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TOURISTS' PERCEPTIONS OF MEMORABLE EXPERIENCES:
TESTING THE MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCE SCALE (MTEs)
AMONG TOURISTS TO ROVANIEMI, LAPLAND

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Summary:

This study investigates the relationship between the eight dimensions of the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTEs) - hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, knowledge and adverse feelings and visitor's behavioral intention. Adverse feeling is an addition to the scale. The sample population of this study consists of tourists who have visited Rovaniemi. The sampling frame was obtained by contacting the Rovaniemi Tourist Information Center and local and foreign travel agencies offering trips to Rovaniemi. Facebook was used to approach potential respondents. Primary data was collected using a web-based self-administered questionnaire. A sample of 100 tourists who have visited Rovaniemi completed the questionnaire. The results indicate that two factors of the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale, i.e. local culture and novelty, significantly influences tourists' behavioral intention to a destination. All the others were not statistically significant. The findings of this present study suggest that tourism activities and on-site experiences should be thoroughly evaluated whether they satisfy the identified memorable tourism experiential components, especially social interaction with local culture and novelty. After evaluating the tourism programs based on the identified memorable tourism experiential dimensions, tourism operators and travel planners in Rovaniemi can design, promote, market and deliver programs that are novel and involve social interaction with local culture, in order to enhance the probability of delivering memorable experiences.

Keywords: memory, memorable experiences, behavioral intention, tourism, Finland

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1 Introduction

1.1 Background

This following chapter gives a brief introduction to the background of the study and the field of research it relates to. An overview of the content of the thesis is provided to guide the reader.

After a luxurious stay in the Bahamas, an exciting time in Las Vegas, or a family friendly visit to Disney World, all that remains for the tourist (except, perhaps, for a few kitschy souvenirs or some photographs) is his or her memory of that experience (BraunLaTour et al 2006). It is said that ‘creating memorable experiences is the essence and raison d’etre of the hospitality industry’ (Pizam 2010, p.343). In the long run, such memorable experiences may contribute to a ‘sense of exhilaration, a deep sense of enjoyment that is long cherished and that becomes a landmark in memory for what life should be like’ (Csikszentmihalyi 1990, p. 3). In today’s environment of ever more sophisticated consumers, those who deliver memorable customer experiences successfully create superior value and competitive advantage (Canadian Tourism Commission 2004; Ritchie & Crouch 2003). The quality experiences provided to customers, which are indeed memorable, directly determine a business’s ability to generate revenue (Pine & Gilmore 1999). In the tourism literature, researchers have emphasized the importance of providing memorable experience as memory is the single most important source of information for an individual to decide whether he or she would revisit a location (Kozak 2001; Lehto et al 2004; Mazursky 1989; Wirtz et al 2003). Research has commonly considered tourists’ memorable experiences with outcome factors such as revisiting a destination and spreading positive word-of-mouth (Woodside et al 2004). It has been noted by both academic and policy makers that being able to provide memorable experiences is pivotal in the experience-based marketplace (Mazursky 1989; Pine & Gimlore 1999; Kozak 2001; Jennings et al 2009; Wirtz et al 2003; Lehto et al 2004; Kim et al 2012).

The concept of the tourism experience has become a focal point for current tourism research and management (Tung & Ritchie 2011). Researchers have put effort into conceptualizing tourism experiences and measuring them (e.g. Oh et al 2007; Otto & Ritchie 1996). In their conceptual models, researchers include a number of different construct dimensions, such as hedonics, peace of mind, involvement, recognition, entertainment, escapism, aesthetics and

education (Kim 2009). Other frameworks used to examine the dimensions of the tourist experience are based on the phases of the experience, influences on the experience and the outcomes of the experience (Morgan et al 2010). While previous research attempting to measure the constructs of the tourism experience is certainly worthwhile, they seem to have neglected memory, in developing conceptual models of tourism experiences (Kim 2009).

Considering the multi-phase nature of the tourist experience: antecedent, travel to, on-site, travel back and recollection, researchers state that memory should be incorporated with tourism experience because experiences are valuable only when they are stored and remembered through the recollection phase (Clawson & Knetsch 1966), plus memory is a mediator of consumer behavior that influences one's future behavior. While on-site tourism experiences are momentary and may provide transitory feelings, experiences stored in human memory provide for reminiscence, as individuals can repeatedly reflect on their visit. Of the existing research on memory, the creation of memorable tourism experiences (MTE) has been acknowledged in academia as a key driver of competitiveness in tourism firms, yet the existing tourism research has provided little explanation of the factors that characterize MTE. Relatively few studies have explored the components of the experience that are most likely to be recalled from tourists' memories (Kim 2009).

Since existing conceptual models describing the tourist experience are limited in fully accounting for MTE, Kim et al (2012) developed an instrument to tap on the construct of MTE, the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTEs). The study, specifically scale development for MTE, represents the first empirical examination of the concept. The Memorable Tourist Experience Scale (MTEs) was developed using a pool of items, expert reviews of the items and scientific item elimination procedures. In their study to construct a valid and reliable scale to measure MTE, they included 16 experiential constructs proposed as the components of MTE (hedonism, relaxation stimulation, refreshment, adverse feelings, social interaction, happiness, meaningfulness, knowledge, challenge, assessment of value, assessment of service, unexpected happenings, personal relevance, novelty and participation). The authors stated that these experiential characteristics are clearly from a tourist perspective on how individuals feel while they are participating in tourism activities. Since neither a measurement scale nor a conceptual model exists to describe MTE, the authors further stated that there was a limitation in generating scale items solely from the literature review. In supplementing literature review, Kim et al (2012) conducted an exploratory study as a

preliminary step in developing the MTE scale items. A set of MTE items was initially generated from a review of tourism and leisure research pertaining to participants' experience and items from preliminary qualitative research. In combining items generated from two sources, 84 items were developed for measuring MTE. Based on expert reviews and scientific elimination procedures, a total of 85 items were constructed that represented different components of the MTE. In addition, 8 behavioral intention questions, 4 demographic questions and 7 questions related to the trip were included at the end of the questionnaire, producing a 101 item questionnaire.

Kim et al's (2012) study employed convenience sampling method. The subjects of the study were undergraduate students enrolled in twelve different classes across different academic majors at a Midwestern university in the US. Data were collected using a 101item self-administered survey questionnaire from 562 college students. Participants were asked to rate items on seven point Likerttype scales, in which 1 represents "not at all" and 7 represents "very much". Demographic and detailed travel information was also collected. Of the 562 surveys collected, the researcher retained 500 usable responses based on the data screening of missing values and systematic response patterns. The limited ability to generalize the study results is undeniable. The results of the study composed of seven constructs (hedonism, refreshment, local culture, meaningfulness, knowledge, involvement and novelty) as the representative dimensions of MTE and 24 relevant indicators that measure each dimension. The seven constructs are said to be important components of the tourism experience and are likely to affect a person's memory. The authors claim that the 24-item MTE scale is applicable to most destination areas. The authors call for additional research (1) to see whether data obtained from different populations and/or from participants in different leisure activities would result in the same MTE construct components found in their study and (2) to enhance the understanding of MTE by including other experiential factors, those that relate to negative feelings (e.g. anger and frustration).

The present study focuses on memorable tourism experience (MTE) and extends its conceptualization by including negative experiential factors into the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTEs). The research tasks involve testing of the MTE scale among the versatile tourist population to Rovaniemi in order (1) to avoid the specificity of the results to one culture as the notion 'experiences' may mean different things to different people (Blichfeldt as cited in Azedevo 2009), particularly as consumers differ in terms of their

background and demographics - age, gender, nationality (Kleynhans 2003) and (2) to gather both positive and negative past experiences/memories of Rovaniemi during and outside service encounters (Jennings & Nickerson 2006) as experiences can occur in an infinite range of places - it is not limited to one specific place or encounter (O'Dell 2005). In this study, the whole stay of the tourist in Rovaniemi is referred to as a single tourism experience. Studying tourist experiences within a tourism destination context seen from a consumer (tourist) perspectives, provides a desirable setting as tourist destinations are rich in terms of experiential attributes (Otto & Ritchie 1996).

The study used Rovaniemi in Finnish Lapland as the study site. Rovaniemi is an international and versatile travel destination located in Finland's northernmost province, Lapland. Lapland's tourism strategy has used Santa Claus as something that makes Lapland unique, in addition to the original attractions in Lapland, the landscape and local culture. Since 1984, the Finnish Tourist Board in cooperation with local authorities began to market Lapland as 'Santa Claus Land' (Haahti & Yavas 2004). The City of Rovaniemi was granted a European Community Trademark as the Official Hometown of Santa Claus in 2010. Tourism in Rovaniemi is characterized by winter season and largely relies on the Christmas product. Around 60% of foreign visitors come to Rovaniemi in winter season. The winter season starts in mid-November and ends in mid-April. The arrival of foreign tourists grows rapidly in mid-November. Besides the conception of Christmas, tourists are also drawn by opportunities to engage in a mix of activities and experiences related to the arctic nature of the destination. Activities range from snowmobiling, snowshoeing, husky tours, reindeer sleigh rides, ice hole fishing, searching for Northern Lights on snowshoes or on a sledge, winter golfing, to winter driving. The main attractions in Rovaniemi are Arctic Circle, Santa Claus, Santa Claus Village, Santa Park, Ounasvaara Sport and Skiing Centre, Arktikum Science Centre and the wild life park in Ranua. Recent figures show that the destination attracts about 500,000 tourists each year. Of the foreign tourists visiting Rovaniemi 16 percent were Russians followed by German, British, French, Spanish, Italian, Dutch and Norwegian nationals (Rovaniemi Tourist Information 2012).

Lapland's Tourism Strategy 2011-2014 is to ensure customer satisfaction and return visitation (Regional Council of Lapland 2012). While feedback forms provided by tourism business are not able to gather a holistic picture of tourists' destination experiences but rather restricted to quality issues of services provided by the company, tour operator, hotel etc., the attainment of

this objective depends largely on carrying out systematic research into tourists' memories of the holiday experience in Rovaniemi. Researchers state that the delivery of satisfactory experiences cannot in itself ensure future revenue (Jones & Sasser 1995; Keiningham & Vavra 2001; Reichheld 1993) and revisitation (McDougall & Munro as cited in Weaver et al 2007). Kim (2009) states such kinds of satisfactory experiences may not be recalled during the decision-making process and are unlikely to provide a sustainable competitive advantage to businesses in destination areas. Thus, it may be hard for destination managers to expect positive consequences from such experiences. While there is no guarantee that a satisfied customer will return, an unhappy customer will almost certainly not return (Dube et al as cited in Hosany & Witham 2010).

It is worthwhile to explore what customers (tourists) remember from their past tourism experiences and the findings of the study may benefit both companies and tourists. It helps destination managers, tourism operators and travel planners enhance the probability of delivering those experiences that are special, cherished and truly memorable by niche markets or mainstream travelers (Verma et al 2002; Mossberg 2007; Pine & Gilmore 1999; Zehrer 2009; Tung & Ritchie 2011). By providing unique and memorable experiences, hospitality and tourism operators can differentiate themselves from the rest of the crowd and gain a competitive advantage over those who continue to offer the same old products/services (Azevedo 2009). This further provides opportunities for new travel programs, alliances and packages (Canadian Tourism Commission 2004). If companies succeed in providing memorable experiences to tourists, the tourists benefit as well because they get a special experience as opposed to simply a pleasant trip (Murray et al 2010). The research was conducted in Rovaniemi to help tourism planners and destination managers in the area to design products/services that can satisfy their customers' desires for new memorable experiences. It is with these concerns in mind that I pursue this study.

1.2 Problem statement and purpose

Consistent with the notion that the main purpose of consuming leisure related products is to pursue hedonic or pleasurable experiences, the emotional component may make up a significant portion of tourism experiences. Tung and Ritchie (2011) state that positive emotions and feelings associated with experiences such as happiness and excitement were described by the majority of the respondents as a critical component of their memorable experiences. However, in another study, Wirtz et al (2003) and Larsen & Jenssen (2004) discovered that even though respondents remembered positive emotions significantly more than negative ones, they remembered both positive and negative emotions from their vacation experiences.

It is generally presumed that experiences are positive encounters, but negative experiences are also possible. It is interesting to note that when experiences are described and defined, researchers generally imply positive or pleasant events or feelings (Oh et al 2007; Pine & Gilmore 1998). In Mathes et al's study (as cited in Walls 2009) negative experiences may be equally or more effective in creating lasting after effects. In experience innovation, it is especially important to get the job done that customers want done right, because getting it wrong entail risks (Norton & Pine 2009). According to Svavi et al (2009) negative emotions have a harmful impact on customer loyalty and influence word-of-mouth and complaining behaviors, as well as re-purchase intentions and customers' attitudes toward the company. In addition, nowadays tourists easily share their positive and negative holiday experiences with tens of thousands of potential customers through social media (Tarssanen 2007). Konu and Komppula (2012) provide supporting claims saying that tourist experiences range from exciting positive experiences to unpleasant negative experiences. For example, Anastasopoulos (1992) in his study found that Greek tourists had a negative travel experience to Turkey and significantly impacted their attitude.

Kensinger (2007) found that negative emotions boosted not only the subjective vividness of a memory but also the likelihood that event details are remembered. The valence of an event (i.e. whether it is pleasurable or aversive) seems to be a critical determinant of the accuracy with which the event is remembered, with negative events being remembered in greater detail than positive ones. In fact, Christianson (as cited in Kim 2009) states that people remember negative emotional events better than ordinary events that occurred equally long ago. In a

tourist destination, tourists may often feel negative emotions during their tourism experience, for example, due to lack of management (Plessis et al 2012), physical incongruence and unprofessional employee behavior (Walls 2009) etc. Pine and Gilmore (1998) provide supporting claims, by saying that a poor service easily converts into an experience, creating a memorable encounter of a negative kind.

The main problem facing the present study is that (1) different experiential factors may influence the memory of past tourism experiences according to the population and the leisure activities and (2) although experience providers are looking to enhance positive dimensions as part of memorable experiences, experiences can be both positive and negative, but negative experience components can just as strongly affect one's memorability. Thus, it is imperative that the theoretical underpinnings of the MTE scale components and its influence on visitor's behavioral intention are further investigated.

The main purpose of this study is to re-test the measurement scale of MTE by applying it to 'real-world' tourism context and identify the factors, and then to test their effect on visitor's behavioral intention. More specifically, this study sought to explore the relationship among the eight dimensions of the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTEs) - 'hedonism,' 'novelty,' 'local culture,' 'refreshment,' 'meaningfulness,' 'involvement,' 'knowledge' and 'adverse feelings' and visitor's behavioral intention and to prepare and test ideas for the future doctoral research plan. Adverse feeling is an addition to the scale. The proposed constructs will be explained and justified in the literature review section of the thesis. The study has been limited to eight components because it is a university master's level study and is constrained by time and resource limitations. However, I am well aware of other constructs that may play a role in MTE such as cultural background (Uysal et al 2012) and components of Destination Emotion Scale items: joy, love and positive surprise (Hosany & Gilbert 2010) etc.

Justification for this research comes from the increased demand for memorable tourism experiences, where many of today's destination managers and tourism operators compete with each other on the basis of creating exceptional customer experiences (Slåtten et al 2011). By testing the MTE scale in an attempt to gather tourists' views and perceptions, the study aims to gain a better understanding of the theoretical construct and its measurement instrument. The research objective(s) are oriented towards providing a preliminary idea of the key

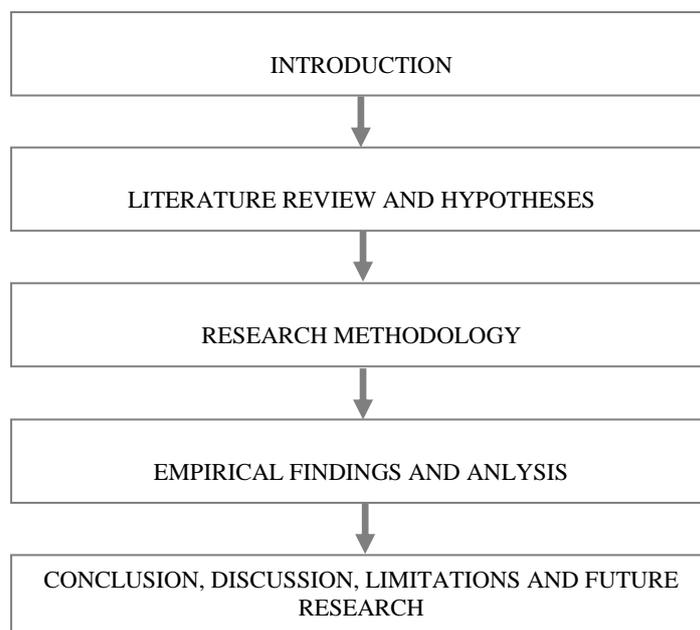
features of a potentially useful research design and methodology; in this case, conducting a web-based survey using self-administered questionnaire consisting of socio-demographic variables, trip characteristics and multi-item scales to capture tourists' memories of holidaying experiences in Rovaniemi, with a sample of tourists who have visited Rovaniemi. This study sought to answer the following research question:

Research Question: What is the relationship among the eight dimensions of the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTEs) (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, knowledge and adverse feelings) and visitor's behavioral intention?

1.3 Thesis structure

The structure of the thesis begins by introducing readers to the significance of providing memorable experiences, a theoretical debate on gaps in research and the need to incorporate memory in developing the conceptual models of tourism experiences, lack of research on the factors that characterize memorable tourism experiences (MTE) and Kim et al's (2012) instrument to tap on the construct of memorable tourism experiences, the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTEs). The study then emphasizes the need for further investigation into the MTE scale components by making a close inquiry into the experiential factors. The next chapter of the thesis deals with the discussion on the theoretical background and development of hypotheses. The review focuses on empirical research and conceptualizations reported by researchers published in a wide range of journals, books and working papers. The key consideration was whether the study contributed to the stock of knowledge in understanding the tourism experience concept and its key construct dimensions. The material retrieved and examined is extensive. The third chapter deals with research methodology and design, study population, sampling frame, sample size and data collection, sampling, measurement and non-response errors in the online questionnaire and reliability and validity. Subsequent to above, the thesis then describes the empirical findings. In the final section, discussion and implications of the study are presented and conclusions are summarized as well as limitations and future research.

Figure 1 Structure of Thesis



2 Theoretical foundations of the research and hypotheses

2.1 Defining experiences

While there is no universally acceptable definition of experiences (Jurowski 2009), the term transcends all languages and has become a broad term to describe the feelings and encounters that an individual has during everyday life (Caru & Cova 2003). It is an all embracing term, used in everyday conversation to describe everything from work related achievements, to describing vacation experiences to family and friends (Hosany & Witham 2010). Carlson (as cited in Wang & Pizam 2011) defines experience as a constant flow of thoughts and feelings that occur during moments of consciousness. Oh et al (2007) describe experiences from a consumer's perspective as enjoyable, memorable and engaging encounters. Researchers suggest that experiences should include an element of positive surprise, getting something extra and unexpected or wow-feeling (Mossberg 2007), to supersede baseline expectations and beyond the described details of guides and brochures (Abrahams as cited in Tung & Ritchie 2011).

Memorable experiences are central in Pine and Gilmore's theories (1999) meaning that they have succeeded in making an impression and can therefore be easily recollected by the consumers. Boswijk et al (2007) refer to 'meaningful experiences', more than being memorable (Pine & Gilmore 1998), experience must be emotionally meaningful for individuals. Such experiences are led by one's senses and which affects the impressions formed in our minds, resulting in emotional reactions such as joy or anxiety. These emotions, when strong and complex, lead to meaningful experiences, which is in contrast to 'ordinary' experiences, and becomes more memorable.

The term experience has come to represent encounters of a higher order, as optimal or extraordinary events that are typified by high levels of emotional intensity with the experience narrative revealed over time (Arnould & Price 2003) The reasoning behind the term is that we are continually having experiences but only a limited number of those can be considered as extraordinary. For an (positive) experience to be called extraordinary, it has to be a) an active and dynamic process, b) often hold a strong social dimension, c) contains meaning and feelings of joy as integrated components, d) generate involvement through personal control

and absorption, e) the process is dependent on context, unpredictability and novelty and f) be incorporated with satisfaction of life (Mossberg 2003).

According to Palmer (as cited in Konu & Komppula 2012) the English language dictionary interpretations have caused confusion with the word experience being used as a verb and also as a noun. While in the English language the word experience has a dual conceptualization, many languages such as German, Swedish and Finnish use two separate words for this dual meaning. In terms of the definition of experience, the present study utilizes the German term 'Erlebnis' to separate everyday events and what can be defined as experiences within the experience theory. The study focuses on the German word 'Erlebnis' that correspond to a memorable event or a process of undergoing and living through an event and the English noun 'experience' as an incident, encounter, event, happening etc. as well as the English verb 'experience' as a feeling, emotions, what we come in contact with, what we face, live through, suffer, undergo, be subject to or come across (Gelter 2006).

2.2 Tourist experience

Despite the concept of experience has been a popular topic over the past decades, especially in the field of travel and tourism research, the components that constitute the tourist experience remains puzzling (Quan & Wang 2004). The disparity amongst academics has resulted in a fuzzy understanding of the concept (Murray et al 2010) and no clear consensus of the conceptualization of what constitutes an experience has been reached (Konu & Komppula 2012). Tourism experiences are presented as multifaceted consumptive experiences (Ooi 2003) resulting from numerous inputs (Moscardo 2009); they arise from activities, the environment, as well as the social contexts embedded in the activities (Ooi 2003) and cover a multiplicity of definitions (Moscardo 2009), which adds to its complexity (Murray et al 2010). Researchers state that providing a concise definition is a difficult task as this can encompass a complex variety of elements (Jennings & Nickerson 2006). Moreover, Oh et al (2007) states that experience is central to the tourism phenomenon and research, however it has defied a unifying definition and operationalization.

Li (as cited in Morgan et al 2010) reviews the various definitions of the tourist experience, which include a contrived and created act of consumption, a response to problems with ordinary life, a search for authenticity and a multifaceted leisure activity. The only thing Li found to be common to all definitions is that the tourist experience is significant for the individual. Oh et al (2007, p.129) contend that ‘the experience economy has been introduced to the tourism literature at an introductory conceptual level’ and needs much more research to understand the components and characteristics of touristic experiences (Larsen 2007).

Based on the literature review, some of themes used to explain the considerable gap that exists in the tourism experience literature on the nature of tourist experience creation include emotional elements and social inclusion, environment to experience, involvement, social science and marketing management approach, experience embedded in long term memory (Murray et al 2010). From emotional elements and social inclusion perspective, researchers state that tourists usually consume services to stimulate emotions (Otto & Ritchie 1996; Holbrook & Hirschman 1982). Tourists by their very nature consume and therefore experience at all times during their journey (Mossberg 2007). In fact there is also an opportunity for the tourist to interact with others which provide an opportunity for social interaction and inclusion (White & White as cited in Murray et al 2010).

In terms of the environment and setting of the experience, Mossberg (2007) states that the experience provider cannot provide the experience for the tourist but only a set of circumstances or environment in which tourists can actually have an experience. Researchers have emphasized the environment in which the experience is provided (Pine and Gilmore 1998; Berry et al. 2002). In discussing involvement, Aho's model (2001) can be taken into consideration; it includes four core elements of the tourist experience namely; emotional experiences; learning; practical experiences; and transformational experiences. Oh et al (2007) adds to the complexity by stating that a tourist is more motivated by the 'pre-experience' through powerful mental and emotional images of the expected experience than the physical characteristics of a destination. Further, Urry (2002) posits that tourism incorporates both landscapes and sensescapes which involves the various senses as an important component of the tourist experience.

Some social science literature views the tourist experience as 'peak experience' whereas the marketing/management approach views it as 'consumer experience' (Quan & Wang 2004). From a social science viewpoint, the tourist experience may be seen an escape from the mundane of everyday life (Mossberg 2007, MacCannell 1973). However, this belief has been challenged by scholars (Uriely 2005), as experiences such as gazing at distant sights (Urry 1990) and engaging in facets of other cultures are available through various means in everyday life (Lash & Urry 1994). Urry (1990) further states that many tourist related experiences can be acquired without travelling to different destinations in the current era of mass media. This further adds to the complexity of the tourist experience, as it can occur in an infinite range of places and is not limited to one specific place or encounter (O' Dell 2005).

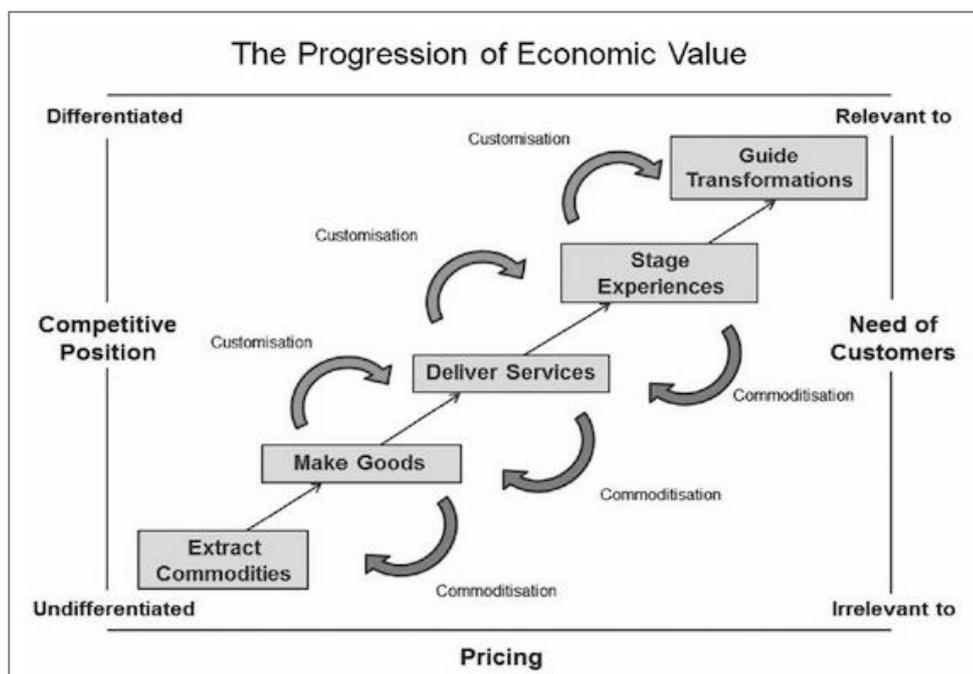
From the marketing/management lens, it is the consumption of the experience with the tourist as a consumer (Otto & Ritchie 1996; Oh et al 2007; Mossberg 2007), tourists are recognized as consumers as they are involved in various service exchange relationships (Mossberg 2007) and experiences necessitate the involvement and participation of the tourist (Brunner-Sperdin & Peters 2009). On the other hand, Larsen (2007, p. 15) suggests that the tourist experience concept includes, expectations, events and memories, and defines it as 'a past personal travel-related event strong enough to have entered long-term memory' and adds that a more long-term focus is required to understand the tourist experience.

2.3 The experience product

The growing focus on experiences has been attributed to what researchers have identified as being a new evolving economy; ‘creative industry’, ‘dream society’ (Ek et al 2008) or the ‘experience economy’ (Pine & Gilmore 1998). According to Pine and Gilmore (1999) the Experience Economy is a new stage of economic offering. In 1999, they published a book titled *The Experience Economy: Work is Theatre & Every Business a Stage* that describes experiences as a fourth economic offer.

The agrarian economy dealt mostly in raw materials: wheat to bake one’s own bread, wool to knit the family garments. During the industrial revolution, millions of people moved from farms to factory floor, an era of mass manufactured goods. Economic prosperity and increased automation increased wages and decreased the hours worked, people then spent time purchasing services. The service stage was rooted and prevalent that in many instances it became commoditized as raw materials such as wheat and oil, and goods such as PCs and family cars. Experiences emerged as the next step that Pine & Gilmore (1999) call the progression of economic value (Fig.2). Pine and Gilmore’s work in the Experience Economy is based on Erving Goffman, an American sociologist, whose writings introduced a new way of thinking in 1950’s about the individual in the social places, particularly, his work, ‘*Social Life as Drama*’ that discusses ‘work is theatre’ and staging of daily life (Nelson 2010).

Figure 2 The Progression of Economic Value (source Pine & Gilmore 1999)



Even though many different meanings, interpretations and perceptions of the term experience exists (Wang & Pizam 2011), there seems to be a general consensus that the experience economy, commencing with the extraction of commodities through the successive stages of manufacturing products and the delivery of services and on experiences, is here to stay, it is growing and will continue to do so. The core components in this economy is a new kind of business and product offering, those that provide customers with something extra and memorable experiences, differentiated from the manufacturing of physical products and from the delivery of service (Pine & Gilmore 1999).

The demand for experiences in the tourism industry is illustrated by the growth of experiential forms of tourism as people increasingly desire to be active and engaged on their holidays or to learn something new (Williams 2006). Leisure and travel are increasingly viewed as necessary to one's emotional well-being and both mental and physical wealth (Uysal et al 2012). The benefits of creating experiences for customers is gaining momentum and demonstrating its business value in the tourism industry. In the past one lived to work, increasingly, we now work to live. The improvement in people's conditions of life and general welfare has led to the demand for experience products in the travel and tourism industry and the expansion and growth of the experience economy. Satisfying basic needs is no longer enough for today's consumers (Mossberg 2007).

Scott et al (2009) state that with the widespread individual wealth, ordinary physical goods are no longer a distinguishing factor, people seek the 'extraordinary'. Maslow's theory of motivation (as cited in Scott et al 2009) posits that after accomplishing their psychological, social and esteem needs, people seek unique experiences through a desire for self-fulfillment. In other words, as customers have many of their lower-order needs fulfilled in today's increasingly rich societies, they seek fulfillment in higher-order needs. The global recession that began in 2008 even exacerbates this, as many people today question what really matters to them. It is stated that more and more, they come to the conclusion that the answer is not 'things'. Instead of more stuff, they desire experiences (Norton & Pine 2009). Although people's needs differ and consequently does their quest for experiences, research shows that for many people in the developed areas, time spent on leisure and tourism has become an essential part of their quality of life (Scott et al 2009).

According to Pine and Gilmore (1999) an experience is not an amorphous construct; it is as real an offering as any service, good or commodity. An experience is as different from service as services are from goods. To purchase a service is the same as paying for a range of intangible activities, while purchasing an experience is purchasing the opportunity to enjoy a series of memorable events that are staged by a producer with the aim of engaging a customer in a personal way. Both services and experiences are intangible and cannot be stored, resold or pre-purchased. Production and consumption happens simultaneously, and the customer co-creates his or her own experience (Prahalad & Ramaswamy 2004). The sellers of goods are manufacturers; sellers of services are providers, while sellers of experiences are stagers. The consumers are in the same way labeled as user for goods, clients for services and guests for experiences (Table 1) (Pine & Gilmore 1999). Another way of differentiating experiences from services is that service is something that is done for a consumer, but experiences are an offering that does something to the consumer - educates, engages or entertains (Poulsson & Kale 2004). The work of the experience provider perishes upon its performance, but remains in the memory of the consumer engaged in it. Experiential product offers involve thinking of business as theatre, environment as stage, merchandise, buildings, transportation and attractions as props, and staff and volunteers as actors charged with engaging the audience is integral to delivering the consumer experience (Pine & Gilmore 1999).

While prior economic offerings - commodities, goods and services - are external to the buyer, experiences are inherently personal, existing only in the mind of an individual who has been engaged on an emotional, physical, intellectual or even spiritual level. Thus, no two people can have the same experience, because each experience derives from the interaction between staged event (like a theatrical play) and the individual's state of mind. Experiences are revealed over duration and tap the senses of the customer. Experiences must provide a memorable offering that will remain with one for a long time, but in order to achieve this, the guest, must be drawn into the offering such that they feel a sensation. To feel the sensation, the guest must actively participate (Pine & Gilmore 1999). According to Pine and Gilmore (1999), experiences can 'touch' people better than products or services. The benefits of staging experiences are happy customers, repeat business, increased sales, enhanced brand identity, free marketing via word-of-mouth referrals and creating emotional bond with customers. Creating experiences for customers will be a way for producers to survive in the ever more competitive future.

Table 1 Economic Distinctions (source Pine and Gilmore 1999)

Economic Distinctions				
Economic Offering	Commodities	Goods	Services	Experiences
Economy	Agrarian	Industrial	Service	Experience
Economic Function	Extract	Make	Deliver	Stage
Nature of Offering	Fungible	Tangible	Intangible	Memorable
Key Attribute	Natural	Standardized	Customized	Personal
Method of Supply	Stored in bulk	Inventoried after productions	Delivered on demand	Revealed over a duration
Seller	Trader	Manufacturer	Provider	Stager
Buyer	Market	User	Client	Guest
Factors of Demand	Characteristics	Features	Benefits	Sensations

In discussing effective ways to provide memorable experiences, Pine and Gilmore (1999) defined four realms of a consumption experience. They described the two main dimensions: first, the level of guest participation, passive or active; second, environmental relationship, absorption or immersion between customer and occurrence. Connecting these dimensions defines the four areas of experience: entertainment, education, estheticism and escape.

Entertainment is passively absorbed through one's senses, generally when viewing, reading or listening for pleasure. Educational experiences, on the other hand, involve active participation from the customer by mind or body to increase the knowledge and skills of the customer, for example ski lessons. Escapist experiences are the opposite of purely entertaining experiences; the participant in an escapist experience is active and completely immersed in it e.g. when visiting a theme park. The last realm is aesthetic experiences that immerse the customers into an environment where the participant becomes immersed in the occurrence and/or the surroundings for example; visiting a museum and the participant goes into the experience while it is left untouched by him or her (Pine & Gilmore 1999). Looking at a contemporary example, the Rainforest Café, Pine and Gilmore (1999) describe how this restaurant incorporated an experiential offering. A dining experience at the Rainforest Café would significantly differ from those of other local restaurants. Further to providing a service where ethnic meals are made for customers, the Rainforest Café creates an entire atmosphere. Guests will have unique and memorable experiences from the entrance. The mist at the café would first provoke auditory sensations by its sound. Then, while seeing the mist arising from the

rock, guests would feel the soft and cool sensations against their skin. Finally, they will smell the tropical essence and taste its freshness.

Pine and Gilmore (1999) also provide five principles for designing memorable experiences: a) development of a theme of an experience, b) harmonization of impressions with positive cues, c) elimination of negative cues, d) interaction of memorabilia, and e) engagement of all five senses. Based on these principles, they assume that positive cues help businesses to affirm the nature of the experience and that sensory stimulants accompanying immersion will enhance the efficiency and memory of the experience. Following the footsteps of Pine and Gilmore (1998), many scholars and institutions studying tourism experiences have also introduced their own design principles. Discussing effective ways to design experience for creating positive memories, Morgan (as cited in Tung & Ritchie 2011) indicates that tourist's positive memorable experiences were likely to come from abundant choices, moments of amazement, shared experiences, fringes at the heart (informal events that amaze tourists as much as the main event), local distinctiveness and positive values (individuals must feel that their activities are worthwhile). Crosby and Johnson (as cited in Kim 2009) introduce six different dimensions that need to be carefully considered: duration, intensity, breadth, interaction, triggers and significance. In another study, Otto and Ritchie (1996) found six fundamental dimensions (hedonic, social, novelty seeking, comfort, safety and stimulating) and stated that tourism providers seeking to provide a quality experience must consider incorporating all of these dimensions. From a national perspective, the Canadian Tourism Commission (2004) investigated how a country might create memorable experiences in order to fully engage tourists and increase customer loyalty. The report stated eleven decision continuums to help tour planners develop memorable visitor experience. These factors include relevance, activities, tour guide, level of engagement, type of experience, senses engaged, social element, learning, schedule, authenticity, cues and memorabilia.

Memorable experiences are central in Pine and Gilmore's theories (1999). The transition to experiences represents a critical challenge for organizations, as experiences are not the same as services (Pine & Gilmore 1998) and requires an understanding of experiences, their characteristics and elements. However, the extant literature provides little explanation of the factors that characterize memorable experiences. In fact, without knowing what makes an experience memorable for customers, the efficiency of Pine and Gilmore's (1999) strategies is debatable and this leaves companies to be vulnerable to competitors that actually offer

something memorable to the customers. Therefore, it is necessary to understand what customers will perceive as memorable.

2.4 Evolution of memorable tourism experience

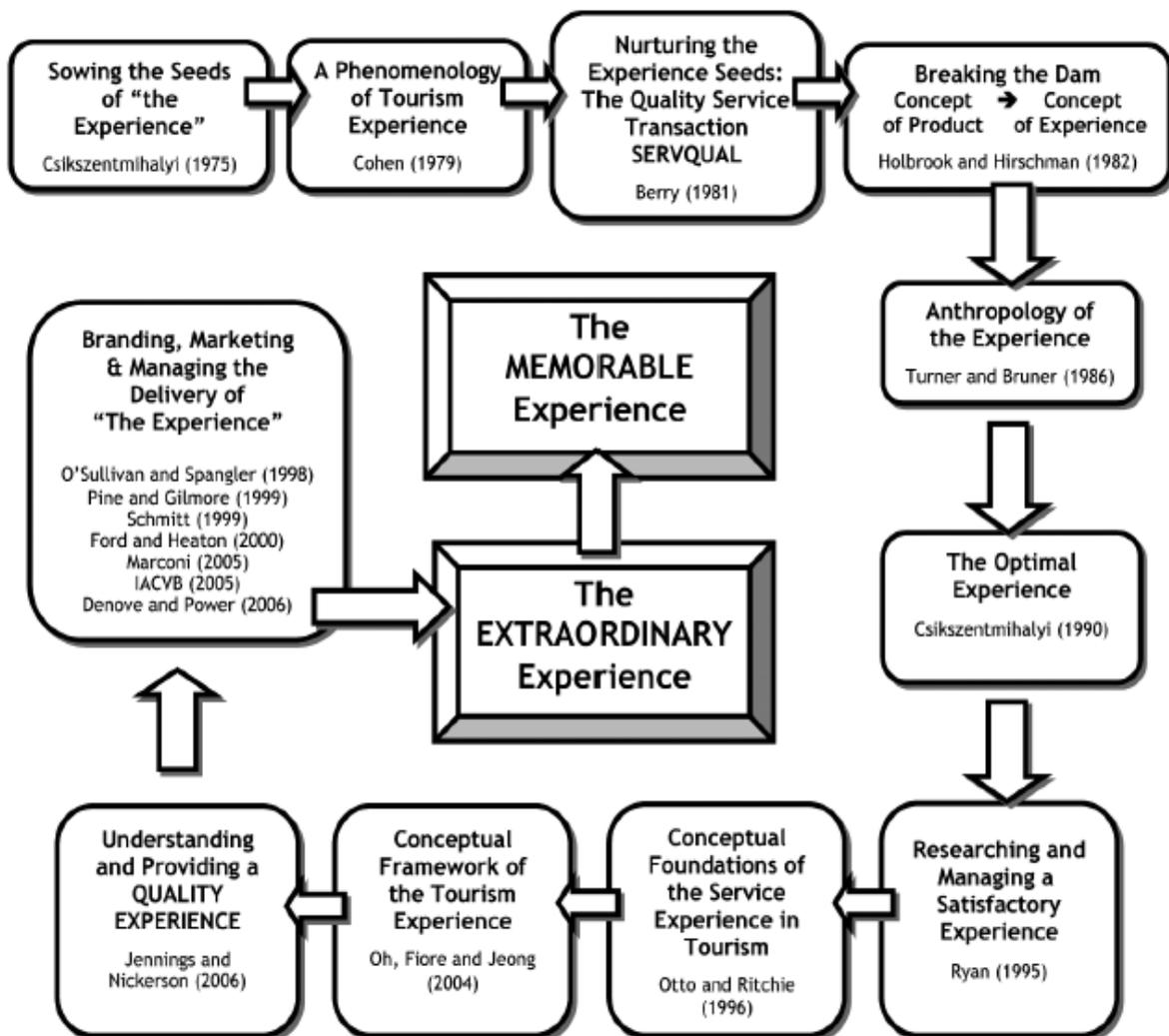
The concept of experience has always constituted an important notion in tourism research and practice. The tourist experience grew to be a key research issue in the 1960s (Uriely 2005), becoming popular in the social science literature by the 1970's (Quan & Wang 2004) with a vast body of literature that emerged (MacCannell 1973; Csikszentmihalyi 1975; Cohen 1979; Berry 1981; Holbrook & Hirschman 1982; Turner & Bruner 1986; Mannell & Iso-Ahola 1987), establishing the theoretical basis of the experience concept. The emergence and ongoing evolution of the tourism experience owes its origins to the pioneering works of Csikszentmihalyi (1975, 1990), Csikszentmihalyi and Larson (1984) and Abrahams (1986), and others who have formed part of a continually evolving process (Fig. 3) that has been documented by Ritchie and Hudson (2009).

In the 1990's, researchers began using experience-based research approaches in an effort to develop a better understanding of the tourist experience (Andereck as cited in Jennings & Nickerson 2006). These approaches involve reporting the thoughts and feelings in diaries or by responding to questions. The contributions of Ryan (1995), Aho (2001), Berry et al (2002), Jennings and Nickerson (2006), and the IACVB (2005) point that satisfaction and quality alone are no longer adequate descriptions of the experience that today's tourists seek. In recent years, the concept has received a new current of attention, as consumers are increasingly striving for experiences delivered by services (Gretzel et al 2006). At the beginning of the 21st century, experience has received a newly aroused interest, which is confirmed by Ritchie and Hudson (2009) who testify an on-going evolution in the field of experience. Based on the review of existing tourism experience literature, Ritchie and Hudson (2009) depict the evolution of this concept from the early seeds of the experience by Csikszentmihalyi (1975), SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al 1988) towards satisfactory experiences (Ryan 1995), quality experiences (Jennings & Nickerson 2006) and finally memorable experiences (Tung & Ritchie 2011).

By advancing the previously established notions, memorable experiences are regarded as the ultimate experience that consumers aim to obtain (Tung & Ritchie 2011; Pizam 2010). Destination managers and tourism businesses need to view the tourist experience as 'not just a trip' but one that incorporates a more 'memorable and quality based experience' (Gentile et al 2007; Verhoef et al 2009; Murray et al 2010). For tourist destinations to become more

competitive, the focus has to be on the design and implementation of memorable personal experiences that meet or exceed the expectations of customers (Smith & Wheeler 2002; Verma et al 2002). Researchers state that to effectively deliver MTE to target customers and derive desirable future consumer behavior, destination managers need to be concerned with the association of experience with memory (Mazursky 1989; Pine & Gilmore 1999; Kozak 2001; Wirtz et al 2003; Lehto et al 2004; Kim et al 2012). Effective destination managers must constantly seek to identify the means by which they can enhance the possibility that their destinations provide the elusive memorable experiences (Kim et al 2010). Kim et al (2012) provide supporting claim, saying that memorable experiences represent the new benchmark or standard, which destination managers and tourism businesses must seek to deliver.

Figure 3 Evolution of the memorable tourism experience (source Ritchie & Hudson 2009)



2.5 Memorable and subjective nature of tourism experiences

Carbone (2004) contends that creating value for the customer by providing memorable experience is becoming an increasingly employed strategy. Arnould and Price (1993) identified three aspects of customer experience; harmony with nature, communities and personal growth and renewal. Another attempt was made by Otto and Ritchie (1996) to measure the construct of service experience across the tourism industry (airlines, hotels, tours and attractions). The authors identified six dimensions of the tourist experience construct: the hedonic, novelty, stimulation, safety, comfort and interactive. The safety dimension was acquired from Maslow's hierarchy of needs, while comfort was documented as a fundamental benefit of the service encounter. Oh et al (2007) conducted a study aimed at developing an initial measurement scale of tourist's destination lodging experiences. The researchers operationalised and tested the four realms of experience using customers' lodging experience with rural bed and breakfasts. The study introduced some theoretical variables such as arousal, memories, overall quality and customer satisfaction. The study focused only on minor part in the service sector. Poulsson and Kale (2004) advocate that the five elements for a successful experience; personal relevance, novelty, surprise, learning, and engagement dimensions to be the constituents of successful experience through structured interviews with ten experience providers across a range of industries; gaming, rock climbing gyms, theme parks, museums, hot air balloon rides, etc. However, researchers seem to have neglected memory, which is a major factor, in developing conceptual models of tourism experiences (Kim 2009).

Researchers state that memory should be incorporated with tourism experience because experiences are valuable only when they are stored and remembered through the recollection phase (Clawson & Knetsch 1966) and while onsite tourism experiences are momentary and may provide transitory feelings, experiences stored in human memory provide reminiscence, which individuals can repeatedly reflect on (Kim 2009). Wirtz et al's (2003) study results indicate that what happens during a tour or at the destination does not predict the tourists wish to repeat or not repeat a tourist journey. What people remember is what predicts this desire. The author provides evidence that tourist experiences are functions of memory processes. Such memory processes should therefore be a focus in tourism studies of experiences. "We travel in order to be able to remember" (Ernst 2006, p.69). The recollection is the fifth major phase of the total recreation experience (Clawson and Knetsch 1966). After the recreation experience, one might recall to memory aspects of the total experience. Moreover, Ernst

(1999, p.37) states that ‘traveling is not finished with the return’. The retrospective interpretation is of great importance and has an impact on humans after the travel.

Memory is centrally important in tourism (Larsen 2007; Pine & Gilmore 1999). Much tourism involves memory. In a kind of way tourism is the appropriation of the memories of others (Rojek & Urry 1997). Noy (as cited in Morgan et al 2010) states that tourism practices are the resources for experience, which are accessible only in the form of representations through memory. Memories can be defined as filtering mechanisms which link the experience to the emotional and perceptual outcomes of a tourist event (Oh et al 2007). Hull (1990) found that pleasant memories of tourism experiences impact the consumer significantly, creating a positive mood and feeling of happiness that frequently plays significant roles in one’s life. Neumann (1992, p. 179) asserts that the memory of a holiday experience is a critical dimension of self as it ‘holds a certain attraction and intrinsic reward that materializes in the moments of storytelling’ enabling the individual to relive the experience long after the event has occurred.

It is a well established finding in memory studies that events that stand out, events that are distinctive, are among the events that people actually can recall (Rubin & Kozin as cited in Larsen 2007) and more evocative (Lowenthal 1999). Such events are called “flashbulb” memories, defined as extremely vivid, long lasting memories of significant events (Myers as cited in Larsen 2007) or episodic memories. The analogy of a flashbulb describes the way we can often remember where we were, what we were doing and who we were with, as if the whole scene had been illuminated by a giant flashbulb (Cardwell & Flanagan 2012). Hoch and Deighton (as cited in Kim 2009) offer several different reasons for emphasizing the importance of memory: a) the level of motivation and involvement are high when information is drawn from individuals’ past experiences; b) past experiences that are stored in consumers’ memory are valuable information sources because they are perceived as highly credible; and c) past experiences greatly influence future behavior.

Souvenirs materialize the tourism experience and enable the memory of the tourism experience to be accessed more easily. One of the reasons that tourists frequently enjoy buying souvenirs from destination places is to remember the enjoyment they had during the trip (Uysal et al 2012). According to Gordon (as cited in Timothy 2005) souvenirs can remind of people, places, and events. There are at least five types of souvenirs: pictorial, such

as images on postcards, piece of the rock, a natural item like coral, symbolic shorthand, a manufactured item such as a porcelain replica of a Chinese temple, markers, like inscribed t-shirts, and local products, which for instance can be peanuts from Gambia. Souvenir purchasing is an important element of tourism consumption, affecting the tourism experience of the visitors themselves. Products/souvenirs purchased on trips are among individuals' most valued possessions and serves as a tangible way of capturing or suspending in time an otherwise intangible experience.

On the other hand, Lowenthal (1999) also states that memories are altered by revision. Contrary to the stereotype of the remembered past as immutably fixed, recollections are malleable and flexible; what seems to have happened undergoes continual change. In addition, things initially ambiguous or inconsistent become coherent, clear and straightforward. According to Langer (as cited in Lowenthal 1999) memory is a great organizer of the consciousness and it transforms the experienced past into what we later think it should have been, eliminating undesired scenes and making favored ones suitable.

In tourism studies, researchers have found that tourists tend to make a biased choice based on their past experiences. They may first recall past experiences when they decide to travel and search information for selecting a destination area (Raju & Reilly 1979; Kerstetter & Cho 2004). Wirtz et al (2003) found that remembered experience is the best predictor of the desire when comparing the influences of predicted, online, and remembered experience on the desire to take a similar vacation in the future. Juaneda (1996) and Perdue (1985) state that past travel experience to specific destinations increase the intention to travel there again. In another study, previous visits also affect the familiarity with the destination, which in turn can result in accepting or rejecting a destination in a choice set (Crompton 1992; Woodside & Lyonski 1989). Westbrook and Newman (as cited in Kleynhans 2003) state that past experiences lead consumers to more moderate expectations and greater satisfaction. Once a destination has been visited, travelers are more likely to perceive the destination as safer to return to in the future (Sönmez & Graefe 1998), or in the words of Gitelson and Crompton (1984, p. 199), 'past experiences reduce the risk that an unsatisfactory experience is forthcoming'. Furthermore, tourists' past experiences with similar or different destinations may set the standard against which the present experience is judged (Cadotte et al 1987). Moreover, previous experience affects expectations for the next purchase, as it sets the criteria or standards to which the current or future experiences will be evaluated (Kleynhans 2003).

Research on the constructs underlying tourist experiences has shifted from the objective authenticity of the displays presented to tourists (Boorstin 1964; MacCannell 1973) to tourists' subjective interpretation of the meanings of those objects (Uriely 2005). For instance, tourists would experience more authenticity while engaging in extraordinary activities (such as tourism activities), in which they are more self expressed than in their routine lives. By mapping the ways in which people experience, conceptualize, perceive, and understand various aspects of, and phenomena in, the world around them, researchers conceptualized the tourist experience as a subjective experience (Neumann 1992). They identified that the tourists' subjective perceptions and behaviors are the core elements in their tourism experiences. Tourists do not passively accept the objects provided by the industry but subjectively construct their personal experiences by taking fragments from different products and reassembling them as they choose.

2.6 Defining memorable tourism experiences (MTE) and the components of Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTEs)

A memorable tourism experience (MTE) has been operationally defined as a tourism experience remembered and recalled after the event has occurred. It is selectively constructed from tourism experiences based on the individual's assessment of the experience (Kim et al 2012). A memorable tourism experience serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience (Ritchie & Ritchie 1998). Researchers have found that remembered tourism experiences are significantly different from the actual experiences that one has had. They found that people will reconstruct their tourism experiences by forgetting disappointment (Mitchell as cited in Kim 2009), integrating information presented after the experience (BraunLatour et al 2006), or reinterpreting their memory to be consistent with their original expectations (Klaaren et al 1994).

In supporting this incongruence between remembered experiences and onsite experiences, Wirtz et al (2003) report that remembered tourism experiences are exaggerated in intensifying both the negative and positive effects that tourists' experienced during the onsite stage. Thus, a remembered tourism experience is both better and worse than the actual experience was.

Snel (2011) provides supporting claim and states that memorable experiences are on a higher impact-level. They are more intense than the basic experience and are remembered for a longer time partly because personal engagement is higher, the experience is sufficiently challenging or the experience connects to the personal value system (Gool and Wijngaarden in Snel 2011). In another study, BraunLatour et al (2006) identify a contributing factor to memory distortion: post experience information (i.e. advertising and word-of-mouth) on tourist memory. The information that individuals receive after their travel experience is found to distort tourists' memory, with the level of distortion greater when the information was presented repeatedly. Therefore, the results of the present study are dependent upon sincere and honest response of subjects in this study. Although memory can be distorted from the use of marketing, competition, TV programs, etc., the study assumes that tourists will attempt to rely on their past holidaying experiences in Rovaniemi while responding to the questionnaire.

A review of the tourism and leisure literature indicates that there are a variety of experiential components that various researchers have identified to help understand tourism experiences (see Table 2).

Table 2 Components of the Tourist Experience (source Kim et al 2012)

Factors	Relevant Literature
Involvement	Bloch and Richins 1983; Blodgett and Granbois 1992; Celsi and Olson 1988; Park and Hastak 1994; Sanbomatsu and Fazio 1990; Swinyard 1993
Hedonism	Dunman and Mattila 2005; Lee, Dattilo and Howard 1994; Mannell and Kleiber 1997; Otto and Ritchie 1996
Happiness	Bolla, Dawson, and Harrington 1991
Pleasure	Farber and Hall 2007; Floyd 1997; Gunter 1987
Relaxation	Howard et al. 1993; Mannell, Zuzanek, and Larson 1988
Stimulation	Arnould and Price 1993; Bolla, Dawson, and Harrington 1991; Howard et al. 1993; Obenour et al. 2006; Samdahl 1991
Refreshment	Howard et al. 1993; Hull and Michael 1995; Samdahl 1991
Social interaction	Ap and Wong 2001; Arnould and Price 1993; Bolla, Dawson, and Harrington 1991; Howard et al. 1993; Obenour et al. 2006; Samdahl 1991
Spontaneity	Gunter 1987
Meaningfulness	Bruner 1991; Kang et al 2008; Noy 2004; Wilson and Harris 2006
Knowledge	Blackshaw 2003; Otto and Ritchie 1996
Challenge	Lee, Dattilo, and Howard 1994; Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987
Sense of separation	Gunter 1987
Timelessness	Blackshaw 2003; Gunter 1987
Adventure	Gunter 1987
Personal relevance	Bloch and Richins 1983; Blodgett and Granbois 1992; Celsi and Olson 1988; Park and Hastak 1994; Sanbomatsu and Fazio 1990; Swinyard 1993
Novelty	Dunman and Mattila 2005; Farber and Hall 2007
Escaping pressure	Hull and Michael 1995; Lee, Dattilo, and Howard 1994
Intellectual cultivation	Blackshaw 2003

An extensive literature review was conducted by Kim et al (2012) to identify contributory factors to MTE. As a result, 16 components of the tourist experience emerged from literature review while cross-referencing the literature that discusses the general characteristics of the determinants of memory and memorable experience (Table 3).

Table 3 Potential Constructs of Memorable Tourism Experience (Source: Kim et al 2012)

Factors	Relevant Literature
Hedonism	Dunman and Mattila 2005; Lee, Dattilo, and Howard 1994; Mannell and Kleiber 1997; Otto and Ritchie 1996
Relaxation	Howard et al. 1993; Mannell, Zuzanek, and Larson 1988
Stimulation	Arnould and Price 1993; Bolla, Dawson, and Harrington 1991; Howard et al. 1993; Obenour et al. 2006; Samdahl 1991
Refreshment	Howard et al. 1993; Hull and Michael 1995; Samdahl 1991
Adverse feelings	(Aziz 1995; Ryan 1991, 1993)
Social interaction	Ap and Wong 2001; Arnould and Price 1993; Bolla, Dawson, and Harrington 1991; Howard et al. 1993; Obenour et al. 2006; Samdahl 1991
Happiness	Bolla, Dawson, and Harrington 1991
Meaningfulness	Bruner 1991; Kang et al 2008; Noy 2004; Wilson and Harris 2006
Knowledge	Blackshaw 2003; Otto and Ritchie 1996
Challenge	Lee, Dattilo, and Howard 1994; Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987
Assessment of value	Latour and Peat 1979; Ryan 2002; Yoon and Uysal 2005
Assessment of service	Bartlett and Einert 1992; Leiss 1979; Cliff and Ryan 1994
Unexpected happenings	Aziz 1995; Christianson 1992; Ryan 1991, 1993; Talarico and Rubin 2003
Personal relevance	Bloch and Richins 1983; Blodgett and Granbois 1992; Celsi and Olson 1988; Park and Hastak 1994; Sanbomatsu and Fazio 1990; Swinyard 1993
Novelty	Dunman and Mattila 2005; Farber and Hall 2007
Participation	Berry, Carbone, and Haeckel 2002; Pine and Gilmore 1999

Although it might be challenging to guarantee that everybody has a memorable experience, it is, nevertheless, possible to design the product to include elements, which make the possibility more likely. By making sure that the criteria for a memorable experience are fulfilled, service is customized to an experience (Tarssanen 2007). Kim et al (2012) found that individuals who perceive a tourism experience as memorable would more often recall seven experiential components (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement and knowledge). Adverse feeling is my addition to the scale.

Table 4 Memorable Tourism Experience components (Source: Kim et al 2012)

Experiential Components
Hedonism (Dunman & Mattila 2005; Mannell & Kleiber 1997; Otto & Ritchie 1996)
Refreshment (Howard et al 1993; Hull & Michael 1995; Samdahl 1991)
Social interaction including local culture (Ap & Wong 2001; Arnould & Price 1993; Bolla et al 1991; Howard et al 1993; Obenour et al 2006; Samdahl 1991)
Meaningfulness (Bruner 1991; Kang et al 2008; Noy 2004; Wilson & Harris 2006)
Knowledge (Blackshaw 2003; Otto & Ritchie 1995)
Involvement (Bloch & Richins 1983; Blodgett & Granbois 1992; Celsi & Olson 1988; Park & Hastak 1994; Sanbomatsu & Fazio 1990; Swinyard 1993)
Novelty-familiarity (Dunman & Mattila 2005; Farber & Hall 2007)
Adverse feelings (Aziz 1995; Ryan 1991, 1993)

Below is the description of the eight experiential factors (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, knowledge and adverse feeling) that are proposed as the constructs that would affect visitor's behavioral intention (Table 4).

2.6.1 Hedonism

Hedonism stems from the Greek word 'Hedone', which means pleasure, enjoyment or delight. Connected with the term hedonism is the notion of 4S's: sea, sand, sun and sex (Swarbrooke & Horner 2007) and it is defined as the seeking of sensual pleasure (Trauer & Ryan 2007). 'Hedonism is the view that pleasure (which includes avoidance of pain) is the only good in life' (O'Shaughnessy 2007, p.526). According to Woodside (2008) consumer researchers have identified tourism services as hedonic purchases. The hedonic consumption paradigm suggests that in many situations consumers seek 'fun, amusement, fantasy, arousal, sensory stimulation and enjoyment' (Holbrook & Hirschman 1982). The authors further argue that the level of hedonic responses varies across product categories. For example, compared to the consumption of consumer durables (e.g. automobiles), the consumption of aesthetic products (e.g. performing arts) is more likely to elicit emotional responses. Hedonism is an integral part of leisure experiences (Mannell & Kleiber 1997; Otto & Ritchie 1996) and a crucial factor in determining tourists' satisfaction as well as their future behavior (Dunman & Mattila 2005; Howard et al 1993; Hull & Michael 1995; Samdahl 1991). Moreover, Otto and Ritchie (1996) confirm hedonic factors as a construct in the tourism experience. Hedonism factors, in the context of this study refer to thrill, enjoyment, excitement and participation in activities (Kim et al 2012).

Hypothesis 1: Past tourism experiences associated with the hedonism factor and behavioral intention are positively associated

2.6.2 Refreshment

Kim (2009) states that refreshment, the feeling of being refreshed, affects one's memories of travel. It concentrates on the state of mind and the depth of experiential engagement (Ellis as cited in Ooi 2003). These experiences are not only engaging but are also emotionally intense. People may feel deep in concentration or lose their sense of time (Ooi 2003).

Individuals highly value refreshment (in the context of this study, liberating, sense of freedom, refreshing and revitalizing experiences) as psychological benefits from their travel experiences. To do tourism means that everyday structures such as strict school and work time regimes might be exchanged for structures and orderings that are potentially experienced as liberating and empowering, including journeys, tours and events (Franklin as cited in Coles & Hall 2008). The act of travelling has been defined as moving away from a familiar environment and travelling towards an unknown destination that creates a sense of vulnerability, but at the same time can be extremely liberating (Croce & Perri 2010). Nowhere is the importance of the individual subjective sense of freedom during a tourist experience more obvious (Uriley 2005). According to Bowen & Clarke (2009) individual's perception of time as 'free' is important to a person's tourist experience. It is said to lead tourists to a more stable mood by accumulation of gratifying experiences and thus, abolishing psychological stresses that one faces with in life (Uysal et al 2012). Jafari (as cited in Bowen & Clarke 2009) conceptualized a model of the tourist experience using a visual metaphor -a springboard - the player (the tourist) sinks into the board, only to emerge to the surface, to rise above it, to suspend in the air, to maneuver, and to return to the base. Life breeds the need or desire to leave the springboard (the ordinary world) behind; departure gives a sense of freedom; the tourist does tourism and leaves the ordinary time and space behind; and then returns to the ordinary mainstream. Tourism experiences differ from everyday life: different places are experienced, different people(s) are gazed upon, and tourists get to know different ways of doing things.

Hypothesis 2: Past tourism experiences associated with the refreshment factor and behavioral intention are positively associated

2.6.3 Social interaction (local culture)

Tourism experiences are situated in the gap between locals and tourists and attention is paid to the relationship between them. Tourism experiences bring people into contact with other people (Ooi 2003). The experiences of tourists are constantly mediated through social interactions and social relationship (Selstad 2007). Social interaction is a central component of leisure activity (Auld & Case 1997). Murray et al (2010) state that the heart of the tourist experience lies in the interaction of visitors with the local people, highlighting that the tourism industry incorporates the attitudes, competencies, enterprise, innovation, hospitality and friendliness of the people which becomes an inherent component of the tourism product offering. Travelers who interact with local culture construct a unique and memorable holiday experience as local culture was found to be a component of MTE (Kim 2009). Kim et al (2010) found that respondents who experienced local culture during their travel experiences were found to have high levels of recollection of their past experiences and adds to the existing knowledge. The author provides empirical evidence for the local culture contributing to memorable experience. In another study, Canadian Tourism Commission (2004) reports that meeting local people, whether briefly or to spend time together, was an important element of the tour package. Local culture in the context of this study refers to meeting/interaction with local people.

Hypothesis 3: Past tourism experiences associated with the local culture factor and behavioral intention are positively associated

2.6.4 Involvement

Involvement of the tourist is the main element at the site and is fundamental to the existence of the site (Woodside 2008). Kim (2010) found that one's level of involvement with travel experiences increased one's ability to recollect past experiences and retrieve them vividly. Supported by previous researchers who identified involvement as a reinforcement of affective feelings (Bloch & Richins 1983; Blodgett & Granbois 1992; Swinyard 1993), one's involvement with travel experiences was found to significantly increase the memories of past experiences. It was established that the tourists' involvement with travel experiences was the most influential factor for one's memory. The more individuals are involved with a vacation in terms of the place they have longed to visit and activities that they have wanted to participate in, the better they can recollect and retrieve past travel experiences. Highly involved consumers are said to react more strongly to both good and bad purchasing experiences, in that they feel both sides of the spectrum more intensely (Kim 2009).

Hypothesis 4: Past tourism experiences associated with the involvement factor and behavioral intention are positively associated

2.6.5 Meaningfulness

Researchers emphasizing the extraordinary characteristics of tourism experiences suggest that individuals pursue different psychological needs and wants that are not satisfied in their daily lives such as meaningfulness. While discussing distinctive characteristics of travel experiences from mundane lives, researchers have emphasized psychological factors that individuals can experience when traveling such as broadening one's thinking about their lives and societies (MacCannell 1973). When abroad, a tourist is a guest and a minority in terms of both language and culture: the local habits, conditions and practices are exceptional and strange, not to mention the language (Tarssanen 2007). This transfer to a second culture and participation in tourism activities enable tourists to gain experiences that are regarded as beneficial to them personally (Ooi 2003). Tourists engaging in tourism activities and consuming local products may find a way to learn different perspectives on matters in life. Some benefits of participating in tourism activities include improving one's psychological mood and well-being, allowing tourists to assert their self-identity and learning about other places and cultures (Kim et al 2012), also known as meaningfulness. In other words,

participation in tourism activities may improve one's subjective well-being through meeting with differences in the tourist destination and to learn more about oneself that lead to positive affect (Uysal et al 2012).

Meaningfulness is one of the ways in which individuals find meaning through tourism experiences (Bruner 1991; Noy 2004; Kang et al 2008; Wilson & Harris 2006). It can lead to the tourist's personal development and change: after returning home, everyday life may be viewed in a totally new way; the experienced and learned during the trip can be absorbed as part of one's own everyday life (Tarssanen 2007). In the context of this study, meaningfulness refers to a sense of great value or significance (Kim et al 2012) or broadening one's thinking of life and society (Uriley 2005). In tourism context, when meaningfulness to customers (tourists) is enhanced, experience will become more memorable (Tsiotsou & Goldsmith 2012).

According to Clawson and Knetsch (1966) one's cognitive function significantly affects the subjective tourism experience, since cognitive evaluation of tourism programs and destination areas as well as other cognitive feelings evoked during the tourism experience are experiential components of the tourism experience. The authors' further state that different cognitive factors that individuals experience during the tourism experience are possibly better retained in memory. Cognitive evaluations enhance the recollection of a memory since the process of retrieval involves high levels of cognitive processes. Kim (2009) states that as MTE are not distinct from tourists' subjective experiences, these cognitive feelings would form a portion of the contents of MTE.

Hypothesis 5: Past tourism experiences associated with the meaningfulness factor and behavioral intention are positively associated

2.6.6 Knowledge

Researchers have suggested that Urry's concept of tourism has been moved from what was termed 'the tourist gaze' (Urry 1990) to a more experiential form of tourism; a 'performance turn', implying that tourists are not just being 'there' but are participating, learning, and experiencing the 'there' they visit (Ek et al 2008). The WTO reports (as cited in Canadian Tourism Commission (2004), a shift from active holidays to holidays as an experience. The point is to achieve a complete participative experience that provides new knowledge. Individuals wish to participate in many different activities, especially those activities in which they explore their talents and capabilities (Otto & Ritchie 1996).

The significance of knowledge is reflected in Moscardo's (2009) definition of experience. The author recognizes recurring themes in the definition of experience in everyday terms as well as tourists' experience. These themes include the importance of experience as being subjective, based on sensations, involving participation in activities, and resulting in learning or knowledge acquisition. In another study, Aho (2001) states that visit may end up in new practices that a visitor has learnt on his trip. Referring to Aho's model (2001) the knowledge construct relates to informative experiences, defined as getting informed, i.e. some new intellectual impression offered to the subject by the experiences that result in enrichment of knowledge of tourist. According to Canadian Tourism Commission (2004) travelers want more than merely observing things and listening to lectures, they want to get actively involved. Other examples include the following:

- The Canadian Travel Attitudes and Motivation Study (TAMS) revealed that, overall, 7.2 %, (121 million travelers) in North America sought out to participate in a hands-on learning experience while on vacation during the past two years.
- IICM (2003) profiled a new, high-end travel experience, swimming with sharks at Orlando's Sea World. Participants learn facts about sharks and visit the food preparation room, touch a shark and dive, in a steel cage with Plexiglas window, into a shark encounter pool.
- Cruise Line International Association's (2003) identified how cruise ships are expanding their on-board learning activities. 'They're [guests] having fun and learning at the same

time and choosing to take advantage of the many classes, workshops, and programs that are available onboard daily’.

Hypothesis 6: Past tourism experiences associated with the knowledge factor and behavioral intention are positively associated

2.6.7 Novelty

Novelty is defined as a trip with unfamiliar experience. Tourism literature states that novelty is an important factor related to tourist satisfaction (Bello and Etzel 1985) and plays an important role in tourists’ decision making process (Petrik & Backman 2002). According to Cohen (as cited in George & George 2004) modern tourist is interested in things, sights, customs and cultures different from his own, simply because they are just different. A new value has gradually evolved: the appreciation of the experience of strangeness and novelty. Integrating this spirit in the context of tourism, novelty seeking may be defined as the difference in the degree and mode of tourist experience sought by the visitor to a destination as compared with his previous experience. According to Hirschman (1980) the basic notion underlying the construct of novelty seeking appears to be that, through some internal drive or motivating force the individual is activated to seek out novel information. It involves the willingness to take physical, psychological and social risks for the sake of varied, novel and complex sensations.

Novelty seeking is operationalised in terms of the four indicators - once-in-a- lifetime experience, unique, different from previous experience and experienced something new. Novelty seeking has been found to be particularly important in the tourism context. Seeking novelties has been discussed as an important aspect of the subjective tourism experiential factor and a popular motivation for an individual’s travel (Dunman & Mattila 2005). Pearce (as cited in Woodside 2008) argues that more experience a tourist has, the greater is his demand concerning destinations; therefore, it can be anticipated that this experience leads consumers (tourists) to seek increased novelty. Also, novelty seeking is highlighted as an antecedent of revisit intention (Jang & Feng 2007). Kim (2009) found that individuals desire to satisfy the need of locating novelties within destination areas previously visited by utilizing different types of service facilities and/or service companies, such as transportation and accommodation services. First, although a destination area and tourism activities are the main

components of an individual's tourism experience, a tourism experience actually refers to a series of experiences that occur during an individual's travel. Therefore, individuals may have different experiences while being engaged with different aspects of their travel, including accommodations, infrastructure and modes of transportation. As a result, individuals who have a memorable tourism experience enjoy the destination and activities so much that they wish to have the experience in detail by changing service facilities.

Hypothesis 7: Past tourism experiences associated with the novelty factor and behavioral intention are positively associated

2.6.8 Adverse affective feelings

Tourists often feel negative emotions during their tourism experience not only because of its nature or because of the characteristics of leisure and tourism activities, usually the result of an unfavorable service experience, but also because of accidents or illness (Aziz 1995; Ryan 1991, 1993) that subsequently trigger customer complaint behavior (Tronvoll 2011). While participating in some types of outdoor activities, such as rafting and bungee jumping, individuals could have a feeling of fear or nervousness. These kinds of negative feelings, however, are transitory. More severe adverse feelings are sometimes evoked by the occurrence of an accident or a service related experience (Kim 2009).

Since the main tourism products are service related and have an inconsistent nature tied with inevitability of human error, for example, planes may be late, staff may be rude or inattentive, and the maintenance of the tangibles surrounding, the service may not always be perfect. It is always possible for tourists to develop adverse feelings (e.g. anger and frustration) during their tourism experiences (Aziz 1995; Ryan 1991, 1993). Customers experience dissatisfaction because the service was not delivered as originally planned or expected. In addition, tourists who feel bad for not having a variety of food items to choose from or familiar food and beverages produce negative feelings. Tourism programs and services not providing enough or enough variety and tourists who are feeling bad because they get bored and felt lonely on the trip as well as not getting the chance to learn as much as they would have liked are also said to develop negative feelings (Uysal et al 2012). Negative emotions are also evoked because of unexpected event that can happen at any time during one's tourism experience such as an accident, illness, terrible weather, loss of valuables etc. Consequences of these unanticipated events, besides the feeling of surprise, lead to various kinds of negative feelings (e.g. anger, frustration etc.) (Kim 2009). According to Christianson (as cited in Kim 2009) people remember these sorts of negative emotional events better than ordinary events that occurred equally long ago.

Tung and Ritchie (2011) in their study found that the negative words elicited from the responses covered a range of emotions including fear, anger, and frustration. Consumers may feel the three different types of negative emotions when they are dissatisfied. The specific feelings are based on their attributions about who is to blame for the problem (Godwin et al as cited in Ennew & Schoefer 2003). Those who blame another party, typically the company or

employee, generally feel anger, disgust, or contempt. These negative emotions are the ones most likely to lead to complaining (Folkes et al as cited in Ennew & Schoefer 2003). They may also lead to negative word-of-mouth while many may simply decide not to purchase again (Westbrook as cited in Sviri et al 2009).

In another study, Tronvoll (2011) found that negative emotions can be clustered into certain categories that form specific patterns. The results confirmed the validity of 20 negative emotions into the latent categories of shame, sadness, fear, anger, and frustration. Anger and frustration, which were the two most frequently experienced categories of negative emotions, are typical of 'other-attributed'. These emotions are provoked by the actions of others (providers and/or other customers) that prevent the fulfillment of customers' needs. The author further states that negative emotion of frustration is the best predictor for complaint behavior towards the service provider. In contrast, guilt and shame, which were least frequently experienced negative emotions in their study, are self-attributed emotions. These emotions are caused by customers' actions that embarrass them or cause inconvenience to the service provider. For example, Tomaselli (2007) states that tourists to Namibia left angry and frustrated, as Gods induced image of the Bushmen was nowhere to be found. Little (2004, p.62) notes the words of one frustrated tourists that echoed others that he had encountered, 'I did not pay to see Indians like these' or the case of inauthentic Maasai village experience where the whole aim of the exercise was to take money unsuspectingly that quickly frustrated tourists (Bain et al 2010). In another study, Gillespie and Gillespie (2006) notes the discussion between two tourists who felt embarrassed after having taken photographs of Ladhakis, India that caused discomfort to the Ladhakis and was described as rude, disrespectful and took themselves as animals being photographed in a zoo.

Anger and frustration among tourists when participating in tourism activities are also fueled by other reasons besides unfavorable service experience and accidents. Tourists may develop negative feelings when tensions between visitors and residents arise, for example, hostile attitude of residents towards visitors when a destination is treated as a mere 'playground' for privileged outsiders who act despairingly towards the people and environments they visit (Murphy 2004). Another reason is harassment. For example, Kingsbury (2005) describes the initial communication between hosts and guests in Jamaica as uneasy and uncomfortable as guests are greeted by pimps, prostitutes, beach vendors, drug dealers and other sources of harassment. This negative behavior is the leading cause for dissatisfaction and complaints

(Kozak 2007). The colonial past of the tourist destination may also generate tensions between visitors and residents. Gmelch (2003) in his book *Behind the Smile: The Working Lives of Caribbean Tourism* states that tourists did not feel welcomed in the suburbs of Bridgetown, Barbados as tourism had seriously damaged the landscape of the area as well as the tourists presence had reminded locals of their colonial past of slavery and fueled anger, hatred and the feeling of serving the Whites. In another study, Novelli (2005) found that while some tourists to dark tourism sites sought thrill or excitement, many showed a sense of seriousness, sad and anger, seeing the world not as amusement parks but as multifaceted place in which good can be created as well as evil.

Hypothesis 8: Past tourism experiences associated with the adverse feeling factor and behavioral intention are positively associated

2.7 Summary

Pine and Gilmore (1999) have convincingly argued that the world's economy has changed drastically in recent years from service-based to experience-based. The experience economy brings about the potential for business opportunities, but in order for surviving in this new economy, businesses must be able to provide their customers with memorable experiences (Poulsson & Kale 2004). Memorable experiences are central in Pine and Gilmore's theories (1999). However, the extant literature provides little explanation of the factors that characterize memorable tourism experiences. It could be argued that there has been little focus on the mental processes pertaining to the individual tourist. When tourists are asked about their holidays, they often refer to experiences, and these experiences are memories that are created in a constructive or reconstructive process within the individual. In fact, without knowing what makes an experience memorable for customers, the efficiency of their strategies is debatable. Therefore, it is necessary to understand what customers will perceive as memorable.

Researchers have put an effort to develop a reliable and valid instrument that examines the outcomes of experiences and how to measure those (Oh et al 2007; Otto & Ritchie 1996), however, they seem to have neglected memory, which is a major factor in developing conceptual models of tourism experiences (Kim 2009). In reference to Clawson and Knetsch (1966), leisure experiences can be classified into five stages (i.e. anticipation, travel to, onsite, travel back, and recollection) and experiences that obtained involving the first four stages are valuable only when they are stored and remembered through the recollection phase. Therefore, a tourism experience conceptual model must incorporate human memory.

Kim et al (2012) developed an instrument to tap on the construct of memorable tourism experiences, the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTEs). However, considering that (1) different experiential factors may influence the memory of past tourism experiences according to the population and the leisure activities and (2) that negative experience components can just as strongly affect one's memorability, it is imperative that the theoretical underpinnings of the MTEs components and its influence on behavioral intention need to be further investigated. The theoretical framework for the present study is adapted from Kim et al's (2012) study titled - Development of a Scale to Measure Memorable Tourism Experiences.

The present study extends the conceptualization of MTE by including negative experiential factors into the model. Thus, the study has eight experiential factors (seven based on Kim et al's sources) and adverse feeling is my addition to the model, proposed as the constructs of the tourism experience that are highly likely to would affect the memorable nature of travel experiences. The main constructs in the model includes hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, knowledge and adverse feelings as predictor variables (independent variables) and visitor's behavioral intention as the criterion variable (dependent variable). The description of the MTE scale items are shown in Table 5.

Figure 4 Theoretical Framework and hypotheses of the study

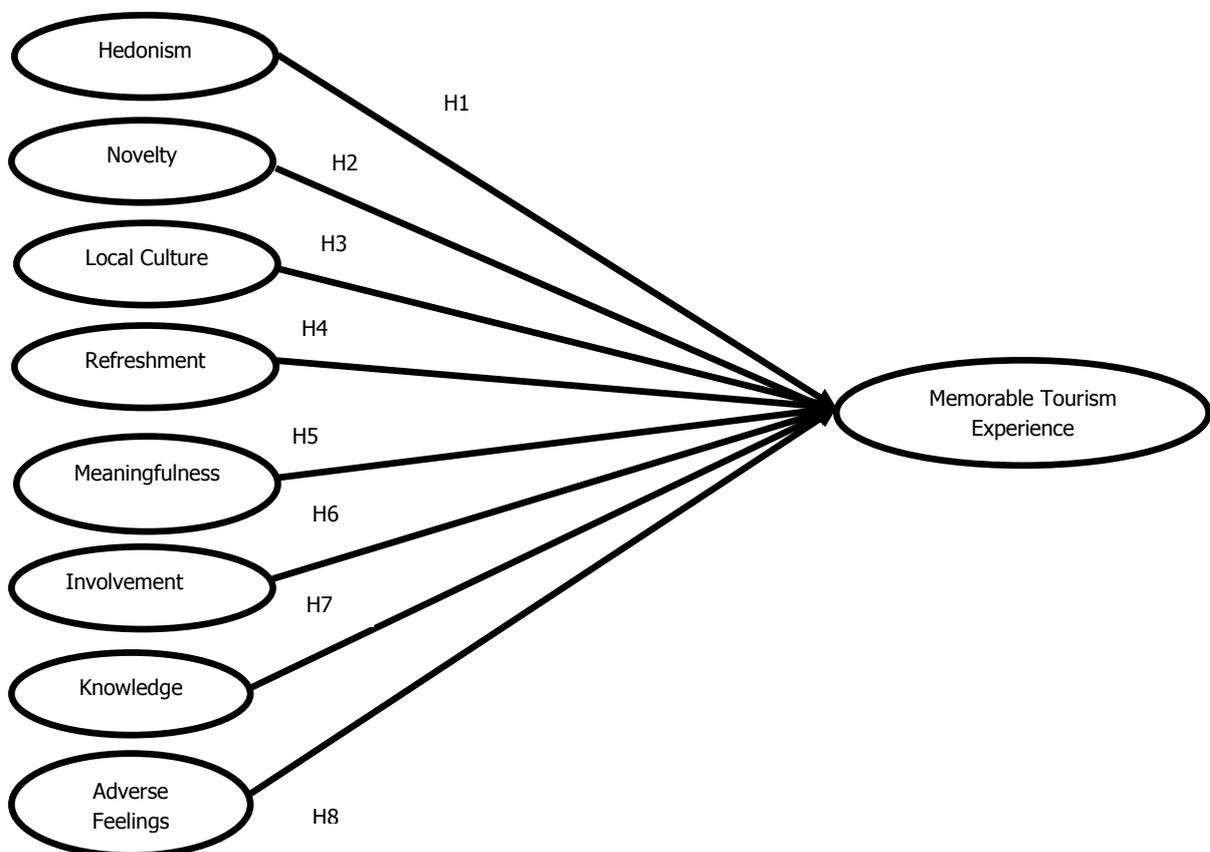


Table 5 MTE scale items (1 denotes strongly disagree, 7 denotes strongly agree)

MTE scale items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.Hedonism X ₁ Thrilled about having a new experience X ₂ Indulged in the activities X ₃ Really enjoyed this tourism experience X ₄ Exciting							
2.Novelty X ₅ Once-in-a-lifetime experience X ₆ Unique X ₇ Different from previous experiences X ₈ Experienced something new							
3.Local Culture X ₉ Good impressions about the local culture X ₁₀ Closely experienced the local culture X ₁₁ Local people in a destination were friendly							
4.Refreshment X ₁₂ Liberating X ₁₃ Enjoyed sense of freedom X ₁₄ Refreshing X ₁₅ Revitalizing							
5. Meaningfulness X ₁₆ I did something meaningful X ₁₇ I did something important X ₁₈ Learned about myself							
6. Involvement X ₁₉ I visited a place where I really wanted to go X ₂₀ I enjoyed activities which I really wanted to do X ₂₁ I was interested in the main activities of this tourism experience							
7. Knowledge X ₂₂ Explanatory X ₂₃ Knowledge X ₂₄ New culture							
8. Adverse Feelings X ₂₅ Anger X ₂₆ Frustration X ₂₇ Embarrassed							

3 Methodology

3.1 Research design

Research designs are plans and procedures for research that span the decision from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell 2009). The research design stage is at the core of the research activity and provides a framework to follow throughout the entire research process (Chisnall 2001). The main purpose of the research design is to avoid gathering irrelevant information that has no fundamental pertinence to the research inquiry. Research design and research methodology differ in that the methodology has to do with principles and designs are concerned with more concrete operational aspects of a study. The selection of a research design is based on the nature of the research problem or issue being addressed, the researchers' personal experiences and the audience of the study (Creswell 2009). According to Creswell (2009) three types of designs are advanced: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods.

In this study, quantitative research method was a justified choice as it suited in answering this thesis's research question(s). These were related to quantifying the responses of the sampled study group and to characterize their choice behavior. The study sought to analyze the gathered data by means of basic statistics (means, percentages and frequencies) and advanced statistics (bivariate and multivariate statistical techniques such as multiple regression (Strauss & Corbin 1990) using statistical analyzing programmes (Crowther & Lancaster 2009) in deciphering the relative importance of a number of different causes within the context of the research study (Bryman 2004). Quantitative research is a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables (Creswell 2009). Quantitative research can determine how X affect Y by quantifying the relationships between certain variables (Altinay & Paraskevas 2008). Quantitative research produces numerical data and findings that can be easily illustrated on a range of graphs, models and diagrams (Strauss & Corbin 1990). A quantitative approach deduces that prior knowledge exists and background information is readily available. To this end, hypothesis testing is indicative of quantitative research.

Quantitative research may be divided into two general categories: experimental and non-experimental. The present study used non-experimental quantitative research design. A non-experimental research is a research in which an independent variable is not manipulated

(McBurney & White 2006). The reason for using non-experimental research design is because variables in the study cannot be manipulated because they are attribute variables, for example, personal characteristic. Non-experimental quantitative study can be further classified according to the time frame in which data were collected, which includes cross-sectional, prospective and retrospective (Belli 2008).

A cross-sectional non-experimental design using a web-based survey questionnaire was employed in this study. Cross-sectional surveys are used to gather information on a population at a single point in time (Babbie 1973) and are a popular method of collecting data for non-experimental designs (Belli 2008). The survey research was chosen (1) as it can study the relationship between variables, (2) large amounts of data can be collected at a reasonably low cost and effort, (3) anonymity can also easily be ensured to respondents, which can lead to more frank answers and (4) the standardized questions makes it easy to establish comparability between respondents (Muijs 2004) provided that that all the respondents have understood the questions in the same (correct) way. A key feature of survey is that they depend on the respondent's own account of their behavior, attitudes or intentions. Such shared subjective statements are stable unless situation under which questions are asked is biased (Creswell 2009).

There are many modes in which to administer surveys such as telephone, face-to-face, mail and electronically (Domegan & Fleming 2007). A web-based survey was suitable as quantified information was required concerning a specific population (tourists) and the account of their behavior and or attitude was acceptable as a source of information. The reasons for using web-based survey was because (1) it was easy and allowed quick delivery, (2) cheaper, (3) targeted towards identified recipients, (4) convenient for respondents, (5) interview bias is eliminated and (6) the gathered data can be captured and analyzed automatically (Wiid & Diggins 2008).

3.1.1 Study Population

In research methodology, the entire group of study objects is called the population. These may be people, geographic areas, organizations, products, services and so on. In other words, the population for a study is that group (usually of people) about whom we want to draw conclusion (Krishnaswamy et al 2009). This study aims to investigate the individual relationship between the eight dimensions of the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTEs) (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, knowledge and adverse feelings) and visitor's behavioral intention based on tourists past tourism experiences in Rovaniemi. Therefore, the population of the study is tourists who have visited Rovaniemi. Specifically in this study, a tourist is defined as a traveler who has visited Rovaniemi.

3.1.2 Sampling Frame

Sampling refers to the selection of targeted respondents from an overall population of interest to be investigated (Salant & Dillman 1994). A sampling frame is the list or quasi list of elements from which a probability sample is selected (Babbie 2012). The sampling frame for this study includes those tourists who visited Rovaniemi and had visited the facebook pages of travel agencies offering trips to Rovaniemi and the Rovaniemi Tourist Information Center. The sampling frame was obtained by contacting Rovaniemi Tourist Information Center and local and foreign travel agencies offering trips to Rovaniemi (40).

The study used non-probability sampling and convenience sampling technique. The respondents were not randomly selected but on the basis of willingness to respond. It is an easier, less expensive, more timely technique than the probability sampling techniques. Although convenience sampling offers no guarantees of a representative and unbiased sample, the study used two strategies to help correct most of the serious problems associated with convenience sampling. The study selected a sample that consists entirely of tourists who have visited Rovaniemi. The study has tried to ensure that the samples are reasonably representative and not strongly biased by selecting a broad cross-section of tourists (males and females, different age etc.). The second strategy is simply to provide a clear description of how the sample was obtained and who the participants are. Although the samples may not be perfectly representative of the larger population and each may have some biases, readers get

to know what the sample looks like and can make their own judgements about representativeness (Gravetter & Forzano 2011). Thus in this case, it can be stated that a sample of 100 tourists who have visited Rovaniemi completed the questionnaire, 58 females and 42 males, all between the age of 18 and 40 above.

3.1.3 Sample Size

The study employs Exploratory Factor Analysis and Multiple Regression Analysis to test the proposed structural model and hypotheses. According to Costello and Osborne (2005) it is crucial to use sound methodology when conducting studies involving EFA or PCA to minimize error rates and maximize the generalizability to the population of interest. Larger samples are better than smaller samples because larger samples tend to minimize the probability of errors, maximize the accuracy of population estimates and increase the generalizability of the results. If one has too small a sample, errors of inference can easily occur, particularly with techniques such as EFA or PCA. In multiple regression texts some authors (Pedhazur 1997, p. 207) suggest subject to variable ratios of 15:1 or 30:1 when generalization is critical. Comfrey and Lee (1992, p. 217) suggest that “the adequacy of sample size might be evaluated very roughly on the following scale: 50 – very poor; 100 – poor; 200 – fair; 300 – good; 500 – very good; 1000 or more – excellent”. Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) review several studies that conclude that absolute minimum sample sizes, rather than subject to item ratios, are more relevant. These studies range in their recommendations from an N of 50 (Barrett & Kline 1981) to 400 (Aleamoni 1976).

While the mathematics and procedures differ in the details, the essence and the pitfalls are the same. Both EFA/PCA and multiple regression experience shrinkage, the over-fitting of the estimates to the data (Bobko & Schemmer 1984), both suffer from lack of generalizability and inflated error rates when sample size is too small. Therefore, in order to meet the sample size of 500-1000 for EFA and multiple regression analysis (Comfrey & Lee 1992), the web-based survey was shared among more than 10,000 facebook users.

3.1.4 Data Collection

Primary data is defined as data that has been generated by an individual or organization for the specific problem at hand (Chisnall 2001). It is first hand information originated by the researcher. It entails the gathering and assembly of the specific information to the area of research in relation to the research objectives (Malhotra & Birks 1999). The primary data was collected using a web-based self-administered questionnaire to get an up-to-date status on the findings of Kim et al's (2012) study. The study was conducted during September 2012. The questionnaire was in English. Facebook was used to approach the potential respondents. The web-based survey information and questionnaire link was shared by 4 travel agencies (3 local and 1 foreign) and Rovaniemi Tourist Information Center among their facebook users requesting them to participate in the study.

In a questionnaire, a pre-determined, structured set of questions are used to obtain information from a sample of respondents (Altinay & Paraskevas 2008). The study operationalised Kim et al's (2012) MTE scale to measure visitor's behavioral intention. The questionnaire consisted of 3 socio-demographic variables, 7 questions about trip characteristics, 27 items that gauge the 8 components of the MTE scale: hedonism, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, knowledge, involvement, novelty and adverse feeling on a 7 point Likert-type scale and 1 open-ended question to describe their trip experiences in Rovaniemi in own words. Referring to Oliver (2008), in this kind of study the end result may not provide very much material on which to write-a full length thesis, difficult to write a particularly long commentary on a few statistics and that the data may be condensed into a very brief summary of statistics, thus the questionnaire includes open-ended question(s) which require written commentaries rather exclusively 'closed' questions. While closed-ended questions have a clear and apparent focus and call for an explicit answer, the addition of open-ended questions allow the respondent to elaborate upon responses (Salkind 2006).

The scale length is in line with recommended standards. Mowen and Voss (as cited in Hosany & Gilbert 2010) advocate that if a scale has dimensions, each dimension should have from three to five items. Likert scale is described as popular, easy to conduct and administer (Altinay & Paraskevas 2008). Likert scale measures the intensity of the feeling about an area in question (Bryman 2008), categories are arranged in accordance with scale position and respondents are expected to select the category that best describes their feeling and variable

being measured (Malhotra & Birks 2000). Likert scale assesses the level of agreement for each item, 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. The advantage of using Likert scale is that it enables attitudinal responses to be summated and facilitates the researcher to examine trends in the responses to particular responses (Bryman 2008). In testing an explicative model of behavioral intention (criterion variable or dependent variable), predictors (also referred to as independent variable) included in the model are hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, knowledge and adverse feeling.

3.2 Sampling, measurement and non-response errors in online questionnaire

Sampling, measurement and non-response errors are said to occur when an online questionnaire is poorly designed. Individuals will answer questions incorrectly, abandon questionnaires and may ultimately refuse to participate in future surveys; thus the benefit of online questionnaire delivery may not be fully realized. To prevent error of this kind, and their consequences, the study follows comprehensive guidelines for the design of online questionnaires. It includes (1) defining the purpose of the questionnaire and writing it clearly, (2) listing the questions in a clear and logical order, (3) designing the questionnaire with a given audience or response group in mind, (4) piloting and re-piloting of the questionnaire, (5) administering the questionnaire, (6) additional links to provide information about the study and (7) concluding by thanking the respondent for their time and effort. Other guidelines are related to layout, formatting and question types and phrasing (Reynolds et al 2006).

Further, it is important to be aware of sources of measurement error in self-completion surveys questionnaires. Biemer (1991) identified four primary sources of measurement error: (1) questionnaire, (2) data collection method, (3) interviewer and (4) respondent. In order to minimize the questionnaire effect, the focus was on pilot testing the questionnaire. Pilot surveys are small-scale 'trial runs' of a larger survey. It is always advisable to carry out one or more pilot surveys before embarking on the main data collection exercise. The pilot can be used to test all aspects of the survey, not just question wording (Veal 2006). In order for the pilot to be effective, it should not confine to ones supervisor and few fellow friends.

Prior to dissemination, the web-based survey was verified by academicians (4) and piloted to ensure that the instrument measured the concepts intended. A small number of people who are broadly representative of the type of respondents that will be in the study, exchange students of Tourism Research, Faculty of Social Sciences at the University of Lapland were selected to conduct the pilot study. The respondents for the pilot-testing were contacted through the university email requesting them to participate in the study. The number of respondents contacted were 20. Pre-testing was conducted during August 2012. Samples used in the pilot study were omitted from the main study. Minor amendments were made to the flow and phrasing of the questions. The pilot study confirmed the relevance and clarity of the questions to ensure the findings were consistent and relevant.

Self-completion surveys may suffer from systematic bias if the target population consists of individuals with little or no education, or individuals who have difficulty reading or writing. In this study, the survey is conducted among the target population that has reasonably high education levels and substantial computer and Internet access. The web-based questionnaire was designed with the less-knowledgeable, low-end computer user in mind, providing instructions to show users how to take each necessary step. In self-administered surveys there is no interviewer effects and involve less of a risk of social desirability bias as respondents answer more truthfully (Bethlehem & Biffignandi 2011). In order to increase the response rate, the study follows the tactics suggested by Gill and Johnson (2010), for example, emphasis on respondent's importance to the study and its confidentiality, a good, clear and simple survey design and to establish researcher's integrity by providing a clear explanation of the survey's purpose and how the data will be used.

3.3 Reliability and validity

For the most part, if a well established instrument has been used and not adapted in any way, the validity and reliability will have been determined already and the researcher should outline what this is. However, in this study, the instrument is being used for a new population; so the previous validity and reliability will not apply. The concepts of reliability and validity are related. Validity presumes reliable measures or reliability does not imply validity, whereas validity always carries with it reliability. On the other hand, a major strength in utilizing the survey instrument in research is that scales can be tested in regard to their validity and reliability. Surveys are highly structured data collection vehicles thereby allowing findings to be easily reproduced which in turn, increases a study's reliability and validity. In addition, it is also important to select the most appropriate sampling method in order to achieve a high level of reliability and validity (Gill & Johnson 2010). A highly structured approach as utilized in this study means that varying perspectives and experiences of people can be fit into limited numbers of predetermined responses to which numbers are assigned (Patton 2002), resulting in data that is timely and that can be tested rigorously for validity and reliability.

Reliability refers to the instrument's ability to consistently and accurately measure the concept under study (Litwin 1995). In other words, reliability measures the consistency of responses under particular circumstances (Hair et al 2003). The reliability and consistency of the data for this study adopted Cronbach's alpha value which is the standard reliability measurement for quantitative data collection. Reliability analysis is a necessary contributor for data accuracy and consistency (Cooper & Schindler 2006). Cronbach's alpha was used to inspect the internal consistency of test items. When alpha equals 0, the true score is not measured and there is only an error component. When alpha equals 1.0, all items measure only the true score, and there is no error component. According to Nunnally (as cited in Cooper & Schindler 2006), the Cronbach's alpha value should > 0.7 for high reliability standard and to be considered acceptable.

In general, validity is described as the ability of the instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure (Litwin 1995). For the analysis of validity, we focus on face validity. Face validity concerns whether the measure seems to be valid at all. A test can seem to make sense to those taking it and still not be a valid test (Goodwin 2005). Assessing face validity might involve simply showing the survey to few untrained individuals to see whether they think the items

look ok to them. It is the least scientific of all the validity and a much more casual assessment of item appropriateness (Litwin 1995). Face validity is a very basic and informal approach to evaluate the validity of a measurement scale. In this study, face validity was also determined by a review of the items by examinees and stakeholders, to develop an informal opinion as to whether or not the test is measuring what it is supposed to measure. More specifically, the questionnaire was sent to selected samples of experts in tourism experience (5) asking them to respond with the judgment that the measure appears to be a good measure of memorable tourism experience.

3.4 Summary

The present study used quantitative research method as it suited in answering this thesis's research question. More specifically, a cross-sectional non-experimental design using a web-based survey questionnaire was employed. The population of the study is tourists who have visited Rovaniemi. The sampling frame for this study includes those tourists who visited Rovaniemi and had visited the facebook pages of travel agencies offering trips to the Rovaniemi and Rovaniemi Tourist Information Center. In order to meet the sample size of 500-1000 (Comfrey & Lee 1992), the web-based survey was shared among more than 10,000 facebook users. Primary data was collected using a web-based self-administered questionnaire. The study was conducted during September 2012. The web-based survey information and questionnaire link was shared by 4 travel agencies (3 local and 1 foreign) and Rovaniemi Tourist Information Center among their facebook users requesting them to participate in the study.

In terms of reliability and validity, face validity was determined by a review of the items by examinees and stakeholders, to develop an informal opinion as to whether or not the test is measuring what it is supposed to measure. More specifically, the questionnaire was sent to selected samples of experts on tourism experience (5) asking them to respond with the judgment that the measure appears to be a good measure of memorable tourism experience.

In order to avoid sampling, measurement and non-response errors the study followed comprehensive guidelines for the design of online questionnaires. Prior to dissemination, the web-based questionnaire was verified by academicians (4) and piloted to ensure that the instrument measured the concepts intended. The questionnaire was pilot tested among exchange students of Tourism Research, Faculty of Social Sciences at the University of Lapland. The number of respondents contacted were 20. Pre-testing was conducted during August 2012. Minor amendments were made to the flow and phrasing of the questions. The pilot study confirmed the relevance and clarity of the questions to ensure that the findings were consistent and relevant. In addition, the web-based questionnaire was designed with the less-knowledgeable, low-end computer user in mind, providing instructions to show users how to take each necessary step. Lastly, to increase the response rate, the study followed the guidelines suggested by Gill and Johnson (2010).

4. Empirical findings and analysis

This part of the thesis attempts to present and analyze the results of survey. The responses were collected from total number of 103 respondents. Three of the returned questionnaires were eliminated when the data were coded since they were only partially completed. After eliminating the unusable responses, a total of 100 responses were coded and used for data analysis.

4.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the data and will be addressed in this section in the same order as they appear on the questionnaire. A general overview of the respondents is discussed in this part. The demographic characteristics and characteristics of the travel behavior of the respondents are presented.

4.1.1 Profile of respondents

The demographic characteristics of nationality, gender and age and characteristics of travel behavior of respondents consisting of purpose of travel, accommodation type, primary transportation used, length of trip, travel with, travel parties and activities respondents participated in Rovaniemi are included in this section to provide a descriptive profile of the respondents (Table 6).

A sample of 100 tourists who have visited Rovaniemi completed the questionnaire. The majority of the respondents were Finnish (15%), followed by Italian (13%), German (12%) and Dutch (11%). Of the 100 respondents, 58% were male and 42% female. An examination of the age of the respondents indicates that the largest age group was above 42 (41%), followed by the group of 18-25 (23%), 26-33 (21%) and 34-41 (15%). 73% of the respondents travelled to Rovaniemi for pleasure, others travelled for business purposes (14%), to visit friends and families (11%), and volunteer work (3%). The most frequent type of accommodation used by respondents during their stay in Rovaniemi was 4-star hotels or above and 3-star hotels or below (29%), followed by homes of family or friend (20%) and cabin (11%). 55% travelled to Rovaniemi by airplane, 24% used public transportation (bus, train), 14% own vehicle and 7% rental vehicle. In terms of the length of stay in Rovaniemi,

(73%) spent 1-7 days, followed by 8-14 days (13%). 34% of the respondents travelled to Rovaniemi with their husband or wife (34), 20% alone, 17% family with children, 14% with friends, 8% with colleagues and 4% with strangers (organized tour). In terms of the number of people in a travel group, most were between 1-3 people (58%). Regarding the types of activities in which respondents participated in Rovaniemi, the majority mentioned meeting Santa (70%), followed by snowmobiling (35%) and husky tours (34%). Other activities that respondents participated in included walking on a frozen lake, Northern Light safari, visiting Ranua Zoo, Arktikum Science Center, and reindeer farms.

Table 6 Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristics	Distribution of Answers	Characteristics	Distribution of Answers
Gender (N=100)		Type of Accommodation (N=100)	
Male	58%	4 star or above	29%
Female	42%	3 star or below	29%
		Homes of family or friend	20%
Age (N=100)		Cabin	11%
18-25	23%	Camping	9%
26-33	21%	Motel	2%
34-41	15%	Primary Transportation (N=100)	
> 42	41%	Airplane	55%
		Public Transportation (bus, train)	24%
Nationality(N=100)		Own Vehicle	14%
Finnish	14%	Rental Vehicle	7%
Italian	12%	Length of Stay (in days) (N=100)	
German	11%	1-7	73%
Dutch	10%	8-14	13%
British	9%	15-21	3%
Belgian	7%	22-28	3%
Spanish	3%	> 29	8%
French	3%	Travel (with whom) (N=100)	
Austrian	3%	Alone	20%
Danish	3%	Husband /Wife	37%
Greek	3%	Family with children	17%
American	3%	Friends	14%
Other nationalities	19%	Acquaintances, colleague	8%
		Strangers (organized tour)	4%
Purpose (N=100)		Number of people in the travel group (N=100)	
Pleasure	72%	1-3	62%
Business	14%	4-6	13%
Family Visit	11%	7-9	6%
Volunteer Work	3%	10-12	5%
		> 13	10%
		Activities respondents participated in Rovaniemi	
		Snowmobiling	37%
		Snowshoeing	10%
		Husky tours	35%
		Reindeer sleigh rides	29%
		Ice hole fishing	5%
		Winter golfing	1%
		Meeting Santa	72%

4.2 Statistical findings

4.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis

There are a variety of types of extraction methods in Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), the most prominent of which include principal factor, principal-component factor, and maximum likelihood factor. There is no commonly agreed-upon approach, the study used principal axis factoring in the present analyses. Once an extraction method is decided upon and the EFA is run, it is advised to verify the factorability of the data. The method employed in the present analyses was the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy, where values greater than .60 are considered to be adequate and greater than .80 are considered to be high. (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy for the data set was .856.

Once the factors are extracted and the factorability of the data confirmed, there are several different guidelines for determining the number of factors to retain; the present analyses used the most common of these, the traditional eigenvalue cut-off of 1.0 (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Following determination of the number of factors, the factor solution is “rotated” so the factors may be interpreted. There are multiple approaches to rotation of the factor solution. When the factors are expected to be correlated, the most commonly-used rotation method is Varimax, which assumes orthogonality of factors. A Principal Axis Factor (PAF) with a Varimax (orthogonal rotation) principle of the 27 Likert scale questions from the questionnaire was conducted on the data gathered from 100 respondents. The results obtained from Varimax rotation method was used for the data analysis. In deciding to retain an item, both factor loading ($r > .6$.) and the communality ($r > .5$) of each item were examined.

Once a factor solution is rotated, important decisions must then be made about which items in that solution adequately represent the factors. Following the guidelines of Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) and Worthington and Whittaker (2006), the loadings of each of the items on the factors should be at least .32, and not double-load onto any other factors at the .32 level. Double-loading is determined both by the .32 loading guideline, as well as by a separation in loadings of at least .15. For example, an item that loads .35 onto one factor and no higher than .20 onto any other factor may be considered representative of that factor; but an item that loads .44 onto one factor and .30 onto another factor would be considered double-loading . These guidelines would suggest that all items that are double-loaded and/or loaded no higher

than .32 on any factor may be considered insufficient indicators of the factors produced in the EFA, and when any items met these criteria the EFA was rerun with those items removed. Employing a combination of Cattell (1966) scree test and theoretical basis of the scale (i.e. eigenvalues greater than 1, KaiserGuttman criterion), the final rerun of the EFA of the Memorable Tourist Experience Scale with no double loadings, extracted six factors accounting for 69.050% of the total variance. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was 1746.433 with a significance of less than .001, indicating that factor analysis was appropriate. The hypothesized 8 dimensions were collapsed into 6 dimensions after analysis and the 6 dimensions were retained for further analysis.

One additional step was taken upon completion of the preceding steps. As the objective of the EFA was ultimately to produce a valid and reliable scale for each underlying construct, the internal consistency of the items comprising the resultant factors was checked via Cronbach's alpha. The conventional cut-off criterion for an acceptable alpha statistic is 0.70 and above (Nunnally 1978). Factor 1 produced an alpha of 0.915, Factor 2 produced an alpha of 0.705, Factor 3 produced an alpha of 0.843, Factor 4 produced an alpha of 0.868, Factor 5 produced an alpha of 0.870 and Factor 3 produced an alpha of 0.890.

The six topic factors

Five items loaded on to Factor 1. These items were related to Novelty. Novelty (Factor 1) accounted for 17% of the variance. Exciting was nested in the same factor (Factor 1), initially developed to measure the construct of hedonism. It is a reasonable assumption that tourists may seek exciting experiences in the quest for novelty. Three items loaded onto Factor 2 relating to social interaction with local culture. Local culture accounted for 12% of the variance. Item knowledge was expected to correlate with the knowledge factor, but highly correlated with Factor 2 (local culture). Considering that gaining knowledge is another satisfaction in tourism, it is natural to find a correlation between knowledge and social interaction (local culture). The three items that load onto Factor 3 related to refreshment. This factor accounted for 11% of the total variance. Items loaded on Factor 4 related to involvement. Items for Factor 5 related to adverse feelings, while the two items loaded onto Factor 6 related to meaningfulness.

Figure 5 Memorable Tourism Experience Scale Scree Plot

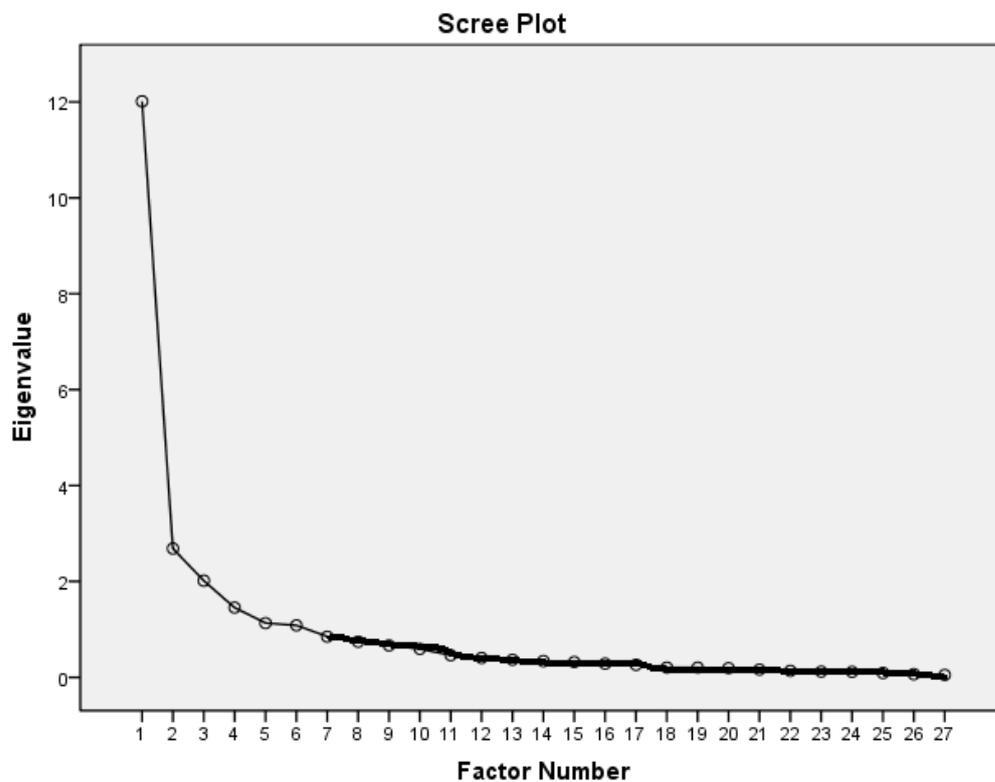


Table 7 Factors and Factor Loadings of Memorable Tourism Experience Scale by EFA

KMO 0.87, Varimax rotation, variance explained 69.05%

Items	Factor					
	Novelty (α =0.915)	Local Culture (α =0.705)	Refreshm ent (α =0.843)	Involve ment (α =0.868)	Adverse Feeling (α =0.870)	Meaning fulness (α =0.890)
Unique (N2)	.850					
Once-in-a-lifetime (N1)	.796					
Exciting (H4)	.696					
Different (N3)	.644					
New (N4)	.610					
Good impression (LC1)		.662				
Knowledge (K2)		.658				
Friendly (LC3)		.608				
Sense of freedom (R2)			.830			
Refreshing (R3)			.652			
Liberating (R1)			.647			
Enjoyed activities (I3)				.746		
Interested in activities (I2)				.736		
Frustration (A2)					.842	
Anger (A1)					.829	
Embarrassed (A3)					.755	
Meaningful (M1)						.895
Important (M2)						.759
Eigenvalue	12.012	2.685	2.015	1.454	1.131	1.084
Percentage of total variance accounted for	17.145%	12.862%	11.414%	10.856%	8.680%	8.092%
Number of test measures	5	3	3	2	3	2

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

4.2.3 Multicollinearity

Collinearity (or multicollinearity) is the undesirable situation where the correlations among the independent variables are strong. Multicollinearity increases the standard errors of the coefficients. Increased standard errors in turn means that coefficients for some independent variables may be found not to be significantly different from 0, whereas without multicollinearity and with lower standard errors, these same coefficients might have been found to be significant and the researcher may not have come to null findings in the first place. In other words, multicollinearity misleadingly inflates the standard errors. Thus, it makes some variables statistically insignificant while they should be otherwise significant. Multicollinearity exists when Tolerance is below .1; and VIF is greater than 10 or an average much greater than 1 (Cohen et al as cited in Bates 2009). In this case, there is no multicollinearity.

4.2.4 Regression Analysis

Multiple regression is a flexible method of data analysis that may be appropriate whenever a quantitative variable (the dependent or criterion variable) is to be examined in relationship to any other factors (expressed as independent or predictor variables). Relationships may be nonlinear, independent variables may be quantitative or qualitative, and one can examine the effects of a single variable or multiple variables with or without the effects of other variables taken into account. Many practical questions involve the relationship between a dependent or criterion variable of interest (Y) and a set of k independent variables or potential predictor variables ($X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_k$), where the scores on all variables are measured for N cases. In this study, multiple regression was calculated using six independent variables - novelty (X_1), local culture (X_2) refreshment(X_3), involvement (X_4), adverse feeling (X_5), meaningfulness (X_6) and the dependent variable (Y) behavioral intention. Multiple regression is normally implemented using one of two techniques. In this study, we used backwards stepwise regression. It is a related approach that begins with an examination of the combined effect of all of the independent variables on the dependent variable. One by one, independent variables (usually starting with the weakest predictor) are removed, and a new analysis is performed. The results provide coefficients for each independent variable, signifying the degree to which

each one, when combined with the others, contributes to predicting the dependent variable (Cohen et al as cited in Bates 2009).

According to Gupta (2000) researchers should first look at the model fit (ANOVA) in the process of interpreting the regression analysis results and not at the R-square before checking the goodness of fit. Table 8 reports on ANOVA, which assess the overall significance of the model. The last column (Sig.) shows the goodness of fit of the model. Gupta further states that lower this number, the better the fit. As $p < 0.05$ our model is significant. In addition, the F ratio is 34.969 and significant at $p = .000$.

Table 8 ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1988.864	6	331.477	12.428	.000 ^a
	Residual	2107.089	79	26.672		
	Total	4095.953	85			
2	Regression	1988.667	5	397.733	15.099	.000 ^b
	Residual	2107.286	80	26.341		
	Total	4095.953	85			
3	Regression	1982.572	4	495.643	18.997	.000 ^c
	Residual	2113.381	81	26.091		
	Total	4095.953	85			
4	Regression	1943.469	3	647.823	24.679	.000 ^d
	Residual	2152.485	82	26.250		
	Total	4095.953	85			
5	Regression	1872.956	2	936.478	34.965	.000 ^e
	Residual	2222.998	83	26.783		
	Total	4095.953	85			

Table 9 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.697 ^a	.486	.446	5.16450
2	.697 ^b	.486	.453	5.13236
3	.696 ^c	.484	.459	5.10795
4	.689 ^d	.474	.455	5.12346
5	.676 ^e	.457	.444	5.17524

There are two essential pieces of information in Table 9 Model Summary table: R and R^2 . The multiple correlation coefficient (R) is a measure of the strength of the relationship between Y (behavioral intention) and the six predictor variables selected for inclusion in the equation. As the above table (9) illustrates, by selecting a "Method" of "Backward" in the linear regression procedure, this method starts with a full model with an R^2 of .486.

The variable SumInvolvement is eliminated at the first step because it has the lowest partial correlation of any variable given that all the other predictor variable are entered into the regression analysis ($p = .932$). The next variables eliminated, in order, were SumMeaningfulness ($p = .632$), SumAdversefeeling ($p = .224$) and SumRefreshment ($p = .105$), resulting in a model with two predictor variables and a multiple R of .697 and R^2 of .486. This statistic enables to determine the amount of explained variation (variance) in Y from the six predictors on a range from 0-100 percent. Thus, we're able to say that 45.7 percent of the variation in Y (behavioral intention) is accounted for through the combined linear effects of the predictor variables. Note that all variables in Model 5 (table 8) were significant in the following table (10).

Table 10 Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	10.974	3.536		3.103	.003
	Novelty	.190	.134	.190	1.421	.159
	LocalCulture	.759	.247	.376	3.068	.003
	Refreshment	.242	.199	.138	1.220	.226
	Involvement	.024	.283	.010	.086	.932
	AdverseFeeling	-.172	.158	-.096	-1.084	.282
	Meaningfulness	.127	.264	.050	.480	.632
2	(Constant)	11.035	3.444		3.204	.002
	Novelty	.195	.121	.195	1.617	.110
	LocalCulture	.761	.245	.377	3.106	.003
	Refreshment	.245	.194	.140	1.267	.209
	AdverseFeeling	-.174	.154	-.098	-1.127	.263
	Meaningfulness	.126	.262	.049	.481	.632
	3	(Constant)	11.450	3.318		3.451
Novelty		.203	.119	.202	1.699	.093
LocalCulture		.797	.232	.395	3.438	.001
Refreshment		.257	.191	.146	1.340	.184
AdverseFeeling		-.186	.152	-.104	-1.224	.224
4	(Constant)	9.305	2.826		3.292	.001
	Novelty	.216	.119	.215	1.813	.074
	LocalCulture	.790	.233	.392	3.397	.001
	Refreshment	.307	.187	.175	1.639	.105
5	(Constant)	10.583	2.744		3.857	.000
	Novelty	.288	.112	.287	2.571	.012
	LocalCulture	.900	.225	.446	4.004	.000

a. Dependent Variable: behavioral intention

The regression equation to describe the data behavioral intention (= sum of behavioralintention1 + ... + behavioralintention6)/6) = 10.583 + 0.288 SumNovelty + 0.900 SumLocalCulture

In explaining the predictors that are significant contributors to the 45 percent of explained variance in Y (i.e., $R^2=.457$) and which ones are not – and in what way(s) do the significant ones help to explain Y, we are only concerned with its associated (1) standardized beta and (2)

t-test statistic's level of significance (Sig.). For the purpose of understanding MRA output, this means that when a p-value (Sig.) is less than or equal to .05, the corresponding beta is significant in the equation.

Research Questions

Two of the eight research hypotheses were determined to be statistically significant following analyses of data from the returned questionnaires. The hypotheses stated that past tourism experiences associated with the variables (hedonism, refreshment, local culture, involvement, meaningfulness, knowledge, novelty and adverse feeling) and behavioral intention are positively associated. Hedonism and knowledge were not identified, so the first hypothesis (H1), past tourism experiences associated with the hedonism factor and behavioral intention and H6 (knowledge and behavioral intention) does not apply to this research. A positive relationship between past tourism experiences associated with the refreshment factor and behavioral intention were expected (H2), but the relationship was not significant. Past tourism experiences associated with the local culture factor (H3) was related positively with behavioral intention (local culture and behavioral intention: $\beta = 0.446$, $p < 0.05$). H4 (involvement and behavioral intention) and H5, past tourism experiences associated with the meaningfulness factor and behavioral intention were not positively associated. H7 (novelty and behavioral intention: $\beta = 0.287$, $p < 0.05$) was positively associated with behavioral intention. H8, past tourism experiences associated with the adverse feeling factor and behavioral intentions are positively associated was not supported. Novelty and local culture were found to be the independent variables with a significant impact on behavioral intention when all of the variables were entered into the regression equation. All the others were not statistically significant.

Moreover, multiple regression analysis describes the effect of the two explanatory variables acting jointly on the behavioral intention. R-sq improves by 45% indicating that both novelty and local culture are an important factor in elevating behavioral intention. In terms of the effect of any given explanatory variable in the regression model, we look at the t-ratios of the two variables; that for novelty is 4.004 which is higher than 2.571 for local culture. So the effect of novelty is greater than local culture in elevating behavioral intention. In addition, we can see that predictors are not fairly close in their strength of relation to the dependent variable, but novelty is fairly stronger than local culture. In the ANOVA section of the table,

the two predictor variables combined were significantly related to the dependent variable. Now we use t tests to see if the slope of the each predictor variable is significantly different from zero. The p values associated with each predictor variable are much smaller than .05, indicating that each of the independent variables are a significant indicator of the dependent variable. So both local culture and novelty are significant indicators of behavioral intention.

4.3 Tourists trip experiences in Rovaniemi in own words

As mentioned above in the third section of this study, 1 open-ended question was included in the web-based questionnaire to allow respondents to elaborate upon responses (Salkind 2006). In response to the question 'is there something more that you would like to add or comment concerning your tourist experience in Rovaniemi?', we received 39 response. Some of the responses were - unique place, nice and friendly people, a touching experience free from busy everyday life, lovely scenery, lots of activities and not enough time, expensive souvenirs and nice to meet Santa Claus, however his elf charged too much for the picture with him etc.

4.4 Summary

The initial portion of the research and data analysis simply describe the sample (N = 100). These descriptive statistics give the readers an idea of the number of respondents in terms of: nationality, gender, age, purpose of travel, accommodation type, primary mode of transportation, length of stay, travel to Rovaniemi with and types of activities participated in Rovaniemi. The open-ended question about something more that respondents wanted to add or comment concerning their tourist experience in Rovaniemi included both positive and negative responses from unique place to expensive souvenirs. The next approach to describing the sample was to use more advanced statistical tests (exploratory factor analysis and multiple regression) to determine if and how variables connected themselves to provide meaningful insight. The insights from the factor analysis helped to identify underlying factors that explain the pattern of correlation within the set of observed variables. In other words, it helped to identify a small number of factors that explain most of the variance that is observed in a much larger number of variables. The multiple regression model is worthy of reporting. The model produced new information as variables were added or removed. Two variables remained as consistent predictors of behavioral intention, novelty and local culture. The data for the research hypotheses were analyzed. The third and seventh hypotheses (local culture and novelty) were found to be statistically significant. The remaining research hypotheses (hedonism, refreshment, involvement, meaningfulness, knowledge and adverse feeling) were not statistically significant.

5 Conclusion, discussion and future research

5.1 Conclusion

In this chapter, the general conclusions made from the quantitative results are discussed using past literature and theory introduced in chapter two. The study attempted to investigate the theoretical underpinnings of the MTE scale components and its influence on visitor's behavioral intention. The theoretical model addressed the tourism experience from after-trip. The main purpose of this study was to investigate the individual relationship between the eight dimensions of the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTEs) (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, knowledge and adverse feelings) and visitor's behavioral intention. The research tasks involved testing of the MTE scale among the versatile tourist population to Rovaniemi and gathering both positive and negative past experiences/memories of Rovaniemi. Respondents were asked to complete a self-administered survey based on their memories of holidaying experience in Rovaniemi. A final usable sample of 100 respondents was used in the data analysis. The primary data was collected from a broad cross-section of tourists (males and females, different age etc.). The demographic characteristics of respondents were consistent with the data about tourists in Rovaniemi and showed the representativeness of the sample.

The study tested six dimensions of the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTE) and behavioral intention. Each dimension was measured by at least two indicators. Following the multiple regression analysis, a total of two dimensions was found to be statistically significant that had a significant impact on behavioral intention. Research hypotheses H3 (local culture and behavioral intention: $\beta = 0.446$, $p < 0.05$) and H7 (novelty and behavioral intention: $\beta = 0.287$, $p < 0.05$) were positively associated with behavioral intention. All the others were not statistically significant (involvement, refreshment, meaningfulness and adverse feeling).

The findings of the study resulted in a different MTE construct than Kim et al.'s (2012) study. Although seven factors (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement and knowledge) are discussed in their study as important experiential tourism factors that are likely to affect a person's memory, what emerges from this research is that local culture and novelty significantly influence behavioral intention.

Modern tourist is interested in things, sights, customs and cultures different from his own, simply because they are just different (Cohen as cited in George & George, 2004) and are looking for novel experiences (Azedevo, 2009) while travelers who interact with local culture construct a unique and memorable holiday experience as local culture was found to be a component of MTE (Kim 2009). According to Jang and Feng (2007) novelty seeking is an antecedent of revisit intention. Tourists search for novelty-seeking in a familiar destination with the sense that they control the situation. Novelty seeking is one of the basic motivational dimensions of travel behavior (Woodside, 2008). On the other hand, tourists are also keen on learning about local culture, cultural factors play a central role in motivation and local culture and heritage are further pull factors (Robinson, Heitmann, & Dieke, 2011). The findings validated the previous studies related to novelty seeking in tourism experience (Dunman & Mattila, 2005; Mossberg, 2007; Poulsson & Kale, 2004), and social interaction with local culture in tourism experiences (Auld & Case, 1997; Murray et al., 2010; Kim, 2009; Kim, 2010). The current research is the first of its kind to gather information on the relationship between the eight components of MTEs and visitor's behavioral intention using a web based survey collected from customers (tourists).

5.2 Discussion

The re-testing of the measurement scale of MTE by applying it to 'real-world' tourism context allowed to gather tourists' perceptions of past holidaying experiences in a holistic manner rather than atomistic. They were centered around the components of MTEs, while feedback forms provided by tourism business are not able to gather a holistic picture of tourists' destination experiences but rather restricted to quality issues of services provided by the company, tour operator, hotel etc.

One of the reasons why adverse feeling factor and memorable tourism experience were not positively associated may be the 'rosy view' (Mitchell, Thompson, Peterson, & Cronk, 1997). The rosy view phenomenon is associated with an increase in the number of negative thoughts during the event (for example, a trip to Europe, a Thanksgiving vacation, or a 3-week bicycle trip in California) which seem to be caused by disappointments, distractions and less positive view of the self. However, these effects are said to be short-lived; within days after the event people have more positive evaluation of the event. Another possible reason is memory distortion caused by post experience information (i.e. advertising and word-of-mouth) on the tourist memory. The false information that individuals receive after their travel experience was found to distort tourists' memory, with the level of distorting greater when the false information was presented repeatedly and can change their overall knowledge structure. Especially with the increase in the number of blogs and Web sites, personal stories can be manufactured to distort tourists' own memories (Braun-LaTour et al., 2006). These online representations of trip do not only mediate one's own actual or remembered experience but also the experiences of those who view them, well beyond one's social circle. Their potential for shaping tourism experiences is tremendous (Sharpley & Stone, 2010). Vacation destination comprehension also relates to the halo effect, which is the tendency of a tourist to be biased by his or her overall opinion in the process of evaluating distinct attributes of a destination or service (Moutinho, 2010). In addition, when people spend a lot of money and time on something, afterward they want to believe, in general, that they spent the money wisely, so as not to be fools. Therefore they themselves diminish the adverse aspects and play up the positive ones in their retellings, which cements those aspects of the memories (Pine & Gilmore, 2011).

Considering the seasonality-based structure of Rovaniemi as a tourist destination, practices of imitation and adaptation spawned by the attempts for desperate financial gains may contribute to poor levels of knowledge and skills in the development of customer offerings in the tourism sector (Hjalager, 2002). Moreover, the requirement for tour operators and tourism enterprises to build stronger internal capabilities in the development of new memorable offerings exists, in order to avoid the tendency to follow and/or imitate other successful practitioners (Froehle, Roth, Chase, & Voss, 2000). Thus, it makes now the perfect time to take a closer look at the still untapped upside to experience-based innovation and economic expansion (Pine & Gilmore, 2011). Increasing the knowledge about experiences and experience design is needed to fulfill the needs of the increasingly sophisticated visitors and in creating memorable tourism experiences. Moreover, developing new memorable tourist experiences need innovation and entrepreneurs who dare to challenge status quo and bring new products out on the market. More specifically, marketers in destination area need to understand the components of memorable experiences.

A number of managerial recommendations can be made based on the study findings so as to realize the provision of memorable experiences to tourists. The present study suggests that tourism activities and the setting in which on-site experiences occur, should be thoroughly evaluated whether they satisfy each of the identified memorable tourism experiential components, but especially local culture and novelty. After evaluating the tourism programs based on the identified memorable tourism experiential dimensions, tourism operators and travel planners in Rovaniemi can weed out irrelevant programs and design and deliver programs that are novel and involve social interaction with local culture. Although meeting Santa Claus may be a powerful source of attraction for visitors to Rovaniemi, it has become a feature of the postmodern touristic landscape marked by spectacle and transformed into a commodity for consumption; that act as markers for the intangible sights of Christmas. In fact, tourists consume the marker and thereby consume a nostalgic conception of Christmas (Pretes, 1995). While, such attractions present a 'show and know' version, which lacks emotional impact and does not deliver the experience required by the modern tourist (McIntosh & Prentice, 2005), the overarching goal must be to offer new activities and social interaction with local culture by capitalizing on the natural and local cultural assets in the area. This present study indicates that addressing social interaction with local culture and novelty enhances the probability of delivering memorable experiences and the likelihood of

providing the experience provider with one of the best marketing tools of them all; positive word of mouth that brings in new business.

Destination managers can enhance their visitors' memories of travel experiences and increase future revenue by developing and designing programs that are (1) new, exotic, exceptional, and different from the previous experiences and offer thrill, adventure, surprise and (2) foster social interaction with local culture. For example, staying in camping sites or traditional accommodation in Lapland's untouched nature and wilderness or swimming, boating and canoeing as well as fishing and hunting or a tour of a place in which individuals can naturally observe and interact with the local people, for example, the Sami (Lapp) culture, visiting the local market, sampling local cuisine, buying souvenirs, visiting local museums or other places of historical importance (Pretes, 1995). Such activities are not crafted for the customer but the customer has crafted the experience and may lead to tourists desire to experience novelty and enhance intensity with regards to local culture. Kim (2009) provides supporting claims by stating that individuals desire to satisfy the need of locating novelties within destination areas previously visited can also be fulfilled by utilizing different types of service facilities and/or service companies, such as transportation and accommodation services. Although a destination area and tourism activities are the main components of an individual's tourism experience, individuals may have different experiences while being engaged with different aspects of their travel, including accommodations, infrastructure and modes of transportation. As a result, individuals who have a memorable tourism experience enjoy the destination and activities so much that they wish to have the experience in detail by changing service facilities.

What this point reflects is that memorable tourism experiences are created by co-design, not default, and that design comes from the collaboration of company and customer. Pine and Gilmore's approach to experience production, emphasizes the role of co-creation in the formation of experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 2011). The supply and demand side cannot be seen separately, because both the tourist and the provider are part of the consumption process (Jamrozy, Backman, & Backman, 1996). Moreover, any analysis of tourism needs consideration of the tourist to generate knowledge on the reasons why tourism is consumed and to help practitioners in developing products that meet customers' needs (Holloway & Taylor, 2006).

Holidays are sold on the basis of being memorable, and indeed they may only last a fortnight but linger in memory for a life-time (Marschall, 2012). The current study further suggests destination marketers to re-evaluate their current marketing strategies which are highly focused on destination attributes rather than experiential aspects delivered to visitors. More emphasis must be on the realization of memorable experiences in order to secure a sustainable competitive advantage over competitive destinations. While destination attributes can be an important element of memorable experiences (e.g. iconic tourist attractions), the elements of MTEs are experiential aspects.

It is hoped that the information produced and the implications of the study will be (1) helpful to tourism planners and destination managers in building more competitive strategies to offer memorable experiences and (2) to build competitive edge to generate more new and repeated tourists. In other words, contribute to the local tourism industry in Rovaniemi to design products/services that can satisfy their customers' desires for new memorable experiences. The new model for Rovaniemi as a destination can be described as a place where people visit for an extended period of time, where they engage in multiple activities, where there are activities for possibly a range of target customer groups and where people want to return, not just to repeat the experience, but in the anticipation of new things to see and do and to be in contact with the local people and culture (Voss, 2004). Lastly, the present study recommends that tourism businesses in Rovaniemi prioritize their business resources in developing tourism programs by facilitating the realization of memorable tourism experiences for tourists.

5.4 Limitations

Several limitations of the current research need to be highlighted, but as a pilot study for further structural insights, those shortcomings were acceptable. First, the research was limited to eight components because it is a university master's level study and due to time and resource limitations. Second, the questionnaire was in English. This excluded non-English speakers. Third, the location where the data were collected, Rovaniemi, Finland, may limit the generalizability of the research results. Fourth, a total of 100 subjects participated in the research. The small sample size is another limitation of the present research and does not meet the statistical assumption of factor analysis and regression. Fifth, the subjects of this research are tourists. Thus, the results of this research may differ from other populations. Lastly, this research employed convenience sampling method. Therefore, the research sample, which is collected by non-probability sampling method, may not represent the population. Thus, the limited ability to generalize the research is undeniable.

5.5 Future Research

There are several key implications that deserve the attention for future research as a result of limitations of this research. As discussed in the limitations, the research was limited to eight components and to enhance our understanding of MTE, future research is needed and should be expanded to include other experiential factors not included such as cultural background (Uysal et al., 2012) and components of destination emotion scale items (joy, love and positive surprise) (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010) etc. The language of the web-based questionnaire was only in English. While carrying out future research, the questionnaire must be translated to different languages if data is to be collected from several nationalities as it is not always possible to interpret ones' feelings in a foreign language. So, the questionnaire should be translated into at least French, Spanish, German and Russian.

Future studies should replicate the study in other geographic regions and among different populations and/or from participants in different leisure activities in order to enhance the understanding of MTE. Another area for further research could be to examine memorable tourism experiences in a cross cultural context to see how cultural orientation has an impact, if any, on behavioral intention. Any future studies should methodologically adopt inductive mixed method research designs, which may be operationalised through a range of research instruments, including focused groups, surveys, depth interviews, observations and diaries, obtained from sampled individuals who narrate memorable tourism experiences. Lastly, further testing the construct validity of the MTE scale - establishing the relationships with other constructs; consequences of memorable experiences on, for example, satisfaction, loyalty, word-of-mouth, intention to return and intention to recommend among others. Indeed, future research based upon phenomenological data derived from tourists may augment this research study and further strengthen what has been to date a theoretically fragile and empirically tenuous area of research.

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|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 5. I had once-in-a-lifetime experience | <input type="radio"/> |
| 6. I had a unique experience | <input type="radio"/> |
| 7. My trip in Rovaniemi was different from previous trips | <input type="radio"/> |
| 8. I experienced something new (e.g. food, activities etc.) during the trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 9. I had a good impression about the local culture during the trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 10. I had a chance to closely experience the local culture in Rovaniemi | <input type="radio"/> |
| 11. Local people in Rovaniemi were friendly to me | <input type="radio"/> |
| 12. I relieved stress during the trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 13. I felt free from daily routine during the trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 14. I had a refreshing experience | <input type="radio"/> |
| 15. I felt better after the trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 16. I felt that I did something meaningful during the trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 17. I felt that I did something important during the trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 18. I learned something about myself from the trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 19. I visited a place that I really wanted to visit in Rovaniemi | <input type="radio"/> |
| 20. I enjoyed activities that I really wanted to do in Rovaniemi | <input type="radio"/> |
| 21. I was interested in main activities offered to tourists | <input type="radio"/> |
| 22. I gained a lot of information during the trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 23. I gained a new skill (s) from the trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 24. I experienced new culture(s) | <input type="radio"/> |
| 25. I was angry during the stay | <input type="radio"/> |
| 26. I was frustrated during the stay | <input type="radio"/> |
| 27. I was embarassed during the stay | <input type="radio"/> |
| 28. I plan to visit Rovaniemi again in near future | <input type="radio"/> |
| 29. I plan to participate in the same activities as in my previous trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 30. I plan to use the same accommodation service as in my previous trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 31. I plan to use the same transportation service as in my previous trip | <input type="radio"/> |
| 32. I plan to recommend Rovaniemi as a tourist destination to my friends, family | <input type="radio"/> |
| 33. I had a memorable experience/memorable experinces during my stay in Rovaniemi | <input type="radio"/> |

11. Is there something more that you would like to add or comment concerning your tourist experience in Rovaniemi?