 (1.30)	-4.14***	1.23
	Uniqueness of themed activities/programs	5.05 (1.35)	-3.07**	0.94
	Availability of types of food/refreshments	5.54 (1.28)	-4.49***	1.15
	Quality of food/refreshments	5.60 (1.30)	-6.02***	3.08**
	Availability of various souvenirs/products	5.22 (1.44)	-4.73***	1.43
	Feeling of safety on the site	5.79 (1.30)	-6.78***	4.06***
	Affordable	4.80 (1.50)	-2.11*	-1.87
FA2	*Layout/design*			
	Visually appealing decorations	5.10 (1.37)	-3.91***	1.57
	Easy access to parking lots	5.36 (1.59)	-5.71***	1.92
	Availability of restrooms	5.02 (1.49)	-3.19**	-0.56
	Enough picnic tables and rest areas	4.21 (1.73)	-0.35	-4.69***
	Availability of proper signs for site directions	4.83 (1.47)	-2.10*	-1.63
	Enough available information (e.g., event programs, food venues, etc.)	5.16 (1.45)	-3.89***	0.50
	Convenient access to food/event venues	5.65 (1.23)	-5.23***	2.20*
	Cleanliness of the festival site	5.30 (1.32)	-3.73***	0.81
	Safe and well-maintained equipment and facilities	5.40 (1.18)	-2.29*	-0.26
FA3	*Service encounter/social interaction*			
	Acceptable crowd level	5.29 (1.40)	-4.69***	1.73
	Attentive staff who willingly respond to my requests	4.97 (1.49)	-2.56*	-0.72
	Friendly and courteous staff	5.43 (1.30)	-3.42**	-0.03
	Staff's willingness to help me and other visitors	5.20 (1.36)	-3.39**	0.77
	Knowledgeable staff in response to my requests	5.13 (1.34)	-1.33	-1.55
	Availability of prompt services	5.20 (1.37)	-2.81**	0.13

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = very poor and 7 = very good
b. z-score
*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 6
Descriptive statistics of the emotions scale[a]

Items		Mean (St. Dev.)	Skewness[b]	Kurtosis[b]
Emotions				
A1	*Love*			
	Caring	2.88 (1.16)	-0.62	-3.76***
	Loving	3.02 (1.25)	-1.04	-4.63***
	Compassionate	2.59 (1.12)	0.81	-3.87***
A2	*Joy*			
	Happy	4.09 (0.83)	-5.23***	3.05**
	Pleased	3.96 (0.84)	-5.57***	3.69***
	Glad	3.82 (0.85)	-4.70***	3.00**
	Cheerful	3.86 (0.90)	-5.06***	2.85**
	Contented	3.70 (0.95)	-4.63***	2.13*
	Joyful	3.61 (1.06)	-4.51***	1.25
A3	*Surprise*			
	Amazed	2.74 (1.17)	1.18	-2.71**
	Surprised	2.78 (1.11)	0.85	-1.53
	Astonished	2.43 (1.12)	2.41*	-2.28*
A4	*Anger*			
	Annoyed	1.77 (0.91)	6.76***	3.66***
	Frustrated	1.95 (0.96)	5.16***	1.85
	Irritated	1.67 (0.88)	7.84***	5.04***
	Aggravated	1.56 (0.87)	8.70***	5.66***
A5	*Sad*			
	Unfulfilled	1.84 (0.96)	6.42***	3.12**
	Unhappy	1.43 (0.81)	9.78***	6.54***
	Unsatisfied	1.74 (0.90)	6.89***	3.82***
	Discontented	1.55 (0.82)	8.50***	5.60***
A6	*Fear*			
	Worried	1.53 (0.76)	7.99***	5.23***
	Tense	1.59 (0.83)	7.64***	4.68***
	Uneasy	1.45 (0.73)	8.69***	5.87***
	Nervous	1.53 (0.83)	8.24***	5.08***

a. Items measured along a 5-point scale where 1 = almost never, 2 = seldom, 3 = occasionally, 4 = often, and 5 = very often
b. z-score
*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Some items of the festival commitment subscales ("This festival means more to me than any other festival I can think of," "The decision to go to this festival was primarily my own," "I don't really know much about this festival," "I consider myself an educated visitor regarding this festival") were either positively or negatively skewed (see Table 7). Notably, all but one item of the festival commitment subscale was found to have extreme kurtosis, which suggests a problem ("I consider myself an educated visitor regarding this festival") and requires the further step of involving transformation. It was evident that respondents were low or moderately committed to the festivals. In particular, they displayed a slightly higher score on the *Information complexity* subscale (M = 4.79), compared to the *Volitional choice* and *Resistance to change* subscales (M = 4.57 and M = 4.13, respectively). Compared to other subscales of festival commitment, relatively low levels of agreement for all *Position involvement* items were reported by respondents to the festival surveys (M = 3.72).

In Table 8, the distributional characteristics of the place attachment scale revealed that all items either/both were moderately skewed or/and had extreme kurtosis. The items "I have little, if any, emotional attachment to this town" from the *Affective attachment* subscale and "I have a special connection to the people who visit (or live in) this town" from the *Social bonding* subscale indicated a serious problem due to their absolute values of the kurtosis index greater than 10.0 (DeCarlo, 1997). In general, visitors to the festivals displayed low levels of attachment to the town/city where the particular festivals were held (M < 4). Of the place attachment subscales, *Place*

dependence was relatively low (M = 3.15), which means that visitors considered other places for their recreation and leisure activities over those towns/cities.

Table 7
Descriptive statistics of the festival commitment scale[a]

Items		Mean (St. Dev.)	Skewness[c]	Kurtosis[c]
Festival commitment				
FC1	*Position involvement*			
	This festival means a lot to me	3.87 (1.94)	0.97	-7.51***
	I am very attached to this festival	3.99 (1.90)	0.89	-6.56***
	I identify strongly with this festival	3.76 (1.92)	0.92	-9.07***
	I have a special connection to this festival and the people who visit this festival	3.70 (2.02)	1.93	-9.07***
	This festival means more to me than any other festival I can think of	3.29 (1.98)	3.34**	-4.18***
FC2	*Volitional choice*			
	The decision to visit to this festival was not entirely my own[b]	4.39 (2.14)	-1.06	-26.49***
	The decision to go to this festival was primarily my own	4.75 (1.93)	-2.55*	-8.23***
FC3	*Information complexity*			
	I don't really know much about this festival[b]	4.97 (1.64)	-2.94**	-2.29*
	I consider myself an educated visitor regarding this festival	4.99 (1.72)	-3.72***	-1.27
	I am knowledgeable about this festival	4.40 (1.83)	-0.84	-7.23***
FC4	*Resistance to change*			
	Even if close friends recommended another festival, I would not change my preference for this festival	4.27 (1.86)	-0.64	-6.24***
	To change my preference from going to this festival to another leisure alternative would require major rethinking	3.83 (1.92)	1.42	-6.71***
	I wouldn't substitute any other festival for recreation/entertainment I enjoy here	3.75 (1.93)	1.78	-7.00***
	For me, lots of other festivals could substitute for this festival[b]	4.67 (1.81)	-1.90	-4.37***

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree
b. Items were reversed coded
c. z-score
*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 8
Descriptive statistics of the place attachment scale[a]

Items		Mean (St. Dev.)	Skewness[c]	Kurtosis[c]
Place attachment				
PA1	*Place identity*			
	I feel my personal values are reflected in this town	3.74 (1.77)	0.42	-3.81***
	I identify strongly with this town	3.30 (1.88)	3.05**	-3.52***
	(Visiting) This town says a lot about who I am	3.10 (1.92)	3.73***	-2.65**
	I feel that I can be myself when I visit/am in this town	4.61 (1.88)	-3.01**	-3.39**
PA2	*Place dependence*			
	For the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, this town is the best	3.42 (1.76)	2.70**	-2.56*
	I prefer this town over other places for the recreational/leisure activities that I enjoy	3.09 (1.80)	4.12***	-1.08
	For what I like to do for leisure, I could not imagine anything better than the setting than this town	3.20 (1.82)	3.12**	-2.92**
	Other places cannot compare to this town	2.88 (1.76)	4.61***	-0.49
	When others suggest alternatives to this town for the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, I still choose this town	3.18 (1.79)	3.63***	-1.64
PA3	*Affective attachment*			
	This town means a lot to me	3.41 (1.94)	2.83**	-4.23***
	I am very attached to this town	3.30 (2.05)	2.99**	-6.03***
	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this town	3.29 (2.03)	3.36**	-4.93***
	I have little, if any, emotional attachment to this town[b]	3.86 (2.05)	1.11	-13.66***
PA4	*Social bonding*			
	Visiting/Being in this town allows me to spend time with my family/friends	4.48 (2.03)	-2.04*	-8.27***
	If I were to stop visiting (or be away from) this town, I would lose contact with a number of friends	2.96 (1.99)	4.11***	-3.33**
	Many of my friends/family prefer this town over other places	3.44 (1.88)	2.21*	-4.77***

Table 8 Continued

Items	Mean (St. Dev.)	Skewness[c]	Kurtosis[c]
I have a lot of fond memories with friends/family in this town	4.40 (1.98)	-1.63	-6.94***
I have a special connection to the people who visit (or live in) this town	3.61 (2.14)	1.85	-13.24***

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree
b. Items were reversed coded
c. z-score
*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

As seen in Table 9, it was evident that all items of the festival satisfaction scale had significant negative skewness. This finding indicates a violation of normal distribution and imposes a problem to run the further tests. An examination of the kurtosis indexes also suggested that all but three items had significant positive kurtosis. Generally speaking, respondents were fairly satisfied with their overall experience at the festivals (M > 5.0). The results of the mean values revealed that *Affective evaluation* of the festivals (M = 5.86) was higher than *Cognitive evaluation* of the festivals (M = 5.40).

Although the kurtosis values of all items of the place satisfaction scale were not within the extreme range (i.e., less than 10 of a significant z-score, $p < 0.05$), these items were found to have moderate negative skewness as indicated in Table 10. On average, festival visitors displayed slightly above neutral levels of satisfaction with the place (i.e., the town/city where the festivals were taken place) (M = 4.72).

Table 9
Descriptive statistics of the festival satisfaction scale[a]

Items		Mean (St. Dev.)	Skewness[c]	Kurtosis[c]
Festival satisfaction				
FS1	*Cognitive satisfaction*			
	My choice to visit this festival was a wise one	5.55 (1.53)	-6.18***	2.81**
	I am sure it was the right decision to visit this festival	5.97 (1.25)	-7.41***	4.65***
	My experience at this festival wasn't what I expected[b]	5.14 (1.74)	-4.66***	-0.27
	This was one of the best festivals I have ever visited	4.88 (1.78)	-3.49***	-1.86
	My experience at this festival was exactly what I needed	5.08 (1.55)	-3.35**	-0.44
	If I had to do it over again, I'd visit a different festival or go somewhere else[b]	5.80 (1.53)	-7.78***	4.27***
FS2	*Affective satisfaction*			
	I am satisfied with my decision to visit this festival	5.92 (1.36)	-7.93***	4.82***
	I feel bad about my decision concerning this festival visit[b]	6.34 (1.13)	-10.25***	7.05***
	This festival made me feel happy	5.61 (1.44)	-6.01***	2.69**
	Sometimes I have mixed feelings about visiting this festival[b]	5.60 (1.46)	-5.70***	2.00*
	I really enjoyed myself at this festival	5.85 (1.32)	-6.50***	3.38**

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree
b. Items were reversed coded
c. z-score
*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 10
Descriptive statistics of the place satisfaction scale

Items		Mean (St. Dev.)	Skewness[d]	Kurtosis[d]
Place Satisfaction				
PS1	How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/leisure activities)?[a]	4.96 (1.43)	-3.60***	0.97
PS2	How good or bad is the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/ leisure activities)?[b]	4.62 (1.31)	-2.45*	0.69
PS3	How much do you like the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/ leisure activities)?[c]	4.57 (1.46)	-2.06*	-0.19

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = extremely dissatisfied and 7 = extremely satisfied
b. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = worst and 7 = best
c. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = not like at all and 7 = like very much
d. z-score
*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Similar to the distributional characteristics of the previous scales, every item of the festival loyalty scale had significant z-scores ($p < 0.05$) on either/both skewness or/and kurtosis, which is necessary to transform to correct for a non-normal distribution of these items (see Table 11). Analysis of the mean values indicated that respondents' festival loyalty, as measured by behavioral intentions, WOM, willingness to pay more, and strength of preference, generally displayed a positive but not strong loyalty to the festival. Of those subscales, the *Willingness to pay more* subscale had a low mean value of 3.10, contributing to lowering the overall mean of the festival loyalty construct. In contrast, respondents were more likely to spread a positive word of mouth about the festivals (M = 5.83).

Table 11
Descriptive statistics of the festival loyalty scale

Items		Mean (St. Dev.)	Skewness[c]	Kurtosis[c]
Festival loyalty				
FL1	*Behavioral intentions*[a]			
	I would probably visit this festival again next year	5.67 (1.68)	-6.97***	2.86**
	If I decided to go to any festival, I would return to this festival again	5.35 (1.81)	-5.29***	-0.06
	It is possible that I will visit this festival in the future	5.87 (1.50)	-7.63***	4.16***
FL2	*WOM/Advocacy*[a]			
	I would say positive things about this festival to other people	5.89 (1.46)	-7.99***	4.66***
	I would recommend others visit this festival	5.89 (1.49)	-7.75***	4.40***
	I would encourage friends and relatives to go to this festival	5.78 (1.49)	-7.43***	4.03***
FL3	*Willingness to pay more*[a]			
	I don't mind paying a little bit more to attend this festival	3.19 (1.65)	2.70**	-1.73
	I am willing to pay more for entertainment/ food at this festival	3.04 (1.59)	2.88**	-1.12
	Price is not an important factor in my decision to revisit this festival	3.06 (1.87)	3.66***	-2.92**
FL4	*Strength of preference*[a]			
	I would prefer going to this festival, rather than visiting other festivals/doing other leisure activities	4.06 (1.73)	0.14	-4.90***
	I would rank this festival as the most enjoyable one amongst the others I have visited	4.74 (1.70)	-1.90	-3.12**
	This festival provides the best entertainment/ recreational opportunity among the alternatives I have done/visited	4.31 (1.75)	-0.57	-4.43***
	Compared to this festival, there are few alternatives that I would enjoy	3.67 (1.61)	1.08	-2.55**
	I get bored with going to the same festival even if it is good[b]	5.41 (1.52)	-4.63***	0.09

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree
b. Items were reversed coded
c. z-score
*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 12
Descriptive statistics of the place loyalty scale

Items		Mean (St. Dev.)	Skewness[d]	Kurtosis[d]
Place loyalty				
PL1	*Behavioral intentions*[a]			
	How likely would you have come to this (festival hosting) town within the next year if you had not come for this festival?	4.66 (2.61)	-2.55*	45.64***
	How likely would you have come to this (festival hosting) town even if this festival had not been held?	4.18 (2.54)	-0.74	40.28***
PL2	*WOM/Advocacy*[b]			
	I would say positive things about this (festival hosting) town to other people	4.99 (1.69)	-3.91***	-0.71
	I would recommend that someone visit this (festival hosting) town	4.57 (1.81)	-1.97*	-4.57***
	I would encourage friends and relatives to visit this (festival hosting) town	4.53 (1.85)	-2.05*	-4.70***
PL3	*Strength of preference*[b]			
	I would prefer visiting/being in this (festival hosting) town, rather than going/doing other alternative places	3.54 (1.74)	1.71	-2.85**
	I would rank this (festival hosting) town as the most enjoyable place amongst the others I have visited	3.35 (1.72)	2.84**	-2.23*
	I would get bored with going to/being in this (festival hosting) town again even if my experience there was good[c]	4.99 (1.52)	-3.46**	-0.41
	Compared to this (festival hosting) town, there are few alternatives that I would consider	2.96 (1.62)	4.21***	-0.44
	This (festival hosting) town provides the best recreation/leisure opportunities among the alternatives I have visited/been	3.14 (1.77)	3.70***	-2.02*

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = very unlikely and 7 = very likely
b. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree
c. Items were reversed coded
d. z-score
*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 12 illustrates that the place loyalty items were not an exception that met the normal distribution requirement just like most items in other different constructs. All but two items were moderately skewed (the "How likely would you have come to this (festival hosting) town even if this festival had not been held?" and "I would prefer visiting/being in this (festival hosting) town, rather than going/doing other alternative places" items). Also, all but three items ("I would say positive things about this (festival hosting) town to other people," "I would get bored with going to/being in this (festival hosting) town again even if my experience there was good," and "Compared to this (festival hosting) town, there are few alternatives that I would consider") were statistically significant for the kurtosis z-scores ($p < 0.05$). Two items of the *Behavioral intentions* subscale required transformation due to their extreme positive kurtosis values (i.e., 45.64 and 40.28, respectively). An examination of the mean scores of each subscale in the construct revealed that overall festival visitors showed a low level of place loyalty ($M < 4$). Particularly, strength of preference to the towns/cities, where the three festivals were held over other alternative places, was relatively low ($M = 3.60$) compared to other subscales ($M = 4.42$ and 4.70).

In sum, the results from the univariate and multivariate normality tests have suggested that appropriate transformation be necessary not only to meet a prerequisite of normal distribution in SEM with maximum likelihood estimation, but also to reduce the chances of committing either a Type I or II error. It has been suggested that different approaches to data transformation could be effective depending on the nature and extent of the non-normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Commonly used transformation

techniques such as square root, logarithm, and inverse had little impact on non-normal distribution of the raw scores. Consequently, I performed normal scores transformation using PRELIS. Normal scores transformations provide a useful way for normalizing both continuous and ordinal variables for which the origin and unit of measurement have no intrinsic meaning (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1999). This transformation allows rendering the skewness and kurtosis of the data consistent with a normal distribution (i.e., values ranging approximately between 0 and 3). As a result, distributions of most variables were normalized after transformation.

4.3.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The next step of the analysis was to assess the extent to which the measurement models of each construct (i.e., festival atmospherics, emotions, festival commitment, place attachment, festival satisfaction, place satisfaction, festival loyalty, and place loyalty) represented the observed measures with transformation of imputed raw scores. Byrne (1998) has suggested that CFA of a measuring instrument is most useful when the measures have been fully developed and their factor structures validated in the previous work. A model based on theory, empirical research, or a combination of both, is postulated and tested for its validity given the sample data. According to Byrne, the CFA model hypothesizes, *a priori*, that: (a) a latent variable could be explained by a certain factor structure; (b) each item would have a nonzero loading on the factor it was designed to measure and zero loadings on all other factors; (c) all factors would be correlated; and (d) measurement error terms would be uncorrelated. This procedure is

therefore used to determine the extent to which all items actually measure a latent construct (i.e., construct validity).

The CFA results of each latent construct were shown in Table 13 through Table 19. These tables include only items with statistically significant parameter estimates with correct signs and sizes and appropriate standard errors. In addition to parameter estimates, the fit indices of each measurement model are reported. The goodness-of-fit indices used to empirically assess model fit were the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger & Lind, 1980), the non-normed fit index (NNFI; Bentler & Bonnett, 1980), and the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990). The suggested values for each of these fit indices are in general: (a) RMSEA values less than 0.08 with the upper limit of 0.10, indicating a reasonable fit (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996); and (b) NNFI and CFI values greater than 0.95, representing a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

Table 13 presents the test results of the factorial validity of the festival atmospherics construct. Festival atmospherics was initially comprised of a 23-item instrument structured on a 7-point Likert type scale that ranged from 1 (very poor) to 7 (very good). It was composed of three subscales, each measuring one facet of festival atmosphere; the *Ambience* subscale comprised eight items, the *Layout/design* subscale nine, and the *Service encounter/social interaction* subscale six. Although the goodness-of-fit statistics of the initially hypothesized model structure indicated an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2_{(227)} = 806.31$, RMSEA = 0.11, NNFI = 0.96, CFI = 0.97), the modification indices for factor loadings pinpointed the presence of the cross-loadings (i.e., a loading

on more than one factor) of the six items of "Quality of food/refreshments," "Feeling of safety on the site," "Visually appealing decorations," "Enough available information," "Convenient access to food/event venues," and "Acceptable crowd level." After respecifying the model with these items deleted, the model fit was significantly improved ($\chi^2_{(116)} = 314.82$, RMSEA = 0.08, NNFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.98). In order to ensure the internal consistency of the festival atmospherics factors, Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each factor was assessed. The coefficient value of these factors was 0.88, 0.86, and 0.95, which was greater than the suggested level of 0.70 given by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994).

The emotions construct was also tested for the validity of the multidimensional factor structure using CFA. A review of the various fit indices, as shown in Table 14, revealed that the hypothesized model underlying six dimensions of emotions (i.e., *Love*, *Joy*, *Surprise*, *Anger*, *Sad*, and *Fear*) was considered to be an adequate fit to the sample data ($\chi^2_{(237)} = 459.39$, RMSEA = 0.06, NNFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.98). Therefore, no further respecification and re-estimation of this model was necessary. This multidimensional emotions construct, derived from the Consumption Emotion Set (CES) proposed by Richins (1997), was found to be applicable to the festival context. An investigation of reliability of each of these factors showed that Cronbach's alpha values fell between 0.88 and 0.91, thereby indicating good internal consistency of the items of all emotions subscales.

Table 13
Confirmatory factor analysis of the festival atmospherics construct[a,b]

Items		α	λ	t-value
Festival atmospherics				
FA1	*Ambience (M = 5.19)*	0.88		
	Availability of activities/programs for all ages		0.76	13.05
	Quality of entertainment		0.81	14.37
	Uniqueness of themed activities/programs		0.76	13.10
	Availability of types of food/refreshments		0.79	13.66
	Availability of various souvenirs/products		0.78	13.62
	Affordable		0.65	10.51
FA2	*Layout/design (M = 5.03)*	0.86		
	Easy access to parking lots		0.71	11.92
	Availability of restrooms		0.78	13.62
	Enough picnic tables and rest areas		0.61	9.79
	Availability of proper signs for site directions		0.75	12.84
	Cleanliness of the festival site		0.77	13.26
	Safe and well-maintained equipment and facilities		0.80	13.92
FA3	*Service encounter/social interaction (M = 5.19)*	0.95		
	Attentive staff who willingly respond to my requests		0.86	16.07
	Friendly and courteous staff		0.92	18.07
	Staff's willingness to help me and other visitors		0.91	17.58
	Knowledgeable staff in response to my requests		0.91	17.50
	Availability of prompt services		0.86	15.89

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = very poor and 7 = very good
b. Fit indices: $\chi^2_{(116)} = 314.82$, RMSEA = 0.08, NNFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.98

Table 14
Confirmatory factor analysis of the emotions construct[a,b]

Items		α	λ	t-value
Emotions				
A1	*Love (M = 2.83)*	0.88		
	Caring		0.89	16.42
	Loving		0.85	15.20
	Compassionate		0.80	14.01
A2	*Joy (M = 3.84)*	0.90		
	Happy		0.84	15.31
	Pleased		0.82	14.61
	Glad		0.82	14.72
	Cheerful		0.78	13.47
	Contented		0.64	10.40
	Joyful		0.79	13.71
A3	*Surprise (M = 2.65)*	0.89		
	Amazed		0.93	17.67
	Surprised		0.91	16.97
	Astonished		0.74	12.57
A4	*Anger (M = 1.74)*	0.91		
	Annoyed		0.78	13.54
	Frustrated		0.74	12.58
	Irritated		0.92	17.83
	Aggravated		0.91	17.35
A5	*Sad (M = 1.64)*	0.88		
	Unfulfilled		0.71	11.90
	Unhappy		0.76	12.98
	Unsatisfied		0.81	14.32
	Discontented		0.89	16.49
A6	*Fear (M = 1.52)*	0.89		
	Worried		0.77	13.33
	Tense		0.76	12.85
	Uneasy		0.86	15.52
	Nervous		0.87	15.82

a. Items measured along a 5-point scale where 1 = almost never, 2 = seldom, 3 = occasionally, 4 = often, and 5 = very often
b. Fit indices: $\chi^2_{(237)} = 459.39$, RMSEA = 0.06, NNFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.98

The multidimensionality of the commitment construct derived from Pritchard and Howard (1997) was tested for festival visitors employing the CFA procedure. The festival construct initially consisted of four factors – *Position involvement*, *Volitional choice*, *Information complexity*, and *Resistance to change*. With the four factors intercorrelated, the original fit indices represented a reasonable fit to the sample data ($\chi^2_{(71)}$ = 201.45, RMSEA = 0.09, NNFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.97). However, large modification indices indicated the presence of factor cross-loading in the model. The three highest values of modification indices in the factor loadings associated with the items "The decision to visit to this festival was not entirely my own," "The decision to go to this festival was primarily my own," and "I consider myself an educated visitor regarding this festival." These items were deleted to respecify the model and re-estimate the parameter estimates.

Table 15 displays the results of a three-factor structure of the festival commitment construct. The estimation of the respecified model resulted in an overall fit of $\chi^2_{(41)}$ = 101.78, RMSEA = 0.09, NNFI = 0.98, and CFI = 0.98, representing an acceptable fit to the data. An examination of internal consistency of the items in each factor indicated that they were reliable measurement instruments given their range between 0.65 and 0.96. Although the value of Cronbach's alpha coefficient has been suggested to be greater than 0.70 for the consistency of measuring instruments (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), the coefficient value less than 0.7 is considered to be acceptable for a scale less than six items (Cortina, 1993).

Table 15
Confirmatory factor analysis of the festival commitment construct[a,b]

Items		α	λ	t-value
Festival commitment				
FC1	*Position involvement (M = 3.72)*	0.96		
	This festival means a lot to me		0.92	18.09
	I am very attached to this festival		0.89	16.87
	I identify strongly with this festival		0.91	17.44
	I have a special connection to this festival and the people who visit this festival		0.87	16.27
	This festival means more to me than any other festival I can think of		0.92	18.08
FC3	*Information complexity (M = 4.68)*	0.65		
	I don't really know much about this festival[c]		0.52	7.45
	I am knowledgeable about this festival		0.98	12.70
FC4	*Resistance to change (M =4.13)*	0.76		
	Even if close friends recommended another festival, I would not change my preference for this festival		0.68	10.97
	To change my preference from going to this festival to another leisure alternative would require major rethinking		0.75	12.44
	I wouldn't substitute any other festival for recreation/entertainment I enjoy here		0.81	13.98
	For me, lots of other festivals could substitute for this festival[c]		0.46	6.66

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree
b. Fit indices: $\chi^2_{(40)} = 78.43$, RMSEA = 0.07, NNFI = 0.99, CFI = 0.99
c. Items were reversed coded

The four-factor model of the place (i.e., festival hosting town) attachment construct was tested for festival visitors. Values of fit indices with all factors correlated were $\chi^2_{(129)} = 507.04$, RMSEA = 0.13, NNFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.98, indicating a poor fit to the sample data and thereby suggesting further respecification of the model. An examination of modification indices of factor loadings disclosed the source of the misfit. The items that loaded on more than one factor were identified and deleted. These items were "I identify strongly with this town" in the *Place identity* scale, "This town means a

lot to me" in the *Affective attachment* scale, "Visiting/Being in this town allows me to spend time with my family/friends," "Many of my friends/family prefer this town over other places," "I have a lot of fond memories with friends/family in this town" in the *Social bonding* scale. The difference between the original and respecified model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(70)}$ = 338.27) was statistically significant (p = 0.001), which indicated substantial model improvement through deletion of these five items.

However, the Affective attachment dimension was estimated to have a substantial correlation with the Social bonding dimension (r = 0.98). The high factor correlation suggests that these two factors might not be distinct (Kline, 2005), thereby in need of combining the items of these factors for the model respecification and re-estimation. The factor with the combined items is renamed as Affective bonding in this study, and encompasses festival visitors' emotional attachment to its hosting town and place bonding through social interactions and shared experiences. The fit of the three-factor model of place attachment was statistically better than that of the three-factor model ($\chi^2_{(62)}$ = 173.66, RMSEA = 0.09, NNFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99). Reported in Table 16 are the structure coefficients, their statistical significance (i.e., t-value) and Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the three-factor model.

Table 16
Confirmatory factor analysis of the place attachment construct[a,b]

Items		α	λ	t-value
Place attachment				
PA1	*Place identity (M = 3.81)*	0.85		
	I feel my personal values are reflected in this town		0.77	13.46
	(Visiting) This town says a lot about who I am		0.92	17.69
	I feel that I can be myself when I visit/am in this town		0.70	11.75
PA2	*Place dependence (M = 3.15)*	0.95		
	For the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, this town is the best		0.91	17.72
	I prefer this town over other places for the recreational/leisure activities that I enjoy		0.86	16.04
	For what I like to do for leisure, I could not imagine anything better than the setting than this town		0.94	18.59
	Other places cannot compare to this town		0.80	14.35
	When others suggest alternatives to this town for the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, I still choose this town		0.90	17.34
PA3	*Affective bonding (M = 3.40)*	0.91		
	I am very attached to this town		0.97	19.98
	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this town		0.96	19.50
	I have little, if any, emotional attachment to this town[c]		0.59	9.58
	If I were to stop visiting (or be away from) this town, I would lose contact with a number of friends		0.70	11.89
	I have a special connection to the people who visit (or live in) this town		0.89	17.14

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree
b. Fit indices: $\chi^2_{(62)} = 173.66$, RMSEA = 0.09, NNFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99
c. Items were reversed coded

The validity of the three-factor structure of satisfaction with festivals and their hosting places were examined. Based on the previous empirical literature, festival satisfaction is composed of two factors – cognitive and affective satisfaction, whereas place satisfaction consists of one dimension denoting affective and attitudinal evaluation of a particular setting where a festival takes place. Values of fit indices indicated a poor overall fit of the initial three-factor model: $\chi^2_{(74)} = 366.09$, RMSEA = 0.15, NNFI = 0.93, CFI = 0.94. In order to pinpoint the misfit in the model, the modification indices of factor loadings and error covariances were examined. A total of four indicators were considered to be loaded on more than one factor. The cross-loaded indicators included: "I am sure it was the right decision to visit this festival" and "My experience at this festival wasn't what I expected" measuring cognitive festival satisfaction, and "I feel bad about my decision concerning this festival visit" and "Sometimes I have mixed feelings about visiting this festival" measuring affective festival satisfaction. These four indicators were deleted to meet the specification of CFA. The respecified model was found to have an improved fit compared to the initial model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(42)} = 291.64$) as reported in Table 17. An assessment of internal validity of cognitive festival satisfaction, affective festival satisfaction, and place satisfaction revealed that responses were consistent across the items within each of these factors (0.85, 0.90, and 0.93, respectively). Consequently, the two-factor model of festival satisfaction and the one-factor model of place satisfaction were found to be valid for the visitors to the festivals ($\chi^2_{(32)} = 74.45$, RMSEA = 0.07, NNFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99).

Table 17
Confirmatory factor analysis of the festival and place satisfaction construct[e]

Items		α	λ	t-value
Festival satisfaction[a]				
FS1	*Cognitive satisfaction (M = 5.33)*	0.85		
	My choice to visit this festival was a wise one		0.87	16.23
	This was one of the best festivals I have ever visited		0.87	16.31
	My experience at this festival was exactly what I needed		0.84	15.34
	If I had to do it over again, I'd visit a different festival or go somewhere else[f]		0.59	9.49
FS2	*Affective satisfaction (M = 5.79)*	0.90		
	I am satisfied with my decision to visit this festival		0.83	15.02
	This festival made me feel happy		0.90	17.11
	I really enjoyed myself at this festival		0.88	16.55
Place satisfaction *(M = 4.72)*		0.93		
PS1	How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/leisure activities)?[b]		0.83	15.00
PS2	How good or bad is the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/leisure activities)?[c]		0.98	19.55
PS3	How much do you like the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/leisure activities)?[d]		0.89	16.71

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree
b. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = extremely dissatisfied and 7 = extremely satisfied
c. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = worst and 7 = best
d. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = not like at all and 7 = like very much
e. Fit indices: $\chi^2_{(32)} = 74.45$, RMSEA = 0.07, NNFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99
f. Items were reversed coded

In order to evaluate the construct validity of festival loyalty, the CFA procedure was also performed. Loyalty to festivals consists of a total of fourteen indicators loading onto four factors: behavioral intentions, WOM/advocacy, willingness to pay more, and strength of preference. This four-factor loyalty model was originally adapted from Jones and Taylor's (2007) service loyalty measures. Reviewing the fit indices for this initial model indicated that the four-factor festival loyalty measures explained the data well

($\chi^2_{(71)}$ = 128.89, RMSEA = 0.06, NNFI = 0.99, CFI = 0.99). Reliability analysis of each factor was also conducted and revealed that all factors were within the recommended range of acceptability for internal consistency ($\alpha < 0.7$). Yet, one indicator of the *Strength of preference* dimension, "I get bored with going to the same festival even if it is good," had a relatively low value for corrected item-total correlation (0.17) and a low factor loading (0.26). The respecified model with this item deleted fitted the data well: $\chi^2_{(59)}$ = 109.38, RMSEA = 0.06, NNFI = 0.99, CFI = 0.99 (see Table 18).

Place loyalty was also tested for the validity of the three-factor structure consisting of 10 items. Similar to the measures of festival loyalty, this hypothesized model was drawn from Jones and Taylor's service loyalty. The goodness-of-fit for this initial model yield a reasonable fit to the data ($\chi^2_{(32)}$ = 74.43, RMSEA = 0.07, NNFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.98). Further investigation on the size of factor loadings indicated that the item "I would get bored with going to/being in this town again even if my experience there was good" of the *Strength of preference* subscale was low (0.19). Not surprisingly, a review of the reliability indices revealed that this particular item had a low corrected item-total correlation. The item with a low corrected item-total correlation is regarded to be meaningless because it doesn't really measure the same construct the rest of the items are designed to measure. Therefore, respecification of the model after eliminating this item was necessary. Table 19 presents the results of the CFA model and their reliability test of festival loyalty. Fit indices indicated a relatively well-fitting model for festival visitors, concluding that the place loyalty construct was best described by a three-factor model ($\chi^2_{(24)}$ = 57.28, RMSEA = 0.07, NNFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.98).

Table 18
Confirmatory factor analysis of the festival loyalty construct[b]

Items		α	λ	t-value
Festival loyalty				
FL1	*Behavioral intentions[a] (M = 5.63)*	0.94		
	I would probably visit this festival again next year		0.93	18.19
	If I decided to go to any festival, I would return to this festival again		0.90	17.07
	It is possible that I will visit this festival in the future		0.92	17.83
FL2	*WOM/Advocacy[a] (M = 5.85)*	0.96		
	I would say positive things about this festival to other people		0.95	18.95
	I would recommend others visit this festival		0.88	16.57
	I would encourage friends and relatives to go to this festival		0.95	19.12
FL3	*Willingness to pay more[a] (M = 3.10)*	0.83		
	I don't mind paying a little bit more to attend this festival		0.89	15.19
	I am willing to pay more for entertainment/ food at this festival		0.87	14.79
	Price is not an important factor in my decision to revisit this festival		0.65	10.26
FL4	*Strength of preference[a] (M = 4.19)*	0.89		
	I would prefer going to this festival, rather than visiting other festivals/doing other leisure activities		0.83	14.92
	I would rank this festival as the most enjoyable one amongst the others I have visited		0.90	16.76
	This festival provides the best entertainment/recreational opportunity among the alternatives I have done/visited		0.88	16.19
	Compared to this festival, there are few alternatives that I would enjoy		0.64	10.25

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree
b. Fit indices: $\chi^2_{(59)} = 109.38$, RMSEA = 0.06, NNFI = 0.99, CFI = 0.99

Table 19
Confirmatory factor analysis of the place loyalty construct[c]

Items		α	λ	t-value
Place loyalty				
PL1	*Behavioral intentions*[a] *(M = 4.42)*	0.74		
	How likely would you have come to this (festival hosting) town within the next year if you had not come for this festival?		0.75	5.62
	How likely would you have come to this (festival hosting) town even if this festival had not been held?		0.77	5.67
PL2	*WOM/Advocacy*[b] *(M = 4.70)*	0.97		
	I would say positive things about this (festival hosting) town to other people		0.89	16.99
	I would recommend that someone visit this (festival hosting) town		0.99	20.69
	I would encourage friends and relatives to visit this (festival hosting) town		0.99	20.62
PL3	*Strength of preference*[b] *(M = 3.25)*	0.88		
	I would prefer visiting/being in this (festival hosting) town, rather than going/doing other alternative places		0.87	16.00
	I would rank this (festival hosting) town as the most enjoyable place amongst the others I have visited		0.94	18.41
	Compared to this (festival hosting) town, there are few alternatives that I would consider		0.58	9.14
	This (festival hosting) town provides the best recreation/leisure opportunities among the alternatives I have visited/been		0.85	15.55

a. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = very unlikely and 7 = very likely
b. Items measured along a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree
c. Fit indices: $\chi^2_{(24)} = 57.28$, RMSEA = 0.07, NNFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.98

4.3.2. Item Parceling

In addition to the normal distribution of responses, analyses based on large sample sizes are another important assumption underlying the estimation methods of structural equation modeling (Byrne, 1998). Results derived within larger samples ensure a more statistically meaningful estimation of parameters compared to smaller samples because the former has less sampling error (Kline, 2005). According to Kline, a complex model with many parameters requires larger samples than a parsimonious model in order to obtain comparably stable estimates. He has suggested that the ratio of the number of cases to the number of free parameters has to be at least 5:1and higher be desirable for the statistical precision of the results.

Researchers have noted that the use of item parcels instead of items can be beneficial for substantial improvement of the ratio of sample size to the number of variables, particularly when dealing with large numbers of measured variables or estimated parameters (e.g., Hall, Snell, & Foust, 1999; Marsh, Hau, Balla, & Grayson, 1998; Hau & Marsh, 2004). A parcel refers to an observed variable, which is a simple sum or mean of several items assumed to be conceptually similar and psychometrically unidimensional, and which assesses the same construct (Kishton & Widaman, 1994).

The advantages of item parceling are: (1) increased reliability of item parcel responses; (2) more definitive rotational results; (3) less violation of normality assumptions; (4) closer approximations to normal theory-based estimation; (5) fewer parameters to be estimated; (6) more stable parameter estimates; (7) reduction in idiosyncratic characteristics of items; and (8) simplification of model interpretation

(Bandalos & Finney, 2001; see also Hau & Marsh, 2004, p.328). For example, Marsh et al. (1998) demonstrated no differences between item parcels and items in terms of convergence to proper solutions, parameter estimates, and SEs of parameter estimates. They found that 12 items per factor yielded similar solutions (i.e., item convergence, factor loadings and correlations, and standard errors of parameter estimates) to four parcels (of three items each) that were constructed from the same 12 items.

Parcels have been constructed in several ways in past studies. Cattell and Burdsal (1975) used exploratory factor analysis to calculate the congruence coefficients. Based on theses coefficients, they grouped indicators into radial parcels. Kishton and Widaman (1994) examined the differences in model fit in CFA between unidimensional parceling of items and domain representative parceling of items. They found that the later parceling method improved the psychometric properties of the behavioral measures of personality compared to the former parceling approach. Nasser, Takahashi, and Benson (1997) tested the factor structure of test anxiety among Israeli-Arabic high school students using the item parceling approach. They categorized items into parcels on the basis of similar item content and factor structure. It was found that parcels constructed using this approach produced better model fit than individual items did.

Given the presence of the small cases/parameters ratio (less than 5:1) due to the limited sample size in my study, item parceling appeared to be an effective procedure to yield more robust CFA solutions. Applying the Nasser et al.'s item parceling method to this study, the indicators designed to measure the conceptually similar subscale in the previous analysis were grouped into parcels, and summed to create score aggregates for

further analyses. Those item clusters served as the indicator variables for the underlying latent constructs in the next step of data analysis.

4.3. TESTING A MEASUREMENT MODEL

Evaluating the satisfactory validity and reliability of the measurement model is critical prior to testing for a significant relationship in the structural model and overall model, because "(1) the structural portion of a full structural equation model involves relations among only latent variables, and (2) the primary concern in working with a full model is to assess the extent to which these relations are valid" (Byrne, 1998, p. 236). Based on the previous tests for the factorial validity of theoretical constructs, the hypothesized model in this procedure was tested for the validity of factorial validity of measuring instruments. More specifically, this step of data analysis involved developing the measurement model of a full structural equation model by determining which and how many indicators to use in measuring each construct.

In the measurement of theoretical constructs, each indicator represented a subscale score (i.e., the sum of all items designed to measure a particular subscale in a construct). The initial model had three indicators of festival atmospherics (ambience, layout/design, service encounter/social interaction), six for emotions (love, joy, surprise, anger, sad, fear), three for festival commitment (position involvement, information complexity, resistance to change), three for place attachment (place identity, place dependence, affective bonding), two for festival satisfaction (cognitive satisfaction, affective satisfaction), four for festival loyalty (behavioral intentions, WOM/advocacy,

willingness to pay more, strength of preference), and three for place loyalty (behavioral intentions, WOM/advocacy, strength of preference). Unlike these seven latent variables that formed subscale scores through item summation, place satisfaction was measured using its three items as manifest variables since it was considered to be a unidimensional construct (Ringel & Finkelstein, 1991).

As an important preliminary step in the analysis of full latent variable models, the validity of the measurement model was tested using a CFA procedure. Selected goodness-of-fit statistics related to the initially hypothesized model suggested a poor fit to the sample data: $\chi^2_{(296)} = 1491.78$, RMSEA = 0.15, NNFI = 0.89, CFI = 0.91. In order to identify possible areas of misfit, the modification indices were examined. A review of the modification indices in the factor loading matrix revealed that several had substantially high values. These items contributed to a substantial misspecification of the model, including *Ambience* (FA1) of festival atmospherics, *Surprise* (A3) and *Anger* (A4) of emotions, *Strength of preference* (FL4) of festival loyalty, and *Behavioral intentions* (PL1) of place loyalty. Moreover, inspection of the squared multiple correlations (R^2) revealed that *Fear* (A6), an item from the emotions construct, had a significantly low value of 0.09. This low R^2 value suggested that the item *Fear* (A6) inadequately measured its underlying construct of emotions. These items contributing to model misfit were deleted for model fit improvement. After respecification of the initially hypothesized model, the χ^2 difference ($\Delta\chi^2_{(135)} = 892.95$, $p < 0.001$) was statistically significant, and other fit indices for this model were substantially improved compared to those for the initial model. Yet, it was evident that there were still problems

with model because the values of some indices (e.g., RMSEA and NNFI) were only marginally adequate (0.12 and 0.93, respectively).

Further investigation of the modification indices of error covariances indicated clear evidence of misspecification associated with the three pairings of PL3 and PA2, FC3 and FC4, and FS2 and PA3. It should be noted that because there is no past literature clarifying the relationships of measurement error terms between constructs, these relationship results are exploratory. Given the logical assumption that they were intuitively correlated to each other, these pairing of errors terms were specified as free parameters in the model. The difference in χ^2 between the two models (i.e., the previous model with the items deleted and the respecified model with the measurement errors for each of two pairs covarying) was statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2_{(3)} = 91.15$, $p < 0.001$), indicating substantial model fit improvement. Reported along with Table 20 are the selected fit indices of the final model: $\chi^2_{(158)} = 507.68$, RMSEA = 0.10, NNFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.96. Values of the selected goodness-of-fit indices for this model fell within acceptable ranges. Given the reasonable fit indices, reliability coefficients of the latent constructs, and adequate size of parameter estimates, the eight-factor measurement model for festival visitors was considered psychometrically valid. Subsequent data analysis involved assessing construct validity of the latent constructs.

4.5. TESTING CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

Construct validity can be determined through tests of convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity examines "the extent to which independent measures concur in their assessment of the same construct," whereas discriminant validity examines "the extent to which the independent measures diverge in their assessment of these constructs" (Kyle et al., 2007, p. 412). Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommended several criteria to established construct validity. Of those criteria, Kyle et al. (2007) in their study on examining the development of a leisure involvement scale assessed the strength of factor loadings, the significance of *t*-values, and estimates of the average variance extracted (AVE). I adapted the Kyle et al's criteria to ensure construct validity in this study.

The strength of factor loading is determined by the size of a standardized loading in accordance with shared variances (i.e., squared multiple correlations [R^2]). According to Fornell and Larcker, a decrease in shared variances, indicating a decrease in the factor loading value, suggests a weak relationship between an indicator and its underlying construct due to an increase in measurement error. In other words, the validity of the items can be questionable if, due to error, the variance is greater than the variance being explained by the indicators.

Table 20
Confirmatory factor analysis and item descriptives of the subscale scores in respective latent constructs[b]

Items		α	λ	t-value	R^2	M	SD
Festival atmospherics		0.85				5.11	
FA2	Layout/design		0.87	15.61	0.75	5.03	1.13
FA3	Service encounter/social interaction		0.91	16.60	0.83	5.19	1.25
Emotions		0.57				2.80	
A1	Love		0.64	10.30	0.41	2.83	1.05
A2	Joy		0.96	17.27	0.92	3.84	0.73
A5	Sad[a]		0.41	6.20	0.17	1.74	0.80
Festival commitment		0.82				4.18	
FC1	Position involvement		0.97	19.09	0.94	3.72	1.80
FC3	Information complexity		0.68	11.54	0.47	4.68	1.50
FC4	Resistance to change		0.79	13.91	0.63	4.13	1.44
Place attachment		0.91				3.46	
PA1	Place identity		0.89	16.45	0.79	3.82	1.63
PA2	Place dependence		0.88	16.66	0.78	3.15	1.63
PA3	Affective bonding		0.82	14.56	0.67	3.39	1.76
Festival satisfaction		0.93				5.56	
FS1	Cognitive satisfaction		0.89	16.70	0.71	5.33	1.33
FS2	Affective satisfaction		0.96	18.77	0.91	5.79	1.26
Place satisfaction		0.93				4.72	
PS1	How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/leisure activities)?		0.86	16.03	0.75	4.96	1.43
PS2	How good or bad is the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/leisure activities)?		0.95	18.85	0.90	4.62	1.31
PS3	How much do you like the festival hosting town as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/leisure activities)?		0.90	17.03	0.80	4.57	1.46
Festival loyalty		0.76				4.86	
FL1	Behavioral intentions		0.88	16.21	0.77	5.63	1.57
FL2	WOM/Advocacy		0.98	19.41	0.96	5.85	1.43
FL3	Willingness to pay more		0.36	5.53	0.13	3.10	1.47
Place loyalty		0.70				3.83	
PL2	WOM/Advocacy		0.85	14.88	0.73	4.41	1.72
PL3	Strength of preference		0.67	11.27	0.45	3.25	1.34

a. Items were reversed
b. Fit indices: $\chi^2_{(158)} = 507.68$, RMSEA = 0.10, NNFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.96

The R^2 values presented in Table 20 greater than standardized factor loading of 0.707 were considered to be acceptable. This factor loading value – where R^2 is close to 0.50 – is the threshold that each observed variable effectively explains 50% of the variation of its respective latent construct. Inspection of the standardized factor loadings in Table 20 revealed that two factor loadings fell far below this threshold (A5 and FL3), which implied that these variables might be measuring something other than its respective underlying construct.

Convergent validity can be also determined by investigating the statistical significance of the t-values of each indicator (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Byrne, 1998). Byrne has suggested that statistically significant all indicators' estimated factor loading (*t*-values ≥ ±1.96) indicates the rejection of the null hypothesis that those loadings are equal to zero. As shown in Table 20, all factor loadings on their underlying construct were statistically significant. This finding was inconsistent with the previous test result and provided evidence of convergent validity.

Another test for convergent validity is the estimates of the average variance extracted (AVE). The AVE measures the amount of variance that is captured by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). It is calculated as the sum of the squared factor loadings (λ_{yi}^2) divided by this sum of the squared factor loadings ($\sum_{i=1}^{P} \lambda_{yi}^2$) plus the sum of measurement error ($Var(\varepsilon_i)$). Its mathematical formula can be expressed as:

$$\rho_{(AVE)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{P} \lambda_{yi}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{P} \lambda_{yi}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{P} Var(\varepsilon_i)}$$

Fornell and Larcker have suggested that the construct with the AVE values less than 0.5 is considered questionable in terms of its validity. In other words, values less than this indicates that the variance due to measurement error is larger than the variance captured by the construct. As presented in Table 21, all AVEs except the *Place Loyalty* construct were above the recommended cutoff of 0.50, concluding that all but one indicator provided empirical evidence of convergent validity.

Subsequent tests were associated with evaluation of discriminant validity using the Kyle et al.'s (2007) procedure: AVEs greater than the squared correlation between two constructs, constraining latent factor correlations, and confidence intervals excluding the value of 1.0. A procedure to assess discriminant validity proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981) is the comparison of a construct AVE with shared variance with another latent construct. If the former is greater than the latter, it provides empirical support of discriminant validity. As reported in Table 21, all but two squared correlations between unobserved variables (*Place Attachment* and *Place Loyalty*, *Place Satisfaction* and *Place Loyalty*) were below each of the construct AVEs.

Table 21
Construct reliability and factor correlations

	FA	A	FC	PA	FS	PS	FL	PL	α	Composite reliability	AVE
FA	-								0.85	0.57	0.53
A	0.65 (638.45) [0.64-0.75]	-							0.57	0.62	0.50
FC	0.63 (733.14) [0.62-0.64]	0.61 (640.67) [0.60-0.62]	-						0.82	0.75	0.68
PA	0.21 (797.08) [0.07-0.35]	0.36 (690.39) [0.23-0.49]	0.52 (814.27) [0.41-0.63]	-					0.91	0.79	0.75
FS	0.62 (727.69) [0.61-0.72]	0.80 (602.91) [0.73-0.87]	0.71 (703.65) [0.63-0.79]	0.36 (841.38) [0.23-0.49]	-				0.93	0.60	0.57
PS	0.52 (752.50) [0.41-0.63]	0.56 (665.01) [0.46-0.66]	0.48 (844.34) [0.37-0.59]	0.65 (834.15) [0.56-0.74]	0.46 (828.32) [0.35-0.57]	-			0.93	0.83	0.82
FL	0.56 (752.99) [0.46-0.66]	0.58 (654.73) [0.48-0.68]	0.66 (753.55) [0.58-0.74]	0.16 (882.67) [0.02-0.30]	0.70 (742.90) [0.62-0.78]	0.33 (874.19) [0.20-0.46]	-		0.76	0.70	0.62
PL	0.54 (638.93) [0.42-0.66]	0.61 (625.67) [0.50-0.72]	0.62 (627.43) [0.51-0.73]	0.66 (617.01) [0.56-0.76]	0.47 (649.99) [0.34-0.60]	0.92 (581.82) [0.86-0.98]	0.55 (636.48) [0.43-0.67]	-	0.70	0.45	0.39

Note. Chi-square values reported in parenthesis ($p < 0.05$) and confidence intervals reported in brackets ($\varphi \pm 2\sigma_e$).

Discriminant validity can also be tested by constraining each of the correlations between the latent constructs. This analysis procedure involved fixing each element in the psi matrix equal to 1 and evaluating the effect on model fit using the chi-square difference between the free and constrained model (Bagozzi & Phillips, 1982; see Kyle et al., 2007). A statistically significant difference implies that the constructs are not unitary and are, in fact, distinct. The results, as reported in Table 21, illustrated that the χ^2 differences between the free and constrained models were all statistically significant, providing empirical evidence in support for discriminant validity.

The inconsistent findings between the two previous approaches required further analysis to ensure discriminant validity of the latent constructs. Kyle et al. (2007) examined confidence intervals around the correlation estimate between the two latent variables to determine whether the dimensions underlying the leisure involvement construct were distinct. They have suggested that confidence interval (± two standard errors) containing 1.0 indicates that the measures are reflecting the same construct. Table 21 displays confidence intervals between two latent variables along with χ^2 values and factor correlations. All of the confidence intervals did not include the value of 1.0, thus providing further evidence of discriminant validity among the constructs.

Additionally, reliability tests of the measures using Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha and Fornell and Lackert's (1981) composite reliability were performed. As discussed earlier, Cronbach's coefficient alpha derived from classical test theory is frequently used to estimate the internal consistency of an individual item (i.e., an index

of the reliability of individual component measures within a scale) (Raykov, 1997). The formula for alpha can be written as

$$\propto = \frac{k}{k-1}\left(1 - \frac{k}{k + (\sum_i \lambda_i)^2 - \sum_i \lambda_i^2}\right)$$

where λ_i = the loading of the *i*th measure on the construct and k = the number of items measuring the construct (Bacon, Sauer, & Young, 1995).

Even though coefficient alpha has gained its popularity of assessing reliability in many disciplines, it has a drawback of rarely meeting its underlying assumption that all items are equally weighted in the formation of a scale in many cases (Bacon, Sauer, & Young, 1995). Due to item non-homogeneity and error covariances in the population, coefficient alpha tends to produce underestimates of scale reliability (Raykov, 1997, 1998). That is, "for a given set of components with uncorrelated errors, α has been shown to be lower than the reliability of their sum in the sampled subject population unless the components are essentially τ-equivalent" (Raykov, 1997, p. 329). Furthermore, Bollen (1989) argued that alpha is not a desirable estimate of reliability "it makes no allowances for correlated error of measurements, nor does it treat indicators influenced by more than one latent variable" (p. 221).

An alternative approach to Cronbach's alpha assessment is construct reliability proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Construct reliability is "a measure of the proportion of shared variance to error variance in the constructs" (Li, Harmer, & Acock, 1996, p. 233). In other words, it is a measure of overall reliability of a collection of

different items underlying the same construct. This composite reliability for the construct ($\rho_{(CR)}$) can be calculated using the following mathematical equation:

$$\rho_{(CR)} = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{P} \lambda_{yi}\right)^2}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{P} \lambda_{yi}\right)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{P} Var(\varepsilon_i)}.$$

As reported in Table 20, the internal consistency reliability estimates were all above the recommended threshold value for acceptable reliability of 0.70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), except for the *Emotions* construct which had an overall reliability coefficient of 0.57. Given the small number of indicators (less than 6), this construct was considered sufficiently reliable (Cortina, 1993). For composite reliability, the cut-off value of 0.60 is suggested to determine acceptable composite reliability of the construct (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Table 21 present the results of composite reliability of each construct. All values but *Place Loyalty* (0.45) were far lower than the recommended threshold, suggesting that the reliability of these constructs is questionable.

In sum, the results of various analyses provide empirical evidence in support of construct validity and reliability. Although the empirical findings from one test were inconsistent with those from another, depending on the degree of test stringency, overall most measures showed good convergent and discriminant validity, and reasonable construct reliability. Yet, the tests for construct validity using AVEs and for composite reliability revealed that the *Place Loyalty* construct required further refinement of its measures in future studies.

4.6. TESTING THE STRUCTURAL MODEL

Based on the previous results from the measurement model tests, subsequent tests were performed to verify the validity of the causal structure reflected in my hypothesized model (see Figure 7). The goodness-of-fit indices for the hypothesized model indicated a poor fit to the sample data ($\chi^2_{(172)} = 626.71$, RMSEA = 0.11, NNFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.95). An examination of the structural parameter estimates for the model signified that two parameters in the Beta matrix (*Emotions* → *Place Attachment* and *Place Attachment* → *Place Loyalty*) were not statistically significant ($t = 0.75$ and $t = 0.18$, respectively). For parsimony, I respecified the model with this path deleted. The χ^2 difference between the hypothesized and re-estimated models was not statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 0.53$ and $\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 2.84$, respectively, at $p < 0.05$), which hardly affected the model fit change.

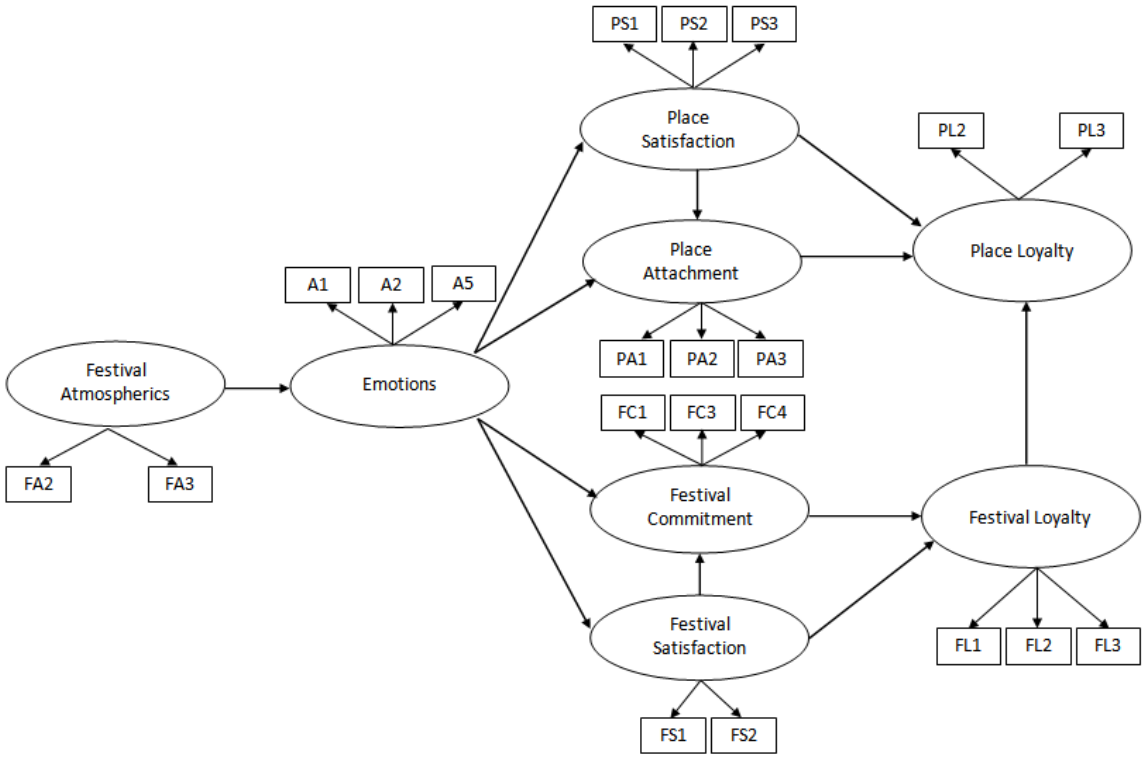

Fig. 7. A hypothesized structural regression model with 21 indicators identified in the previous procedure

A review of modification indices also revealed evidence of misfit in the model. The maximum modification index in the Beta matrix was associated with the path between *Festival Loyalty* and *Place Loyalty*, suggesting that this path should also be estimated. While re-estimation of the *Festival Loyalty* → *Place Loyalty* path provided evidence of substantial model improvement ($\chi^2_{(173)} = 595.85$, RMSEA = 0.11, NNFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.95), selected fit indices (i.e., RMSEA and NNFI) remained in the unacceptable range, which suggested further specification. Given the maximum modification index of the Beta matrix in the output, the path from *Festival Commitment* to *Place Attachment* indicated another misspecification problem. Free estimation of this

path contributed to statistically significant model improvement based on the results of the χ^2 difference ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 18.36$, $p < 0.001$); yet, it had little impact on other fit indices (RMSEA = 0.11, NNFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.95). Further investigation of the modification index revealed misspecification of the path between *Festival Atmospherics* and *Place Attachment*. With this path freely estimated, results indicated a statistically significant model improvement ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 24.92$, $p < 0.001$). The respecified final structural model with all these paths added on the basis of theoretical and empirical rationale, was considered to be an adequate fit, resulting in an overall $\chi^2_{(171)} = 552.57$ with a RMSEA value of 0.10, NNFI value of 0.95, and CFI value of 0.96. Figure 8 displays both significant path coefficients with standardized estimates and non-significant path coefficients.

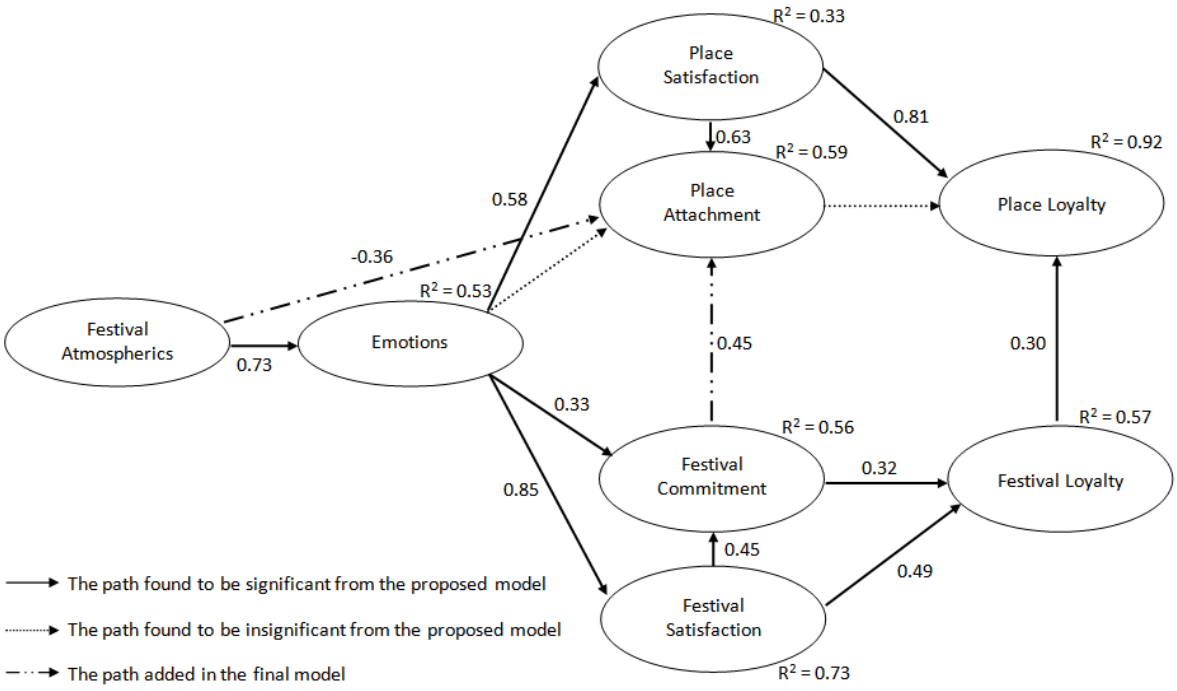

Fig. 8. A final structural model with standardized estimates of regression coefficients

Table 22 provides a summary of the statistically significant standardized estimates of path coefficients, with the level of statistical significance indicated by asterisks (*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$). Of 12 causal paths specified in the hypothesized model (see Figure 7), 10 were found to be statistically significant in this study ($p < 0.05$). The paths from *Emotions* to *Place Attachment* and from *Place Attachment* to *Place Loyalty* were not significant and were subsequently deleted from the model. In addition, two paths (*Festival Atmospherics → Place Attachment* and *Festival Commitment → Place Attachment*) not specified, *a priori*, were considered to be essential components of the causal structure, and were added to the model.

Table 22
Regression coefficients

Path (Hypotheses)	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	R^2
Festival atmospherics → Emotions (H1)	1.07	0.12	0.73	8.58***	0.53
Emotions → Place satisfaction (H2a)	0.48	0.07	0.58	7.34***	0.33
Emotions → Festival satisfaction (H2b)	1.11	0.14	0.85	8.15***	0.73
Emotions → Festival commitment (H3b)	0.34	0.14	0.33	2.50*	0.56
Festival satisfaction → Festival commitment (H4b)	0.35	0.11	0.45	3.36***	
Festival atmospherics → Place attachment	-0.57	0.12	-0.36	-4.93***	
Festival commitment → Place attachment	0.47	0.08	0.45	5.97***	0.59
Place satisfaction → Place attachment (H4a)	0.80	0.10	0.63	7.90***	
Festival commitment → Festival loyalty (H6b)	0.33	0.08	0.32	3.89***	0.57
Festival satisfaction → Festival loyalty (H5b)	0.39	0.07	0.49	5.32***	
Place satisfaction → Place loyalty (H5a)	2.39	0.79	0.81	3.01**	0.92
Festival loyalty → Place loyalty (H7)	0.70	0.25	0.30	2.81**	

*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

As indicated in Table 22, *Festival Atmospherics* positively and significantly influenced *Emotions* ($\beta = 0.73$, $t = 8.58$, $p < 0.001$), accounting for 53% of the variance. This result provided empirical evidence in support of the first hypothesis (H_1) that positive emotions would be elicited by positive festival atmospherics.

Emotions, represented by love, joy, and sad, had a positive and significant effect on *Place Satisfaction* ($\beta = 0.58$, $t = 7.34$, $p < 0.001$), *Festival Satisfaction* ($\beta = 0.85$, $t = 8.15$, $p < 0.001$), and *Festival Commitment* ($\beta = 0.33$, $t = 2.50$, $p < 0.05$). A comparison of the simultaneous multiple correlations between the first two outcome variables revealed that *Emotions* was able to explain a much larger portion of the *Festival Satisfaction* variances (SMCs = 0.73) than the *Place Satisfaction* variances (SMCs = 0.33). Interestingly, *Emotions* was the strongest predictor of *Festival Satisfaction* among the dependent variables, but had no significant effect on *Place Attachment*. These findings provided empirical support for three hypotheses (H_{2a}, H_{2b}, and H_{3b}), whereas the hypothesis (H_{3a}) which suggested the direct effect of *Emotions* on *Place Attachment* was not supported in this study.

Along with *Emotions*, *Festival Satisfaction* was found to have a significant and direct effect on *Festival Commitment* ($\beta = 0.45$, $t = 3.36$, $p < 0.001$), which empirically supported H_{4b}. Both predictors explained more than half of variance in *Festival Commitment* (SMCs = 0.56). Although the difference in predictive power between *Emotions* and *Festival Satisfaction* was not substantial, the latter was better predictor of *Festival Commitment*.

It was somewhat surprising to find that *Place Attachment* was positively and significantly predicted by both *Festival Commitment* ($\beta = 0.45$, $t = 5.97$, $p < 0.001$) and *Place Satisfaction* ($\beta = 0.63$, $t = 7.90$, $p < 0.001$) but negatively and significantly predicted by *Festival Atmospherics* ($\beta = -0.36$, $t = -4.93$, $p < 0.001$). Of those antecedents, *Place Satisfaction* made the greatest contribution to predicting *Place Attachment*. These three predictors all together accounted for 59 percent of the variation in *Place Attachment*. Thus, the fourth hypothesis (H_{4a}), stating that *Place Satisfaction* would significantly and positively influence *Place Attachment*, was supported.

Festival Commitment ($\beta = 0.32$, $t = 3.89$, $p < 0.001$) and *Festival Satisfaction* ($\beta = 0.49$, $t = 5.32$, $p < 0.001$) were all significant and positive predictors of *Festival Loyalty*. Particularly, the outcome variable *Festival Loyalty* was more strongly predicted by *Festival Satisfaction* compared to *Festival Commitment*. Paths from the antecedent processes were able to explain more than 50 percent of the variance in *Festival Loyalty* (SMCs = 0.57). Based on these findings, the sample data of festival visitors offered support for the two hypotheses (H_{5b} and H_{6b}).

Finally, *Place Loyalty* was significantly and positively affected by both *Place Satisfaction* ($\beta = 0.81$, $t = 3.01$, $p < 0.01$) and *Festival Loyalty* ($\beta = 0.30$, $t = 2.81$, $p < 0.01$), which accounted for a large amount of the variation (SMCs = 0.92). When comparing path coefficient values of these two predictors, *Place Satisfaction* was found to be a much more important antecedent of *Place Loyalty*. Thus, this empirical evidence provided support for: (1) the hypothesis 5a – that *Place Satisfaction* would significantly

and positively influence *Place Loyalty,* and (2) the hypothesis 7 – that *Festival Loyalty* would significantly and positively influence *Place Loyalty*.

A subsequent analysis involved the decomposition of indirect and total effects. Indirect effects are the product of direct effects and represent the impact of one variable on another through an intervening variable (Kline, 2005). The indirect effects of *Festival Atmospherics* on *Loyalty* via *Emotions*, *Satisfaction*, and *Commitment/Attachment* were examined. Specifically, the hypothesized model posited that *Festival Atmospherics* would positively influence *Place Satisfaction* and *Place Attachment* through *Emotions*, which in turn would enhance *Place Loyalty*. The model also posited that *Festival Atmospherics* would increase *Festival Satisfaction* and *Festival Commitment* via *Emotions*, which would result in increasing *Festival Loyalty*.

As reported in Table 23, it was empirically demonstrated that all but one indirect effect were statistically significant. In particular, the indirect effects of *Festival Atmospherics* on *Festival Satisfaction* (Indirect effect = 0.62, $t = 4.30$, $p < 0.001$), *Place Satisfaction* (Indirect effect = 0.42, $t = 4.90$, $p < 0.001$), and *Festival Commitment* (Indirect effect = 0.24, $t = 2.20$, $p < 0.05$) through *Emotions* were statistically significant. The indirect effects of *Festival Satisfaction* on both the paths *Place Attachment* (Indirect effect = 0.20, $t = 3.31$, $p < 0.01$) and *Festival Loyalty* (Indirect effect = 0.14, $t = 2.86$, $p < 0.01$) via *Festival Commitment* were also statistically significant.

It was interesting to find that neither *Festival Commitment* nor *Festival Satisfaction* had significant indirect effect on *Place Loyalty* through *Festival Loyalty*. Similarly, *Emotions* did not have a significant indirect effect on *Place Loyalty* through *Place Satisfaction*. *Emotions*, however, had positive indirect effect on *Festival Loyalty* through *Festival Commitment* (Indirect effect = 0.11, $t = 2.03$, $p < 0.05$) and *Festival Satisfaction* (Indirect effect = 0.42, $t = 0.09$, $p < 0.001$). *Festival Commitment* was indirectly influenced by *Emotions* via *Festival Satisfaction* (Indirect effect = 0.38, $t = 3.39$, $p < 0.01$). *Emotions* also indirectly influenced *Place Attachment*, via both *Festival Commitment* (Indirect effect = 0.15, $t = 2.17$, $p < 0.05$) and *Place Satisfaction* (Indirect effect = 0.37, $t = 5.01$, $p < 0.001$).

In addition, total effects were assessed in order to estimate the sum of all direct and indirect effects of one variable on another. It was found that both *Emotions* (Total effect = 0.66, $t = 2.96$, $p < 0.01$) and *Festival Satisfaction* (Total effect = 0.19, $t = 3.01$, $p < 0.01$) had statistically significant effects on *Place Loyalty*. It was also found that total effects of *Festival Atmospherics* on both *Festival Loyalty* (Total effect = 0.47, $t = 7.54$, $p < 0.001$) and *Place Loyalty* (Total effect = 0.48, $t = 2.91$, $p < 0.01$) were statistically significant.

Table 23
Summary of effects

Path	Indirect	Total	*SE*	*t*
Festival atmospherics → Emotions → Place satisfaction	0.42		0.06	4.90***
Festival atmospherics → Emotions → Festival commitment	0.24		0.11	2.20*
Festival atmospherics → Emotions → Festival satisfaction	0.62		0.14	4.30***
Emotions → Place satisfaction → Place loyalty	0.47		0.46	1.02
Emotions → Festival commitment → Festival loyalty	0.11		0.05	2.03*
Emotions → Festival satisfaction → Festival loyalty	0.42		0.09	4.59***
Emotions → Festival commitment → Place attachment	0.15		0.07	2.17*
Emotions → Place satisfaction → Place attachment	0.37		0.07	5.01***
Emotions → Festival satisfaction → Festival commitment	0.38		0.11	3.39**
Festival satisfaction → Festival commitment → Place attachment	0.20		0.06	3.31**
Festival satisfaction → Festival commitment → Festival loyalty	0.14		0.05	2.86**
Emotions → Place loyalty		0.66	0.55	2.96**
Festival satisfaction → Place loyalty		0.19	0.79	3.01**
Festival atmospherics → Festival loyalty		0.47	0.10	7.54***
Festival atmospherics → Place loyalty		0.48	0.60	2.91**

*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

I have divided the final section of this dissertation into three sections. In the first section, I revisit and summarize the findings of this study. I then discuss the theoretical and practical implications of the current study results. Last, I address the limitations of this study and provide some recommendations for future research.

5.1. REVIEW OF THE STUDY RESULTS

Drawing from literature ground in environmental psychology, my purpose in this study was to develop a better understanding of the antecedents of festival and place loyalty. My hypothesized model posited that festival atmospherics would prompt emotions specific to the festivals and these emotions would positively shape visitors' festival experiences (i.e., positive evaluations of, psychologically attachment to, and future revisit intention to the festivals). Further, I hypothesized that visitors' positive festival experiences would influence respondents' satisfaction with and emotional attachment to the festival hosting communities which, in turn, would positively influence loyalty to these communities.

I first examined the demographic and trip characteristic patterns of the respondents drawn from the three festivals and compared these with other types of festivals previously reported in the literature. I then identified the emotions specific to these festival contexts. Finally, I tested my hypothesized model which examined the role

of visitors' emotions elicited from various environmental stimuli experienced at the festivals in shaping festival loyalty which, in turn, fosters an attachment to the communities. The processes shaping festival and community loyalty were modeled using the Mehrabian-Russell model (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) on the basis of the Stimulus-Organism-Response theory (Woodworth, 1929).

5.1.1. Demographic and Trip Characteristics of Respondents

My findings illustrated that the audience who participated in the survey at the three community festivals were generally older (mean age of 41 years), female (68.5%), well-educated (54.0% with college degree or higher education level), and white (61.8%) with no children under age 18 years (62.5%). A majority were nonlocal visitors (77.7%) who took this trip specifically to attend the festival (90.5%) with more than three adults (74.5%). These demographic characteristics are consistent with those of cultural tourism visitors, who tend to be better-educated, older women (Getz, 1991). They are also similar to the demographics of visitors to a street-type of festival (e.g., Dickens on the Strands) in Galveston, Texas (Crompton, 2003). Crompton's investigation of a Galveston festival in Texas revealed that female respondents (62%) outnumbered their male counterparts (38%) considerably, and the festival was generally perceived to be an adult-oriented event (71%).

Despite some evidence outlining the "general characteristics" of festival goers, researchers have also stressed heterogeneity driven varying methods of study (e.g., many surveys do not use random sampling) (Getz, 1991) and the characteristics of each of the

festival typically appeal to specific population segments. Consequently, segment appeal is most often determined by type, size, and lifecycle stage (i.e., years of operation) of the festival (Grunwell, Ha, & Martin, 2008). Differences in festival types, sizes, and lifecycle stages could also affect the presence of local residents versus nonlocal visitors and first-time versus repeat visitors. For instance, unlike the two strawberry festivals, which are longer running, well-established events, the Texas Reds Steak & Grape Festival began only two years ago and is a friendlier environment for adults and families with no children. Accordingly, it attracts younger, better-educated, and mostly white visitors with a more balanced gender distribution and higher level of household income. The festival also attracted more local residents and first-timers with few accompanying children. This is consistent with the findings from a comparative study of attendee profiles of two urban festivals in Asheville, North Carolina, by Grunwell et al. (2008). They found that these different festivals also appealed to different segments in terms of their type, size, and operating duration. The street festival which has a large number of attendees and long history of operation tended to attract more tourists, younger crowds with an average age of 37, and more repeat visitors. Alternately, a film festival in Asheville with a relatively recent history and fewer attendees drew more locals, older crowds, and first-time visitors.

In terms of respondents' most frequent cited source of information about each of the festivals, I found that many festival goers learned of the festivals through personal communications (i.e., word of mouth). Other advertising media used by respondents included mass media outlets such as the local newspaper, radio, and television. This is

consistent with the work conducted by Çela and her colleagues (2007) examining local food festivals in northeast Iowa and Grant and Paliwoda (2001) investigation of community festivals in Alberta, Canada. In both investigations, the authors reported that word of mouth was the major source of information followed by the newspaper. Other empirical evidence was observed by Coopers & Lybrand Consulting Group (1988). They also found that the primary information source about festivals is word of mouth and newspapers for locals, and travel agents/information centers and mass media for nonlocals (also see Grant & Paliwoda, 2001).

Thus, with such weight placed on word-of-mouth referrals, the identification of factors that impinge upon festival-goers' experiences has important implications for festival growth and prosperity. Clearly, negative experience is not likely to result in positive referral. Thus, I now turn my attention to the examination of the factors impacting my respondents' experience and their willingness to return to each of the festival events.

5.1.2. Identifying Festival Consumption Emotions

The importance of the affective and psychological processes in consumers' loyalty development and post-purchase evaluations has recently been noted by consumer behavior researchers (Chebat, 2002; Westbrook, 1987); yet, it has not been well integrated into leisure and tourism studies to help better understand visitors' behaviors. A handful of tourism researchers have paid close attention to emotions and explored its impact on tourists' behavioral intentions (e.g., Barsky & Nash, 2002; Bigné & Andreu,

2004; Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005; Lee et al., 2005, 2008; Tsaur, Chiu, & Wang, 2006; Yüksel, 2007). Of the investigations that have incorporated emotions, it appears that they have directly adopted existing measures without ensuring their appropriateness to the consumption situations under investigation. Hence, it is necessary in the present study to determine the salient emotions specific to the festival contexts.

As guided by the Richins' (1997) "consumption emotions" and Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) "PAD emotions" (i.e., pleasure, arousal, dominance), I hypothesized that emotions elicited from consumption of the festival product would be distinct from emotions evoked from the consumption of durable goods in terms of their type, frequency, and salience. The test of validity for the factorial structure of the emotions measure using CFA demonstrated that the pattern of emotions experienced by festival visitors consisted of the six dimensions proposed by Richins (1997). The positive emotion of "joy" was the most salient among respondents followed by "love" and the neutral emotion of "surprise." Alternately and predictably, respondents reported that negative emotions such as "anger," "sad," and "fear" were not frequently experienced at the festivals.

Following the parceling of items, three emotion dimensions of "surprise," "anger," and "fear" were observed to inappropriately represent the construct in testing the measurement model using confirmatory factor analysis (see Table 20). The final model of emotion consisted of "love," "joy," and "sad." While the negative emotion of "sad" was significant, not only was its loading on the emotions construct relatively minor with emotions accounting for only a small portion of its variance ($R^2 = 0.17$)

compared to the other two positive emotions, but visitors reported seldom experiencing it at the festivals (M = 1.74). These emotions are partially consistent with the Richins' (1997) Consumption Emotions Set (CES) which includes a comprehensive set of emotion measures that represent diverse product consumption contexts. Richins suggested that the possession of three different product classes such as sentimental objects, recreational products, and vehicles evoked different emotions. She found that the positive emotions of "joy," "pride," and contentment were strongly experienced while few negative emotions were reported in all these three products consumption situations. More specifically, she found that sentimental objects such as heirloom jewelry, mementos, and gifts were the least likely to evoke negative feelings such as "anger" and "fear" and were most likely to evoke feelings of "love." Consumption situations involving vehicles and recreational objects elicited higher feelings of "excitement" and moderate levels of "anger" and "worry."

This study result is also consistent with findings of previous studies that investigated tourism product consumption emotions in different contexts (e.g., Barsky & Nash, 2002; Bigné & Andreu, 2004, Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005; Tsaur et al., 2006). For example, in a study of the effect of experiential marketing on behavioral consequences among zoo visitors, Tsaur et al. observed that zoo operators utilizing media featuring animal sounds and images engendered positive emotions such as "joyful/relaxed," "surprised/excited," and "warm/enjoyable." Bigné and colleagues also reported that visitors at a theme park and museum also reported moderate levels of positive emotions such as "satisfied," "happy," "pleased," "joyful," "delighted," and

"entertained" (Bigné & Andreu, 2004; Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005). Last, Barsky and Nash (2002), in their national consumer opinion panel survey, found that certain positive emotions were related to loyalty to hotel brand and segment. Their survey results revealed that the loyalty emotions for the mid-priced segment were "comfortable," "welcome," and "secure." The three emotions that affected guest loyalty were "pampered," "relaxed," and "sophisticated."

In sum, the pattern of emotions visitors experienced at the festivals was, in general, consistent with the consumers' emotional experiences of durable goods, personal services, and other tourism products. Although there are some differences in the type and strength of emotional descriptors across the studies, positive emotions appear to be the dominant form of visitors' affective experiences in response to the physical environment at each of the festivals.

5.1.3. Determining the Antecedents of Festival and Place Loyalty

The hypothesized conceptual framework in this study was derived from the model proposed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) in environmental psychology. Originating from the Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) theory in experimental psychology and learning literature (Woodworth, 1929), Mehrabian and Russell attempted to explain how an individual responds to a variety of physical environments. Their model conceptualized the causal relationships among emotions (O) elicited from different environment stimuli (S) and its influence on human behaviors in the environment (R). On the basis of the S-O-R theory and M-R model, I hypothesized that

festival atmospherics would be the primary environmental stimuli driving visitors' emotions. These emotions, in turn, would influence visitors' evaluation of, psychological attachment and loyalty to both the festivals and hosting communities. Based on Lee et al.'s (2008) investigation of the causal relationship among festivalscapes, patron emotions, satisfaction, and loyalty, I also incorporated visitors' commitment to both festivals and hosting communities in the model as a key mediating variable between satisfaction and loyalty. Work in other non-festival contexts has also suggested this mediating effect (Beatty et al., 1988; Dick & Basu, 1994).

5.1.3.1. Predictors of Emotions

Based on my findings, I concluded that certain aspects of festival atmospherics played an essential role in eliciting moderate to strong positive emotions such as "love" and "joy." According to the structural coefficients of festival atmospherics on emotions (see Table 22 and Figure 8), the atmosphere at the festivals was a strong determinant on the visitors' emotions. Three significant independent emotional dimensions were identified in this study: "love," "joy," and "sad." Respondents experienced the positive emotions of "joy" and "love" more frequently and strongly than the negative emotion of "sad." The significant positive, emotion-eliciting, attributes of festival atmospherics were layout/design and service encounter/social interaction (see Table 20). That is, efficient, well-maintained layouts of the settings significantly contributed to bringing about positive emotions, which, in turn, directly and indirectly influenced visitors' affective responses to festivals and their hosting communities. The layout and design

elements of the festival settings that were conducive to bringing about loving and joyful feelings included easy access to parking lots, availability of restrooms, adequate number of picnic tables and rest areas, availability of signage for event venues, cleanliness of the festival site, and safe and well-maintained equipment and facilities (see Table 13).

Satisfactory service encounter/social interaction was found to be another significant emotion-eliciting attribute of festival atmospherics. Similar to many services, tourism products are relatively intangible, high in personal experience and credence attributes (Getz, 1991). It is particularly true in the festival context that visitors' experiences are largely shaped through interpersonal interaction among and between festival staff/volunteers and festival goers. Therefore, it is worthwhile to focus on the provision of service quality attributes of festival atmospherics that set off visitors' positive reactions and encourage approach behaviors. This result appears to correspond to that of Lee et al. (2005), who identified positive perceived service quality as being an important factor inducing positive emotions, thereby indirectly influencing visitors' satisfaction and their willingness to recommend. It is also consistent with the findings from the retail and consumer behavior literature, suggesting that the physical environment determines the nature and quality of social interactions not only between customers and employees, but also among consumers (Bitner, 1992; Kotler, 1973/74; Bonn et al., 2007; Booms & Bitner, 1982; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Donovan et al., 1994; McGoldrick & Pieros, 1998).

Interestingly, my findings differ from Lee et al.'s (2008) study of a cultural community festival in Korea, which found that the convenience, facility, and staff

dimensions (corresponding to the layout/design and service encounter factors in this study) had no significant effect on positive emotions. They also found that the facility and staff dimensions influenced negative emotions. As noted earlier, one's perception of environmental qualities is partially learned (Kotler, 1973/74) and varies depending on one's ability to process sensory stimuli (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Given the assumption that people respond with different sets of emotions to different environments, dissimilar cultural backgrounds of the festival visitors could be attributed to the varying effects of festival atmospherics on positive emotions.

5.1.3.2. Predictors of Festival Loyalty

These data also illustrated that positive emotions were strong predictors of satisfaction with both festivals and their hosting towns. The effect of positive emotions elicited from festival atmospherics on festival satisfaction was much greater than on place satisfaction. These emotions were in turn found to strongly influence visitors' overall evaluations of their experience at the festivals and hosting settings. That is, pleased visitors at festivals tend to more positively evaluate their overall experiences with both the festivals themselves and the host towns in general. This direction and strength of association of emotions and satisfaction is echoed in the findings reported in earlier consumer behavior studies examining (1) consumer goods such as cars (Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1987; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991), (2) services such as education (Oliver, 1993) or service providers such as cable television (Westbrook, 1987) and commercial rafting operators (Price, Arnould, & Tierney, 1995), and (3) hedonic

product/service consumption such as shopping (Machleit & Mantel, 2001), theme parks (Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005), and sport events (Lee et al., 2005).

As expected, positive emotions were also found to have a significant positive effect on festival commitment but to a much lesser extent than its effect on satisfaction, and had no significant effect on place attachment. In other words, visitors who had feelings of joy and love at the festivals were likely to be psychologically attached to those festivals, but not the hosting communities. The low levels of place attachment (mean score of 3.46) may explain the insignificant effect of emotions on place attachment. Most respondents in this study, particularly at the two strawberry festivals, were nonlocals, accounting for more than 70% of the total visitors. These nonlocal respondents may have a greater inclination to visit the festival setting and hosting town only for the duration of the event (i.e., 1 to 3 days per year at most). Considering that the length of association with a place is an essential precursor to develop one's emotional attachment to that place (Moore & Graefe, 1994), these visitors are unlikely to have an emotional tie to the festival's host town during that short period of time. Furthermore, visitors who attended the festivals might not have opportunities to explore the hosting communities because these festivals were situated in rural settings where there was limited to no alternative tourism attractions or supporting products and services in the surrounding areas.

In addition, the results show that festival loyalty was directly and indirectly influenced by festival commitment and festival satisfaction. Festival satisfaction was a better predictor of festival loyalty than festival commitment. That is, visitors who have a

satisfactory experience at festivals tend to revisit those festivals, spread positive word of mouth, and are willing to pay more. Highly satisfied visitors are also more likely to be psychologically attached to the festivals which, in turn, become true loyal festival visitors. These findings provide further empirical support for the previous observation that satisfied consumers influence destination/setting preferences, consumption of products and services, and decisions to return (Alegre & Juaneda, 2006; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Bigné et al., 2005; Kozak & Rimmington, 2003; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). The direct and indirect relationship of satisfaction → commitment → loyalty has also been observed in previous studies across a variety of contexts (Bitner, 1990; Crosby & Taylor, 1983; Dick & Basu, 1994; Kelly & Davis, 1994; Oliver, 1999; Pritchard et al., 1999; Reichheld & Teal, 1996; Russell-Bennett et al., 2007).

5.1.3.3. Predictors of Place Loyalty

As illustrated in Figure 8 and Table 22, just as festival satisfaction was a major determinant of festival loyalty; overall place satisfaction was a determinant of place loyalty, but to a much greater extent. Place loyalty was also found to be significantly and positively predicted by festival loyalty. Both predictors explained a majority of the variance in place loyalty (92%). Overall place satisfaction was a much stronger determinant of place loyalty than festival loyalty, suggesting that highly satisfied festival visitors at hosting communities were more likely to increase their setting preferences for leisure activity pursuits and recommend those places to their friends and relatives. To a

lesser extent, their positive festival experiences play a role in promoting loyalty to the festival hosting communities.

The direct effect of visitors' place satisfaction on place loyalty is congruent with previous work. For example, Tian-Cole et al.'s (2002) found that highly satisfied visitors at a wildlife refuge in Texas were inclined to revisit and spread positive word-of-mouth. However, the relationships among the factors contributing to festival and place loyalty development were only independently or partially investigated in their work. In general, the literature is devoid of empirical work that has simultaneously tested the causal relationship between visitor loyalty to a particular setting (i.e., revisit intentions, word-of-mouth recommendations, and willingness to pay more at a particular festival situated within a town) and their loyalty to the place containing that particular setting (i.e., their preferences and word-of-mouth recommendation of the hosting town). Therefore, the result of the relationship between these two variables is exploratory in nature, and should be further investigated in future studies.

Unexpectedly, place attachment was not linked to place loyalty. As hinted in previous work, the hypothesized model posited that place attachment could be a necessary condition not only to assess festival visitors' values, meanings and preferences related to the hosting communities, but also to single out true place loyalists. Inconsistent with the results from these past studies regarding the direct effect of place attachment on loyalty to national forest (Lee, 2003) and a ski resort (Alexandris et al., 2006), these data provided no support of this relationship. Again, this could be explained by relatively low levels of place attachment and place loyalty among festival visitors.

Besides the fact that festival visitors in this study might have a short tenure with the hosting community and little opportunity to fully explore the town, their repeat visits to these attractions tend to be greatly influenced by situational factors and are likely be undertaken less frequently (Michels & Bowen, 2005). Low levels of place attachment and place loyalty have also been reported in other settings such as a tourist destinations (Gross & Brown, 2006) and ski resort (Alexandris et al., 2006), where visitors are mainly made up of nonlocal residents.

5.2. THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

5.2.1. Theoretical Implications

The theoretical implications primarily encompass two domains: (1) confirmation of the loyalty formation process of festival visitors within the S-O-R theory, and (2) discovery of the underlying structure of tourism product consumption emotions. Specifically, the current study examined the determinants of visitor loyalty to community festivals and their hosting communities on the basis of the S-O-R theoretical framework. This study extends Lee et al.'s (2008) findings on how visitors develop festival loyalty as a result of emotions evoked from the festival attributes. I paid close attention to festival visitors' emotional responses to not only the festivals but also the hosting communities. In investigating visitors' approaching responses to the festival environment, I further incorporated psychological attachment into the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty. I hypothesized that truly loyal festival goers also develop loyalties to the hosting communities.

In general, the findings presented in this investigation provided empirical evidence in support of the M-R model and the S-O-R framework within the festival contexts. The study results are suggestive of a key mediating role of emotions in influencing the relationship between festival atmospherics and visitors' post-visit appraisal judgment of and loyalty to the festivals and hosting communities. I found evidence that festival atmospherics had a positive indirect effect on festival loyalty via positive emotions, festival commitment, and festival satisfaction, which in turn positively influenced place loyalty. Place satisfaction was also found to be a strong predictor of place loyalty.

Additionally, the findings in this study provided empirical support for the applicability of product consumption emotions proposed by Richins (1997) to visitors' emotions generated from tourism product and service consumption specific to the festival contexts. As indicated by Richins, research findings of these studies were context-specific and, therefore, not easily generalized. It deserves further inquiry of existing emotion measures for use in the other tourism consumption contexts. Nonetheless, the overall patterns of festival visitors' emotional experience can be explored (Bitner, 1992). The results of this study are suggestive of dominant positive emotions at the festivals similar to product usage and ownership of consumer goods as reported by Richins.

Marketing management philosophies have evolved from production and product-oriented concepts to experiential marketing concepts (Tsaur et al., 2006). Traditional marketing views consumers as rational, decision-makers who mainly focus on functional

features and benefits of products. In contrast, experiential marketing embraces a psychologically-based theory to understand consumers as hedonic emotional human beings who are concerned with achieving pleasurable experiences (Schmitt, 1999). What today's customers want are products, communications, and marketing campaigns that deliver a desirable experience by dazzling their senses, touching their hearts, stimulating their minds, and relating to their lifestyles. By taking into account this new marketing concept, the present study affirms suggestions that highlight the affective base of the process of loyalty formation, thereby contributing to the loyalty literature in both consumer behavior and tourism.

5.2.2. Practical Implications

The practical insights presented in this study's results revolve around identification of the major festival atmospheric variables that are available for destination marketers and festival organizers to promote festival visitors' loyalty. The findings indicate that designing and managing optimal environments can be a valuable means to provide and enhance visitor experiences and, in turn, influence visitors' festival and place loyalty. Festival atmospherics that facilitate social interactions among and between visitors and festival staff members/volunteers are also conducive to indirectly promoting loyalty to both festivals and hosting communities. Festival organizers, as such, can create positive, emotion-inducing, atmospherics by identifying and choosing an appropriate festival atmosphere that reflects what their target audience is seeking to obtain through festival visitation (Kotler, 1973/74). As suggested in this study, the

attributes of festival environments capable of eliciting joyful and loving feelings are a well-planned layout and an effectively managed site, including easy access to parking lots, clean, available restrooms and site, proper signage for site directions, adequate seating arrangements, and safe and well-maintained equipment and facilities. Hence, festival managers and organizers should take into account the incorporation of atmospheric design and layout to create a festival atmosphere that enhances visitors' emotional experiences and contributes to attaining visitors' loyalty to festivals and, eventually, to hosting communities. It should be noted that periodical evaluations of implemented measures must be conducted to ensure repeat business due to a strong tendency of declining facility and service levels over time (Kotler, 1973/94).

These data illustrate that visitors' festival and place appraisal and psychological attachment is directly influenced by positive emotions which, in turn, affect festival and place loyalty. This implies that happy, pleased, and cheerful feelings at festivals are associated with visitors' satisfied experiences at festivals and hosting communities, which increase revisit intentions to the festivals and provide a favorable attitude toward the hosting communities. It has been suggested that "though subjective experiences of product/consumption affect may be relatively transient during the postpurchase period, they also can be highly salient in consciousness, depending on intensity, which facilities their retrieval from memory" (Westbrook, 1987, p. 260). Based on this finding, tourism destination marketers, using mass media, can launch marketing promotions that trigger positive emotions about the festival and emphasize affective experiences from previous festival visits.

Another way to create visitors' satisfaction with, and emotional attachment to, the festival's surrounding areas is through partnerships with other tourism attractions within or nearby the festival hosting community. Tour packages can be developed in cooperation with other local events and tourism attractions and products in order to create a memorable experience for both local residents and nonlocal visitors at the festival hosting community.

5.3. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

There are some limitations of this investigation on the effect of emotions engendered through tourism product consumption on festival visitors' post-visit evaluations of, psychological attachment to, and loyalty to the festivals and hosting communities. The follow-up survey measuring the key variables in this study were conducted 4 to 6 months after the onsite survey, which may reveal the differentiation between real-time experiences and post hoc evaluations. Considering the variables of emotion (Oliver, 1997), satisfaction (Stewart & Hull, 1992), and loyalty (DuWors & Haines, 1990) as dynamic and time-dependent phenomena, visitors' experiences at the festival site are likely to be different from those when reflecting their experiences later. Thus, the strengths of and causal relationships among these variables can vary depending on when they are measured. It is necessary to measure these constructs and to test their relationships over the course of festival experiences (i.e., anticipation and planning, travel to the site, onsite activity, return travel from the site, and recollection of the trip, as cited in Clawson, 1963) in future research. A longitudinal study would be particularly

useful to observe the model changes from one phase of visitors' experiences course to another.

Another topic deserving attention from researchers concerns the effect of manipulation of particular festival atmospherics attributes on visitors' responses to the physical environment. Retail literature has suggested that simple modification of the environment such as music (Chebat et al., 2001; Dubé et al., 1995; Milliman, 1982; Yalch & Spangenberg, 1990), color (Bellizzi et al., 1983; Bellizzi & Hite, 1992; Crowley, 1993), lighting (Golen & Zimmerman, 1986), and odor (Chebat & Michon, 2003; Spangenberg, Crowley, & Henderson, 1996; Spangenberg, Sprott, et al., 2006) can change consumers' perceptions of, and behaviors within that environment. Although a number of the festival atmospheric attributes were included as items, any of these variables (i.e., music, color, lighting, and odor) were not integrated into the study. Therefore, further investigation on how visitors respond to a festival and its hosting community as a result of manipulation of these atmospheric variables using experimental designs is necessary.

In spite of the complexity of the hypothesized model, I was unable to include other variables (e.g., past experiences) that were beyond the scope of the study. Outdoor recreation and tourism researchers have suggested that they could have considerable influence on festival visitors' loyalty and psychological attachment to the environments. Past experiences affect how visitors perceive, evaluate, and act in a setting. That is, they act as a frame of reference through which an individual makes judgments about alternatives and develops psychological attachment (Backlund & Williams, 2003). In

addition to past experiences, the length of association with a place shapes the different meanings individuals ascribe to that place (Moore & Scott, 2003). Future research, therefore, can integrate these variables into the model and test how they interact with all considered determinants of loyalty in this study.

Finally, additional analysis in future studies could be performed to examine how the causal relationships in the model differ among different groups in the same population (i.e., local versus nonlocal visitors and first-timers versus repeat visitors) using invariant tests in SEM (Byrne, 1998). Different groups of visitors may place different weights on each construct included in the hypothesized model of the current study, which presents a greater potential for variation in the model among these groups. Accordingly, these invariance tests will further advance our understanding of the complex process of loyalty development.

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APPENDIX A

PREVIOUS WORK ON THE PLACE ATTACHMENT CONSTRUCT

Researchers	Dimensions	Scale Used	Analysis	Setting(s)	Results
Lee (2003); Lee, Graefe, & Burns (2007)	2 (place identity, place dependence) 3 (attitudinal, conative, behavioral loyalty) 3 (involvement: interest, enjoyment, self-expression) 5 (service quality: health & cleanliness, setting, conditions of facilities, safety & security, responsiveness of staff)	• Behavioral loyalty (Backman & Crompton, 1991a, 1991b; Morais, 2000; Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard, 1999; Pritchard & Howard, 1997) – proportion of visits • Attitudinal loyalty (Day, 1969; Pritchard & Howard, 1997) – if they identify themselves as loyal visitors • Conative loyalty (Andreassen & Lindestad, 1998; Morais, 2000; Singh & Sirdeshmukh, 2000) – positive word of mouth (recommendation) • Place dependence (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1995) • Place identity (Moore & Graefe, 1994) • Involvement (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997) • Service Quality (Hodgson, 1999; Jaten & Driver, 1998) • Satisfaction (Graefe & Fedler, 1986) – overall satisfaction (perceived value, enjoyment)	CFA Invariance testing for 2 settings (developed vs. less developed)	National Forest	• Forest recreationists who perceived high service quality tended to have a high level of satisfaction and activity involvement that led to destination loyalty. • 3 stages of loyalty development: Attitudinal loyalty (destination preference/liking) → Conative loyalty (favorable word-of-mouth) → Behavioral loyalty (visit frequency) • Activity involvement directly influenced attitudinal and behavioral loyalty. • Satisfaction directly influenced attitudinal and conative loyalty.
Alexandris, Kouthouris, & Meligdis, (2006)	2 (place identity, place dependence) 3 (service quality: interaction, physical environment, outcome)	• Service quality (16 items with a 7-point scale) o Brady & Cronin (2001), Manfredo, Driver, & Tarrant (1996) – consequences of engaging in recreational activity • Place attachment (8 items with a 7-point scale) o Williams & Vaske (2003), Kyle, Bricker et al. (2004), Kyle, Graefe et al. (2004b) • Loyalty (3 items with a 5-point scale) – visitors' intention to continue skiing in the specific resort o Alexandris & Stodolska (2004), Armitage & Conner (1999), Smith & Biddle (1999)	Multiple regression analysis	Ski resort (midland southern Greece)	• Both dimensions of place attachment were shown to be applicable in the context of the skiing resort. • All the three dimensions of service quality offered significant contributions on the dimensions of place attachment. • No significant effects of motivations (personal benefits) on place attachment.
Mowen, Graefe, & Virden (1997)	2 (place identity, place dependence) 3 (involvement: attraction, centrality,	• Place attachment (25 items) o Williams & Roggenbuck (1989) • Enduring involvement (13 items) o McIntyre (1990)	2X2 typology – median split method One-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD	National Recreation Area (Virginia)	• Significant differences in visitor evaluations across a place attachment-involvement typology. • The more attached/more involved

	self-expression)	• Setting and experience evaluations (4 items)	post-hoc tests		visitors evaluated the setting and experience more positively. • Compared to involvement, place attachment played a bigger role in influencing higher experience evaluation.
Hwang, Lee, & Chen (2005)	2 (place identity, place dependence) 3 (interpretation satisfaction: interpretation ability, empathy, tangibility) 4 (involvement: importance and pleasure, self-expression and symbolism, risk probability, risk consequence)	• Place attachment (15 items) o Kaltenborn (1997) • Involvement (21 items) o Laurent & Kapferer (1985) (Consumer Involvement Profile) o McIntyre & Pigram (1992) (Enduring Involvement Profile) • Satisfaction with interpretation service quality (28 items) o Parasuraman et al. (1988) (SERVQUAL)	SEM (two-step modeling)	National parks (Taiwan)	• Involvement and attachment had a direct, significant effect on perceived interpretation satisfaction. • There was an indirect positive significant effect of place attachment on satisfaction.
Laverie & Arnett (2000)	Unidimension	• Place attachment (9 items) o Ball & Tasaki (1992) • Involvement (25 items with a 7-point scale) o Zaichkowsky (1985) (Personal Involvement Inventory for Situational Involvement) o Higie & Feick (1988) (Enduring involvement scale) • Identity salience (4 items with a 7-point scale) o Callero (1985), Kleine et al. (1993) • Satisfaction (3 items with a 7-point scale) o Oliver (1980)	Path analysis	University	• Situational involvement, Attachment, Enduring involvement → Identity salience → Attendance • Situational involvement → Satisfaction → Attendance
Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon (2003)	2 (attachment: place identity, place dependence) 3 (involvement: attraction, self-expression, centrality)	• Place attachment (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989) • Involvement (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992)	SEM	Trail	• Different dimensions of activity involvement influenced the different dimensions of place attachment. • Place identity was best predicted by the self expression and attraction dimensions of activity involvement. • Place dependence was best predicted only by self expression. • There was a high correlation between these two constructs.
Kyle, Bricker, Graefe, &	2 (attachment: place identity, place	• Place attachment (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989)	SEM Invariance testing for	Trail, River, Lake	• Effects of involvement on place attachment differed by activity and

Wickham (2004)	dependence) 3 (involvement: attraction, self-expression, centrality)	• Involvement (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992)	3 types of recreationists (hikers, boaters, anglers)		setting type.
Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon (2004b)	3 (attachment: place identity, place dependence, social bonding) 3 (involvement: attraction, self-expression, centrality) Unidimension (Perceptions of setting density)	• Place attachment (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989) • Involvement (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992) • Perceptions of setting density (Heberlein & Vaske, 1977)	SEM	Trail	• Examined a moderating role of place attachment between activity involvement and perceptions of setting density. • Only place attachment (place identity and dependence) was significant predictors.
Gross & Brown (2006)	2 (attachment: place identity, place dependence) 3 (involvement: attraction, self-expression, centrality) Unidimension (lifestyle attributes: food and wine)	• Place attachment o Backlund & Williams (2003), Bricker & Kerstetter (2000), Kyle, Graefe et al. (2003) • Involvement o Laurent & Kapferer (1985) – Consumer Involvement Profile • Lifestyle (4 items) o Derived from the centrality dimension of involvement	Principle Component analysis ANOVA with Tukey's HSD test	Tourism regions (South Australia)	• Unidimension of place attachment • No significant differences for place attachment, self-expression, or centrality among regions. • Significant differences for wine and food as an important feature of tourism experiences among regions.
Lee & Allen (1999)	2 (attachment: place identity, place dependence) Unidimension (past experience, destination attractiveness, satisfaction)	• Past experience (number of trips taken to the destination between the years 1993 and 1997) • Destination attractiveness (Hu & Ritchie, 1993) • Satisfaction (importance-perceived quality) • Place attachment (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Williams et al. 1992)	ANOVA with a LSD post hoc test Bivariate correlations Multiple regression analysis	Beach, city, island (South Carolina)	• Destination attractiveness and family vacation were the strongest predictors of place attachment. • The types and importance of predictors varied across the destinations because each destination has different attributes.
Lee (2001)	Unidimension		Multiple standard regression analysis	Beach, city (South Carolina)	• Destination attractiveness and family vacation were the strongest predictors of place attachment. • Depending on destinations, the factors to influence place attachment varied because people had different motivations to travel each place.
Kaltenbron (1997)	Unidimensional	• Place attachment (21 items) • Place attachment – Williams et al. (1992), Williams & Roggenbuck (1989) • Involvement/specialization – McIntyre & Pigram (1992), McIntyre (1989)	Factor analysis (PCA with a varimax rotation) Index scores (mean scores of each factors)	Recreation homes (Southern Norway)	• A cross-sectional case study on recreation homeowners' attachment with relation to place attributes • 3 dimensions of place attachment (area, home, history) and 2

		• Personal projects in psychology – Brunstein (1993), Emmons (1993), Little (1989) • Place attributes (importance of the natural environment, cultural context, social life, other aspects of the place)	Multiple regressions		dimensions of place attributes (nature-culture, family-social) have emerged.
Backlund & Williams (2003)	2 (place identity, place dependence)	• Place attachment – William & Vaske (2003) • Past experiences: o 'How many years have you visited X?' (association length) o 'How many times have you visited X in the past twelve months?' (frequency)	Mean weighted correlations Chi-square test on mean weighted z scores	Wilderness areas and natural environments (national parks, trails, rivers, mountains)	• Correlations between the past experiences and place attachment were moderate to weak. • Association between variables was heterogeneous across settings.
Kyle, Mowen, & Tarrant (2004)	4 (attachment: place identity, place dependence, affective attachment, social bonding)	• Motivation (Recreation Experience Preference) – Driver & Tocher (1970), Driver & Knopf (1977), Driver & Brown (1986), Manfredo et al. (1996) • Place attachment o Place identity and place dependence: Williams & Roggenbuck (1989) o Affective attachment o Social bonding: Gruen, Sommers, & Acito's (2000) organizational commitment scale	SEM (Covariance structure analysis)	Urban park setting	• Examined the relationship between motivation to visit the park and attachment to the setting • Recategorized the motivation dimensions (EFA) into 6 domains: Learn, Autonomy, Activity, Social, Nature, and Health • Not all dimensions of motivation had a significant effect on the dimensions of place attachment.
Moore & Graefe (1994)	2 (attachment: place identity, place dependence)	• Place attachment (15 items) o Williams & Roggenbuck (1989) • Frequency of trail: 'On about how many days did you visit the XXX during the past 12 months?' • Situational variable (Distance) • User Characteristics (Age) • Activity-related variable (Importance of particular trail activity) • Association length (Calculated in months from the date of the user's first trail visit to the time of the survey)	Zero-order correlations Multiple regression analyses	3 rail-trails	• Place identity was best predicted by association length, activity importance, and place dependence. • Place dependence was best predicted by distance and frequency. • Frequency was most strongly related to age, activity importance, and distance.
Moore & Scott (2003)	2 (attachment: place identity, place dependence) 2 (commitment: personal, behavioral commitment) Unidimension (proximity, frequency)	• Commitment (Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997) • Place attachment - Williams & Roggenbuck (1989), Moore & Graefe (1994) • Proximity (How long, in minutes, did it take you to get to…?) • Frequency (How many times during the last 12 months, Have they used the trail for activities?)	Paired t-test Correlation-regression analysis (R-square changes, partial correlation)	Urban park, trail (North Chagrin Reservation and the trail within the reservation in Ohio)	• Examined the extent to which people become attached to a specific site (a particular trail located within that same park) versus its larger setting. • Frequency of use was positively related to both setting attachment. • Place attachment to a general area was slightly stronger attachment to

					specific places within that area. • The differences in place attachment found across activities. • Personal commitment to the activity was the strongest predictor for both places. • Place attachment was unidimensional. • Levels of attachment to outdoor recreation settings were not particularly strong on average.
Hou, Lin, & Morais (2005)	2 (attachment: place identity, place dependence) 4 (involvement: importance, pleasure, self-expression, centrality) 2 (destination attributes: core, augmented)	• Involvement in cultural tourism (12 items with a 5-point scale) o Dimanche & Samdahl (1994), Holbrook & Hirschman (1982), McIntyre & Pigram (1992), Schuett (1993), Selin & Howard (1988) • Destination attributes/attractiveness (17 items with a 5-point scale) o Hu & Ritchie (1993), Thach & Axinn (1994) • Place attachment (12 items with a 5-point scale) o Bricker & Kerstetter (2000), Moore & Graefe (1994), Shaw & Williams (2000)	EFA SEM (CFA)	Heritage site (Taiwan)	• Identified the antecedents of attachment to a heritage site. • Validated the proposed model between 2 tourist groups with different cultural backgrounds. • Both enduring involvement and destination attractiveness have a direct effect on place attachment. • Indirect effect of enduring involvement on place attachment mediated by destination attractiveness. • The meaning and developmental process of place attachment differed depending on the ethnic background of the tourists.
Smaldone, Harris, Sanyal, & Lind (2005)		• Critical management issues and visitor attitudes towards the impacts of the issues • Open-ended questions to capture the full range of possible meanings that visitors ascribed to the park (Eisenhauer, Krannich, & Blahna, 2000)	Nvivo (qualitative data analysis program) Cross-tabulations Chi-square tests ANOVA Kruskal –Wallis test	National park (Wyoming)	• Assessed a multitude of values and meanings associated with places are necessary in public involvement and measurement of environmental impacts. • The place held various meanings that cannot be inclusively explained by the conventional classification of place attachment. • Emotional and social meanings were salient. • Those reporting a special place had stayed longer and visited more. • Emotionally attached visitors were more aware of the issues and highly affected by them.
Kyle, Grafe, Manning, &	2 (place identity, place dependence)	• Place attachment (8 items with a 5-point scale)	SEM (covariance structure analysis)	Trail (Appalachian	• Examined the effect of place attachment on hikers' and

Bacon (2004c)		• Trail conditions (18 items with a 3-point scale) • Social condition: perceived crowding, user conflict, depreciative behavior • Environmental condition: ecological impacts from human use, setting development, human encroachment		Trail)	backpackers' perceived social and environmental conditions • As visitors were more identified with and less dependent on the trail, they were more critical (less tolerant) of the social and environmental conditions encountered along the trail. • The effect of place identity was stronger than that of place dependence.
Warzecha & Lime (2001)	2 (place identity, place dependence	• Place attachment (12 items with a 5 point-scale) o Williams, Anderson et al. (1995) • Importance of motives for taking a river trip (23 items with a 5 point-scale) o Driver, Tinsley, & Manfredo (1991) • Support for 22 potential management actions (23 items with a 4 point-scale) • Visitor tolerance for encounters with other users (4 evaluative concepts and asked to report the number)	Two-tailed t-test Cronbach's Alpha Quartile classification of place attachment	2 rivers (Green River and Colorado River in Canyonlands National Park, Utah)	• Examined the strength of place attachment, the relationship between (motivations, support for management actions, encounter acceptability) and the two dimensions of place attachment. • The strength of respondents' agreement with place attachment differed across settings. The study supported that place attachment could be useful to segment visitors concerning their preferences and attitudes in settings.
Kyle, Absher, & Graefe (2003)	2 (place identity, place dependence)	• Attitude toward the fee program (5 Likert-type items) • Place identity (4 items), place dependence (3 items) – Modified Williams & Roggenbuck's (1989) scale • Support for spending fee revenue – facilities and services (4 items), environmental protection (5 items), environmental education (3 items)	Multiple regression analysis (moderating effects)	Lake areas in the National Forest, CA	• Examined the effect of place attachment on visitors' spending preferences for revenue collected from recreation use fees on public lands. • Respondents scoring high on place identity were more likely to support expenditure directly toward the preservation and restoration of the natural environment. • Respondents scoring high on place dependence were more likely to support expenditures directed toward facility development and expansion.
Todd & Anderson (2005)		• Residency (2 items) • Past trail usage (2 items) • Place attachment (3 items with a 4-point scale) o The river means a lot to me (place identity) o I would spend more time on or at the river if I could (place dependence, Bricker &	ANOVA with Scheffé's post hoc test Chi-square analysis	River trail (New York)	• Examined the relationship between Residents' different place attachment levels and variables such as proximity, frequency, years of residency, their perceived benefits from the trail development. • Highly attached residents were most

		Kerstetter, 2000; emotional/symbolic attachment, Warzecha & Lime, 2001) ○ The river is a feature I frequently take note of (Place familiarity, Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler, 2004) • Benefits (8 items with a 4-point scale) ○ Godbey, Graefe, & James (1992)			frequent users, lived closely, and perceived better recreational benefits from the trail development. • Years of residency was not related to place attachment.
Bricker & Kerstetter (2000)	3 (place identity, place dependence, lifestyle) 5 (level of experience, skill level and ability, centrality to lifestyle, enduring involvement, equipment and economic investment)	• Specialization ○ Lee (1993), Schuett (1993) – level of experience, skill level and ability ○ Bryan (1977, 1979), Donnelly et al. (1986), Kuentzel &McDonald (1992), Lee (1993), Virden & Schreyer (1988), Wellman, Roggenbuck, & Smith (1982) – centrality to lifestyle (organization membership, magazine subscription, book ownership) ○ McIntyre & Pigram (1992) – enduring involvement ○ Donnelly et al. (1986), Lee (1993), Virden & Schreyer (1988), Wellman et al. (1982) – equipment and economic investment • Place Attachment ○ Williams & Roggenbuck (1989), Moore & Graefe (1994)	Multivariate analyses of variance (series of three-way ANOVAs)	River (Western US)	• Examined the relationship between the dimensions of place attachment and skill level among boaters. • As respondents' scores on the place identity dimension increased, so too did their reported level of skill. • As respondents' scores on the place dependence dimension increased, their skill level declined.
Williams & Roggenbuck (1989)	3 (place identity, place dependence, place indifference)	• Items were derived from the concept of self-identity (Proshansky et al., 1983) and activity involvement (Wellman et al., 1982). • 27 items with a 5-point scale ○ Place identity – a central aspect of their life ○ Place dependence – unwillingness to use another site for the activity ○ Place indifference – negative appraisals of the setting	EFA Correlations	Wilderness, backcountry	
Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler (2006)	5 (place attachment: familiarity, belongingness, identity, dependence, rootedness)	• Overall place bonding (7-point scale) ○ 'Overall, please rate how strong you would characterize your feelings of attachment to the Chattooga.' • Place bonding (26 items on a 5-point scale) ○ Scales were developed based on the literature. • Experience use history (4 items) ○ Hammitt & McDonald (1983), Schreyer et	EFA CFA	River (Chattooga River in South Carolina)	• Measured the experience use history, place bonding, trout fishing experiences, substitution behavior, and overall place bonding to the site. • Five dimensions of place bonding were emerged in the study. • Four types of anglers based on the level of EUH were identified (beginners, visitors, locals, veteran)

		al. (1981), Hammitt et al. (2004) ○ Association length and frequency of last year use in the River and alternatives			• The place bonding items represented adequate fit to the proposed five dimensional model of recreation place bonding. • Recreationists who are highly experienced less likely to be dependent on one place.
Hidalgo & Hernández (2001)	Unidimension	• Place attachment (9 items with a 4-point scale) ○ Gerson, Stueve, & Fischer (1977), Mesch & Manor (1998) ○ I would be sorry to move out of my house, without the people I live with (general). ○ I would be sorry if the people I lived with moved out without me. ○ I would be sorry if I and the people I lived with moved out.	Cronbach's alpha Mean scores ANOVA Repeated measures of analysis of variance	3 spatial ranges (house, neighborhood, city) and 2 dimensions (physical, social) in Spain	• Attachment to neighborhood was the weakest due to decrease in activities in the neighborhood. • Social attachment was of greater importance than physical attachment. • The degree of attachment varies with age and sex. • Women > men • Place attachment increases with age.
McAndrew (1998)	2 (Rootedness: desire for change, home/family satisfaction)	• Rootedness (10 items with a 5-point scale)	Factor analysis (EFA with a varimax rotation) Cronbach's alpha Correlation	Home	• The scales well predicted place-relevant behavior and feelings (e.g., frequency of homesickness, intention to return to one's home town following graduation, the frequency of visits from friends back home, and subscriptions to home-town newspapers.)
Virden & Walker (1999)		• Affective meaning (12 items with a 5-point semantic differential scales) ○ Russell, Ward & Pratt (1981) – 10 items ○ Nash (1982) – 2 items on romantic attributes (mysterious/unmysterious, chaotic/orderly) • Environmental setting preference (6 items with a 5-point scale) – rating based on the degree of importance	MANOVAs ANOVAs	Forests	• Ethnic/racial and gender differences in both meanings attached to forests and environmental setting preference were found. • Whites considered a forest environment to be more pleasing and safe than Hispanics and Blacks. • Whites and Hispanics prefer less presence from management personnel, a more remote, as opposed to a developed setting than Blacks. • Females viewed forests as being unsafe from the fear of other people, more awe-inspiring and mysterious than males. • Females preferred environments offering intimacy with close friends and family.

APPENDIX B

ONSITE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

You are being invited to participate in a study to examine how emotions experienced at this festival affect destination loyalty. This study is being conducted by the Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Science at Texas A&M University. This questionnaire will take approximately 5-10 minutes to complete. ***All information will be treated with confidentiality and will be used for academic research purposes only.***

At the end of this survey, you will be asked to provide your contact information for a follow-up survey which will be sent to you via mail or email.

1. Please indicate how you feel after you engaged in various activities at the festival. *(Please circle the most appropriate* ***<u>one</u>*** *only for each item)*

Your Feelings at the Festival	Almost never			Occasionally			Very Often
1. Caring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Compassionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Loving	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Sentimental	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Concerned	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Cheerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Unfulfilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Glad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Joyful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Astonished	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Uneasy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Amazed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Tender	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Worried	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Romantic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Discontented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Embarrassed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Fulfilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Passionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Unhappy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Optimistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29. Unsatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Delighted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Aggravated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Thrilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Irritated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Contented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. Pleased	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. What is the zip code of your primary home address? _____

3. Which of the following days have you attended or plan to attend this event? *(Please check **all** that apply)*

❒ Friday ❒ Saturday ❒ Sunday

4. Have you ever visited the Poteet Strawberry Festival before?
❒ Yes (*Please go to Question 4a*) ❒ No (*Please Skip to Question 5*)

4a. How many times have you attended the Poteet Strawberry Festival (including this time)? _____ time(s)

5. What is the main purpose of your visit to Pasadena this time? *(Please check **all** that apply)*
❒ Specifically to attend this festival ❒ Business
❒ Visiting friends/relatives ❒ Passing through/Side trip
❒ Other (*please specify*): _____

6. Including yourself, how many people are in your immediate group? _____ people

7. How many children (18 years old and under) are in your group? _____

8. Are you? ❒ Female ❒ Male

9. Age? _____ Years

10. You are being agreed to participate in the further study. How would you like receive a follow-up survey? ***(Please provide your current mailing or email address)***
❒ Postal Mail ❒ Email

Name of the Respondent:

Mailing address:

Email:

Thank you for your participation and look forward to hearing from you soon.

APPENDIX C

FOLLOW-UP SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

SURVEY OF YOUR VISIT EXPERIENCE ON POTEET STRAWBERRY FESTIVAL

You are being invited to participate in a survey of your visit experience at the Poteet Strawberry Festival. Your opinion will be very important for us to enhance your experience at the festival next visit. All information will be treated with strict confidentiality and will be used for academic research purposes only.

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TEXAS A&M UNIVERSITY

Sponsored by Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences & In cooperation with the Poteet Strawberry Festival Association, Inc.

SECTION A: ABOUT YOUR VISITS TO POTEET AND THE FESTIVAL

1. Approximately when was your first visit to the Poteet Strawberry Festival? (Please fill the year of your first visit in 4 digits)

   _____ Year

2. In your lifetime, approximately how many times have you visited the following festivals?
   a. Poteet Strawberry Festival _____ times
   b. Other festivals _____ times

3. Please provide a list of all the festivals that you have visited over the last 2 years.

   _____

   _____

   _____

4. How likely would you have come to Poteet within the next year if you had not come for this festival?

Very Unlikely						Very Likely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. The following statements concern your intentions to revisit the Poteet Strawberry Festival. Please choose the number that reflects your level of agreement for each of the following statements. (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
a.	I would recommend others visit this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b.	I am willing to pay more for food/entertainment at this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c.	It is possible that I will visit this festival in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d.	I would say positive things about this festival to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e.	I don't mind paying a little bit more to attend this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f.	I would encourage friends and relatives to go to this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g.	I would probably visit this festival again next year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h.	Price is not an important factor in my decision to revisit this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i.	If I decided to go to any festival, I would return to this festival again	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. Please circle the number that best reflects your level of agreement for visiting the Poteet Strawberry Festival compared to alternative options such as visiting other festivals or spending your leisure time on other activities, etc. (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
a.	I get bored with going to the same festival even if it is good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b.	I would rank this festival as the most enjoyable one amongst the others I have visited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c.	This festival provides the best entertainment/ recreational opportunity among the alternatives I have done/visited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d.	Compared to this festival, there are few alternatives that I would enjoy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e.	I would prefer going to this festival, rather than visiting other festivals/doing other leisure activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. Please choose the number that best reflects your level of agreement with visiting/being in the town of Poteet compared to other alternative places that provide the similar recreation/leisure activities. (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
a.	I would prefer visiting/being in Poteet, rather than going/doing other alternative places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b.	I would rank Poteet as the most enjoyable place amongst the others I have visited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c.	I would get bored with going to/being in Poteet again even if my experience there was good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d.	Compared to Poteet, there are few alternatives that I would consider	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e.	Poteet provides the best recreation/leisure opportunities among the alternatives I have visited/been	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. How likely would you have come to Poteet even if this festival had not been held?

Very Unlikely						Very Likely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. Please circle the number that best reflects <u>your likelihood of recommending the town of Poteet</u> for each of the following statements. (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

	Very Unlikely						Very Likely
a. I would say positive things about Poteet to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. I would recommend that someone visit Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. I would encourage friends and relatives to visit Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B: EXPERIENCES AT THE POTEET STRAWBERRY FESTIVAL

10. Please take a few minutes to recall <u>your feelings during your visit to the Poteet Strawberry Festival</u> (held in April, 2008). Indicate how frequently you experienced the following emotions while visiting the festival. (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

	Almost Never	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	Very Often
a. Astonished	1	2	3	4	5
b. Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5
c. Compassionate	1	2	3	4	5
d. Unfulfilled	1	2	3	4	5
e. Pleased	1	2	3	4	5
f. Unsatisfied	1	2	3	4	5
g. Tense	1	2	3	4	5
h. Contented	1	2	3	4	5
i. Worried	1	2	3	4	5
j. Amazed	1	2	3	4	5
k. Surprised	1	2	3	4	5
l. Caring	1	2	3	4	5
m. Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5
n. Glad	1	2	3	4	5
o. Irritated	1	2	3	4	5
p. Aggravated	1	2	3	4	5
q. Happy	1	2	3	4	5
r. Unhappy	1	2	3	4	5
s. Joyful	1	2	3	4	5
t. Discontented	1	2	3	4	5
u. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
v. Loving	1	2	3	4	5
w. Uneasy	1	2	3	4	5
x. Cheerful	1	2	3	4	5

11. Please reflect back on your experience at the Poteet Strawberry Festival and indicate your perception of each item from the list below. (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

		Very Poor			Neutral			Very Good
a.	Availability of activities/programs for all ages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b.	Enough available information (e.g., event programs, food venues, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c.	Uniqueness of themed activities/programs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d.	Attentive staff who willingly respond to my requests	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e.	Quality of food/refreshments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f.	Availability of various souvenirs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g.	Feeling of safety on the site	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h.	Affordable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i.	Visually appealing decorations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j.	Staff's willingness to help me and other visitors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
k.	Availability of restrooms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
l.	Enough picnic tables and rest areas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m.	Availability of proper signs for site directions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
n.	Quality of entertainment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
o.	Convenient access to food/event venues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p.	Knowledgeable staff in response to my requests	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
q.	Safe and well-maintained equipment and facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
r.	Acceptable crowd level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
s.	Availability of types of food/refreshments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
t.	Friendly and courteous staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
u.	Easy access to parking lots	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
v.	Cleanliness of the festival site	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
w.	Availability of prompt services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with Poteet as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/leisure activities)? (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

Extremely Dissatisfied						Extremely Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. How good or bad is Poteet as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/leisure activities)? (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

Worst						Best
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. How much do you like or dislike Poteet as a place to visit (or enjoy the recreational/leisure activities)? (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

Very Dislike						Very like
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. After reflecting back on your experience at the Poteet Strawberry Festival, please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements regarding <u>your level of satisfaction with the festival experience</u> this year. (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
a.	I really enjoyed myself at this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b.	I am sure it was the right decision to visit this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c.	My experience at this festival wasn't what I expected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d.	Sometimes I have mixed feelings about visiting this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e.	My experience at this festival was exactly what I needed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f.	If I had to do it over again, I'd visit a different festival or go somewhere else	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g.	I am satisfied with my decision to visit this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h.	I feel bad about my decision concerning this festival visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i.	This festival made me feel happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j.	This was one of the best festivals I have ever visited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
k.	My choice to visit this festival was a wise one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C: EMOTIONAL BONDS WITH POTEET AND THE FESTIVAL

16. Please indicate the level of agreement with the statements below pertaining to <u>your commitment to the Poteet Strawberry Festival</u>. (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
a.	I consider myself an educated visitor regarding this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b.	I am very attached to this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c.	Even if close friends recommended another festival, I would not change my preference for this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d.	I have a special connection to the people who visit this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e.	This festival means more to me than any other festival I can think of	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

f.	I identify strongly with this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g.	The decision to go to this festival was primarily my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h.	I don't really know much about this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i.	This festival means a lot to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j.	I am knowledgeable about this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
k.	The decision to visit to this festival was not entirely my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
l.	To change my preference from going to this festival to another leisure alternative would require major rethinking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m.	I wouldn't substitute any other festival for recreation/entertainment I enjoy here	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
n.	For me, lots of other festivals could substitute for this festival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. The following statements refer to <u>meanings that the town of Poteet, where the festival was held, might hold for you</u>. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements listed below. (*Please circle the most appropriate number for each item.*)

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
a.	I feel my personal values are reflected in the town of Poteet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b.	Visiting/Being in Poteet allows me to spend time with my family/friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c.	Many of my friends/family prefer Poteet over other places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d.	I feel that I can be myself when I visit/am in Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e.	For the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, Poteet is the best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f.	I have a lot of fond memories with friends/family in Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g.	For what I like to do for leisure, I could not imagine anything better than the setting than Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h.	(Visiting) Poteet says a lot about who I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i.	When others suggest alternatives to Poteet for the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, I still choose Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j.	I have a special connection to the people who visit (or live in) Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
k.	I am very attached to Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
l.	I feel a strong sense of belonging to Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m.	I have little, if any, emotional attachment to Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
n.	I identify strongly with Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
o.	If I were to stop visiting (or be away from) Poteet, I would lose contact with a number of friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p.	Poteet means a lot to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
q.	I prefer Poteet over other places for the recreational/leisure activities that I enjoy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
r.	Other places cannot compare to Poteet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D: ABOUT YOURSELF

18. Are you? ❒ Female ❒ Male

19. What year were you born? (e.g., 19XX)? _____Year

20. What is the ***highest*** level of education that you have completed? *(Please check one.)*

- ❒ Less than high school
- ❒ High school/GED
- ❒ Some College
- ❒ College degree
- ❒ Post college degree

21. What was your total household income (before taxes) in 2007? *(Please check one.)*

- ❒ Under $10,000
- ❒ $10,000 to $19,999
- ❒ $20,000 to $29,999
- ❒ $30,000 to $39,999
- ❒ $40,000 to $49,999
- ❒ $50,000 to $59,000
- ❒ $60,000 to $69,999
- ❒ $70,000 - $99,999
- ❒ Over $100,000

22. What is your race or ethnicity? *(Please check one.)*

- ❒ Hispanic or Latino
- ❒ White
- ❒ Black or African American
- ❒ American Indian or Alaskan Native
- ❒ Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
- ❒ Asian
- ❒ Two or more races
- ❒ Other (*please specify*): _____

23. How many children (18 and under) reside in your household? _____

24. My marital status is:

- ❒ Married
- ❒ Married with children
- ❒ Single, previously married
- ❒ Single, never married
- ❒ Other

25. How did you hear about the Poteet Strawberry Festival? *(Please choose ALL that apply.)*

- ❒ Festival website
- ❒ Internet search engine/other website
- ❒ Newspaper/magazine article/ad
- ❒ Friend/business associate/relative
- ❒ TV/radio show/commercial
- ❒ Billboard
- ❒ Flyer from local sponsorships
- ❒ Other (*please specify*): _____

Thank you for your participation.

VITA

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