Erose Sthapit

Examining the Antecedents of Spillover within the Context of Tourism

Activities, Memorable Tourism Experiences,
Culinary-Gastronomic Experiences and Souvenir Perspective

▲ ▲ ▲

ACTA WASAENSIA 408

Vaasan yliopisto
UNIVERSITY OF VAASA

ACADEMIC DISSERTATION

To be presented, with the permission of the Board of the School of Management
of the University of Vaasa, for public examination
in Auditorium Nissi (K218) on the 12th of September, 2018, at noon.

Julkaisun nimike

Heijastusvaikutuksia edeltävien asioiden tutkiminen matkailussa: aktiviteetit, mieleenpainuvat matkailukokemukset, kulinaaris-gastronomiset kokemukset ja matkamuistonäkökulma

Tiivistelmä

Postmodernin käsityksen mukaan jokapäiväinen elämä heijastuu matkailuun ja vastaavasti matkailu heijastuu kotiin. Tästä syystä näkemys, että kotona olemisen ja matkustamisen välillä olisi kuilu, on ongelmallinen. Kun kotona ja matkoilla olemista tarkastellaan heijastusvaikutuksen käsitteen kautta, samankaltaisuus on ilmeinen. Silti tätä heijastusvaikutusta ja siihen vaikuttavia asioita on tutkittu vain vähän.

Tässä väitöskirjassa tarkastellaan kotona olemisen ja matkustamisen välistä yhteyttä käsitteen heijastusvaikutus kautta. Väitöskirjassa selvitetään kolmen tutkimuskysymyksellä: 1) Heijastuvatko kodin vapaa-ajan aktiviteetit matkailuun? 2) Miten vapaa-ajan osallistuminen, vapaa-ajan tavat ja psykologinen sitoutuminen korreloivat potentiaalisina kotoa tulevina heijastusvaikutusta edeltävinä tekijöinä matkoilla olon kanssa – tutkimuksessa etenkin lomakäyttäytymisen kanssa, joka liittyy vapaa-ajan mieluisimpaan aktiviteettiin osallistumiseen? 3) Heijastuvatko mieleenpainuvan matkailukokemuksen ulottuvuudet, kulinaaris-gastronomiset kokemukset ja matkamuistot matkoilta kotiin ja kuinka? Tutkimuskysymyksiä käsitellään neljässä eri empiirisessä tutkimuksessa, jotka esitellään kappaleissa 1–4.

Tulokset osoittavat samanlaisen käyttäytymismallin perhelomailijoiden vapaa-ajan aktiviteeteissa kotona ja matkakohteessa. Heijastusvaikutus näkyy sekä vapaa-ajan osallistumisen että vapaa-ajan tapojen kautta. Myös oleskelun kesto ja matkakumppani vaikuttivat samojen aktiviteettien harjoittamiseen kotona ja matkakohteessa. Tutkimuksessa tunnistetaan myös hedoniset ja merkitykselliset matkailukokemukset, kulinaaris-gastronomiset kokemukset ja matkamuistot, joilla on heijastusvaikutuksia kotiin ja muuhun elämään matkakokemuksesta saatujen muistojen ja subjektiivisen hyvinvoinnin kautta.

Asiasanat

heijastusvaikutus, vapaa-ajan osallistuminen, vapaa-ajan tavat, mieleenpainuva matkailukokemus, kulinaaris-gastronominen kokemus, matkamuistot, subjektiivinen hyvinvointi

Title of publication

Examining the Antecedents of Spillover within the Context of Tourism: Activities, Memorable Tourism Experiences, Culinary-Gastronomic Experiences and Souvenir Perspective

Abstract

The postmodern conceptualisation suggests that everyday life is not different from tourist experiences and problematizes the gap between home and away. The spillover concept is in line with this conceptualisation and the similarities between home and away is more dominant when viewed from this concept. However, the antecedents of spillover from home and away and vice versa have received much less research attention.

The purpose of this dissertation is to create a broader understanding of the antecedents of spillover from home to away and vice versa, based on the spillover concept, and consists of three research questions: 1) Does the spillover from home to away hold true with regard to leisure activities that tourists bring to a tourism destination? 2) How does leisure involvement, leisure habits and psychological commitment as potential antecedents of the spillover from home correlate with away, in this case, vacation behaviour linked to favourite leisure activity participation? 3) Do dimensions of a memorable tourism experience scale, culinary-gastronomic experiences and souvenirs trigger a spillover from away to home and how? The research questions are addressed in four distinct empirical studies reported in Articles 1–4.

The findings of this study indicate a similar behavioural pattern among family vacationers regarding the activities undertaken at home and at the destination. The study identifies two antecedents of spillover in terms of activities from home to away: leisure involvement and leisure habits. Length of stay and travel companion also had an impact in doing the same activities at home and at the destination. The study also identifies hedonic and meaningful tourism experiences, culinary-gastronomic experiences and souvenirs as antecedents from away or a sub-domain of travel that influences other life domain, home life through memories of a trip experience and subjective well-being.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Erose Sthapit

Vaasa, 16 June 2018

Contents

X

Figures

Tables

Abbreviations

MTE(s)   Memorable tourism experience(s)

LI   Leisure involvement

LH(s)   Leisure habit(s)

VB(s)   Vacation behaviour(s)

Publications [1]

Sthapit, E., & Björk, P. (2017). Activity participation home and away: Examining the spillover theory among families on holiday. Anatolia, 28(2): 209–223.

Sthapit, E., & Coudounaris, D. (2017). Memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and outcomes. Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 18(1): 72–94.

Sthapit, E. (2017). Exploring tourists' memorable food experiences: A study of visitors to Santa's official hometown. Anatolia, 28(3): 404–421.

Sthapit, E., & Björk, P. (2017). Relative contributions of souvenirs on memorability of a trip experience and revisit intention: A study of visitors to Rovaniemi, Finland. Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism. doi: https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2017.1354717

---

[1] Printed with kind permission of Taylor & Francis Group

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Study background: Tourism, experience and tourist experience

On the supply side, tourism has become one of the fastest growing economic sectors in the world. In 2017, international tourist arrivals grew by 7% to reach a total of 1,322 million and is expected to continue in 2018 at a rate of 4%-5% (UNTWO, 2018). The tourism industry is a significant contributor to the global economy. For example, in 2016, the industry generated 6.6% of total world exports (a total of US$1.4 trillion) and almost 30% of total world services exports (WTTC, 2017). In the context of Finland, the tourism industry is also growing. There were 7.7 million trips in Finland in 2016, an increase of two percent on the previous year's figures. Foreign tourists spent 3.9 billion euros in Finland, when travelling expenses are included (Visit Finland, 2018). On the demand side, tourism refers to the temporary travel of individuals outside their usual environment (WTO, 1994) and to consume tourism is to consume experiences (Sharpley & Stone, 2011).

The English word *experience* is a neutral and even highly ambiguous term that generally describes all kinds of things that a person has ever undergone (Aho, 2001). German is more distinctive in distinguishing between *Erlebnis*, which refers to immediate, conscious participation related to a situation, and *Erfahrung*, which describes the accumulation of experiences throughout a lifetime (Larsen, 2007). While the terms are not mutually exclusive, the former tends to capture something temporary, of the here and now, while the latter relates to something accrued over the long term. Together, they contribute to the meaning of the contemporary understanding of an experience (Lee, Dattilo, & Howard, 1994).

Experiences are the main resource of tourism (Walls, Okumus, Wang, & Kwun, 2012). An experience develops inside a person, and the outcome depends on how a given individual, in a specific mood and state of mind, reacts to the interaction with the staged event (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). These experiences represent a distinct economic offering of commodities, goods, and services, because they are unique, memorable, and personal (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). The characteristics commonly associated with consumption experiences have also been framed as extraordinary (LaSalle & Britton, 2003), multi-sensory (Schmitt, 1999), emotional (Johnston & Kong, 2011), and transformational (Hackley & Tiwasakul, 2006).

The importance of understanding tourist experiences has long been recognised (Cohen, 1979) and has become one of the most significant areas of tourism research (Volo, 2010). Tourists consume at all times throughout a journey (Quan & Wang, 2004), and everything a tourist goes through at a destination counts as experience, including behaviour and perception, cognition, and emotions, whether expressed or implied (Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007). The tourist experience is a complex construct (Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2014) that is inherently personal (Urry, 1990). According to Jennings and Weiler (2006), a tourist experience is defined as an integration of the consumption of displayed objects and activities, the subjective interpretation of the tourist's meanings and motivations, and sensations within space and time. Moreover, the tourist experience is the culmination of a given experience formed by tourists when they are visiting and spending time in a given tourist location (Graefe & Vaske, 1987). Tourists, being actors, play an active and important role in the formation of the tourist experience (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). The diversity of perspectives adopted has made theorising tourist experiences both a richly stimulating and highly problematic endeavour, because multitudinous perspectives have simultaneously strengthened our understanding of the dimensions of tourist experience and rendered the concept somewhat opaque (Larsen & Mossberg, 2007); the exact definition of an experience remains elusive (Bosangit, Hibbert, & McCabe, 2015).

Uriely (2005) refers to two schools of thought in an attempt to differentiate tourist experiences. The first is a modernist point of view which postulates that tourism is the opposite of everyday life. The second is the postmodernist perspective, which suggests that everyday life is not clearly distinguishable from tourist experiences, but rather that a "de-differentiation" exists that intertwines everyday life and tourist experiences.

1.1.1   Modernist view of the tourist experience

One of the prominent conceptual developments in the study of the tourist experience emphasises its distinctiveness from quotidian existence (Uriely, 2005); several early conceptualisations of the tourist experience differentiate the tourist experience from everyday life experiences (Cohen, 1979; Graburn, 2001; MacCannell, 1973), routine social milieus, and normal life, and as free from the burden and blandness of quotidian routine and responsibilities (Cohen & Taylor, 1992). In addition, the tourist experience is traditionally portrayed as a kind of ritual (Graburn, 2001), periodic escape (Dann, 1977), or mystical experiences of the extraordinary (Crompton, 1979; Seaton & Tagg, 1995; Urry, 1996) which are undertaken in leisure time and involve temporary travel away from home (Nash,

1981) to emphasise the difference between being *away* and being at *home* (Crompton, 1979; Seaton & Tagg, 1995; Urry, 1996). In fact, tourists cross a threshold which disconnects them from their home world and plunges them into an often rewarding, sometimes transformative, and occasionally challenging space (Hottola, 2004). The concept of the ritual crossing of a threshold has been formative in shaping much tourism research thinking (Van Egmond, 2007), as illustrated in Figure 1.

Everyday Experience (Home, Mundane)		Tourist Experience (Away, Extraordinary)

The arrow denotes disconnection from everyday home environment and moving into a zone of novelty
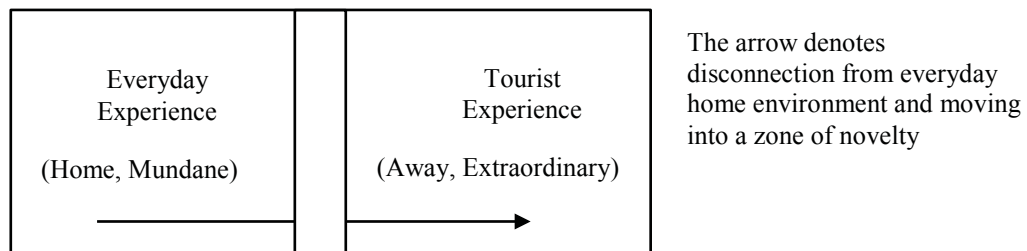
Figure 1.   Traditional conceptualization of everyday experience and tourist experience (adapted from Pearce & Gretzel, 2012)

Smith defines the tourist as "a temporarily leisured person who visits a place away from home for the purpose of experiencing change" (1978, p. 1). The notion of this experience as contrary to the routine of everyday life is also stressed in MacCannell's (1973) portrayal of tourism as a modern form of the essentially religious quest for authenticity. In fact, MacCannell argues that while modern individuals perceive their everyday life as inauthentic, "authentic experiences are believed to be available only to those moderns who try to break the bonds of their everyday experiences and begin to live" (1973, p. 159). In the same vein, the differentiation between everyday life and tourist experience is highlighted by Turner and Ash (1975), who suggest that the temporary distance of tourists from their regular environments allows them to suspend the power of norms and values that govern their daily lives and to think about their own lives and societies from a different perspective.

One of the arguments supporting the differentiation between rich tourist experiences and leisure pursuits in the home environment is the quest for strangeness and novelty as a key element (Cohen, 1972; 1979). Cohen argues that "tourism is essentially a temporary reversal of everyday activities – it is a no-work, no-care, no-thrift situation" (1979, p. 181). Another explanation is that tourism differs from leisure in terms of physical space, because vacations occur by definition in destinations that are separate from the place of origin (Leiper, 1979; Pearce, 1995), and that individuals are influenced by the tourism atmosphere (Leontido, 1994). In other words, one traditional differentiation between the two is the spatial environment (Carr, 2002). Other explanations include the existence

of a "tourist culture" that consists of an "animated non-ordinary lifestyle, observable rituals, behaviours, and pursuits … [which] bind [people on holiday] into one collectivity: that of tourists (Bystrzanowski, 1989, p. 37).

1.1.2   Postmodern conceptualizations of the tourist experience and the meaning of home and away

It cannot be denied that escape from the mundane environment is often an important reason that pushes people to travel (Hsu, Tsai, & Wu, 2009), however, the notion of the tourist experience as disparate from the routine of everyday life has been challenged since the 1990s by scholars who have introduced the perspective of postmodern tourism (Lash & Urry, 1994; Urry, 1990). In fact, numerous studies examining the conceptualisations of tourism and leisure have adopted an explicitly postmodern perspective on tourism analysis (McKercher, 1996) and problematized the gap between the polarity between *home* and *away* (Carr, 2002; Hall & Page, 1999; Larsen, 2008; McCabe, 2002; Ritzer & Liska, 1997; White & White, 2007; Williams, 2009).

Crick (1989) argues that the fields of leisure and tourism are overlapping and that separating the two is not only a difficult task, but may also obscure their similarities, while others argue that there is nothing particularly special about tourism's specialness (Hall & Page, 1999). Ritzer and Liska (1997, p. 99) challenge the traditional spatializations of tourism by suggesting "that people increasingly travel to other locales in order to experience much of what they experience in their day-to-day lives". White and White (2007) describe how travellers experienced feelings of home while on the road by travelling with their loved ones, practicing everyday routines and rituals, and remaining in close contact with friends and relatives back home. Research also indicates that leisure and tourism have a psychological and behavioural relationship from an experiential standpoint (Carr, 2002). In the same vein, Williams (2009) challenges the traditional view of the tourism experience (MacCannell, 1973; Cohen, 1979) as a distinct and bounded event that stands apart from the routines and geographical spaces of everyday life.

Tourism has become a more routine phenomenon within orthodox leisure lives (Leiper, 1979). The liminal experience is transformed into a continuing engagement with an ongoing connection to people back home (White & White, 2007) and carrying out basic routines and quotidian habits: they are part of the baggage (Baerenholdt, Haldrup, Larsen, & Urry, 2007; Quan & Wang, 2004; Wickens, 2002). Studies show that individuals develop leisure preferences, routines, and habits over extended periods of time, just as in non-leisure travel behaviour (LaMondia & Bhat, 2012), that provide stability, comfort, and relaxation

in what is frequently a new setting (Edensor, 2001). In addition, at-home and travel activities are seen to be closely linked, while straightforward variety seeking view does not appear to be a good fit (Smith, Pitts, & Litvin, 2012). There is evidence that not all tourists behave hedonistically to the same degree (Carr, 2002) and that some may exhibit similar behaviours in both their home and holiday environments and across different time and spatial environments (Chang & Gibson, 2011). For vacationers, therefore, variety seeking and the desire for novelty may be found not in new activities but in new locations at which to engage in familiar activities (Smith et al., 2012). Edensor (2001) argues that tourism should be understood by its imbrication in the everyday rather than as a special, separate field of activity. In other words, tourism is not an exotic island, but is connected with ordinary social life (Haldrup & Larsen, 2003): "to understand tourism at the destination requires studying the tourist in the home market" (Brey & Lehto 2007, p. 217).

Edensor (2001) and Larsen (2008) suggest that everyday life should be central to future tourism research and to make space within the theory for everydayness. In keeping with this dichotomy, Larsen, Urry, and Axhausen (2007) argue that much tourism is fuelled by the desire to find a home while away and by doing various mundane social activities embedded in everyday life. Some tourists are not so much searching for the picturesque or some authentic Other as searching for authenticity among themselves (Wang, 1999), which may bolster the idea of home in out-of-the-ordinary tourist locales (Kidron, 2013) and result in the continuation of everyday domestic life while on tour (Blichfeldt & Mikkelsen, 2014; Currie, 1997; Larsen, 2008; Obrador, 2012) and provide the ontological comfort of home (Quan & Wang, 2004). In the same vein, studies show that tourists who develop leisure activity loyalty are much less sensitive to changes in costs and policies associated with those leisure activities (LaMondia & Bhat, 2012).

More recent studies indicate that the changing nature of work and leisure, access to information, and the fragmentation of time and space have combined to blur a number of important binaries that were formerly used to characterise the travel experience, including *home/away* and *mundane/extraordinary* (Pearce & Gretzel, 2012). First, much of travel in daily life now incorporates the use of digital technology; when tourists used to go away from home, they were typically thought of as being away from both place (home) and relationships (family and friends). Nowadays, however, being away from home does not necessarily mean being away from family and friends. The ease and speed of today's telecommunication technologies allows for instantaneous contact with family and friends back home– or the virtual co-presence of family and friends while being away on tour (Larsen, 2008). This persistent connection with one's everyday environment at the

destination through mobile technology acts as a decapsulation of the tourist experience and diminishes the sense of escape while touring the destination (Wang, Xiang, & Fesenmaier, 2014); it promotes a sense of being present while absent (Fortunati, 2002). In fact, the use of technology signals the replication of domestic routines of life on the road through continuing engagement in established relationships, as with friends, family members, and colleagues using the various communications services at our disposal, generating a sense of feeling together. Such recurrent communication and contact reinforces tourists' sense of connection with those at home. As a result, tourists are both home and away (White & White, 2007) and everydayness and tourist behaviour may co-exist in leisure travel (Therkelsen & Lottrup, 2015).

The second reason supporting the existence of a de-differentiation between home and away lies in *anti-tourist attitudes*, based on which some holidaymakers try to distance themselves from what they perceive as the typical or common tourist role and thus may scarcely participate in touristic activities while at the destination (Jacobsen, 2000). In other words, some tourists tend to distance themselves from the established perception of the tourist. The third reason is the perceived benefit of the trade-off between what is given and what is received, which in turn influences tourists' desire to perform the same behaviour (Lehto, Lin, Chen, & Choi, 2012). In addition, today people acquire second or even third homes, whether in their own countries or abroad, a practice that is likely to induce similar behavioural patterns between leisure activities and tourism behaviours (Haldrup, 2004).

Based on the above discussion, the modernist view of tourist experiences has focused on a sacred search for authenticity (MacCannell, 1976), novelty and strangeness (Cohen, 1972). Moreover, tourists are envisioned as adopting a tourist gaze as soon as they find themselves at a foreign destination (Urry, 2008). By contrast, the postmodern condition involves a de-differentiation that blurs these distinctions (Uriely, 2005) and is suggestive of tourism as challenging the notion of liminality, which frees tourists from the social relations and multiple obligations of everyday life whereby a variety of habitual behaviours could appear (Larsen, 2007). The postmodern view thus problematizes the modernist point of view or the traditional framing of the tourist experience that isolates home and away. Studies have argued that the modernist notion must be revised based on the postmodern argument that tourism experiences cannot consist entirely of emotional or otherwise extraordinary events, but are bound to include more ordinary daily occasions and routines which together form a complex entity (Quan & Wang, 2004).

1.2   Research Problem

1.2.1   Spillover concept and its bidirectional nature

The spillover concept is in line with the postmodern conceptualisation of the tourist experience and the de-differentiation between home and away is more dominant when viewed from a spillover perspective. On one hand, Wilensky (1960) was the first to document the spillover concept. According to the spillover theory (Wilensky, 1960), perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors in one's social setting can be manifested in another setting as a reflection of one's skills and experience. In addition, spillover means the generalization of behaviours, emotions, attitudes, or stresses from one life domain to another (Wilensky, 1960) including the transfer of experiences between family and work such that one domain impacts the other (Rothbard & Dumas, 2006). Moreover, spillover theory proposes that one's work influences, in a complementary as opposed to inverse fashion, non-work life domains such as family (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007), vacation, and leisure (Wilensky, 1960). Work-related activities and involvement provide an employee with the skills and desires to participate in other domains of life in general and social life in particular (Cohen & Vigoda, 1998). As a result, when employees are engaged in their work, these positive feelings and energies will likely spill over into the community domain (Golembiewski, 1995). In addition, a positive spillover is defined as the positive effect that work can have on other domains, thereby benefitting them and improving their functioning in the other domain (Rothbard, 2001), for example, promote satisfaction with life (Albrecht, 2010).

On the hand, Burch's (1969) approach to the spillover concept encompasses the notion that some individuals may want to participate in similar behaviours and activities in both their home and holiday environments (Shaw & Williams, 2004). Some leisure researchers have proposed Burch's concept for predicting individuals' behaviour while on vacation (Carr, 2002; Currie, 1997; White & White, 2007). Currie (1997) proposes a conceptual framework using Burch's vision of spillover to aid in explaining why some everyday behaviours are retained on vacation, while others are not. Currie suggests that, in their free time, individuals participate in activities that are part of their regular routines. Likewise, on vacation they are likely to participate in activities similar to their everyday leisure activities. Currie (1997) further suggests that both of these spillover tourism behaviours are rooted in everyday home-based lifestyles.

Wilensky's (1960) spillover concept emphasise the determinant effect of work experience on leisure behaviour, for example, sedentary work practices such as

clerical filing or secretarial work elicits passive leisure practices such as watching television or reading magazine (Calhoun, Rojek, & Turner, 2005). Burch (1967) links daily life and tourism behaviour. The present dissertation adopts both Wilensky (1960) and Burch's (1969) spillover concept. Spillover in the context of this dissertation represents experiences and behaviours including objects from one domain of life that affects those in another as well as participation in similar activities in both their home and holiday environments. In addition, the spillover effect is understood as bi-directional.

First, recent studies have focussed on the use of mobile technology (Holloway & Holloway, 2011; MacKay & Vogt, 2012; Pearce & Gretzel, 2012; Wang et al., 2014) in examining the spillover from home to away. Holloway and Holloway (2011) found that grey nomads (Australian retirees) in remote and Western Australia maintain a close link with the everyday life while touring through mobile communication – allowing for ready contact with family and friends while on tour. MacKay and Vogt (2012) found that attitudes toward technology and the skills and knowledge of how to use smartphones increase during everyday use, and this new perspective is translated into use during travel. Pearce and Gretzel (2012, p. 27) argue that the tourist experience should be understood as involving "ongoing connections which render everyday life and vacation time mutually influential" and use the term *digital elasticity* to describe tourists' use of mobile technology to link to their home worlds (Figure 2). For example, tourists check their emails while sipping a cocktail at the pool, friends and family comment on mobile photos recently uploaded to Facebook, international tourists play web-based games with friends across continents, and work emails are monitored for office-based crises.
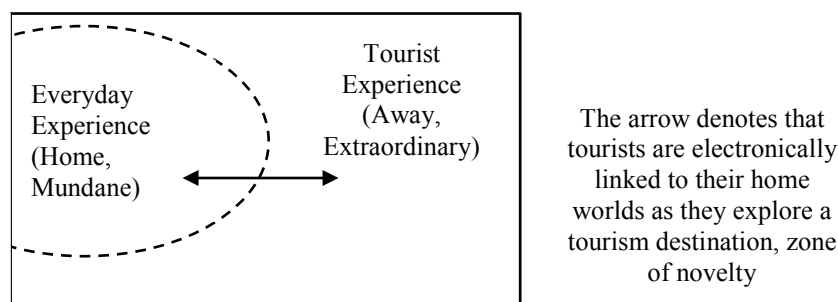
Figure 2.　Home and away spillover in the context of use of mobile technology, digital elasticity (Pearce & Gretzel, 2012)

On the other hand, according to Stebbins (2007) leisure behaviours can be seen as a career-like pursuit, which is life-long and involves collecting experiences, the performance of identity, and the construction of a biography. In the same vein,

Rojek (1995) states that people construct their own identities and choose who they really want to be through leisure activities. As a consequence, some consumers (tourists) are motivated to develop intensive and permanent interest and to specialise (Brey & Lehto, 2007) in their favourite leisure activity, which lasts for years and is also undertaken while on vacation, such as sports (skiing, tennis, diving, horse riding, and golf), activities linked to acquisition of new knowledge and skills (language learning, dancing, and painting), and involvement in specific activities (hunting, fishing, and trekking) (Dujmović & Vitasović, 2015).

Brey and Lehto's (2007) study is a good starting point in revisiting the relationship between leisure and tourism. In their study, a high-to-high relationship is exemplified by activities in which individuals showed both high daily and high vacation participation. These activities included golfing, fishing, hunting, visiting theme parks, and attending concerts. In addition, their study found that daily involvement with golf is linked to an individual's tendency and high frequency of playing golf while on vacation. A recent study by Stylianou-Lambert (2011) in the context of visiting art museums shows that tourists who are predisposed to visit museums while at home have an increased desire to visit cultural attractions, including art museums, when abroad. These findings suggest a progression along activity interest through various stages (Brey & Lehto, 2007) and provide an excellent basis for examining the linkage that may exist between daily and vacation activities. Based on the above discussion, the first research question is:

RQ1: Does the spillover from home to away hold true with regard to leisure activities (visiting museums, skiing, hiking, shopping, swimming and fishing) that tourists bring to a tourism destination?

Second, as a consequence of the emphasis on the spectacular, exotic, liminal, and atypical world of difference, scant theoretical consideration has been paid to aspects of everyday life that are sustained in tourist experiences (Blichfeldt & Mikkelsen, 2014; Larsen, 2008): the factors that trigger a spillover from home to away, which nonetheless still has the potential for creativity and the unexpected (Larsen, 2008). Some studies have found that travel activities are closely linked to everyday practices (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Larsen, 2008; White & White, 2007) and tourists nevertheless retain many of the routines of their own culture (Wickens, 2002). In the same vein, involvement has emerged as a central concept for studying leisure and tourism behaviour (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Chang & Gibson, 2011; Smith et al., 2012). In addition, tourism is never entirely separate from the quotidian habits of daily experiences, which are part of the baggage (Baerenholdt et al., 2007; Currie, 1997; Edensor, 2001). Both leisure involvement and leisure habits encourage people to limit their choices and thus to reject alternative leisure

activities (Verplanken, Aarts, Knippenberg, & Moonen, 1998). These choices may lead to psychological commitment, an attitudinal predisposition and leads to favourable behavioural intentions (i.e., conative loyalty: Lee, Graefe, & Burns, 2007), and subsequently trigger a spillover from daily to touristic practices (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Kyle, Absher, & Chancellor, 2005). This poses interesting – and hitherto largely unexplored question(s). The second research question for this dissertation is:

RQ2: How does leisure involvement, leisure habits and psychological commitment as potential antecedents of the spillover from home correlate with away, in this case, vacation behaviour linked to favourite leisure activity participation?

Third, spillover is a bidirectional transfer from one life domain to another that is manifested in the expression of values, affect, skills, and/or behaviour (Staines, 1980). In addition, spillover occurs in both directions and can be perceived as positive or negative, based on the nature of the work (or other influencing domain) (Chesley, 2005). In fact, what happens in the work domain can spill over into the family domain and vice-versa because one's behaviors and attitudes aren't necessarily bounded, and can transfer as a result (Zedeck, 1992). Work and home roles have the ability to enhance and enrich one another through the transfer of positive moods (wherein happiness or satisfaction in one role translates to happiness or satisfaction in another), cross-domain compensation (wherein success in one role assists the individual in dealing with deficiencies or failures in another), and transfer of competencies (wherein participation in multiple roles helps to buffer the negative stresses associated with the roles) (Wiese, Seiger, Schmid, & Freund, 2010). Wiener, Vardi, and Mukzyk (1981, p. 51) state that "positive or negative feelings may reach out and carry over (spillover) into other facets of life". This happens because the theoretical logic of spillover concept (Wilensky, 1960) holds that affect is compartmentalized in a variety of life domains, such as family life, leisure life, community life, and work life (Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel, & Lee, 2011).

In the tourism context, according to Uysal, Perdue, and Sirgy (2012), satisfaction with a trip to a resort affects other life domains, which in turn has an influence on overall life satisfaction. Uysal et al. (2012) explains this phenomenon based on the bottom-up spillover theory of subjective well-being (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell, 1976; Diener, 1984; Sirgy, 2002), which holds that life satisfaction is functionally related to satisfaction with all of life's domains and sub-domains, such as health, safety, family, and leisure and creation, including travel. Their study also suggests that the greater the satisfaction with events experienced on a tourist trip,

the greater the positive affect and the less the negative affect. The events occurring on a tourist trip contribute to both positive and negative affect in various life domains, which contribute in turn to changes in subjective well-being (Figure 3).
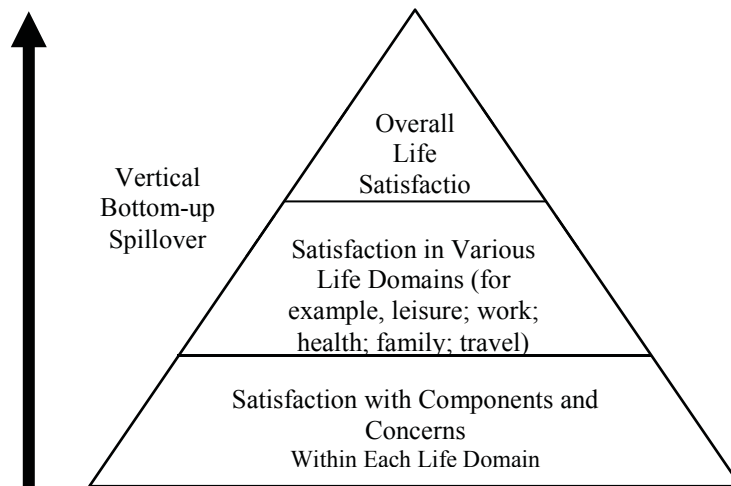
Figure 3. The hierarchy model of life-satisfaction (bottom-up spillover theory) (Neal et al., 1999; Sirgy et al., 2011)

Besides satisfaction with a trip, the seven dimensions of memorable tourism experience (MTE) scale (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, and knowledge; Kim's et al., 2012), culinary-gastronomic experiences (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013) and souvenirs (Braun-LaTour, Grinley, & Loftus, 2006) are significant factors that contribute to tourists' memories of a trip experience. In addition, some studies indicate that memories of a trip experience influence individuals' routines daily life after travel (Tsiotsou & Goldsmith, 2012), for example, in terms of subjective well-being. This leads to the third research question of this dissertation:

RQ3: Do dimensions of a memorable tourism experience scale, culinary-gastronomic experiences and souvenirs trigger a spillover from away to home and how?

1.3 Purpose and research questions

The purpose of this dissertation was to create a broader understanding of the antecedents of spillover in the context of tourism, in particular, from home to away and vice versa, based on the spillover concept. To achieve this purpose, this dissertation has three sub-purposes, which are related to the three research questions. The first sub-purpose is to examine the spillover of activities (visiting museums, skiing, hiking, shopping, swimming, and fishing) based on tourists' behavioural patterns at home and while at a tourism destination. The second sub-purpose is to examine the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, psychological commitment, and vacation behaviour. Leisure involvement, leisure habits and vacation behaviour are proposed as the antecedents of the spillover linked to a favourite leisure activity from home to away, while vacation behaviour is the dependent variable. The third sub-purpose is to explore whether the seven dimensions of memorable tourism experience, culinary-gastronomic experiences, and souvenirs as potential antecedents of spillover from away or a sub-domain of travel, affect tourists other life domain, in this case, home life through memories of a trip experience and subjective well-being. This dissertation consists of three main research questions and is addressed in four empirical studies (Table 1).

Table 1.   Overview of the four different studies (articles)

	Study 1	Study 2	Study 3	Study 4
Main Research Questions	RQ1, RQ2	RQ3		
Study	Study 1	Study 2	Study 3	Study 4
Aim	To examines possible spillover from the home to the tourism setting by investigating the influence of leisure involvement, leisure habits, and psychological commitment on vacation behaviour.	To examine how the specific dimensions of Kim et al.'s (2012) memorable tourism experience (MTE) scale affect tourists' subjective well-being at a single destination.	To explore the components of a memorable food experience (MFE) from a tourist's perspective.	To explore the central elements of souvenirs that help tourists reminisce about their holiday experiences and encourage their intentions to revisit a destination.
Measures	Leisure involvement, leisure habits, psychological commitment, and vacation behaviour	Seven experiential dimensions of the MTE scale (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, and knowledge) and subjective well-being.		
Time	June–August 2016	June–August 2015	October–December 2016	
Sample	215 international tourists visiting Rovaniemi, Finland	202 tourists who have visited Rovaniemi, Finland	22 tourists who had visited Rovaniemi in the last two years and tasted local food while at the destination	18 tourists who had taken a vacation in the last two years and had bought souvenirs during their visit to Rovaniemi
Research Design	Online questionnaire, exploratory factor analysis, regression analysis	Online questionnaire, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, moderation analysis	Semi-structured interview, grounded theory approach	

1.4   Overview of research approach

This section aims to explain the underlying research philosophy of this dissertation.

1.4.1   Ontology, epistemology, and methodology

Research is the process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting data in order to understand a phenomenon (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). This process is guided by a paradigm or set of beliefs (Jennings, 2001). A research paradigm is the compilation of tentatively held together assumptions, concepts, and propositions which arise from an individual's basic beliefs, attitudes, and feelings in relation to thinking and research (Krauss, 2005). A paradigm describes how the world is understood (ontology), how knowledge is created through the relationship between the research participant and the researcher (epistemology), and how information will be gathered (methodology) (Aitken & Valentine, 2006). The ontological question stresses the nature of reality, while the epistemological question concerns the nature of knowledge and the relationship between the knower (observer) and that known (what is observed) (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Ontological and epistemological aspects concern what is commonly referred to as a person's worldview, which has significant influence on their perceptions of the relative importance of the aspects of reality (Creswell, 2003).

Grix (2004) outlines three paradigms concerning the ontological question: objectivism, subjectivism (also called constructivism), and pragmatism. Lincoln and Guba (1985) present the two paradigms of constructivism, which they call naturalism and positivism, to which they add post-positivism, participatory, and critical theory (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Creswell (2009) considers four worldviews: post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory, and pragmatism. From an epistemological viewpoint, there are traditionally two broadly divergent paradigms: positivist and interpretivist. Positivism, post-positivism, and interpretivism are considered to be key research paradigms (Grix, 2004).

Ontology is concerned about the nature of existence, reality, and being (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). More specifically, the ontological assumption that a social science researcher has about the nature of the social world and the way it is examined are related to the essence of the investigated phenomenon. What reality is and how one defines it are questions that shape a central philosophical standpoint which determines how one conducts research (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Burrell and Morgan (1979) distinguish between two major ontological

approaches. The objectivist approach comprehends the nature of being through a realist point of view, while the subjectivist approach sees it through a nominalist point of view. Veal (2011) states that, in the positivist paradigm, the researcher assumes that the "real world" being studied is exactly as seen by the researcher, while in interpretive and similar approaches the researcher's perspective is not privileged: emphasis is placed on the varying views and realities perceived by the people being studied.

Epistemology questions what knowledge is, how it can be acquired, and to what extent knowledge related to any given subject or entity can be acquired. How do we know something? and how do we know something is true? are central epistemological questions (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). More specifically, epistemology refers to the relationship between the researcher and the phenomenon being studied. The distinction is most sharply drawn between the positivist and interpretive stance, with the former seeking to adopt an objective, distanced perspective, while the interpretive researcher is more subjective and engaged with the subjects of the study. In addition, methodology refers to the ways by which knowledge and understanding are established (Veal, 2011) (Figure 4).
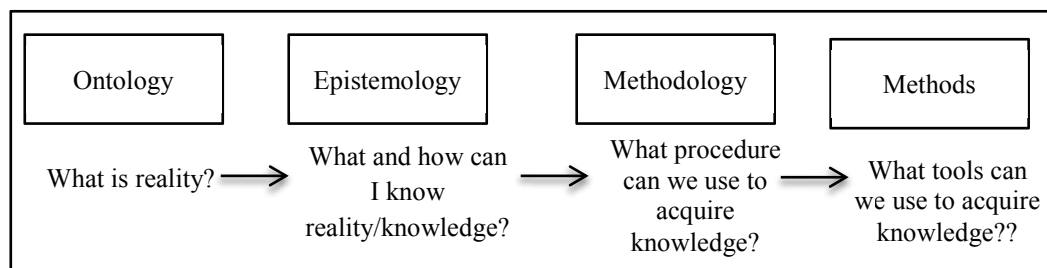
Figure 4. Explanations of the terms ontology and epistemology (including methodology and methods)

Given that the purpose is to create a broader understanding of the antecedents of the spillover from home to away and vice versa, based on the spillover concept, this dissertation coincides with the assumptions underlying an interpretive rather than a positivist approach; however, methodological pluralism was used to answer the research questions. In addition, both quantitative (survey questionnaire; study 1, 2) and qualitative methods (interview; study 3, 4) were used to collect data, and the information obtained is integrated to answer the three research questions. One reason for this decision is that a wholly quantitative methodology was not appropriate for this dissertation; it has been argued in previous studies that a purely quantitative approach "rarely captures the subtleties of the tourism experience" (McIntosh, 1998, p. 121). In addition, a major criticism of quantitative approaches is that they are incapable of dealing with reality in all its complexity

(Davies, 2003). Figure 5 provides an overview of the epistemology, ontology, methodology, and methods used in this dissertation.
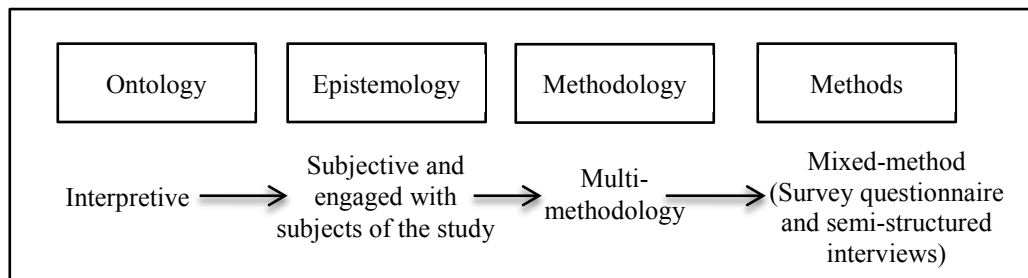
Figure 5.   Research approach used in this dissertation (epistemology, ontology, methodology and methods)

Interpretive approaches to research rely on people's providing their own explanations of their situations or behaviour (Veal, 2011). The interpretive paradigm is concerned with understanding the world as it is from the subjective experiences of individuals (Kaplan & Maxwell, 1994). From an ontological perspective, this dissertation thus adopts a subjectivist approach based on which people provide their own accounts or explanations of situations or behaviour (Veal, 2011). In addition, the epistemological approach relies on the views of participants to interpret complexities and meanings. These interpretations are then discussed to develop knowledge and understanding regarding the concepts under study (Creswell, 2003; Jennings, 2001). The interpretive approach adopted in this dissertation can be linked to one of the four paradigms (perspectives) in the field of consumer research proposed by Østergaard and Jantzen (2000): buyer behaviour, consumer behaviour, consumer research, and consumer studies.

The consumer research paradigm is closely aligned with the philosophical foundation of this dissertation. According to Østergaard and Jantzen (2000), consumer research does not perceive the individual consumer as rational. Instead, consumers are assumed to be emotionally and narcissistically determined. The authors state that consumer research is equivalent to interpretive consumer research, within which "the consumer stays in the spotlight – being a tourist, who looks for new experiences through consumption" (pp. 16–17). In addition, consumption is employed as "a way to construct a meaningful life" (p. 17): it is viewed as consumers' meaning-making. By contrast, the buyer behaviour paradigm focusses solely on the purchase situation, and consumption is based on fulfilling fundamental needs. In the second paradigm, consumer behaviour, the consumer is seen as a rational and logical information processor and metaphorically compared to a computer; consumers are in a constant state of rational information processing. Consumption studies differ from the three earlier

perspectives by not focusing on the individual consumer as an independent self. Instead, the consumer is now viewed as a tribe member. The meaning of this consumer metaphor is that product or service symbolism drives groups of consumers to consume specific products so that they can be recognised by other members of their group. In this paradigm, the consumer is no longer the unit of analysis but a tribe member in a universe created by product symbolism (Østergaard & Jantzen, 2000).

As noted above, this dissertation uses methodological pluralism to answer the research questions, to ensure a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon, and to overcome the limitations of each approach (Jennings, 2001). In fact, operationalizing the research questions of this dissertation required a mix of both quantitative criteria and qualitative material to delve into the study area. The core rationale for mixing methods is that neither qualitative research nor quantitative research is sufficient by itself to capture the complex issues surrounding a study's research question(s) (Ryan, 2010). The mixing of methodological approaches and research methods has become commonplace in tourism research (Koc & Boz, 2014). However, in the context of this dissertation, it should be noted that mixed methods are not applied in a single study; rather, the dissertation as a whole consists of four studies, two qualitative and two quantitative. Ridenour and Newman (2008) categorize mixed method studies into the nonintegrative, the simultaneous attempt, and the interactive continuum. They state that these categories are helpful in examining the possibility of the principles of using mixed methods. This dissertation is closest to the nonintegrative category, in which "qualitative research is carried out, followed by the use of quantitative methods, or the other way around, without having either method informing the other. The two methods are used independently without integrating them or linking them to a common purpose" (Ridenour & Newman, 2008, p. 27). Figure 6 offers a diagrammatic representation of the research methodology.
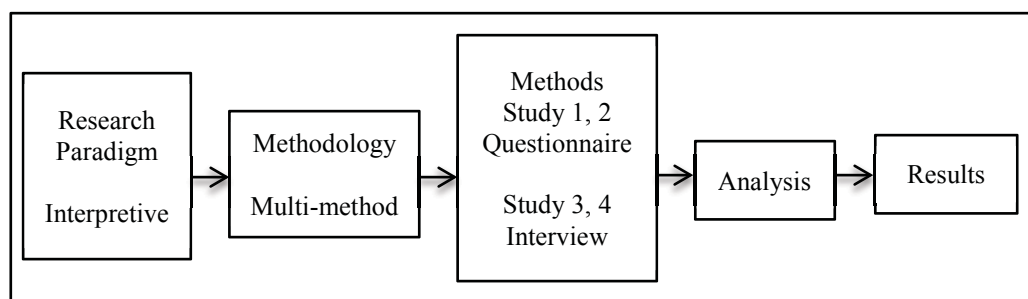
Figure 6.   Research Methodology

1.5 Research process and the structure of the dissertation

This dissertation meets its overall purpose through the four articles. The research questions are answered through the four articles (Table 2).

Table 2. Research Questions

Articles	Title of the article	Research Question Addressed
1	Activity participation home and away: Examining the spillover theory among families on holiday.	RQ1: Does the spillover from home to away hold true with regard to leisure activities (visiting museums, skiing, hiking, shopping, swimming and fishing) that tourists bring to a tourism destination? RQ2: How does leisure involvement, leisure habits and psychological commitment as potential antecedents of the spillover from home correlate with away, in this case, vacation behaviour linked to favourite leisure activity participation?
2	Memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and outcomes.	RQ3: Do dimensions of a memorable tourism experience scale, culinary-gastronomic experiences and souvenirs trigger a spillover from away to home and how?
3	Exploring tourists' memorable food experiences: A study of visitors to Santa's official hometown.	
4	Relative contributions of souvenirs on memorability of a trip experience and revisit intention: A study of visitors to Rovaniemi, Finland.	

More specifically, the first and second research questions are addressed based on study 1, which lays the foundation for analysing the factors contributing to a spillover from home to away. The findings of studies 2, 3 and 4 are used to answer the third research question. The researcher acknowledges the imbalance between the numbers of studies used to answer each of the three research questions, which reflects the existing literature. While some studies have been conducted in explaining the spillover from home to away, there have been even very few attempts to examine the spillover from away to home. Therefore, in this dissertation, more attention (studies 2, 3, and 4) is devoted to gaining a better understanding of the antecedents of the spillover from away to home. The four articles in the dissertation can be positioned in a model to demonstrate how they relate to the spillover from home to away and vice versa (Figure 7).

Figure 7.   The four empirical studies positioned in a model

Study 1 answers the first and second research questions, which investigates family vacationers' behavioural patterns between leisure and vacation behaviours in terms of activity participation (visiting museums, skiing, hiking, shopping, swimming, and fishing). It also examines potential spillover factors: leisure involvement, leisure habits, and psychological commitment and their relationship with vacation behaviour. Studies 2, 3 and 4 focus on the third research question. Study 2 examines the interrelationship between the specific dimensions of the memorable tourism experience scale and tourists' subjective well-being. Study 3 explores the components of a memorable food experience from a tourist's perspective. Study 4 explores the central elements of souvenirs that contribute to tourists' memorability of the trip experience and revisit intention. Overall, these studies employ both qualitative and quantitative methods (studies 2, 3: qualitative; studies 1, 4: quantitative) conducted in different contexts: general tourism context (study 2), food consumption (study 3), and souvenirs (study 4).

The research setting of all four studies is Rovaniemi, Northern Finland. This dissertation is structured into six chapters (Figure 8). The first chapter, the

introduction, familiarises the reader with the background of the study, the research problem, and the study's purpose and research questions, before providing an overview of the research approach – ontology, epistemology, and methodology – and the research process and structure of the dissertation. The literature review in chapter 2 discusses the theoretical concepts used in the different studies. These include proposed antecedents of spillover from home to away such as leisure involvement, habit, and psychological commitment, vacation behaviour in the form of similar behavioural patterns in terms of activity participation linked to family vacationers' favourite leisure activities, and projected antecedents of spillover from away to home, such as dimensions of memorable tourism experiences, culinary-gastronomic experiences and souvenirs including memories and subjective well-being as the outcome. The next chapter details the methodology with different sub-sections and describes the study's research, design, method, and analysis, including measurement instruments used in the quantitative study, pilot testing, analysis, and statistics; it concludes with a discussion of methodological limitations. This is followed by chapter 4, which introduces and summarises the four empirical studies that are part of this dissertation. Chapter 5 consolidates the findings and theoretical contributions of this dissertation. Chapter 6 of this dissertation reports on managerial implications, notes limitations of the study, and offers suggestions for future research. The four empirical studies are included in the Appendix.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                Introduction                 │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│              Literature Review              │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                 Methodology                 │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│              Summary of studies             │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                 Conclusion                  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Managerial implications, limitations, and future research │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
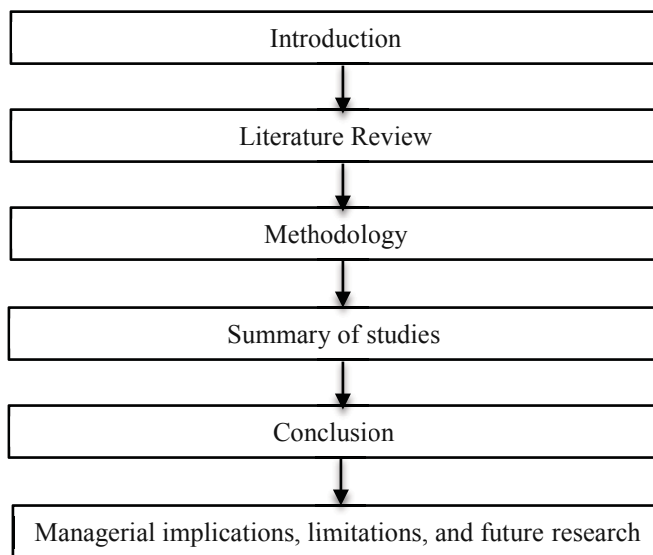
Figure 8.   Structure of the dissertation

2   LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a review of the literature that serves as the theoretical foundation for the empirical studies in this dissertation, the focus of which is to bring insight to the antecedents of the spillover from home away and vice versa, based on the spillover concept. Given that the spillover concept has already been discussed in the research problem section, the literature review section begins with the antecedents (leisure involvement, leisure habits, and psychological commitment) and outcomes (vacation behaviours) of the spillover from home to away in terms of activity participation. The rest of the literature review is linked to the antecedents (memorable tourism experience, culinary gastronomic experiences and souvenirs) and outcomes (memories and subjective well-being) of the spillover from away to home. Figure 9 provides an overview of the concepts used in the different studies.

Study 1	Study 2	Study 3	Study 4
Leisure Involvement

Leisure Habit

Psychological Commitment

Vacation Behaviour | Memorable Tourism Experience

Subjective Well-Being | Culinary-Gastronomic Experiences

Memory, Memorable Tourism, its Dimensions and Links to Culinary-Gastronomic | Souvenir and Souvenir Shopping Experiences

Memory, Memorable Tourism Experience

Revisit Intention |

Figure 9.   An overview of the concepts used in different studies

2.1   Antecedents and outcome of spillover from home to away: leisure involvement, leisure habit, psychological commitment and vacation behaviour

In the context of this dissertation, leisure involvement, leisure habits, and psychological commitment are considered possible antecedents that trigger a spillover from home to away in terms of activity participation linked to the tourist's favourite leisure activity, while vacation behaviour is the outcome and is characterised as the propensity to undertake the same favourite leisure activity in a tourism setting as at home (Figure 10).
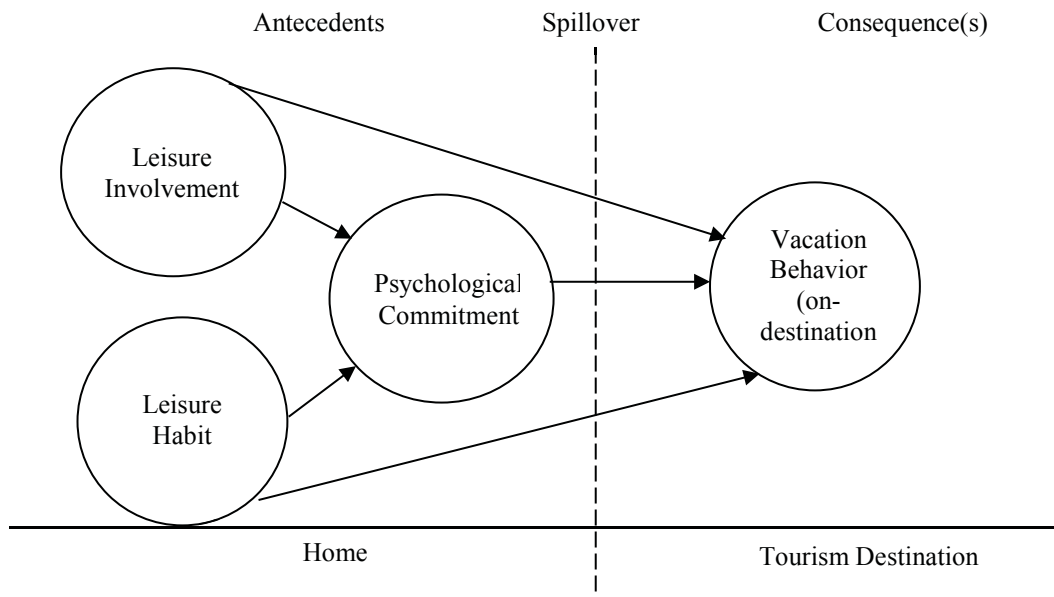
Figure 10. Antecedents of spillover from home to away (tourism destination) in terms of activity participation

2.1.1   Leisure involvement, leisure habit and psychological commitment

According to Slama and Tashchian (1985) leisure involvement is the extent to which an individual is involved in leisure and recreational activities. Leisure involvement enhances individuals' sensitivity to certain activities and their perceptions of a particular activity's importance (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). Laurent and Kapferer (1985) argue that involvement is best viewed as a multifaceted concept and proposed five elements of involvement: importance, pleasure, symbolism, risk probability, and risk consequences. McIntyre and Pigram (1992) extend Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) research to develop three components of leisure involvement, which consist of attraction, self-expression, and centrality to lifestyle. Attraction is a relatively intuitive component of involvement in recreational activities that refers to the concepts of importance and pleasure, implying activities that are important to an individual. Self-expression is similar to the signs, symbols, or personal impressions that individuals wish to convey to others through their leisure participation. The centrality of leisure in general or of a particular leisure activity includes a person's perception that an activity has valued life benefits, such as pressure reduction or other significant health outcomes (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). Based on McIntyre and Pigram's (1992) three dimensions, many subsequent quantitative studies have assessed individuals' involvement in leisure and recreational

activities (Gross & Brown, 2008; Lee & Shen, 2013). Over the years, a multidimensional approach to understanding involvement in tourism and leisure contexts has also included identity/lifestyles, hedonicity, and socializing (Chang & Gibson, 2015) and pleasure, centrality, self-identity, social identity and sociability (Chang, Gibson, & Sisson, 2014). Leisure involvement contributes to participants' psychological commitment (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004) and is considered an antecedent of such commitment (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998).

Recent studies show that leisure involvement has a significant influence on tourists' continued participation in activities; the more intense the involvement in an activity at home, the greater the tendency to participate in the same activity when travelling (Chang & Gibson, 2011; Cheng, Hung, & Chen, 2016; Smith et al., 2012). Tourists feel that the activities are important and that their lives are associated with these activities (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). Tourists can express themselves through their total involvement in these activities (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999). By such continuing involvement, participants can acquire rich experiences, making it difficult to change their interests (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004).

Leisure habits: Habits are defined as "learned sequences of acts that have become automatic responses to specific situations, which may be functional in obtaining certain goals or end states" (Verplanken, Aarts, & van Knippenberg, 1997, p. 539). This means that when a goal that is associated with a habit is activated, responses that are connected to specific situations or cues become more accessible. These cues eventually automatically trigger the habitual response (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2000). Habits are developed by extensive repetition, becoming so well learned that they do not require conscious effort (Verplanken & Orbell, 2003). Habits are formed by undertaking the same behaviour frequently and consistently in a similar context for the same purpose (Verplanken & Aarts, 1999). The repetitive nature of goal-directed behaviour causes the mental representation of that behaviour to be directly elicited when encountering the given context (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2000). Accordingly, conscious effort to plan and initiate goal-directed behaviour becomes redundant, so people can carry out goal-directed behaviour without forming an explicit intention to do so, because the behaviour is directly mentally accessed in the context at hand as a result of frequently and consistently having performed that behaviour in the past (Danner, Aarts, & de Vries, 2008).

According to Verplanken et al. (1997), a person using a habitual decision-making process typically bases choice on knowledge and attitudes that already exist in his or her mind. As habit strength increases, the depth of the information needed before making a decision decreases and is further augmented by the reduced activation of alternative responses (Janiszewski & van Osselaer, 2005). Recent

studies show that individuals develop leisure preferences, routines, and habits over extended periods of time, as they do with non-leisure travel behaviour (LaMondia & Bhat, 2012; Smith et al., 2012). Such habitual performances are unreflexively embodied in the tourist (Edensor, 2007) and are likely to induce similar behavioural patterns in both home leisure and tourism settings (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Carr, 2002).

Habits may also have a more powerful influence on activity choices at a tourism destination (Chang & Gibson, 2011), because they represent the path of least resistance in people's ongoing stream of action (Janiszewski & van Osselaer, 2005). Researchers have found that habits can have a significant effect on future behaviour and supplement cognitive evaluations (Aarts et al., 1997) while overriding the attitudinal and subjective components of norms (Laroche, Bergeron, & Barbaro-Forleo, 1996). Bentler and Speckart's (1979) study showed that actions become habitual over time and, importantly, that these actions can be instigated without the mediation of intentions. Indeed, the results of their study clearly show that a measure of habit does predict future behaviour over and above intentions, suggesting that such behaviour is initiated without much deliberation and thought. Moreover, habit plays a role in describing otherwise unexplained variances in consistency in past, current, and future behaviours (Verplanken et al., 1997).

Psychological commitment: Another construct that has assisted leisure researchers in understanding the enduring nature of the leisure experience is commitment, which is defined as an individual's dedication, loyalty, devotion, and attachment (Buchanan, 1985), whereby individuals seek to make their current attitudes consistent with their past behaviour or rationalize their behaviour by developing relevant attitudes to support it (Kiesler, 1971). Committed customers are psychologically attached (Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard, 1999); they invest themselves emotionally and financially in a continuing relationship and exhibit loyal behaviours regardless of situational conditions (Story & Hess, 2006).

Recent studies suggest that perceived cost, perceived irrecoverability, expected regret if stopped, and other relevant sentiments that develop from a leisure activity should be attributed to commitment (Chang & Gibson, 2015). Psychological commitment is based on continuity and resistance to change (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998, 2004). When individuals enjoy certain things, they will be unlikely to change their preferences. Thus, psychological commitment is considered an essential element for determining why people choose to engage in a particular leisure activity (Pritchard et al., 1999).

Pritchard et al. (1999) and Iwasaki and Havitz (2004) categorize psychological commitment into informational complexity, position involvement, volitional choice, and resistance to change. Information complexity refers to the extent to which information processing is required to form cognitive structures, that is, the knowledge and beliefs related to a specific service provider (McQuiston, 1989). Positional involvement refers to a situation in which important values or one's self-image are identified with a particular service or product choice (Freedman, 1964). Volitional choice refers to the process that involves both freedom from constraints and the freedom to choose (Bagozzi, 1993). Resistance to change describes an individual's unwillingness to change his or her preferences regarding important associations regarding a product (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004).

2.1.2   Vacation Behaviour

Vacation behaviour contains information about the destination (such as domestic vs. international), the type of accommodation, the transport mode used, and so on. Vacation behaviour reflects the outcomes of the very complex decision-making processes of individuals and households who are part of a social system with its typical norms, routines, habits, culture, institutions, and the like (Decrop & Kozak, 2014). Social systems are characterised by production and reproduction mechanisms that are reflected in daily activity patterns, of which vacations are a part (Bargeman, Joh, & Timmermans, 2002). In the context of this dissertation, vacation behaviour is characterised as the propensity to undertake the same favourite leisure activity in a tourism setting as at home and pertains to family vacations.

2.2 Antecedents of the spillover from away to home

This sections describes the possible antecedents (dimensions of memorable tourism experience scale, culinary-gastronomic experiences and souvenirs) and outcomes (memories and subjective well-being) of the spillover from away (tourism destination) to home (Figure 11).
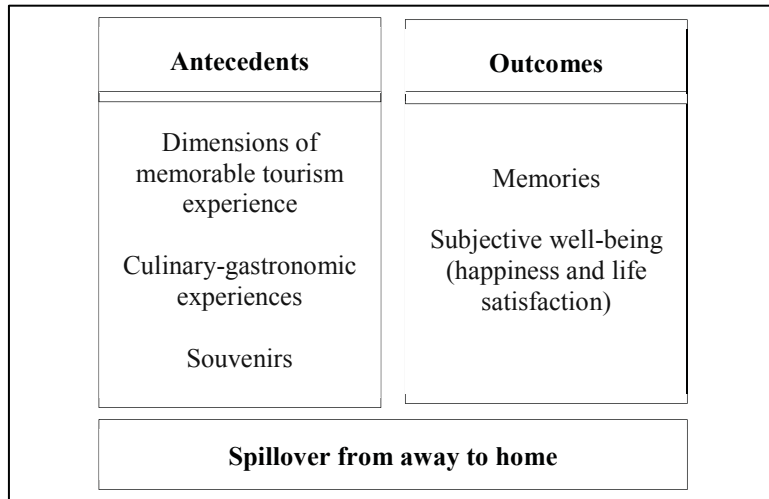
Figure 11. Antecedents and outcomes of the spillover from away to home

2.2.1 Dimensions of memorable tourism experience scale

Recent studies have examined and defined an MTE as a travel experience involving positive memories that tourists acquire after personally experiencing special and surprising tourist activities and events (Kim et al., 2012). According to Kim's et al. (2012) a memorable tourism experience consists of seven experiential dimensions: hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, and knowledge.

Hedonism has been called a four-*S* notion: sea, sand, sun, and sex (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007); it is defined as the seeking of sensual pleasure (Trauer & Ryan, 2007). 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). Hedonism is an integral part of leisure experiences and is a crucial factor in determining tourists' satisfaction and future behaviours (Dunman & Mattila, 2005). Otto and Ritchie (1996) confirm that hedonistic factors are a construct in the tourism experience.

Lee and Crompton (1992) define *novelty* as the difference in the degree and mode of the tourist experience sought by the visitor to a destination compared to his or her previous experience. Seeking novelty 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). Novelty is characterised by new and unfamiliar experiences (Cheng & Lu, 2013) and is an important factor in tourist satisfaction (Bello & Etzel, 1985). Novelty influences tourists' decision-making processes (Petrick, 2002) and is a core input for memories (Kim, Ritchie, & Tung, 2010).

Local culture involves the local population or a significant ingredient involved in developing the destination (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Tourists' experiences are constantly mediated through social interactions (Selstad, 2007) and are situated in the gap between locals and tourists (Auld & Case, 1997). The heart of the tourist experience lies in the interaction between the visitors and the local people (Reisinger & Turner, 1998). Social interaction between the visitors and the hosts of the community (local culture) has been identified as a crucial element of the tourist experience (Carmichael, 2005); indeed, Morgan and Xu (2009) claim that it is the most memorable aspect of the tourist experience.

Refreshment is one of the most important motivational forces for tourism experiences aimed at escaping from routine and stressful environments (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Studies suggest that people often feel happier, healthier, and more relaxed after a leisure trip (Uysal, Perdue, & Sirgy, 2012). Refreshment is the most basic defining component of tourism activities, and it affects the memory of travelling (Kim et al., 2012). It focuses on the state of mind and depth of experiential engagement. These experiences are not only engaging but also emotionally intense. Individuals highly value refreshment as a psychological benefit of their travel experiences (Uriely, 2005).

Meaningfulness is one way in which individuals find meaning through tourism experiences. As a part of life experience, tourism experience appears to constitute a large part of meaning making for individuals (Tsai, 2016). If an experience is meaningful, it leaves a lasting impact (Ballantyne, Packer, & Sutherland, 2011). Meaningfulness can act as a catalyst for a tourist's personal development and change. Kim et al.'s (2012) study indicates that memorable experiences are personally significant. For example, after returning home, everyday life may be viewed in a new way; what is experienced and learned during the trip can be absorbed into people's daily lives (Tarssanen, 2007). According to Tsiotsou and Goldsmith (2012), the meaningfulness of an experience makes it memorable. Chandralal and Valenzuela's (2013) study shows that tourists gained

meaningfulness from tourism experiences through self-development, relationship development, and enhanced family well-being.

Involvement is defined as the level of importance a customer attributes to an object, action, or activity, and the enthusiasm and interest that is generated thereby (Goldsmith & Emmert, 1991). Involvement enhances not only an individual's sensitivity to certain activities and his or her perception of a particular activity's importance but also enhances the individual's commitment to specific services or places (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). From the perspective of leisure and tourism, involvement is defined as the degree of interest in an activity and the affective response associated with that interest (Manfredo, 1989). Tourists' involvement with travel experiences is the most influential factor on memory (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992).

Knowledge has been defined as a cognitive aspect of the tourist experience involving learning and education (Morgan & Xu, 2009). The desire to learn affects where people go and what they do while visiting a destination (Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2004). Travel experiences provide myriad unique learning opportunities for the tourist, where consumer learning comes in the form of newly acquired practical skills, knowledge, practical wisdom, and self-consciousness (Chen, Bao, & Huang, 2014).

2.2.2   Culinary-gastronomic experiences

Food is an important tourist attraction in an assortment of forms, and it enhances or is central to the visitor experience (Henderson, 2009; Quan & Wang, 2004). Tourist food consumption is a unique form of eating that occurs in a foreign context (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Local food consumption connects tourists' with a destination's landscape and unique way of life (Mason & Paggiaro, 2012) and contributes, above all, to visitor experiences (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016). These culinary–gastronomic experiences are founded on local, original, and authentic foods, which represent the local food culture (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016; Mynttinen, Logren, Särkkä-Tirkkonen, & Rautiainen, 2015). Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2009, p. 424) affirm that "the desire to travel and taste unique and authentic dishes is becoming one of the biggest paradigms in the tourism industry". As a result, the importance of tourists' food consumption goes beyond being a daily practice and may constitute a significant aspect of the holiday experience (Okumus, Okumus, & McKercher, 2007).

Eating novel foods during a holiday is a mark of an authentic experience that most visitors crave to participate in (Wijaya et al., 2013). For example, Mynttinen's et

al. (2015) study found that Russian tourists in the South Savo region of Finland were more inclined to taste local food. Tourists put their personal taste preferences aside when taking the opportunity to try something novel and exciting, as illustrated by Chang's et al. (2010) study, which demonstrated that many Chinese tourists expressed enthusiasm for exploring the Australian culture through food culture, and to gain authentic travel experience.

Quan and Wang (2004) applied a travel experience model to study the role of tourists' food consumption in their travel experiences. They argue that the levels of memorability and intensification determine whether tourists' food consumption during travel becomes a peak tourist experience rather than a supporting consumer experience – that is, if the consumption of food is a peak tourist experience, it leaves an unforgettable memory. In addition, consumption of local food arouses specific emotional responses, including enjoyment, sensory stimulation, and fulfilment (Mak et al., 2012). Unlike other forms of travel activities and attractions, tourism dining is an art form that gratifies all five of the human senses (Clark & Chabrel, 2007), and it may leave a lasting impression of a destination (Henderson, 2009). In fact, local food is seen as playing a significant role in enhancing sensual indulgence, which imprints strong memories upon the consumer's mind (Vignolles & Paul-Emmanuel, 2014). For example, Vignolles and Paul-Emmanuel's (2014) study indicates that food consumption addresses all five senses, while the sense of smell and taste imprint strong memories on the consumers' minds. In addition, Kauppinen-Räisänen, Gummerus, and Lehtola's (2013) study revealed that remembered positive and pleasurable food-related experiences originate mainly from sensory, emotional and social bases, as proposed by Dube and LeBel (2003). Their study also indicated the significance of family and friends during food consumption – that is, commensal eating, and which is linked to eating memory.

2.2.3   Souvenirs and its influence on memories of the trip

A *souvenir* refers to a gift, offering, or locally produced good related to a specific destination (Dougoud, 2000). The word itself was originally French for *to remember* (Gordon, 1986). Souvenirs are material objects, perhaps displayed on shelves or refrigerators (Tolia-Kelly, 2004), that link people with places and memories (Ramsay, 2009) and are some of the material stuff we live by (Miller, 2008). Souvenirs are often commercial objects purchased during travel that remind us of past experiences and places visited and encapsulate intangible emotional experiences (Gordon, 1986). Souvenirs are tangible symbols of the tourists' consumption (Mossberg, 2007). A good souvenir represents a local

culture by expressing its ancestry, language, and cosmology (Medina, 2003). According to Wilkins (2011), the souvenir product mix includes clothing, hats branded with a destination name and logo, a destination's speciality food, a destination's arts and crafts, photographs and paintings of the destination, and other items like key rings, fridge magnets, and mugs that are representative of the destination. Swanson and Timothy (2012) offer four souvenir categories: totality souvenirs (e.g., logoed objects that represent visitors' feelings about the destination), linking souvenirs (e.g., functional household goods such as kitchenware, rugs, or apparel), life souvenirs (e.g., food products that evoke nostalgic feelings), and pilgrimage souvenirs (e.g., a model pyramid from a pilgrimage site).

Souvenirs are tangible objects that preserve intangible trip memories and serve as reminders of the people, places, and events associated with the visit experience (Kong & Chang, 2016). Tourists bring back souvenirs as evidence of the special moments they experienced (Wilkins, 2011). Hitchcock (2000) points out that items purchased from destinations are more than just mementos of a certain time and place; the acquisition makes the experience tangible. Graburn (2000) argues that an individual who brings a souvenir home can relive the experience at a routine time and place; it can thus become part of the extraordinary in some small way in an ordinary space. In some cases, souvenir purchases could represent a significant portion of a tourist's consumption, directly affecting his or her travel experience (Swanson, 2004). Swanson and Timothy (2012) observed how tourists returned home with souvenirs to help them preserve and commemorate their experiences. In addition, souvenirs have the potential to remind people of their enjoyable experience at a tourist destination and even induce their intentions to revisit (Kim, Timothy, & Hwang, 2011). Overall, souvenirs are central to the tourism experience, with many tourists wanting to take home mementos of places they have been and things they have done. These artefacts are a means by which memories are maintained once the person returns to their home environment (Brennan & Savage, 2012).

2.3   Outcome(s) of the spillover from away to home

2.3.1   Memories

Memory is "an alliance of systems that work together, allowing us to learn from the past and predict the future" (Baddeley, 1999, p. 1). Memory is the most important personal source of information through which tourists decide whether to revisit a place (Fernandez & Paez, 2008). Episodic memories, which involve

individuals' long-term storing of factual memories concerning personal experiences (Schwartz, 2011), have been identified as the most fruitful for study in relation to tourist experiences (Larsen, 2007).

After travelling, individuals remember particular experiences, and these memories are derived from their on-site experiences (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). From a dynamic perspective, tourism experiences occur through individuals' mental, mainly memory, processes (Larsen, 2007). While on-site tourism experiences are momentary and may provide transitory feelings (Kim, 2009), experiences stored in the human memory are of great importance as travelers often reflect on their trip experiences (Neal, Sirgy, & Uysal, 1999). The memory of a trip is critical, as it "holds a certain attraction and intrinsic reward that materialize in the moments of storytelling" (Neumann, 1999, pp. 179–180), reliving an event long after it has occurred (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004).

2.3.2 Subjective well-being

Memories of holidays have been shown to contribute to individuals' happiness through reminiscent memories (Morgan & Xu, 2009) and to affect different life domains, such as family and social life (Sirgy et al., 2011). Nawijn's study (2011a, 2011b) demonstrates that people who take vacations appear to be marginally happier than those who do not and that the memories of vacations produce effects in people's lives. The studies of Chandralal et al. (2015), Gilbert and Abdullah (2004), McCabe and Johnson (2013), and Sirgy et al. (2011) indicate that memories generated from the most recent trip not only contribute to overall satisfaction with leisure life but also to other life domains (life satisfaction). Hence, in this dissertation, subjective well-being is measured using happiness and life satisfaction (McCabe & Johnson, 2013).

Subjective well-being is defined as an individual's cognitive evaluation of his or her own life as positive and can include pleasure, the absence of negative emotions, and high satisfaction with life (Diener, Lucas, & Oishi, 2009). Subjective well-being focuses on what makes people feel good (Nawijn, Marchand, Veenhoven, & Vingerhoets, 2010) and can be conceptualised based on experience in a particular domain (e.g., job, consumption, family, tourism, health) or on satisfaction with life in general as a culmination of an individual's current life circumstances (Dagger & Sweeney, 2006). Happiness and life satisfaction are the most frequently used representations of subjective well-being (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). Martin (2008) defines happiness as subjective well-being, since improvements in objective circumstances have proven to yield only limited increases in happiness (Layard, 2006). Happiness is about experiencing well-being as a subjective overall

enjoyment of one's life as a whole (Tsaur, Yen, & Hsiao, 2013). Happiness can also be understood as the accumulation of many small pleasures or quality moments (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). Life satisfaction can be defined as the "degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his life-as-a-whole favourably" (Veenhoven, 1991, p. 7). Life satisfaction is influenced by satisfaction with life domains (such as satisfaction with the community, family, work, social life, and health). Satisfaction with a particular life domain (say, social life), in turn, is influenced by lower levels of life concerns within that domain (such as satisfaction with social events related to a tourist trip). Thus, evaluations of individual life concerns influence life satisfaction. The greater the satisfaction with events experienced on a tourist trip, the greater the positive effect these events have on the life domains housing the events (Sirgy, Phillips, & Rahtz, 2011).

2.4   Summary of the literature review section

The literature review presented in this chapter has served to explain and clarify the constructs used in different studies based on the extant literature. Given that leisure involvement and leisure habits encourage people to limit their choices and reject alternative leisure activities, both leisure involvement and leisure habits emerge as the central concepts that could influence activity spillover from home to away. Both leisure involvement and leisure habits may lead to psychological commitment towards an activity. Therefore, leisure involvement, leisure habits, and psychological commitment are proposed as the antecedents that trigger a spillover from home to away in terms of activity participation linked to tourist's favourite leisure activity, while vacation behaviour is proposed as the outcome. Given that the seven dimensions of memorable tourism experience scale, culinary-gastronomic and souvenirs trigger memories of a trip experience, while memories have an influence on tourist's subjective well-being; the former have been proposed as the antecedents of the spillover from home to away and memories and subjective well-being as the outcome.

3   METHODOLOGY

3.1   Research design, method, and analyses

Research design involves the intersection of philosophy, research strategies of inquiry, and specific methods (Creswell, (2009). Research design has been defined as "the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure" (Selltiz, Johoda, Deutsch, & Cook, 1959, p. 25). This design process usually involves decisions regarding the types of questions that need to be asked in order to generate the required data, the methods of data collection and analysis, and sampling, along with pilot testing and revision of questions and techniques (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Within the field of tourism research there are many possible approaches and methods which can be used to gain knowledge, each with its own advantages and drawbacks. The first approach employs a positivist paradigm using quantitative methods and data. The second approach is more discursive and reflective, relying mainly on phenomenology and qualitative methods (Jennings 2005). This chapter provides details on the overall research design and the methodological choices made in the different articles.

3.2   Overall design: combining qualitative and quantitative methods

This dissertation combines quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection and analysis to answer the research questions and to ensure a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. This approach is categorized as mixed methods research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Mixed methods research is a "type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference technique for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding) and corroboration" (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007, p. 123). Combining quantitative and qualitative methods is fruitful for obtaining profoundly new empirical insights (Malina, Hanne, Nørreklit, & Selto, 2011); their confirming or complementing each other can lead to either multiple inferences or stronger inferences (Erzberger & Kelle, 2003) and provide for presenting a greater diversity of views (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

3.3   Quantitative research, emic perspective, and studies employing quantitative method

Quantitative research is confirmatory, involves theory verification (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), and typically addresses how often and how many (Malina et al., 2011). Firestone (1987) suggests that quantitative studies persuade the reader through underplaying individual judgment and stressing the use of established procedures, leading to results that are generalizable to populations. Quantitative methods rely on key concepts like variables, working hypotheses, and statistical probabilities. In these cases, explanatory interpretations derive from statistical analysis, which is directed towards tracing relations between variables and predictions (Galani-Moutaf, 2004).

This approach can be linked to the etic perspective. Etic research includes any study in which the conceptual categories are imposed by the researcher rather than initiated by the subject being studied. An etic stance assumes that a researcher decides what categories and questions are appropriate for investigating a particular context or set of theoretical questions (Martin, 2002). Categories and questions are deduced from prior theory and research, not from material gathered during the study. The use of web-based surveys is growing rapidly and is not an especially new technique in itself (Parsons, 2007). Some researchers have found that conducting surveys online has enjoyed similar response rates to paper surveys and yielded higher-quality data (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). This process is reflected in study 1.

Study 1 was designed to investigate family vacationers' preferred leisure activities and the spillover effect in the tourism setting by examining the influence of leisure involvement, leisure habits, and psychological commitment on vacation behaviour. This study employed a quantitative method using an online survey questionnaire. Respondents were first instructed to cite their single most favourite leisure activity undertaken during their free time and close to home, in order to respond to the leisure involvement, leisure habit, and vacation behaviour questions. The final questionnaire was online for three months (June–August 2016). The sample was based on international tourists visiting Rovaniemi, Finland. A total of 215 questionnaires were used in the data analysis.

Study 2 examined the MTE dimensions that influence tourists' subjective well-being. To reflect individual memories, the study operationalized Kim et al.'s (2012) 24-item MTE scale to measure the seven independent dimensions. A web-based survey was used to collect data from participants who visited Rovaniemi, Finland. Data was collected from June to August 2015. A total of 209 tourists who had

visited Rovaniemi completed the questionnaire. Ultimately, 202 questionnaires were used in the data analysis.

Survey questionnaires are regarded as an excellent technique for collecting large-scale quantitative data (McLean, 2006). However, they have been found to be limited in gaining a full understanding of a given issue when compared to the rich data obtained through semi-structured interviews (Blichfeldt & Kessler, 2009). Considering these points, the study utilized both a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

3.3.1   Measurement Instruments

Study 1 includes 27 items measuring leisure involvement, leisure habits, psychological commitment, and vacation behaviour. Eleven items, modified and adapted from Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon (2003), are used to measure leisure involvement across three domains: attraction (5 items), self-expression (3 items), and centrality (3 items). Leisure habits comprise eight items across three domains, modified from those used by Verplanken and Orbell (2003): automaticity (3 items), resistance (3 items), and regularity (2 items). Psychological commitment includes four items adapted from Chang and Gibson's (2011) study, while vacation behaviour is measured using four items adapted and modified from Chang's (2009) study. All items were scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". The scale length is in line with recommended standards. Mowen and Voss's (2008) study indicates that if a scale has dimensions, each dimension should have from three to five items.

Study 2 includes seven dimensions of MTE and one dimension related to subjective well-being (four items measuring happiness, and four items measuring life satisfaction). This study operationalized Kim et al.'s (2012) 24-item MTE scale measuring the seven independent dimensions (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement and knowledge). An eight-item-scale was used to measure subjective well-being (happiness and life satisfaction). Happiness was measured using four items adopted from Lyubomirsky and Lepper's (1999) Subjective Happiness Scale: "in general I consider myself very happy"; "compared to my friends I consider myself very happy"; "I am happy regardless of what is going on"; "I never seem as happy as I might be". Life satisfaction was measured using four items drawn from Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin's (1985) Satisfaction with Life Scale: "in most ways my life is close to my ideal"; "I am satisfied with my life"; "so far I have gotten the things that I want in my life"; "if I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing". MTE and subjective well-being were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1

= "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". Table 3 illustrates the operationalization of the constructs used in study 1 and 2 with variable sources and measurement items.

Table 3.   Operationalization of constructs used in study 1 and 2

Study 1
Leisure Involvement (Kyle et al., 2003) **Self-expression** X1 When I participate in my favorite leisure activity, I can be myself X2 You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them involved in their favorite leisure activity X3 When I participate in my favorite leisure activity others see me the way, I want them to see me **Centrality** X4 I find a lot of my life organized around my favorite leisure activity X5 I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with family members X6 Most of my family members are in some way connected with my favorite leisure activity **Attraction** X7 My favorite leisure activity is important to me X8 My favorite leisure activity interests me X9 Participating in my favorite leisure activity is one of the most enjoyable things that I do X10 Participating in my favorite leisure activity is pleasurable X11 I enjoy my favorite leisure activity **Leisure Habit (Verplanken & Orbell, 2003)** **Automaticity** X12 I do not need much of an effort to think about doing my favorite leisure activity X13 I do my favorite leisure activity without much thinking X14 I do my favorite leisure activity without having to consciously remember to do it **Resistance** X15 I feel strange if I do not participate my favorite leisure activity X16 My favorite leisure activity would require effort not to do it X 17 I would find it hard not to take part in my favorite leisure activity **Psychological Commitment (Chang & Gibson, 2011)** X18 I spend a lot of time doing my favorite leisure activity X19 I will regret if I stop and start to do another leisure activity X20 I will develop other relevant activities extended from my favorite leisure activity X21 I will lose touch with friends and family if I stop my favorite leisure activity **Vacation Behavior (Chang, 2009)** X22 I spend an adequate amount of my family vacation participating in favorite leisure activity each year X23 Whenever I take a family vacation, I am usually involved in my favorite leisure activity X24 Whenever I take a family vacation, I usually take the chance to improve my favorite leisure activity skills X25 Whenever I take a family vacation, I usually spend time taking part in my favorite leisure activity with family members

Study 2

Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (Kim, Ritchie, and McCormick, 2012)

Hedonism
X 1I was thrilled to have a new experience in Rovaniemi
X 2I took part in activities during the trip
X 3I really enjoyed the trip
X 4I had an exciting experience

Novelty
X 5I had a unique experience
X 6I had once-in-a-lifetime experience
X 7My trip to Rovaniemi was different from previous trips
X 8I experienced something new (e.g. food, activities etc.) during the trip

Local Culture
X 9I had a good impression of the local culture during the trip
X 10I had a chance to closely experience the local culture in Rovaniemi
X 11 Local people in Rovaniemi were friendly towards me

Refreshment
X 12I relieved stress during the trip
X 13I felt free from daily routine during the trip
X 14I had a refreshing experience
X 15I felt better after the trip

Meaningfulness
X 16I felt that I did something meaningful during the trip
X 17I felt that I did something important during the trip
X 18I learned something about myself from the trip

Involvement
X 19I visited a place that I really wanted to visit in Rovaniemi
X 20I enjoyed activities that I really wanted to do in Rovaniemi
X 21I was interested in the main activities offered to tourists

Knowledge
X 22I gained a lot of information during the trip
X 23I gained a new skill (s) from the trip
X 24I experienced new culture(s)

Subjective Well-being
Subjective Happiness Scale (Lyubomirsky and Lepper, 1999)
X 25In general, I consider myself very happy
X 26Compared to my friends, I consider myself very happy
X 27I am happy regardless of what is going on
X 28I never seem as happy as I might be

Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin, 1985)
X 29In most ways my life is close to my ideal
X 30I am satisfied with my life
X 31So far I have gotten the things that I want in my life
X 32If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing

3.3.2   Pre-testing of questionnaires

Sampling, measurement, and non-response errors are dangers of a poorly designed online questionnaire. Individuals may answer questions incorrectly, abandon questionnaires, and even refuse to participate in future surveys; thus, the benefits of online questionnaire delivery may not be fully realised. To prevent errors of this kind and their consequences, the present study follows comprehensive guidelines for the design of online questionnaires. These include (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 the questionnaire, (5) administering the questionnaire, (6) providing links to obtain more information about the study, and (7) concluding by thanking respondents for their time and effort. Other guidelines are related to layout, formatting, and question types and phrasing (Reynolds et al 2006).

It is important to be aware of sources of measurement error in self-completed survey questionnaires. Biemer (1991) identifies 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 be confine to one's close academic peers and personal friends. In the same vein, Dolnicar (2013) notes that pre-testing is critical to developing good survey questions. Rossiter (2011) suggests that it is particularly valuable to solicit feedback from other survey experts and to ask pre-test respondents to talk out loud when they complete the survey to see if they misunderstand or struggle with any of its aspects. Boyd, Westfall, and Stasch (1977) recommend a twenty-respondent sample, whereas Backstrom and Hursch (1963) indicate that a sample of thirty is adequate for pre-testing a questionnaire.

In study 1, to reduce potential measurement error, the questionnaire was pre-tested prior to dissemination among five academic researchers and ten students at the University of Vaasa, Finland in May 2016 to confirm the relevance, clarity, flow, and phrasing of the questions. A total of fifty potential respondents for the pilot testing were contacted through the university email system and asked to participate in the study. The survey participants did not complain about its length. It was estimated that each questionnaire could be completed within ten minutes. Due to the fact that the questionnaire was online, the respondents were indeed

able to complete it very quickly. After they had completed the survey, 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. Surveys used in the pilot study were omitted from the main study. For study 2, the authors pre-tested the questionnaire with five researchers at the University of Vaasa, Finland in October 2015.

Self-completion surveys may suffer from systematic bias if the target population consists of individuals with little or no education or who have difficulty reading or writing. The questionnaire was designed with the less-knowledgeable, low-end computer user in mind, and provided instructions to show users how to take each step. Self-administered surveys have no interviewer effects and run a lower risk of social desirability bias, as respondents answer more truthfully (Bethlehem & Biffignandi, 2011). In order to increase the response rate, the present study follows the tactics suggested by Gill and Johnson (2010), including emphasising the respondent's importance to the study and its confidentiality, using a good, clear, and simple survey design, and establishing the researcher's integrity by providing a clear explanation of the survey's purpose and how the data would be used.

3.3.3   Population, sampling frame, and sampling technique

A *population* is defined as "the universe of units" from which a statistical sample can be drawn, while *sample* is defined as a subset of a population (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 176). 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 unit of analysis in study 1 was family vacationers that have visited Rovaniemi, and the sampling frame included those tourists who had recently visited Rovaniemi, Finland. The sampling frame in study 4 also included tourists who had visited Rovaniemi.

Sampling methods fall into two categories: random (or probability) or other, nonprobability, methods (Davidson, 2006). A sample is considered random if every member of a population has an equal chance of being included in the sample (Warner, 2008). Convenience sampling involves participants who are readily available to the researcher; therefore, the sample is not chosen randomly (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Warner, 2008). Given the time and resource constraints, this study used convenience sampling, a non-probability sampling technique, for the data collection process. Convenience samples are common in the field of tourism research (Wickens, 1999) and are regarded as an acceptable strategy due to constraints related to accessibility, time, and finances (Ryan 1995). Convenience

sampling in this study was based on respondents' relative ease of access. The study participants were not selected randomly but on the basis of their willingness to respond.

3.3.4   Study setting

The study used Rovaniemi as the study site. Rovaniemi is an international and multifaceted travel destination located in Finland's northernmost province, Lapland. The city of Rovaniemi was granted a European Community Trademark as the Official Hometown of Santa Claus in 2010. Around 60% of foreign visitors come to Rovaniemi in the winter season (from mid-November through the end of April). Recent figures show that the destination attracts about 500,000 tourists a year. The majority of foreign tourists in Rovaniemi are Chinese, Spanish, Japanese, French, and Italian nationals (Visit Finland, 2018).

3.3.5   Data Analysis

The data from the survey were analysed using various statistical techniques, guided by the objectives of the study. In study 1 the data was coded and processed using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 24.0. A principal factor analysis using Varimax rotation was undertaken with nineteen items to confirm the pre-specified dimensions of leisure involvement and leisure habit. The results of the factor analyses showed that the item on each scale were unifactorial – i.e., they were measuring the same dimensions.

To examine the internal consistency of dimensions, Cronbach's alpha was used for the reliability analysis. The alphas for all six factors were robust, ranging from .82 to .92, which exceeds the recommended cut-off at .70 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

For the analysis, both structural equation modelling (SEM) and multiple linear regression analysis (MLR) were considered (Hair, Black, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). For complex structures including mediator and moderator effects, SEM is more powerful than MLR (Alavifar, Karimimalayer, & Anuar, 2012). However, MLR was chosen to investigate the relationships between a single dependent variable and a set of independent variables. The summated scales of the observed variables of the constructs were used when conducting MLR. Norusis (2009, p. 237) outlines that regression analysis can be used to answer questions in the following three ways: (1) can the values of the dependent variable be predicted from the values of the independent variables? (2) which variables are linearly

related to the dependent variable? and (3) can a subset of independent variables be identified that are useful for predicting the dependent variable? MLR was used because of its suitability for assessing constructs and relations between constructs in simple models, as in this case when only one mediating construct is in use. MLR provides a means of objectively assessing the magnitude and direction of each predictor's relationship to its outcome variable. It assumes that there is no interaction between input variables (non-colinearity) and a linear relationship between the output and input variables (i.e., the dependent variable is expressed as a linear combination of independent variables). According to this method, variables with higher regression coefficients may be considered more important to the tourist's vacation behaviour than those with lower regression coefficients, making it possible to determine which factor is most important to vacation behaviour (Oviedo-García, Vega-Vázquez, Castellanos-Verdugo, & Reyes-Guizar, 2014). In addition, R-squared (R^2, also called the coefficient of determination) is used to assess the goodness of fit of a regression. It refers to the proportion of variation explained by the regression (Hair et al., 2006).

In Study 2, exploratory factor analysis was run by applying Varimax rotation to find the underlying structure among the variables measured by multiple items. Then data were analysed using AMOS software to conduct SEM analysis. The researchers estimated the default model by implementing a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The model was tested for common method bias. To ensure its non-existence, a CFA was performed, in which all indicators included in the structural model were restricted to load on a single factor (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Then, a split-group approach was used to examine the moderating effects of tourists' demographic characteristics – age, gender, and nationality – on the link between each of the seven dimensions of MTE and subjective well-being.

3.4 Qualitative research, emic perspective, and studies employing qualitative method

Qualitative research is typically exploratory, involves theory generation (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), and answers "how" and "why" research questions (Malina et al., 2011). Qualitative research persuades the reader through rich description and strategic comparison across cases, thereby overcoming the abstraction inherent in quantitative studies (Yin, 2004). This approach is linked to the emic perspective, which is concerned with studying behaviours from within a system. The premise of the emic approach is the adoption of the subject's viewpoint by the researcher. A variety of methods are utilized to gain such insights, including interviews, participant observation, and observation by the

researcher(s) (Harris, 1968). Emic concepts are context-specific and studied within the system of one or several contexts, and their structure is discovered within the system (Triandis, 1993). Crucially, the emic approach relies on the adoption by the researcher of the actor's perspective; it tends to supply qualitative data, does not require a large number of available informants, and is especially useful for probing into peoples' own explanations and assessments of their situations (Galani-Moutaf, 2004).

Having assessed the subject in depth, the researcher determined that a wholly quantitative methodology would not be appropriate for this study, as previous studies have noted that a purely quantitative approach "rarely captures the subtleties of the tourism experience" (McIntosh, 1998, p. 121). Therefore, this study incorporated qualitative approaches to complement the empirical rigour provided by the quantitative data, because it is important to explore the personal, rich, and subjective narratives of individuals' memorable tourism experiences, culinary-gastronomic experiences, and souvenirs. The emic perspective using semi-structured interviews provided an understanding of the dimensionality of memorable food experiences (study 2) and the central elements of souvenirs that contribute to tourists' memorability of the trip experience and revisit intentions (study 3).

3.4.1   Pilot interviews, final interview guide, and justification for the use of interviews

In study 3, two participants were recruited for individual semi-structured pilot interviews held in September 2016. The pilot interviews lasted 10–30 minutes and aimed to identify key themes and issues related to why, how, what, and where participants chose to eat local food while on vacation. Based on these interviews, the final interview guide was developed; it consisted of standardized, open-ended questions organized into three sections. The first section focused on demographics (e.g., gender, age, marital status, occupation, and nationality). The second section focused on questions about interviewees' Rovaniemi vacation experiences (e.g., "When and with whom did you visit Rovaniemi?"; "What was your motivation for visiting Rovaniemi?"; "What activities did you participate in during your stay?"). The third section related to their local food experiences (e.g., "What kinds of local food did you eat during your recent visit to Rovaniemi, and with whom?"; "How was the experience?"; "What were the names of the local foods that you consumed and the places they were eaten at?"; "What made your food [culinary-gastronomic] experience memorable?").

For study 4, four participants were recruited for individual semi-structured pilot interviews held in September 2016. The pilot interviews lasted 10–30 minutes and aimed to identify key themes and issues related to why, what, and where participants bought souvenirs in Rovaniemi. Based on these individual pilot interviews, the interview guide was revised; it consisted of open-ended questions that were semi-structured in nature, consisting of three sections. The first section dealt with demographic matters such as gender, age, marital status, occupation, and nationality. The second section focused on the interviewees' vacation experiences in Rovaniemi (e.g., "When and with whom did you visit Rovaniemi?"; "What was your motivation to visit Rovaniemi?"; "What activities did you participate in during your stay?"). The third section related to interviewees' souvenir shopping experiences (e.g., "Did you buy souvenirs during your trip to Rovaniemi?"; "What kind of souvenirs did you buy?"; "What was your motivation for buying souvenirs?"; "Did you buy the souvenir for yourself or others?"; "Does the souvenir remind you of Rovaniemi?"; "Did you plan to buy souvenirs before travelling to Rovaniemi ?"; "How many souvenirs did you buy?"; "What kind of souvenirs do you prefer ?"; "What is it that makes the souvenirs you purchased memorable for you?"; "Do the souvenirs make you feel like visiting the destination again?").

Using interviews in both studies is justified because storytelling is critical in understanding tourism experiences; stories shape memories and impressions of events over time (McGregor & Holmes, 1999), and the richest accounts tend to centre around episodic memories of personally experienced events (Bosangit et al., 2015), rather than explicit memories of general facts and knowledge (Larsen, 2007). However, surveys are often employed, with a focus on administering questionnaires to tourists and consumers in culinary-gastronomic (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016a, b; Robinson & Getz, 2014; Tsai, 2016) and souvenir studies (Kong & Chang, 2012; Oviedo-Garcia, Vega-Vazquez, Verdugo, & Reyes-Guizar, 2014); very few studies have made use of qualitative methods like interviews and ethnographies in this research area (Gregson, 2011; Miller, 2008; Trinh et al., 2014). Therefore, data were gathered using semi-structured interviews for methodological enrichment, rather than relying on the often superficial information obtained through questionnaires.

3.4.2   Data analysis: Grounded theory, coding process, and justification for its use

In terms of data analysis, the grounded theory research design (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was deemed suitable for the studies that explore the dimensionality of memorable food experiences (study 2) and the central elements of souvenirs that

contribute to tourists' memorability of the trip experience and revisit intentions (study 3). Grounded theory is based on the assumption that social science theory can be built from data collected systematically in a social setting (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and is well suited to a study using an inductive, qualitative approach to inform and develop theory that is grounded in participants' data (Charmaz, 2006). The grounded theory approach is based on a range of qualitative research methods that use a systematic set of procedures and simultaneous (as opposed to sequential) processes of data collection and analysis to develop an inductive, derived grounded theory about a given phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). In addition, grounded theory involves breaking down the data into small units of meaning through successive layers of coding (Matteucci & Gnoth, 2017).

When analysing the interview data, both studies adopted the three steps for a grounded theory approach suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990). The initial step was scanning the data to obtain a broad understanding of it. The second step involved reading the interviews and listing categories. In the last step of data analysis, the coding work was undertaken (Kim et al., 2009). As Strauss and Corbin (1990) recommend, three types of coding were employed: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. The first coding step is usually referred to as open coding (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Due to the vast number of codes that initial coding usually generates, Charmaz (2006) suggests selecting the most useful analytical codes. Every line of each interview transcript was carefully analysed to extract specific information and the participants' views (Nunkoo & Ramikssoon, 2016). Table 4 illustrates how the open (line-by-line) coding worked in practice in study 2. The first column of the table contains the raw data extracted from the transcripts, and the second column details the initial codes extracted from the raw data through line-by-line coding.

Table 4.   Open coding (line-by-line coding) example

Participants Views (Extracted From Transcripts)	Open Coding (Line-by-Line Coding)
We tried a lot of specialties like Poronkäristys (my favorite), Leipäjuusto (I don't really like it), but also Ruisleipä, Grillimakkara, Korvapuusti, and I can't forget the Fazer chocolate. I always liked to taste new kind of food and well it was curious for the Leipäjuusto the taste is strange but for the others it was really good and tasty. I really miss Fazer chocolate. It's something interesting to discover new taste in foreigner's countries (Aurore, female, French).	specialities, strange, good, tasty, new taste

While the purpose of open coding is to break down, examine, compare, conceptualise, and categorize the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), axial coding helps researchers to answer questions regarding when, where, why, who, how, and with what consequences (Strauss & Corbin,1998). Axial coding attempts to relate a category and its subcategories (Corbin & Strauss, 1990) and reduces the database into a small set of themes or categories that characterise the process under study (Creswell, 2007). Axial coding is also known as theoretical coding (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser, 1978), which involves making connections between codes in order to form categories (Matteucci & Gnoth, 2017). Selective coding followed the axial phase. During selective coding, immersion within the data was achieved by reading transcripts multiple times and reviewing the coding choices (Lovell, 2016). As Creswell (2007) recommend, the identified concepts generated through the coding were compared with the existing literature to note similarities and identify research concepts. To enhance the validity and reliability, the overall process of grounded theory was considered to be a dynamic relationship between sampling and data analysis, which enabled the modification of the generated categories (subthemes) so that new data were adapted into the emerging theory (Nunkoo & Ramikssoon, 2016). Glaser (1978) refers to this process as developing an emergent fit. In addition, to bolster the credibility of the findings, participants were allowed to guide the inquiry process; their actual words were used during coding (Chiovitti & Piran, 2003). Table 5 illustrates the three stages of the coding process – open axial, and selective.

Table 5.   Example of the coding process in practice

Open Coding (Line-by-Line Coding)	Subthemes (Axial Coding)	Main Themes (Selective Coding)
specialities; local specialities; Poronkäristys; Ruisleipä; Grillimakkara; Korvapuusti; Karjalanpiirakka; salmon; cloudberry; taste new kind of food; taste is strange; really good and tasty; new taste; mouthwatering; crunchy; yummy; tastes different than anywhere else; tasted different; it tasted good; tasty; delicious; delicious flavours.	local specialities, taste	Local specialities and taste of food as a component of memorable food experience

Studies indicate that a grounded theory approach is appropriate for creating a theoretical model, assigning conceptual labels to data, and interpreting data in the fields of hospitality and tourism (Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). A significant advantage of this approach is its focus on distinct guidelines for generating theory. In addition, grounded theory, as used in these studies, possesses a number of distinctive characteristics compared to traditional qualitative methodological

approaches; for example, the theoretical categories are not created in a single step, but rather through a process of tentative conceptualisation whereby categories are created and redefined as relationships become clear. As categories become saturated by evidence, the researcher can then compare category to category and check the literature to see whether what has emerged fits or confounds existing theory. However, few studies have employed the grounded theory approach in culinary-gastronomy and souvenir research (Decrop & Masset, 2014; Torabian & Arai, 2016).

3.5   Methodological limitations

3.5.1   Methodological limitations of quantitative studies

In the quantitative study, first, data were collected using a web-based questionnaire survey. Tourists who did not access the questionnaire link during the data collection period could not participate. In addition, there was a lack of control over the response rate, and adopting a wider array of research methods may serve to overcome this methodological limitation. This could be operationalized through a range of research instruments, including focus groups, in-depth interviews, observations, and diaries obtained from sampled individuals (Creswell, 2007), along with family-based travel narratives to help understand the link between home and away in the family leisure travel context (Kozak, 2016). Second, the questionnaire was developed in English, thus excluding non-English speakers; the questionnaire should be translated into different languages if data are to be collected from several nationalities.

Third, the items of all measures in study 1 and 4 were scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". Using Likert-type scales (Likert, 1932) automatically implies bipolar answer options (Dolnicar, 2013). Dolnicar (2013) and Krosnick & Presser (2010) state that there appears to be no standard for the number of points on rating scale, with actual practice varying widely. Scherpenzeel (1995) found the highest reliability with 4/5-point scales and lower reliability at 10 points. By contrast, Krosnick & Presser (2010) argue that although a 5-point scale might be adequate, people may routinely make more fine-grained distinctions with a 7-point scale.

Fourth, in study 1 the pre-testing of the questionnaire was conducted in May 2016 among five academic researchers and ten students at the University of Vaasa, Finland. In study 2, the authors pre-tested the questionnaire with five researchers at the University of Vaasa, Finland in October 2015. However, some studies

recommend a sample size of twenty (Boyd et al., 1977) or even thirty (Backstrom & Hursch, 1963).

Fifth, in terms of sample size, Pedhazur (1997) suggests subject-to-variable ratios of 15:1 or 30:1 when generalization is critical, but there are few explicit guidelines such as this for exploratory factor analysis or principal component analysis (Baggaley, 1983). Comfrey and Lee (1992) 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" (p. 217). Others (Kahn, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996) suggest at least 300 cases as a safe number, and most researchers focus on the ratio between subjects and variables with a recommendation ranging from 5:1 to 10:1 (Treiblmaier & Filzmoser, 2010). In this dissertation, the sample size for study 1 is 215 (27 items measuring the four latent variables of leisure involvement, leisure habits, psychological commitment, and vacation behaviour) and for study 2 202 (32 items measuring two the latent variables of MTE and subjective well-being). The sample ratios for these studies range between of 6:1 and 7:1. The author does acknowledge that some scholars might consider the sample size to be less than ideal (Comfrey & Lee, 1992; Kahn, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996), and studying a larger sample would increase the generalizability of the findings.

Sixth, both quantitative studies used convenience sampling in the data collection process. Therefore, it is necessary to note that the potential generalizability of the results of study 1 is limited, given the possibility of a sample bias related to convenience sampling (Hammersley, 2006). Although convenience sampling offers no guarantees of a representative and unbiased sample, the researcher employed two strategies to help correct the most serious problems associated with convenience sampling. The study sample consists entirely of tourists who have visited Rovaniemi, and efforts were made to ensure that the samples are reasonably representative and not strongly biased by selecting a broad cross-section of tourists (males and females, different ages, etc.). Thus in this case, it can be stated that a sample of 215 visitors to Rovaniemi completed the questionnaire (147 males and 68 females between the ages of 19 and 62).

Lastly, in study 1, the sample is not taken from the population of all visitors to Rovaniemi; by chance, British nationals formed the largest group in the sample. In addition, the process used for data collection might be considered problematic given that the population could be considered infinite and the time lapse between the trip and the response to the online questionnaire. Vacations unfold over time, and past research shows affective responses often change throughout the consumption experience (Arnould & Price, 1993).

3.5.2   Methodological limitations of qualitative studies

There are a number of limitations in each of the studies from the methodological point of view. In the qualitative studies, first, data were collected using semi-structured interviews over Skype in the post-holiday phase. Berg (2007) states that synchronous environments (or Skype interview in this case), although not identical to face-to-face interviews, are definitely similar to them, especially when using unstructured or semi-structured interviews. Sullivan (2012) suggests that the benefits of using Skype and other communication programmes as a method of data collection, especially in place of face-to-face interviews, definitely outweigh the drawbacks. However, although online interviewing is commonly regarded as part of the new "methodological frontier" (Deakin & Wakefield 2014, p. 5), the researcher does acknowledge that physically co-present interviewing remains the generally accepted practice, the gold standard of qualitative research, as it is said to afford "thicker information, body talk and communication efficiency" (Rettie, 2009, p. 422).

Second, Green & Thorogood (2009) state that saturation is a convincing concept that has a number of practical weaknesses. In fact, Guest, Bunce, & Johnson (2006, p.59) suggest "although the idea of saturation is helpful at the conceptual level, it provides little practical guidance for estimating sample sizes for robust research prior to data collection". For grounded theory methodology, Creswell suggests (1998, p. 64) 20–30 and Morse (1994, p. 225) 30–50 interviews. In addition, Bertaux (1981, p. 35) states that 15 is the smallest acceptable sample. As part of this dissertation, in study 3, theoretical saturation was achieved with the 22nd participant, as fresh data provided no additional valuable insights that could further enhance the understanding of culinary-gastronomic experiences. For study 4, theoretical saturation was achieved with the 18th participant, as fresh data provided no additional valuable insights that could further enhance the understanding of souvenir shopping experiences.

3.6   Summary of the methodology section

This dissertation involved the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods, specifically a web-based survey questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, for data collection and analysis, to answer the research questions. Overall, the core rationale for mixing methods is that neither qualitative research nor quantitative research is sufficient by itself to capture the complex issues surrounding the study's research topic. Table 6 outlines the methodological choices of the four articles in relation to the following categories (Bryman & Bell, 2011): a. research strategy – the plan for reaching the objectives outlined; b. research design – in

what form the particular plan is executed and presented; c. data collection method – how the data is obtained; and d. analytic method – how the data is analysed and processed.

Table 6.   Overview of the methodological choices in the empirical articles

	Article 1	**Article 2**	**Article 3**	**Article 4**
Research Strategy	Quantitative Study		Qualitative Study	
Research Design	Survey Study		Interview Study	
Data Collection Method	Web-based survey		Semi-structured interview	
Analysis Methods	Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Multiple Regression Analysis, Mediation Analysis	Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Moderation Analysis	Grounded Theory Approach (open coding, axial coding, and selective coding)	

4   SUMMARY OF STUDIES

In this chapter, summaries of the four articles that are the core of the dissertation are presented. In the subsections below, each article's research gap, aim, research question, data collection method and findings are discussed.

4.1   Study 1: Activity participation home and away: Examining the spillover theory among families on holiday

Family holiday experiences have been largely marginalized in research that examines leisure travel, and they remain under-explored (Carr, 2011; Schänzel & Smith, 2014; Schänzel & Yeoman, 2014; Schänzel, Yeoman, & Backer, 2012; Shaw, Havitz, & Delemere, 2008). In addition, family leisure travel activities have been described as sublime, numinous, and mystical experiences of the extraordinary, to illuminate the difference between being away and being at home (Seaton & Tagg, 1995). Consequently, everyday behaviours and activities retained while on vacation have been less frequently examined (Blichfeldt & Mikkelsen, 2014; Kidron, 2013; Obrador, 2012).

Study 1 investigated family vacationers' preferred leisure activities and the spillover effect in the tourism setting by examining the influence of leisure involvement, leisure habits, and psychological commitment on vacation behaviour. The two research questions include: Is there a similarity between leisure and vacation behaviours among family vacationers (visiting museums, skiing, hiking, shopping, swimming, and fishing)? What is the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habits, psychological commitment, and vacation behaviour? Data were gathered using an online survey questionnaire. A total of 215 questionnaires were used in the data analysis, which employed both EFA and MLR.

First, a similar behavioural pattern was observed for most of the activities undertaken at home and at the destination (visiting museums, skiing, hiking, shopping, and swimming), except fishing. Second, there was a positive relationship between leisure involvement and vacation behaviours (β = .277; p < .001) and leisure habits and vacation behaviours (β = .336; p < .001). The dimensions of leisure involvement and leisure habits explained 27.8% of the variation in vacation behaviours. However, psychological commitment did not mediate the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habits, and vacation behaviours. Third, findings indicate that tourists who stay longer duration at a tourist destination and those travelling with children are more likely to undertake

the same activity at home and at the destination. More specifically, in the case of visitors who stayed in Rovaniemi for one to two weeks or more (n=110), both leisure involvement and leisure habits had a strong significant impact on psychological commitment (β=0.361; p<0.001 and β=0.439; p<0.001) as well as psychological commitment on vacation behaviour (β=0.365; p<0.01). In addition, in the case of those travelling with children (n=174), the findings show that leisure involvement and leisure habits had strong significant impacts on psychological commitment (β=0.337; p<0.001 and β=0.327; p<0.001) including psychological commitment on vacation behaviour (β=0.365; p<0.01).

Study 1 supports some studies that challenge the notion of a home-away polarity (Larsen, 2008). In fact, the study adds to the small but growing body of research examining the performance turn approach and spillover theory from home to the tourism setting with the integration of two other concepts, leisure involvement and leisure habits. Although tourism is suffused with the notion of liminality and escape, the above findings lead to the conclusion that, in reality, habitual behaviours could appear in family leisure travel, specifically in the context of activity participation. One of the reasons for the possible spillover is the ontological comfort of home (Quan & Wang, 2004), as both leisure involvement and leisure habits may represent the affinity for convenience and minimal planning (LaMondia & Bhat, 2012) and provide stability, comfort, and relaxation in what is frequently a new, novel, or unfamiliar setting (Edensor, 2001). The findings extend Burch's (1969) spillover concept, in which some individuals may want to participate in similar behaviours and activities in both their home and holiday environments (Shaw & Williams, 2004) and is useful as a theoretical framework for analysing the spillover between home and away.

4.2   Study 2: Memorable tourism experience: Antecedents and outcomes

Kim et al. (2012) have developed an instrument to examine the dimensions of an MTE. Their study identifies seven dimensions (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement and knowledge) that represent the MTE. On the other hand, memories of holidays have been shown to contribute to individuals' happiness through reminiscent memories (Morgan & Xu, 2009) and affect different life domains such as family and social lives (Sirgy, Kruger, Lee, & Bu, 2011). The studies by Chandralal et al. (2015), Gilbert and Abdullah (2004), McCabe and Johnson (2013), and Sirgy et al. (2011) indicate that memories generated from the most recent trip contribute not only to overall satisfaction in leisure life but also to other life domains (life satisfaction). However, while it is

widely acknowledged that tourism experiences affect subjective well-being (Kim, Lee, Uysal, Lim, & Ahn, 2015), we have little knowledge of whether MTEs contribute to visitors' subjective well-being.

The objectives of study 2 are threefold: firstly, to investigate the dimensions of MTEs that influence tourists' subjective well-being. Secondly, to examine whether gender, age, and nationality play a moderating role between antecedents of MTE and subjective well-being. Thirdly, we test Kim et al.'s (2012) MTE scale in an actual tourism context, among visitors to Rovaniemi, Finland. The specific research question is: How are the dimensions of MTEs linked to subjective well-being? The study was based on data collected from visitors to Rovaniemi using a web-based survey. A total of 209 visitors to Rovaniemi completed the questionnaire, of which 202 were used in the data analysis.

Study 2 extends Kim et al.'s (2012) work and offers theoretical and empirical evidence about the interrelationships between the dimensions of MTEs and tourists' subjective well-being. The findings show that hedonism and meaningfulness have a positive and significant impact on subjective well-being. These relationships are supported by SEM; when the participants experience thrills, enjoyment, excitement, or something meaningful or important, and learn about themselves while at the destination, they are more likely to have a memorable experience. Such experiences contribute to their sense of well-being. In addition, the moderating effects of gender, age, and nationality are significant on the link between MTEs and subjective well-being. In particular, female, older, and European tourists report a stronger impact on the relationship between MTEs and subjective well-being than their counterparts.

4.3 Study 3: Exploring tourists' memorable food experiences: A study of visitors to Santa's official hometown

According to Chandralal and Valenzuela's (2013) experiencing actual local life, cultures, and foods of destinations makes an experience memorable. In the same vein, Adongo, Anuga, and Dayour's (2015) study indicates local food as a significant factor that contributes to tourists' memorable experiences. However, the demand perspective has been lagging (Robinson & Getz, 2014), and that consumer-centric investigations of culinary-gastronomic experiences have been left relatively unexplored (Frisvoll, Forbord, & Blekesaune, 2016). Although food is an essential element for experiencing local culture (Wijaya et al., 2013) and is

connected with memory (Holtzman, 2006), little is known about the components that contribute to the memorability of tourists' culinary-gastronomic experiences.

The objective of study 3 was to explore the components of a memorable food experience (MFE) from a tourist's perspective. With the help of local tour operators in Rovaniemi, email invitations were sent to 100 respondents, requesting their participation in the study. The sampling frame for this study included tourists who had visited Rovaniemi in the last two years and tasted local food while at the destination. The data was gathered using semi-structured interviews. Twenty-two interviews were carried out among those who responded in English via Skype between October and December 2016, and they lasted 10–30 minutes. With the 22nd participant, theoretical saturation was achieved, as fresh data provided no additional valuable insights that could further enhance the understanding of culinary-gastronomic experiences. Grounded theory research design (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was used to analyse the collected data.

Study 3 first identified a number of key components of MFEs: local specialities and food attributes (taste), authenticity, novelty, togetherness and social interaction, hospitality, and the servicescape (including food souvenirs). The identified multidimensional factors provide further support to existing studies that have produced similar results (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016). Second, reflecting on Kim et al.'s (2012) MTE dimensions, hedonism, local culture (food), novelty, involvement, refreshment, and knowledge can all be linked to tourists' MFEs. The participants' culinary-gastronomic experiences are closely associated with fun, pleasure, and enjoyment, which connect to the hedonism dimension. Almost all participants attributed a high level of importance to local food consumption and were interested in tasting local foods and learning about local specialties while at the destination (novelty, local culture, and knowledge). Contrary to existing studies, which portray food experiences as passive phenomena, the study participants actively co-created their culinary-gastronomic experiences by interacting with other tourists and service personnel to learn about local food specialties and food culture (involvement and knowledge). Study participants' culinary-gastronomic experiences were in sharp contrast to their daily food experiences (novelty and refreshment) and can be distinguished in the dimension of extraordinary to ordinary that has been demonstrated for food experiences (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016). Third, in comparison with previous literature that has focused on food experiences in restaurants, study participants stated that their culinary-gastronomic experiences extend beyond the restaurant setting. In addition, the findings indicate that tourists' memories of food experiences can be linked to revisit intentions and place attachment. Moreover, the findings show that consuming local specialties is an effective form of place-

making and that these food settings are becoming an important avenue through which a place is experienced and made meaningful.

4.4   Study 4: Relative contributions of souvenirs on memorability of a trip experience and revisit intention: A study of visitors to Rovaniemi, Finland

The souvenir is a relatively recent topic of scholarship (Kong & Chang, 2016), even though it has been a relevant part of the leisure experience for many visitors (Murphy et al., 2011) and is a signifier of memory (Timothy, 2005). In addition, souvenirs are among the most pervasive elements of the travel experience and trigger positive memories of people's holidays (Torabian & Arai, 2016); however, little attention has been paid to the central elements of souvenirs that contribute to tourists' memorability of the trip experience and the revisit intentions spurred by their purchases.

Study 4 explores the central elements of souvenirs that contribute to tourists' memorability of the trip experience and revisit intention. This study answers the following two questions: What are the central elements of souvenirs that contribute to the memorability of a tourist's trip experience? Do the pleasant memories of a travel experience evoked by souvenirs translate into an intention to return to that destination? With the help of local tour operators in Rovaniemi, email invitations to participate in the study were sent to 100 respondents. The sampling criterion for selecting participants was limited to an adequate level of souvenir shopping experience, i.e., people who had taken a vacation in the last two years and had bought souvenirs during their visit to Rovaniemi. All interviews were conducted in English via Skype between October and December 2016; they lasted 10–30 minutes. Notes were taken as the conversations proceeded.

First, the findings indicate that tourist's souvenir purchases in Rovaniemi enhanced their memorability of the trip experience and the desire to return in the near future. Second, this study provides a comprehensive analysis of some of the central elements of souvenirs that contribute to the memorability of tourists' trip experiences and revisit intention. In fact, this study represents a first attempt at this analysis using a grounded theory approach. The findings are classified into two central elements: uniqueness and usability and functionality. Third, among the reasons for acquiring unique souvenirs is the desire to have mementos from a travel experience that differ from familiar items at home and are clearly distinguishable as different.

Fourth, respondents mentioned that their motivation for buying souvenirs (cultural artefacts) was to have tangible reminders of their trip, both for daily use and as gifts for family, friends, and even themselves. Moreover, the findings indicate that the role of souvenirs extends beyond a tourist's own personal memories and show a lack of support for buying cheap, ordinary, or mundane commodities as meaningful reminders. Sixth, souvenir shopping was considered a habitual behaviour that was planned before the trip. Seventh, the selection of purchased souvenirs was made on-site at the travel destination and the respondents' souvenir shopping behaviour can be characterised as impulsive in terms of the selection of the products for purchase.

5   CONCLUSION

The purpose of this dissertation is to create a broader understanding of the antecedents of spillover in the context of tourism, in particular, from home to away and vice versa, based on the spillover concept. As mentioned before, spillover in the context of this dissertation refers to experiences and behaviours including objects from one domain of life that affects those in another as well as participation in similar activities in both their home and holiday environments. This dissertation examined spillover of activities (visiting museums, skiing, hiking, shopping, swimming, and fishing) based on tourists' behavioural patterns at home and while at a tourism destination; the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, psychological commitment (potential antecedents of spillover from home to away), and vacation behaviour; and whether the seven dimensions of memorable tourism experience scale, culinary-gastronomic experiences, and souvenirs as potential antecedents of spillover from away or a sub-domain of travel, affect tourists other life domain, in this case, home life through memories of a trip experience and subjective well-being. The three research questions were addressed in four distinct empirical studies that are reported in articles 1–4.

First, the findings of this dissertation indicate a similar behavioural pattern among family vacationers regarding the activities undertaken at home and away (visiting museums, skiing, hiking, shopping, and swimming). These activities are both skill-based (skiing and swimming) and non-skill-based (visiting museums, hiking, and shopping). Therefore, both types of activities show associations between daily and vacation behaviours. The data also shows that not all activities share this characteristic; for example, fishing exhibited a low degree of continued participation. One reason for the lack of similarity for fishing might be that it is not commonly practiced in the respondents' countries, although it is on offer at the tourism destination of Rovaniemi. The study respondents represented 29 different countries; a plurality (17.35 %) were British. The findings support some studies indicating that tourist experiences are increasingly treated as an extension of everyday life (Bowen & Clarke, 2009; McCabe, 2002; Ritzer & Liska, 1997).

This dissertation also acknowledges that tourism for some tourists is a quest for experiences that are in contrast to their everyday world. In addition, human beings as consumers (tourists) need to "eat and sleep" (in behaviour there is a spillover) and there are different types of experiences from mundane to peak and from real to hyperreal, and a trip consists of different types of experiences. In the context of this dissertation, the majority of study participants wanted to taste local food while at the destination and exhibited food neophilia, which is the tendency to seek something new to taste. Food neophiliacs are more inclined to seek new food

experiences, and they possess a different taste physiology, which enables them to gain a greater amount of pleasure from experiencing new foods (Kim, Suh, & Eves, 2010). In addition, in the context of souvenirs, one of the reasons for acquiring unique souvenirs is the desire to have objects from a travel experience that differ from familiar items at home and are clearly distinguishable as different. This difference is, therefore, based on something specific to the visited destination (Trinh et al., 2014).

Second, this dissertation identified two antecedents of the spillover in terms of activities from home to away: leisure involvement and leisure habits. Both the relationships between leisure involvement and vacation behaviour (β = .277; p < .001) and between leisure habit and vacation behaviour (β = .336; p < .001) were correlated and showed positive causality. The findings thus disclose the direct effect of leisure involvement and leisure habits and explain 27.8% of the variation in vacation behaviour. However, psychological commitment did not mediate the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habits, and vacation behaviour.

The findings show that the meaning of home extends beyond residential geography to become something that involves and can be mobilized through leisure involvement and leisure habits. In this view, the meaning of home changes from that of a fixed location and is carried by tourists as part of their life worlds, irrespective of geographic distance (White & White, 2007), for example, in the unreflexively embodied habits that shape their daily routines (Haldrup & Larsen, 2003). In addition, the findings blur the distinction between home and away and in particular the meaning of away. Given the similar behavioural patterns in terms of activity participation at both home and a tourism destination, the holiday environment is no more a zone of novelty, but both home and away co-exist in leisure travel.

Today, the world of travel has changed dramatically, and much of daily life incorporates the use of digital technology (Hyde & Decrop, 2011). Tourists are continually assessing the value of their planned itinerary (Stewart & Vogt, 1999) and are receptive to the acquisition of new information to include more attractive alternatives (Decrop & Snelders, 2005). Although digital technology has significantly enhanced travellers' flexibility, tourists still face uncertainties related to unanticipated events (Hyde & Decrop, 2011), such as overabundant offerings (Park & Jang, 2013) and the problem of too many alternatives in one's choice sets (Scheibehenne, Greifeneder, & Tod, 2009). Therefore, one reason for the activity spillover is that both leisure involvement and leisure habit may represent an affinity for convenience and minimal planning (LaMondia & Bhat, 2012) and

provide stability, comfort, and relaxation in what is frequently a new, novel, or even challenging setting (Edensor, 2001).

Third, the findings also indicate that tourists who stay longer at a tourist destination, in this case one to two weeks or more and those travelling with children are more likely to undertake the same activity while at home and while at the destination. Consequently, they may not embrace touristhood completely. This interrelationship between trip characteristics (duration) and demographic factors (those travelling as families) can be linked to the tourism consumption system theory (Woodside & Dubelaar, 2002). This theory considers a leisure activity as a multifaceted system consisting of many elements, such as the background of travellers, traveller behaviour on previous trips, and decision making and other behaviour related to the trip. Moreover, Woodside and Dubelaar's (2002) theory is helpful for explaining the link between trip duration, travel companions, and activity participation while at the destination among family vacationers.

Fourth, the findings show that memorable tourism experience, in particular, the dimensions of hedonism (β = .307; p < .05) and meaningfulness (β = .237; p < .005), had a positive and significant impact on tourists subjective well-being. Both hedonism and meaningfulness explained a variance of 17.3% in subjective well-being. When the participants experience thrills, enjoyment, excitement something meaningful or important, and learn about themselves while at the destination, they are more likely to have a memorable experience. In other words, hedonic and meaningful experiences offer tourists with enjoyment, sensory stimulation, and personal growth that enable them to create positive and unforgettable memories which endure after the holiday is over. Such memories as resources foster a more stable mood of happiness and life satisfaction (subjective well-being). Apart from satisfaction with a trip experience, memories derived from hedonic and meaningful on-site experiences can be linked to tourist's subjective well-being while at home. This finding extends the bottom-up spillover theory of subjective well-being.

The findings support some studies indicating that tourism products and services are primarily consumed for hedonic purposes (Otto & Ritchie, 1996) and allow tourists to construct memorable experiences (Dunman & Mattila, 2005). In addition, hedonism is considered a source of happiness and reflects different dimensions like playfulness, enjoyment, and fun (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). Moreover, the findings also support some studies indicating a positive causality between meaningful experiences and memory (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Tung and Ritchie's (2011) study shows that when people learn more about the world and expand their perspectives on life because of eye-opening travel experiences, these

experiences can become the most memorable of a lifetime. Furthermore, meaning is a significant contributor of happiness and pleasure and is associated with the pursuit of life satisfaction, making it an important indicator of subjective well-being (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002).

Fifth, the findings show that culinary-gastronomic experiences contributed to tourist's memorability of the trip experience. More specifically, a number of key components linked to tourist's culinary-gastronomic experiences contributed to the memorability of these experiences: local specialities and food attributes (taste), authenticity, novelty, togetherness and social interaction, hospitality, and the servicescape (including food souvenirs). Given that a hedonic consumption involves seeking enjoyment and sensory stimulation (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), the study participants' culinary–gastronomic experiences can be linked to Kim et al.'s (2012) hedonism dimension because these experiences are closely associated with fun, pleasure, enjoyment and sensory stimulation, in particular, taste of local food, and was perceived as a pleasurable vacation activity. In addition, studies indicate that most food and eating activities contribute to tourists' holiday well-being (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016) and is founded on, for example, locally produced food and drinks (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017). Given that memories derived from local food consumption at a tourism destination as a hedonic experience may enhance tourist's subjective well-being, culinary-gastronomic experiences can be considered as an antecedent that elicit a spillover from away to home.

Sixth, in the context of souvenirs, the central elements of souvenirs that contribute to the memorability of tourists' trip experiences and revisit intentions included two elements: uniqueness and usability and functionality. There was strong support amongst all respondents that a souvenir acts as an aide-memoire (Zauberman, Ratner, & Kim, 2009), which bolsters studies indicating that souvenirs trigger memories of people's vacations (Kong & Chang, 2016; Ramsay, 2009; Torabian & Arai, 2016; Trinh et al., 2014; Wilkins, 2011). Study participants mentioned that one of the motivations for buying souvenirs was for daily use. The use value of souvenirs, the propensity to satisfy human needs (Marx, 1976), reflects the transfer of objects from one life domain to another and affects the other life domain, in this case, home behaviour. These souvenirs represents a dual functionality for tourists, as products used in daily life that further remind them of the tourism experience, such as a cup purchased at a destination that is used at home for drinking coffee (Thompson et al., 2012). Majority of the respondents confirmed that using the souvenirs in everyday lives prolonged the memories of their trip experiences. This was more obvious with souvenirs, ranging from reindeer meat to Fazer chocolate (Finnish product), and included clothes, kitchen items and food.

Buying of souvenirs is considered an important source of enjoyment and excitement during a trip (Timothy, 2005), and can be linked to Kim et al.'s (2012) hedonism dimension. In addition, study participants wanted meaningful reminders, as opposed to buying cheap, ordinary and mundane items. Practical objects that are brought home from a journey often acquire meaning in retrospect (Collins-Kreiner & Zins, 2011). Such symbolic reminders, suffused with meaning, trigger an imaginary return to memorable times and places (Swanson & Timothy, 2012) and are associated with the creation of happiness (Nawijn, 2011a). On one hand, these souvenirs reflect the existence of the extraordinary in a daily routine. On the other hand, they act as meaningful objects that trigger an imaginary return to memorable times and places that differs from the daily routine, evoke the desire to revisit the destination in near future including the creation of happiness. This can be further linked to Kim et al.'s (2012) meaningfulness dimension and subjective well-being. Based on the above discussion, souvenirs can also be considered as an antecedent that trigger a spillover from away to home.

Seventh, it is interesting to note that within the souvenir shopping context, purchasing souvenirs was considered a habitual behaviour that was planned before the trip. Tourists who are away from their normal environment and may even be in a highly alien environment need something familiar; shopping may provide a sense of comfort and homelike stability (Wu et al.,2014), or the ontological comfort of home (Quan & Wang, 2004). This finding further extends the spillover concept, in this case a similar behavioural pattern from one tourism destination to another in the context of souvenir shopping.

Jafari (1987) outlined a tourism model consisting of six components: corporation, emancipation, animation, repatriation, incorporation, and omission. This model explores the immersion process that takes place in travel from the ordinary to non-ordinary, and the potentially transformative impact of the return from the non-ordinary back to ordinary, daily life. Referring to Jafari's touristhood model, the corporation phase is where the individual realizes the need to escape, decides to travel, and begins to prepare mentally and physically (McKercher & Lui, 2014). Although the entry into the touristhood includes a temporary movement from home to away and elements of physical and psychological escape, as well as the psychological crossing of a mythical boundary that moves the person beyond his or her home sociocultural threshold (emancipation phase) and an animation phase where the person engages the new tourist culture (McKercher & Lui, 2014), the findings of this dissertation indicate that physical movement does not free some tourists to completely embrace an alternative set of norms and behaviours. In fact, it is rare for individuals to let go completely of their residual culture (Carr, 2002); much travel involves a furtherance of home culture than a true departure into deep

touristhood (Jacobsen, 2003). In addition, the findings indicate that the process is heterogeneous and may differ depending on whether tourists are staying at the destination for a longer duration, travelling with children, are highly involved in their favourite leisure activity in their daily environment and have developed a leisure habit that may limit their ability to embrace touristhood completely.

On the other hand, tourism, by its nature, represents the temporary movement of people, and the trip must come to end. This is called the repatriation phase and involves the reversion to the ordinary world. The final phase is incorporation, which involves the eventual return to normalcy and is also known as disentanglement from touristhood (McKercher & Lui, 2014). However, although there is disentanglement from touristhood that involves both the physical process of travelling and the psychological realisation that the trip has ended, some people take back souvenirs that then become part of the everyday experiences and memories of the trip that "materialize in the moments of storytelling" (Neumann, 1999, p. 179). Individuals remember and recreate memories of their experiences (Tung, Lin, Zhang, & Zhao, 2017), enabling the individual to relive the experience long after the event has occurred (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004).

Lastly, based on the findings, this dissertation proposes a new model of touristhood. This model consists of three components: engagement, everydayness, and novelty seeking and entanglement. Engagement involves making choices about the about the various elements of the vacation itinerary before the trip (Decrop & Snelders, 2004) and en route (Blichfeldt, Pedersen, Johansen, & Hansen, 2011), including "where to go" to "what we are going to do there" (Smallman & Moore, 2010). These various elements include choice of destination, time and duration of the trip, travel companions, accommodations, travel route, and overall travel budget, including activities to be undertaken at the destination (Woodside & King, 2001).

The everydayness and novelty-seeking phase occurs in the destination. While at their destinations, some travellers might have inherent novelty-seeking attitudes, desiring the level of risk associated with having no concrete plans (Stewart & Vogt, 1999). The push for novelty during a trip is an intrinsic want for many tourists (Cohen, 1974; Crompton, 1979) as they aim to explore new and different travel experiences (Dann, 1981). Consequently, the choices they make might be in stark contrast to social milieus and everyday life (Cohen & Taylor, 1992). However, the findings of dissertation indicates that not all tourists behave hedonistically to the same degree (Carr, 2002), and some might exhibit habitual behaviours in both their home and holiday environments (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Chang & Gibson, 2011). In addition, trip characteristics and demographic factors also play a role on

whether tourists may or may not embrace touristhood completely. Therefore, this phase involves display of both every day and novelty-seeking behaviours while at a tourism destination.

The third phase, entanglement, involves the physical process of travelling and returning to normal daily life. In this phase, although tourists may have a psychological realisation that the trip has ended, their experiences of the trip might subsume in the ordinary mainstream through memories of the trip experience and through souvenirs purchased at the destination. For some tourists there is continued engagement. Memories of the trip experience and souvenirs represent the existence of the extraordinary into the residual culture. For example, the purchased souvenirs enhanced study participants' memorability of the trip experience and the desire to return in the near future. Therefore, there is some degree of entanglement rather than complete disentanglement from the touristhood even after returning home from the trip. Therefore, the model places emphasis upon both everydayness and novelty seeking while at the destination and continued entanglement with touristhood after returning home from the trip through memories of the trip experiences that have an impact on people's subjective well-being and through the use of souvenirs that remind them of their trip and evoke their desire to visit the same destination again (Figure 12).
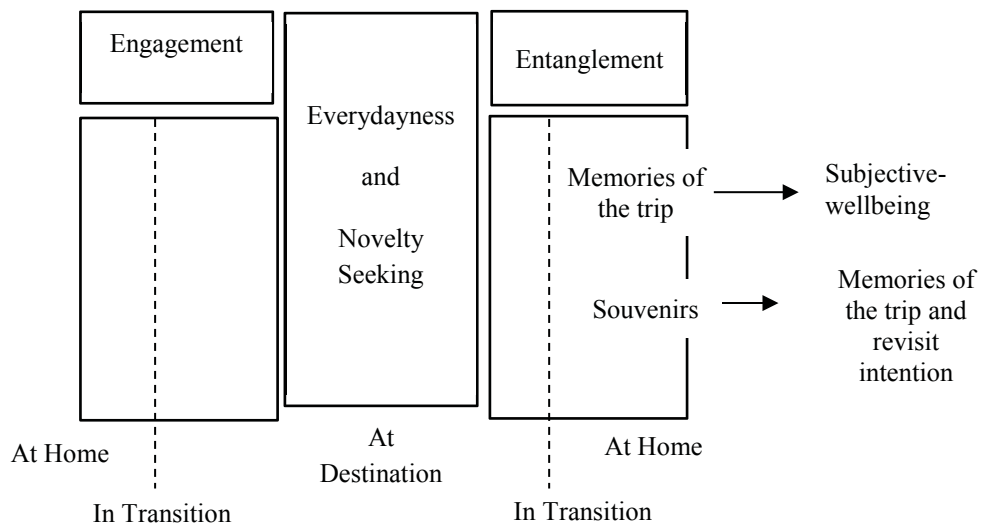
Figure 12.   A model of touristhood

Overall, the findings of this dissertation contributes to the existing tourist behaviour literature. The findings support the postmodern conceptualisation of the tourist experience and the spillover concept based on a similar behavioural pattern among family vacationers regarding the activities undertaken at home and

away. In addition, this dissertation extends the literature on memorable tourism experience and offers evidence about the interrelationships between the dimensions of MTEs, culinary-gastronomic experiences, souvenirs, memories, and subjective well-being. Overall, this dissertation makes a notable contribution to fleshing out the full implications of the spillover concept by identifying the antecedents of this concept from home to away and vice versa. On one hand, considering home and away as the two principal life domains, spillover tourism activity behaviours are rooted in everyday leisure involvement and leisure habits, so that individuals who are more involved in their favourite leisure activity in a daily setting and have developed a leisure habit are most likely to take part in this activity while on vacation. However, they are not likely to be psychologically attached to the favourite leisure activity. On the other hand, the two components of MTE scale (hedonism and meaningfulness), culinary-gastronomic experiences and souvenirs can have a positive effect on tourist's home life through transfer of experiences (memories) and objects from one domain to another, thereby benefitting them while at home, for example, by improving their state of happiness and promoting their satisfaction with life. In other words, these antecedents trigger a positive spillover. Moreover, the findings supports that this spillover effect can occur in two different directions: from home to away and away to home whereby different domains of an individual's life (home and away) can also be interrelated as well as underscores the important role of tourism as a determinant of an individual's satisfaction with life. From a broader perspective, the findings offer frames of reference for future research and theorisation of the spillover concept.

6   MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

From a managerial perspective, first, the findings of this dissertation suggest that tourism service providers should be aware of the activities that visitors undertake at home when developing and offering activities targeted towards family vacationers. Different activities targeting different visitor segments are critical to creating satisfactory experiences and repeat tourists.

Second, food service providers should take a holistic view of the food experiences provided at destinations. Local food had an impact on tourists' recollection when it was perceived as a local speciality, tasty, novel, or something that the participant had not tasted before. Therefore, food service providers such as restaurants should be more traditional in their choice of ingredients for food preparation in order to maintain the distinctive flavour, novelty, and authenticity of local dishes served to tourists. However, given that each restaurant offers a specific menu that may not use necessarily local ingredients (e.g., franchised chain restaurants) and that not all restaurants target tourists, the study acknowledges that not all local restaurants need to provide menus and dishes with traditional local ingredients targeted toward tourists. Managers are also urged to encourage social interaction between the service provider and guests in a food service setting, including telling stories about the local food specialities and food culture. Moreover, they should also offer warm and welcoming hospitality to visitors and focus on the servicescape. They should sell food souvenirs in order to prolong tourists' memories of the trip.

Third, destination management organisations and souvenir retail managers should invest more resources in offering objects that represent the uniqueness of the host country or region, which should include both local food products and clothes that generate nostalgic feelings, and kitchenware, which represents usability and functionality. In other words, the focus must be on promoting the purchase of souvenirs that represent the uniqueness and the functionality of the object for tourists to enhance, evaluate, and reflect upon their experiences. They should strive to provide souvenirs for commemorative uses (e.g., destination images) and practical uses (e.g., decorative, drinking and eating). For instance, souvenir retail managers should sell food souvenirs representing local specialities that contain distinct favours and are produced from traditional ingredients. Even when consumed in ordinary time and space, they may trigger memories of the travel experience. Food souvenirs produced in Rovaniemi may best represent both uniqueness and usability and functionality.

Given that the respondents' souvenir selections were made on-site in Rovaniemi, souvenir retail managers should expand the variety of handmade and hand-packaged local products and sell products made by well-known local craftspeople and artisans who represent the area's uniqueness. These souvenirs should thus portray local languages, traditional methods of production and the habits and customs of craftspeople to meet the tourist appeal of handmade objects. As none of the respondents preferred to buy souvenirs online and all purchased them while in Rovaniemi, visitors should be offered limited edition pieces that are not sold over the Internet. In addition, given that the respondents, regardless of age, gender, or nationality, showed little desire for cheap, ordinary, or mundane commodities, these types of souvenirs may not appeal to tourists and may not evoke memories of the trip experience. Therefore, souvenir retail managers should not sell such items to visitors but rather focus on the certification and labelling of souvenirs like local foodstuffs; this may constitute one strategy for enhancing and promoting locally produced souvenirs in Rovaniemi. Furthermore, they should also allow visitors to personally observe how local people produce the souvenirs, such as food specialties, and engage the participation of local artisans. This may allow tourists to interpret the symbolic meaning attached to a unique product and may offer a more valuable, distinctive, aesthetically pleasing, and memorable souvenir shopping experience.

Fourth, the findings show that tourists' subjective well-being is influenced by hedonism and meaningfulness. Therefore, destination managers should develop and design their programs and the environmental atmosphere for their programs to be perceived as exciting, delightful, fun, thrilling, and interesting (Gursoy, Spangenberg, & Rutherford, 2006) as both program contents and environmental cues affect the level of hedonism perceived by visitors (Grappi & Montanari, 2011). Destination managers should also offer activities that allow tourists to assert their self-identity and broaden their thinking about life and society (meaningfulness). For example, a visit to a local food festival may offer tourists the opportunity to feel the real meaning of food, the ways in which it functions emotionally, psychologically, and socially for the locals and the ways that they experience their own food. Tourism activities which include the strengthening of bonds with travel companions and developing new bonds with other travellers should also be a focus; they offer a meaningful experience and enhance the probability of an event becoming more memorable (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2015). Furthermore, destination managers can offer diverse memorabilia, including not only souvenirs but also more ordinary objects, such as nail clippers, which act as meaningful reminders (Wilkins, 2011).

Limitations: In this dissertation, the findings of the qualitative study are highly destination-specific as the data was only collected from visitors to Rovaniemi. The selection of a single destination limits the findings' applicability to other destinations. Second, there was variation in terms of when the study participants had visited Rovaniemi, ranging from six months to two years before data collection. Studies indicate that remembered tourism experiences are significantly different from the actual experiences one has had. People reconstruct their tourism experiences by forgetting disappointment (Mitchell, Thompson, Peterson, & Cronk, 1997), integrating information presented after the experience (Braun-LaTour et al., 2006), or reinterpreting their memory to be consistent with their original expectations (Klaaren, Hodges, & Wilson, 1994). Braun-LaTour et al.'s (2006) study indicates post-experience information such as advertising and word-of-mouth communication as a contributing factor to the tourist's memory distortion. The information that tourists receive after their travel experience is found to distort their memories, with the level of distortion increasing when the information is presented repeatedly. In the same vein, the memory reconstruction framework indicates that when a past experience is recalled, memory is not merely a reproduction of past experience, but rather a complex process in which correlated information from what consumers knew before an actual experience and what they learned afterwards becomes integrated to create an alternate memory of product experience (Bartlett, 1932). This reconstructive memory and creation of false post-experience information has been identified as a process that alters how consumers remember their previous experiences (Schacter, 1995). Therefore, in order to avoid this limitation and the incongruence between remembered experiences and on-site experiences, future studies should interview tourists immediately after their visit and make use of travel blogs (Bosangit et al., 2015) and online reviews as information sources. The spontaneously generated content of social media may be an emic source of information, thereby permitting the generation of a richer and deeper information base (Wu, Wall, & Pearce, 2014). Third, the study participants were also mainly Westerners. Future studies would benefit from sample bases with a more cross-cultural makeup.

Caution should be used in any generalization of the findings of the quantitative studies to other areas, populations, and activities. The survey responses were collected from only one destination, Rovaniemi. In addition, study 1 was limited to activity participation and included comparison of a few activities that are undertaken at home and away by family vacationers (visiting museums, skiing, hiking, shopping, and swimming). Moreover, the study was limited to three dimensions (leisure involvement, leisure habits, and psychological commitment) in predicting tourists' vacation behaviour. Moreover, while the study tries to make a contribution to family tourism research, 4.7% of the members of the sample were

not married and 5.6% were not on a family vacation. Thus, future studies should exclude respondents not qualifying as travelling with family. Moreover, given that the measured constructs were derived from the earlier literature, although MLR analysis was used to test the hypothesized relationships of the model, CFA, instead of EFA, might have been more robust to use to validate the constructs. This is another limitation of the present study.

Future research: Future studies should include other factors that may influence the possible spillover from home and away, for example, individual norms, preferences, and personalities (Carr, 2002). Small daily routines, precious objects, and mundane technologies also need to be taken into consideration (Larsen, 2008). Many researchers have pointed out that psychological and behavioural influences on participation in leisure activities and in vacation activities are likely to be influenced by significant others (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Carr, 2002). Moreover, the leisure and recreation literature indicates that as one's experience increases, interest in participation in certain activities becomes more specialized and focused (Smith, 1994). Therefore, past experience should also be included in examining on-site activity involvement. Further, tourists who develop leisure activity loyalty are much less sensitive to changes in costs associated with those leisure activities (LaMondia & Bhat, 2012). Future studies should examine the moderating role of price in the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habits, and vacation behaviour. Another application would be to test the model among first-timers and repeat tourists. In addition, future studies should extend beyond vacation behaviour as consumers habits also influence destination choice (Björk & Jansson, 2008).

Future studies should adopt a critical view on MTEs and include other factors might have an impact on tourists' memories of the trip experience. For example, future research could examine whether food experiences and souvenirs help foster positive emotions of love, interest, joy, and contentment (Bryant, 2003) and whether these positive emotions influence trip memorability. The rationale is that positive emotional activation contributes to creating memories (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Such an approach encompasses positive psychology concepts such as savouring (Bryant, 2003) when studying food experiences and souvenirs. Moreover, future research should include destination attributes, since tourists' perceptions of the destination after the trip are based on on-site experiences and determine MTEs (Kim, 2014). Furthermore, studies report a direct influence of tourist motivation (Kim, Woo, & Uysal, 2015), and personal values on subjective well-being (Kim et al., 2015). Future studies should test an integrated model of tourist's motivation, personal values and MTE dimensions on subjective well-being to gain a holistic understanding of the phenomenon.

Negative emotions are less common in tourists' recollection of their holiday experiences due to the rosy view phenomenon (Mitchell et al., 1997). This phenomenon mitigates negative emotional responses and magnifies positive emotional responses in people's retrospective assessments of their emotional experiences (Lee & Kyle, 2012). However, studies also indicate that tourists may often feel negative emotions during their tourism experience (Kim et al., 2012). For example, Pine and Gilmore's (1998) study indicates that poor service easily converts into an experience, creating a memorable encounter of a negative kind. Therefore, future studies should incorporate both positive and negative memories of culinary-gastronomic and souvenir shopping experiences. Moreover, studies indicate that food experiences and souvenirs can evoke memories through the senses and act as channels for recalling tourism experiences (Morgan & Pritchard, 2005). Thus, given the multisensory nature of the tourism experience, and how aromas, perfumes, fragrances, tastes, and sounds (particularly music) are intimately tied to memories (Lin & Wang, 2012), future studies should explore the different senses activated by culinary-gastronomic experiences and souvenirs and the dominant senses that influence trip memorability.

References

Aarts, H., & Dijksterhuis, A. (2000). Habits as knowledge structures: Automaticity in goal-directed behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78*: 53–63.

Aarts, H., Verplanken, B., & van Knippenberg, A. (1997). Habit and information use in travel mode choices. *Acta Psychologica, 96*: 1–14.

Adongo, C., Anuga, S., & Dayour, F. (2015). Will they tell others to taste? International tourists' experience of Ghanaian cuisines. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 15*: 57–64

Aho, S. K., 2001. Towards a general theory of touristic experiences: Modelling experience process in tourism. Tourism Review, 56 (3/4): 33-37.

Aitken, S., & Valentine, G. (2006). Ways of knowing and ways of doing geographic research. In S. Aitken & G. Valentine (Eds.), *Approaches to Human Geography*. London: Sage Publications.

Albrecht, S. L. (2010). The handbook of employee engagement: Perspective, issues, research and practice. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Andrews, F. M., & Withey, S. B. (1976). Social indicators of well-being: America's perception of life quality. New York: Plenum Press.

Auld, C. J., & Case, A. J. (1997). Social exchange processes in leisure and non-leisure settings: A review and exploratory investigation. *Journal of Leisure Research, 29*: 183–200

Backstrom, C. H., & Hursh, G. D. (1963). *Survey research*. Evanston: Northern University Press.

Baddeley, A. (1999). *Essential of human memory*. East Sussex: Psychology Press.

Baerenholdt, O. J., Haldrup, M., Larsen, J., & Urry, J. (2007). *Performing tourist places*. Hants, Burlington: Ashgate.

Baggaley, A. R. (1983). Deciding on the ratio of number of subjects to number of variables in factor analysis. *Multivariate Experimental Clinical Research, 6*(2): 81–85.

Bagozzi, R. P. (1993). On the neglect of volition in consumer research: A critique and proposal. *Psychology and Marketing, 10*: 215–237.

Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Sutherland, L. (2011). Visitor's memories of wildlife tourism: Implications for the design of powerful interpretive experiences. *Tourism Management, 32*: 770–779.

Bargeman, B., Joh, C.-H., & Timmermans, H. (2002). Vacation behavior using a sequence alignment method. *Annals of Tourism Research, 29*: 320–337.

Bartlett, F. C. (1932). *Remembering*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Baumeister, R., & Vohs, K. (2002). The pursuit of meaningfulness in life. In Snyder, C., & Lopez, S (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 608–618). New York: Oxford University Press.

Bello, D., & Etzel, M. (1985). The role of novelty in the pleasure travel experience. *Journal of Travel Research, 24*: 20–26.

Bentler, P. M., & Speckart, G. (1979). Models of attitude-behavior relations. *Psychological Review, 86*: 452–464.

Bethlehem, J. & Biffignandi, S. (2011). *Web surveys*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Biemer, P.P. (1991). *Measurement errors in surveys*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Björk, P., & Kauppinen-Räisänen, H. (2016). Exploring the multi-dimensionality of travellers' culinary-gastronomic experiences. *Current Issues in Tourism, 19*: 1260–1280.

Björk, P., & Kauppinen-Räisänen, H. (2017). A destination's gastronomy as a means for holiday well-being. *British Food Journal, 119*(7): 578-1591.

Blichfeldt, B. S., & Kessler, I. (2009) Interpretive consumer research: uncovering the whys underlying tourist behaviour. In: Kozak, M., & Decrop, A. (Eds.) *Handbook of Tourist Behaviour: Theory & Practice* (pp.3-15). Abingdon: Routledge.

Blichfeldt, B.S., & Mikkelsen, M. (2014). The extraordinariness of ordinariness in tourism research. *Revista Turismo & Desenvolvimento, 20*(21): 1–22.

Blichfeldt, B. S., Pedersen, B. M., Johansen, A., & Hansen, L. (2011). Tweens on holidays: In-situ decision-making from children's perspective. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 11*(2): 135–149.

Blodgett, J., & Granbois, D. (1992). Toward an integrated conceptual model of consumer complaining behavior. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction, and Complaining Behavior, 5*: 93–103.

Bosangit, C., Hibbert, S., & McCabe, S. (2015). If I was going to die I should at least be having fun: Travel blogs, meaning and tourist experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 55*: 1–14.

Boswell, W. R., & Olson-Buchanan, J. B. (2007). The use of communication technologies after hours: The role of work attitudes and work-life conflict. *Journal of Management, 33*(4): 592–610.

Boyd, H. W., Westfall, R., Stasch, S.F. (1977). *Marketing research-text and cases*. Homewood: Richard D Irwin, Inc.

Braun-LaTour, K., Grinley, M., & Loftus, E. (2006). Tourist memory distortion. *Journal of Travel Research, 44*: 360–367.

Brennan, L., & Savage, T. (2012). Cultural consumption and souvenirs: An ethical framework. *Arts Marketing: An International Journal, 2(2)*: 144–160.

Brey, E.T., & Lehto, X.Y. (2007). The relationship between daily and vacation activities. *Annals of Tourism Research, 34*(1): 160–180.

Bryant, F. B. (2003). Savoring beliefs inventory (SBI): A scale for measuring beliefs about savouring. *Journal of Mental Health, 12*: 175–196.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2011). *Business research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Buchanan, T. (1985). Commitment and leisure behavior: A theoretical perspective. *Leisure Sciences, 7*: 401–420.

Burch, W. R. (1969). The social circles of leisure: Competing explanations. *Journal of Leisure Research, 1*: 125–147.

Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis*. Aldershot: Ashgate.

Bystrzanowski, J. (1989). *Tourism as a factor of change: A sociocultural study*. International Social Science Council.

Calhoun, C., Rojek, C., & Turner, B. S. (2005). *The Sage handbook of sociology*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Carr, N. (2002). The tourism-leisure behavioral continuum. *Annals of Tourism Research, 29*: 972–986.

Carr, N. (2011). Children's and families' holiday experiences. London: Routledge.

Campbell, A.C. (1976). Subjective measures of well-being. *American Psychologist, 31:* 117-124.

Carmichael, B. (2005). Understanding the wine tourism experience for winery visitors in the Niagara region, Ontario, Canada. *Tourism Geographies, 7*(2): 185–204.

Chandralal, L., Rindfleish, J., & Valenzuela, F. (2015). An application of travel blog narratives to explore memorable tourism experiences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 20*: 680–693.

Chandralal, L., & Valenzuela, F. (2013). Exploring memorable tourism experiences: antecedents and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management, 1*(2): 177–181.

Chang, S., & Gibson, H.J. (2011). Physically active leisure and tourism connection: leisure involvement and choice of tourism activities among paddlers. *Leisure Sciences, 33*: 162–181.

Chang, S., & Gibson, H.J. (2015). The relationships between four concepts (involvement, commitment, loyalty, and habit) and consistency in behavior across leisure and tourism. *Tourism Management*, *13*: 41–50.

Chang, S., Gibson, H., & Sisson, L. (2014). The loyalty process of residents and tourists in the festival context. *Current Issues in Tourism, 17*: 783–799.

Charmaz, K. (2006).Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis. Thousand Oaks: Sage

Chen, G., Bao, J., & Huang, S. S. (2014). Developing a scale to measure backpackers' personal development. *Journal of Travel Research, 53*: 522–536.

Cheng, T.-M., Hung, S.-H., & Chen, M.-T. (2016). The influence of leisure involvement on flow experience during hiking activity: Using psychological commitment as a mediate variable. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 21*(1): 1–19.

Cheng, T. M., & Lu, C. C. (2013). Destination image, novelty, hedonics, perceived value, and revisiting behavioral intention for Island tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 18*: 766–783.

Chesley, N. (2005). Blurring boundaries? Linking technology use, spillover, individual distress, and family satisfaction. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 67*: 1237–1248.

Chiovitti, R. F., & Piran, N. (2003). Rigour and grounded theory research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 44*: 427–435.

Clark, G., & Chabrel, M. (2007). Measuring integrated rural tourism. *Tourism Geographies, 9*: 371–386.

Cohen, A., & Vigoda, E. (1998). An empirical assessment of the relationship between general citizenship and work outcomes. *Public Administration Quarterly, 21*: 401–431.

Cohen, E. (1972). Towards a sociology of international tourism. *Social Research, 39*(1): 164–182.

Cohen, E. (1979). A phenomenology of tourist experiences. *Sociology, 13*(2): 179–201.

Cohen, E., & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism: Attraction and impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*: 755–778.

Cohen, S., & Taylor, L. (1976). Escape Attempts: The theory and practice of resistance to everyday life. London: Allen Lane.

Collins-Kreiner, N., & Zins, Y. (2011). Tourists and souvenirs: Changes through time, space, and meaning. *Journal of Heritage Tourism, 6*(1): 17–27.

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. (2008). *Business research methods*. Boston: Mcgraw Hill International Edition.

Creswell, J. W. (1998). Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed approaches. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Crompton, J. (1979). Motivation for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 6*: 408–424.

Cutler, S. Q., & Carmichael, B.A. (2010). The dimensions of the tourist experience. In Morgan, M., Lugosi, P., & Ritchie, J.R.B. (Eds.), *The Tourism and Leisure Experience* (pp. 3–26). Bristol: Channel View Publications.

Dagger, T., & Sweeney, J. (2006). The effect of service evaluations on behavioral intentions and quality of life. *Journal of Service Research, 9*(1): 3–18.

Dann G. (1977). Anomie, egoenhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism, 4*(4): 184–194.

Danner, U. N., Aarts, H., & de Vries, N. K. (2008). Habit vs. intention in the prediction of future behavior: The role of frequency, context stability and mental accessibility of past behavior. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 47*: 245–265.

Davies, B. (2003). The role of quantitative and qualitative research in industrial studies in tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 5*: 97–111.

Deakin, H., & Wakefield, K. (2014). Skype interviewing: reflections of two PhD researchers. *Qualitative Research, 14*(5): 603–616.

Decrop, A., & Kozak, M. (2014). Consumer Goals in Vacation Decision Making. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 31*(1): 71–81.

Decrop, A., & Masset, J. (2014). This is a piece of coral received from captain Bob: Meanings and functions of tourist souvenirs. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 8*(1): 22–34.

Decrop, A., & Snelders, D. (2005). Planning the summer vacation – an adaptable process. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31(4)*: 1008–1030.

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S., 2011. Paradigmatic Controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln, eds. *The Sage Hand of Qualitative Research* (pp. 97–128). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin, 95*(3): 542-575.

Diener, E., Lucas, R., & Oishi, S. (2009). Subjective well-being. In E. Diener (Eds.), *The science of well-being* (pp. 11–58). Dordrecht: Springer.

Dolnicar, S., & Leisch, F. (2012). One legacy of Mazanec: Binary questions are a simple, stable and valid measure of evaluative beliefs. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 6*(4): 316–325.

Dolnicar, S. (2013). Asking good survey questions. *Journal of Travel Research 52*(5): 551–574.

Dougoud, R. C. (2000). Souvenirs from Kambot (Papua New Guinea): The sacred search for authenticity. In M. Hitchcock & K. Teague (Eds.), *Souvenirs: The material culture of tourism* (pp. 223–237). Aldershot: Ashgate.

Dube, L., & LeBel, J. (2003). The content and structure of laypeople's concept of pleasure. *Cognition & Emotion, 17*: 263–295.

Dujmović, M., & Vitasović, A. (2015). Postmodern society and tourism. 3rd International Scientific Conference Tourism in Southern and Eastern Europe 2015.

Dunman, T., & Mattila, A. (2005). The role of affective factors on perceived cruise vacation value. *Tourism Management, 26*: 311–323.

Dwyer, L., & Kim, C. (2003). Destination competitiveness: Determinants and indicators. *Current Issues in Tourism, 6*(5): 369–414.

Edensor, T. (2001). Performing tourism, staging tourism: (Re) producing tourist space and practice. *Tourist Studies, 1*(1): 59–81.

Edensor, T. (2007). Mundane mobilities, performance and spaces of tourism. *Social and Cultural Geography, 8*(2): 199–215.

Erzberger, C., & Kelle, U. (2003). Making inferences in mixed methods: The rules of integration, in A. Tashakkori and C. Teddlie (eds.) *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*. Thousand Oaks CA, Sage.

Fernandez, I., & Paez, D. (2008). The benefits of expressive writing after the Madrid terrorist attack: Implications for emotional activation and positive affect. *British Journal of Health Psychology, 13*: 31–34.

Fields, K. (2002). Demand for the gastronomy tourism product: Motivational factors. In A. Hjalager & G. Richards (Eds.), Tourism and gastronomy (pp. 36–50). London: Routledge.

Firestone, W. A. (1987). Meaning in method: the rhetoric of quantitative and qualitative research. *Educational Researcher, 16*(7): 16–21.

Fortunati, G. (2002). The mobile phone: Towards new categories and social relations. *Information, Communication & Society, 5*(4): 513–528.

Freedman, J. T. (1964). Involvement, discrepancy and change. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 69*: 290–295.

Frisvoll, A., Forbord, M., & Blekesaune, A. (2016). An empirical investigation of tourists' consumption of local food in rural tourism. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 16*: 76–93.

Galani-Moutaf, V. (2004). Tourism research on Greece: A critical overview. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(1): 157–179.

Gilbert, D., & Abdullah, J. (2004). Holiday taking and the sense of well-being. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(1): 103–121.

Gill, J. & Johnson, P. (2010). *Research methods for managers*. London: Sage.

Glaser, B. (1978).Theoretical sensitivity. *Advances in the methodology of grounded theory*. Mill Valley: Sociology Press.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago: Aldine.

Goldsmith, R., & Emmert, J. (1991). Measuring product category involvement: A multitrait-multimethod study. *Journal of Business Research, 23*: 363–371.

Golembiewski, R. T. (1995). *Practical public management*. New York: Marcel Dekker.

Gordon, B. (1986). The souvenir: Messenger of the extraordinary. *The Journal of Popular Culture, 20*(3): 135–146.

Graburn, N. H. (1989). Tourism: The sacred journey. In V. L. Smith (Ed.), Hosts and guests (pp. 22–36). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press

Graburn, N. H. (2001). Secular ritual: A general theory of tourism. In V. L. Smith & M. Brent (Eds.), *Hosts and Guests Revisited: Tourism Issues of the 21st Century* (pp. 42–50). New York: Cognizant Communication Corporation.

Graefe, A.R., & Vaske, J.J. (1987). A framework for managing quality in the tourist experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 14*(3): 390–404.

Green, J., & Thorogood, N. (2009). *Qualitative methods for health research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Gregson, N. (2011). *Living with things*. Wantage: Sean Kingston.

Grix, J. (2004). *The foundations of research*. Basingstoke: Palgrave.

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

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005) Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In: Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research (*pp.191–215). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, *18*(1): 59–82.

Hackley, C., & Tiwasakul, R. (2006). Entertainment marketing and experiential consumption. *Journal of Marketing Communications, 12*(1): 63–75.

Hall, C. M. & S. J. Page (1999). *The geography of tourism: Environment, place and space*. London: Routledge.

Haldrup, M. (2004). Laid-back mobilities: Second-home holidays in time and space. *Tourism Geographies, 6*(4): 434–454.

Haldrup, M., & Larsen, J. (2003). The family gaze. *Tourist studies*, *3*(1): 23–45.

Harris, M. E. (1968). The rise of anthropological theory: A history of the theory of culture. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell.

Havitz, M. E., & Dimanche, F. (1999). Leisure involvement revisited: Drive properties and paradoxes. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 31: 122–149.

Henderson, J. (2009). Food tourism reviewed. British Food Journal, 111: 317–326.

Hitchcock, M. (2000). Introduction. In M. Hitchcock & K. Teague (Eds.), *Souvenirs: The material culture of tourism* (pp. 17). Aldershot: Ashgate.

Hjalager, A-M., & Richards, G. (2002). *Tourism and Gastronomy*. London: Routledge.

Holbrook, M. B., & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption – Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research, 9*: 132–140.

Holloway, D. J., & Holloway, D. A. (2011). Everyday life in the tourist zone. *Journal of Media and Culture, 14*(5): 1–2.

Holtzman, J. D. (2006). Food and memory. *Annual Review of Anthropology, 35*: 361–378.

Horng, J.-S., & Tsai, C.-T. (2010). Government websites for promoting East Asian culinary tourism: A cross-national analysis. *Tourism Management, 31*: 74–85.

Hospers, G. J. (2009). Lynch, Urry and city marketing: Taking advantage of the city as a built and graphic image. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy, 5*: 226–233.

Hottola, P. (2004). Culture confusion: Intercultural adaptation in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(2): 447–466.

Hyde, K., & Decrop, A. (2011). New perspectives on vacation decision making. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 5*(2): 103–111.

Morgan, M., & Xu, F. (2009). Student travel experiences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *18*(2): 216–236.

Hammersley, M. (2006) Bias. In Jupp, V. (ed.) *The sage dictionary of social research* Methods (pp.17–18). London: Sage Publications.

Hsu, T., Tsai, Y., & Wu, H. (2009). The preference analysis for tourist choice of destination: a case study of Taiwan. *Tourism Management, 30*: 288–297.

Iwasaki, Y., & Havitz, M.E. (1998). A path analysis model of the relationships between involvement, psychological commitment, and loyalty. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *30*: 256–280.

Iwasaki, Y., & Havitz, M. (2004). Examining the relationship between leisure involvement, psychological commitment and loyalty to a recreation agency. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *36*: 45–72.

Jacobsen, J. K. S. (2000). Anti-tourist attitudes: Mediterranean charter tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 27*(2): 284–300.

Jafari, J. (1987). Tourism models: The sociocultural aspects. *Tourism Management, 8*(2): 151–159.

Janiszewski, C., & van Osselaer, S. M. J. (2005). Behavior activation is not enough. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *15*: 218–224.

Jeng, J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2002). Conceptualizing the travel decision-making hierarchy: A review of recent developments. *Tourism Analysis, 7*(1): 15–32.

Jennings, G. (2001). *Tourism research*. Milton: John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd.

Jennings, G. (2005) Interviewing: a Focus on qualitative techniques. In: Ritchie, B.W., Burns, B. M., & Palmer, C.A. (Eds.), *Tourism research methods. Integrating theory with practice* (99–117). Wallingford: CAB International.

Jennings, G., Weiler, B. (2006). Mediating meaning: Perspectives on brokering quality tourism experiences. In: Jennings, G.R., Nickerson, N.P. (Eds.), *Quality Tourism Experiences* (pp. 57–78). Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Johnson, R., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational researcher, 33*(7): 14–26.

Johnson, R., Onwuegbuzie, A., & Turner, L. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(2): 112–133.

Johnston, J., & Kong, X. (2011). The customer experience: a road-map for improvement. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal, 21*(1): 5–24.

Kahn, J. H. (2006). Factor analysis in counselling psychology research, training, and practice: Principles, advances, and applications. *The Counselling Psychologist, 34*(5): 684–718.

Kaplan, B. & Maxwell, J.A. (1994). Qualitative research methods for evaluating computer information systems. In: Anderson, J. G., Aydin, C. E., & Jay, S. J. (Eds.), Evaluating *health care information systems: methods and applications* (pp. 45–68). CA: Sage.

Kauppinen-Räisänen, H., Gummerus, J., & Lehtola, K. (2013). Remembered eating experiences described by the self, place, food, context and time. *British Food Journal, 115*: 666–685.

Kiesler, C. A. (1971). The psychology of commitment: Experiments linking behavior to beliefs. New York, NY: Academic Press.

Kidron, C. A. (2013). Being there together: Dark family tourism and the emotive experience of presence in the holocaust past. *Annals of Tourism Research, 41*: 175–194.

Kim, H., Lee, S., Uysal, M., Lim, J., & Ahn, K. (2015). Nature-based tourism: Motivation and subjective well-being. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *32*, 76–96.

Kim, H., Woo, E., & Uysal, M. (2015). Tourism experience and quality of life among elderly tourists. *Tourism Management, 46*: 465–476.

Kim, J.-H. (2009). Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Indiana University, Indiana.

Kim, J.-H. (2010). Determining the factors affecting the memorable nature of travel experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 27*: 780–796.

Kim, J-H., Ritchie, J., & McCormick, B. (2012). Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(1): 12-25.

Kim, J.-H., Ritchie, J., & Tung, V. (2010). The effect of memorable experience on behavioral intentions in tourism: A structural equation modeling approach. *Tourism Analysis, 15*: 637–648.

Kim, S., Timothy, D. J., & Hwang, J. (2011). Understanding Japanese tourists' shopping preferences using the decision tree analysis method. *Tourism Management, 32*(3): 544–554.

Kim, Y. G., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2009). Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: A grounded theory approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 28*: 423–431.

Kim, Y. G., Suh, B. W., & Eves, A. (2010). The relationships between food-related personality traits, satisfaction, and loyalty among visitors attending food events and festivals. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 29*: 216–226.

Kinley, T. R., Forney, J. A., & Kim, Y.-K. (2012). Travel motivation as a determinant of shopping venue. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 6*(3): 266–278.

Kivela, J., & Crotts, J. C. (2006). Tourism and gastronomy: Gastronomy's influence on how tourists experience a destination. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 30*: 354–377.

Klaaren, K. J., Hodges, S. D., & Wilson, T. D. (1994). The role of affective expectations in subjective experience and decision-making. *Social Cognition, 12*(2): 77–101.

Koc, E., & Boz, H. (2014). Triangulation in tourism research: A bibliometric study of top three tourism journals. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 12*: 9–14.

Kong, W. H., & Chang, T. Z. (2012). The role of souvenir shopping in a diversified Macau destination portfolio. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 21*(4): 357–373.

Krauss, S. E. (2005). Research paradigms and meaning making : A primer. *The Qualitative Report, 10*(4): 758– 770.

Krosnick, J. A., & Presser, S. (2010). Question and questionnaire design. In Wright, J. D., & Marsden, P. V. (Eds.), *Handbook of survey research* (pp. 263–313). Emerald Group: West Yorkshire.

Kyle, G. T., Absher, J. D., & Chancellor, C. (2005). Segmenting forest recreationists using their commitment profiles. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 23*(2): 64-86.

Kyle, G. T., Absher, J. D., Norman, W., Hammitt, W. E., & Jodice, L. (2007). A modified involvement scale. *Leisure Studies, 26*: 399-427.

Kyle, G.T., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2003). An Examination of the relationship between leisure activity involvement and place attachment among hikers along the Appalachian Trail. *Journal of Leisure Research, 35*(3): 249-273.

LaMondia, J., & Bhat, C. (2012). A conceptual and methodological framework of leisure activity loyalty accommodating the travel context. *Transportation, 39*(2): 321–349.

Laroche, M., Bergeron, J., & Barbaro-Forleo, G. (1996). Targeting consumers who are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 18*(6): 503–520.

Larsen, J., Urry, J., & Axhausen, K. W. (2007). Networks and tourism. Mobile social life. *Annals of Tourism Research, 34*: 244–262.

Larsen, S. (2007). Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*(1): 7–18.

Larsen, S., & Mossberg, L. (2007). Editorial: The diversity of tourist experiences. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*(1): 1–6.

LaSalle, D., & Britton, T. A. (2003). *Priceless: Turning ordinary products into extraordinary experience*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Lash, S., & Urry, J. (1994). *Economies of signs and space*. London: Sage.

Laurent, G., & Kapferer, J. N. (1985). Measuring consumer involvement profiles. *Journal of Marketing Research, 22*: 41–53.

Lee, J., Graefe, A. R., & Burns, R. C. (2007). Examining the antecedents of destination loyalty in a forest setting. Leisure Sciences, 29: 463–481

Lee, T., & Crompton, J. (1992). Measuring novelty seeking in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 19*: 732–751.

Lee, L., & Kyle, G. T. (2012). Recollection consistency of festival consumption emotions. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*: 178–190.

Lee, T. H., & Shen, Y. L. (2013). The influence of leisure involvement and place attachment on destination loyalty: Evidence from recreationists walking their dogs in urban parks. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 33*: 76–85.

Leedy, P., & Ormrod, J. (2001). Practical research: Planning and design. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Lee, Y., Dattilo, J., & Howard, D. (1994). The complex and dynamic nature of leisure experience. *Journal of Leisure Research, 26*(3): 195-211.

Lehto, X. Y., Lin., Y.-C., Chen, Y., & Choi, S. (2012). Family Vacation Activities and Family Cohesion. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 29*(8): 835–850.

Leiper, N. (1979). The framework of tourism: Towards a definition of tourism, tourist, and the tourist industry. *Annals of Tourism Research, 6*(4): 390–407.

Leontido, L. (1994). Gender dimensions of tourism in Greece: Employment, substructuring and restructuring. In: Kinnaird, V., & Hall, D. (Eds.), *Tourism: A Gender Analysis* (pp. 74–104). Wiley: Chichester.

Li, M., & Cai, L. A. (2008). Souvenir shopping attitudes and behavior among Chinese domestic tourists: An exploratory study. *Journal of China Tourism Research, 4*(2): 189–204.

Likert, R. (1932). A technique for the measurement of attitudes. *Archives of Psychology, 36* (2): 44–53.

Lin, L., & Mao, P-C. (2015). Food for memories and culture - A content analysis study of food specialties and souvenirs. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 22*: 1–30.

Lin, C. H., & Wang, W. C. (2012). Effects of authenticity perception, hedonics, and perceived value on ceramic souvenir-repurchasing intention. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 29*(8): 779–795.

Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Littrell, M. A., Anderson, L. F., & Brown, P. J. (1993). What makes a craft souvenir authentic? *Annals of Tourism Research, 20*(1): 197–215.

Manfredo, M. J. (1989). An investigation of the basis for external information search in recreation and tourism. *Leisure Sciences, 11*: 29–45.

Mannell, R., & Iso-Ahola, S. (1987). Psychological nature of leisure and tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 14*: 314–331.

Martin, J. (2002). *Organizational culture: Mapping the terrain.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications

Martin, M. (2008). Paradoxes of happiness. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 9*(2): 171–184.

Matteucci, X., & Gnoth, J. (2017). Elaborating on grounded theory in tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research, 65*: 49–59.

McCabe, S. (2002). The tourist experience and everyday life. In Dann, G. M. S. (Ed.), *The tourist as a metaphor of the social world* (pp. 61–75). Wallingford: CABI Publishing.

McCabe, S., & Johnson, S. (2013). The happiness factor in tourism: Subjective wellbeing and social tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research. 41*(1): 42–65.

MacCannell, D. (1973) Staged Authenticity: Arrangements of Social Space in Tourist Settings. *American Journal of Sociology, 79*(3): 589–603.

MacCannell, D. (1976). The tourist: A new theory of the leisure class. New York: Schocken.

MacKay, K., & Vogt, C. (2012). Information technology in everyday and vacation contexts. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(3): 1380–1401.

Malina, M. A., Hanne, S.O., Nørreklit, F., Selto, H. (2011). Lessons learned: Advantages and disadvantages of mixed method research. *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management, 8*(1): 59-71.

Mason, M. C., & Paggiaro, A. (2012). Investigating the role of festivalscape in culinary tourism: The case of food and wine events. *Tourism Management, 33*: 1329–1336.

Matteucci, X., & Gnoth, J. (2017). Elaborating on grounded theory in tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research, 65*: 49–59.

McGregor, I., & Holmes, J. (1999). How storytelling shapes memory and impressions of relationship events over time. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76*(3): 403–419.

McIntosh, A.J. (1998). Mixing methods: Putting the tourist at the forefront of tourism research. *Tourism Analysis, 3*(2): 121–127.

McIntyre, N., & Pigram, J. J. (1992). Recreation specialization reexamined: The case of vehicle-based campers. *Leisure Sciences*, 14(1): 3–15.

McKercher, B. (1996). Difference between tourism and recreation in parks. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23 (3): 563–575.

McKercher, B., & Lui S-L. (2014). Becoming a tourist. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 16*: 399–406.

McLean, C. (2006). Questionnaire. In: Jupp, V. (Ed.) *The Sage Dictionary of Social Research Methods* (pp.252–53). London: Sage Publications.

McQuiston, D. H. (1989). Novelty, complexity, and importance as causal determinants of industrial buyer behavior. *Journal of Marketing, 53*: 66–79.

Medina, L. K. (2003). Commoditizing culture: Tourism and Maya identity. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30*(2): 353–368.

Mehmetoglu, M., & Altinay, L. (2006). Examination of grounded theory analysis with an application to hospitality research. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 25*: 12–33.

Miller, D. (2008). *The comfort of things*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Mitchell, T. R., Thompson, L., Peterson, E., & Cronk, R. (1997). Temporal adjustments in the evaluation of events: The rosy view. *Journal of Experimental Psychology, 33*(4): 421–448.

Morgan, M., & Xu, F. (2009). Student travel experiences: Memories and dreams. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 18*(2): 216–236.

Morgan, N., & Pritchard, A. (2005). On souvenirs and metonymy: Narratives of memory, metaphor and materiality. *Tourist Studies, 5*(10): 29–53.

Morse, J. M. (1994). Designing funded qualitative research. In Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. .S. (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp.220–235). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Mossberg, K. (2007). A marketing approach to the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*(1): 59–74.

Murphy, L., Moscardo, G., Benckendorff, P., & Pearce, P. (2011). Evaluating tourist satisfaction with the retail experience in a typical tourist shopping village. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 18*(4): 302–310

Mynttinen, S., Logren, J., Särkkä-Tirkkonen, M., & Rautiainen, T. (2015). Perceptions of food and its locality among Russian tourists in the South Savo region of Finland. *Tourism Management, 48*: 455–466.

Nash, D. (1981). Tourism as an anthropological subject. *Current Anthropology, 22*(5): 461–481.

Nawijn, J. (2011a). Happiness through vacationing: Just a temporary boost or long-term benefits? *Journal of Happiness Studies, 12*(4): 651–665.

Nawijn, J. (2011b). Determinants of daily happiness on vacation. *Journal of Travel Research, 50*(5): 559–566.

Nawijn, J., Marchand, M., Veenhoven, R., & Vingerhoets, A. (2010). Vacationers happier, but most not happy after a holiday. *Applied Research in Quality of Life, 5*: 35–47.

Neal, J., Sirgy, M., & Uysal, M. (1999). The role of satisfaction with leisure travel/tourism services and experiences in satisfaction with leisure life and overall life. *Journal of Business Research, 44*(3): 153– 163.

Neuhofer, B., Buhalis, D., & Ladkin, A. (2014). A typology of technology-enhanced tourism experiences. *International Journal of Tourism Research 16*(4):340–350.

Neumann, M. (1999). *On the rim: Looking for the Grand Canyon*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Nunkoo, R., & Ramikssoon, H. (2016). Stakeholders' views of enclave tourism: A grounded theory approach. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 40*(5): 557–588.

Obrador, P. (2012). The place of the family in tourism research: Domesticity and thick sociality by the pool. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(1): 401–420.

Oh, H., Fiore, A., & Jeoung, M. (2007). Measuring experience economy concepts: Tourism application. *Journal of Travel Research, 46*(2): 119–132.

Okumus, B., Okumus, F., & McKercher, B. (2007). Incorporating local and international cuisines in the marketing of tourism destinations: The cases of Hong Kong and Turkey. *Tourism Management, 28*: 253–261.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Johnson, R., & Collins, K. M. (2009). Call for mixed analysis: A philosophical framework for combing qualitative and quantitative approaches. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches, 3*(2): 114–139.

Østergaard, P., & Jantzen, C. (2000). Shifting perspectives in consumer research: From buyer behaviour to consumption studies. In Beckmann, S. C., & Elliott, R. H. (Eds.), *Interpretive Consumer Research: Paradigms, Methodologies and Applications* (pp. 9–23). København: Handelshøjskolens Forlag.

Oviedo-Garcia, M.-A., Vega-Vazquez, N., Verdugo, M. C., & Reyes-Guizar, L. A. (2014). Tourist satisfaction and the souvenir shopping of domestic tourists: Extended weekends in Spain. *Current Issues in Tourism, 19*: 1–16.

Park, J., & Jang, S. S. (2013). Confused by too many choices? Choice overload in tourism. *Tourism Management, 35*(4): 1–12.

Parsons, C. (2007). Web-based surveys: Best practices based on the research literature. *Visitor Studies, 10*(1): 13–33.

Pearce, D. G. (1995). *Tourism today: A geographical analysis*. Harlow: Longman.

Pearce, P., & Gretzel, U. (2012). Tourism in technology dead zones: Documenting experiential dimensions. *International Journal of Tourism Sciences, 12*(2): 1–20.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1997). *Multiple regression in behavioral research: Explanation and prediction*. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Petrick, J. (2002). An examination of golf vacationers' novelty. *Annals of Tourism Research, 29*: 384–400.

Pine, J., & Gilmore, J.H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. Harvard Business Review, 76: 97–105.

Pine, J., & Gilmore, J.H. (1999). *The experience economy: Work is theatre and every business a stage*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. *Journal of Management, 12*: 69–82.

Poria, Y., Butler, R., & Airey, D. (2004). Links between tourists, heritage, and reasons for visiting heritage sites. *Journal of Travel Research, 4*: 19–28.

Pritchard, M. P., Havitz, M. E., & Howard, D. R. (1999). Analyzing the commitment-loyalty link in service contexts. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*: 333–348.

Quan, S., & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management, 25*: 297–305.

Ramsay, N. (2009). Taking-place: Refracted enchantment and the habitual spaces of the tourist souvenir. *Social & Cultural Geography, 10*(29): 197–217.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (1998). A cultural analysis of Japanese tourists: Challenges for tourism marketers. *European Journal of Marketing, 33*: 1203–1227.

Rettie, R. (2009). Mobile phone communication: Extending Goffman to mediated interaction. *Sociology, 43*(3): 421–438.

Richards, G. (2002). Gastronomy as a tourist product: The perspective of gastronomy studies. In Hjalager, A. M., & Richards, G. (Eds.), *Tourism and gastronomy* (pp. 3–20). London: Routledge.

Ridenour, C., & Newman, I. (2008). *Mixed methods research: Exploring the interactive continuum*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

Ritzer, G., & Liska, A. (1997). McDisneyization and Post-tourism: Complementary Perspectives on Contemporary Tourism. In Rojek, C., & Urry, J. (Eds), *Touring Cultures: Transformations of Travel and Theory* (pp. 96–109). New York: Routledge.

Robinson, R., & Getz, D. (2014). Profiling potential food tourists: and Australian study. *British Food Journal, 116*(4): 690–706.

Rossiter, J.R. (2011). Measurement for the Social Sciences. The C-OAR-SE Method and Why it Must Replace Psychometrics. New York: Springer.

Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 46*: 655–684.

Rothbard, N. P., & Dumas, T. L. (2006). Research perspectives: Managing the work-home interface. In Jones, F., Burke, R. J., & Westman, M. (Eds.), *Work-life balance. A psychological perspective* (pp. 71–89). Hove: Psychology Press.

Rojek, C. (1995) *Decentring leisure*. London: Sage.

Ryan, C. (2010). Ways of conceptualizing the tourist experience: A review of literature. *Tourism Recreation Research, 35*(1): 37–46.

Seaton, A.V., & Tagg, S. (1995).The family vacation in Europe: Paedonomic aspects of choices and satisfaction. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 4*(1): 1–21.

Schacter, D. (1995). Memory distortion: How minds, brains, and societies reconstruct the past. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Schaefer, D.R., & Dillman, D.A. (1998). Development of a standard e-mail methodology: Results of an experiment. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 62*: 378–397.

Schänzel, H. A., & Lynch, P. A. (2015). Family perspectives on social hospitality dimensions while on holiday. *Tourist Studies, 1*, 1–18.

Schänzel, H. A., & Smith, K. A. (2014). The socialization of families away from home: Group dynamics and family functioning on holiday. *Leisure Sciences, 36*, 126–143.

Schänzel, H. A., & Yeoman, I. (2014). The future of family tourism. Tourism *Recreation Research, 39*, 343–360.

Schänzel, H. A., Yeoman, I., & Backer, E. (2012). *Family tourism: Multidisciplinary perspectives*. Bristol: Channel View

Scheibehenne, B., Greifeneder, R., & Todd, P. M. (2009).What moderates the too-much-choice effect? *Psychology & Marketing*, 2: 229–253.

Schmitt, B. H. (1999). Experiential marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management, 15*(1–3): 53–67.

Schwartz, B. (2011). *Memory: Foundations and applications*. Sage Publications: Thousand Oaks.

Selltiz, C., Jahoda, M., Deutsch, M., & Cook, S.W. (1959). *Research methods in social relations*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Selstad, L. (2007). The social anthropology of the tourist experience. Exploring the middle role. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*: 19–33.

Shaw, S., Havitz, M., & Delemere, F. (2008). I decided to invest in my kids' memories: Family vacations, memories, and the social construction of the family. *Tourism Culture & Communication, 8*, 13–26.

Shaw, G., & Williams, A.M. (2004). *Tourism and tourism spaces*. London: Sage.

Sirgy, M.J. (2002). The psychology of quality of life. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Sirgy, M. J., Efraty, D., Siegel, P., & Lee, D.-J. (2011). A new measure of quality of work life (QWL) based on needs satisfaction and spillover effect. *Social Indicators Research, 55*: 241-301.

Sirgy, J.S, Kruger, P.S., & Lee, D-J., & Bu, G.B. (2011). How does a travel trip affect tourists' life satisfaction? *Journal of Travel Research, 50*(3): 261–275.

Sirgy, M., Phillips, R., & Rahtz, D. (2011). *Community quality-of-life indicators: Best cases V*. London, NY: Springer.

Slama, M.E., & Tashchian, A. (1985). Selected socio-economic and demographic characteristics associated with purchasing involvement. *Journal of Marketing, 49*, (12): 72–82.

Smith, V. (1978). Hosts and guests. Oxford: Blackwells.

Smith, W. W., Pitts, R. E., & Litvin, S. W. (2012). Travel and leisure activity participation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(4): 2207–2210.

Staines, L. G. (1980). Spillover versus compensation: A review of the literature on the relationship between work and nonwork. *Human Relations, 33*: 111–129.

Stebbins, R. A. (2007). Leisure studies: The happy science. *Leisure Studies Association Newsletter, 76*(3): 20–22.

Stewart, S. I., & Vogt, C. A. (1999). A case-based approach to understanding vacation planning. *Leisure Sciences, 21*(2): 79–95.

Story, J., & Hess, J. (2006). Segmenting customer-brand relations: Beyond the personal relationship metaphor. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 23*: 406–413.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques. Newbury Park: Sage

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory. Thousand Oaks: Sage

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (2007). *Grounded Theory in Practice*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Stylianou-Lambert, T. (2011). Gazing from home: cultural tourism and art museums. *Annals of Tourism Research, 38*(2): 403–421.

Sullivan, J. R. (2012). Skype: An Appropriate Method of Data Collection for Qualitative Interviews? *The Hilltop Review, 6*(1), 54–60.

Swanson, K. (2004). Tourists' and retailers' perceptions of souvenirs. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 10*(4), 363–377.

Swanson, K., & Timothy, D. (2012). Souvenirs: Icons of meaning, commercialization and commoditization. *Tourism Management, 33*(3): 489–499.

Swarbrooke, J., & Horner, S. (2007). *Consumer behavior in tourism.* Oxford: Elsevier Linacre House.

Tarssanen, S. (2007). *Handbook for experience stagers.* Rovaniemi: Lapland Center of Expertise for the Experience Industry

Tashakkori, A., & Creswell, J. W. (2007). Editorial: the new era of mixed methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(1): 3–7.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003) Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research. Thousand Oaks: Sage

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). Foundations of mixed methods research. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Therkelsen A., & Lottrup M. (2015). Being together at the zoo: Zoo experiences among families with children. *Leisure Studies, 34*: 354–371.

Tolia-Kelly, D. (2004). Locating processes of identification: Studying the precipitates of re-memory through artefacts in the British Asian home. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers, 29*(3), 314–329.

Torabian, P., & Arai, S. M. (2016). Tourist perceptions of souvenir authenticity: An exploration of selective tourist blogs. *Current Issues in Tourism, 19*(7): 697–712.

Treiblmaier, H., & Filzmoser, P. (2010). Exploratory factor analysis revisited: How robust methods support the detection of hidden multivariate data structures in IS research. *Information and Management, 47*(4): 197–207.

Throsby, D. (2003). Determining the value of cultural goods: How much (or how little) does contingent valuation tell us? *Journal of Cultural Economics, 27*: 275–285.

Timothy, D. J. (2005). *Shopping tourism, retailing and leisure.* Clevedon: Channel View.

Trauer, B., & Ryan, C. (2007). Destination image, romance and place experience – An application of intimacy theory in tourism. *Tourism Management, 26*: 481–491.

Trinh, T. T., Ryan, C., & Cave, J. (2014). Souvenir sellers and perceptions of authenticity- The retailers of Hội An, Vietnam. *Tourism Management, 45*: 275–283.

Tsai, C. (2016). Memorable tourist experiences and place attachment when consuming local food. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 536–548.

Tsiotsou, R., & Goldsmith, R. (2012). *Strategic marketing in tourism services*. Bingley: Emerald.

Tung, V., & Ritchie, J. (2011). Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 38*(4): 1367–1386.

Tung, V., Lin, P., Zhang, H. Q., & Zhao. (2017). A framework of memory management and tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 34*(7): 853–866.

Turner, L., & Ash, J. (1975). The golden hordes: international tourism and the pleasure periphery. London: Constable.

Turner, L., & Reisinger, Y. (2001). Shopping satisfaction for domestic tourists. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 8*: 15–27.

Urry, J. (1990). *The tourist gaze.* London: Sage Publications.

Urry, J. (1996). The tourist gaze. Leisure and travel in contemporary societies. London: Sage Publications.

Urry, J. (2008). *The tourist gaze.* Los Angeles, London, New Delhi, Singapore: Sage Publications.

Uriely, N. (2005). The Tourist Experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 32*(1): 199–216.

Uriely, N. (2007). Theories of modern and postmodern tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 24*: 982–984.

Uysal, M., Perdue, R., & Sirgy, M. (2012). *Handbook of tourism and quality-of-life research*. Dordrecht: Springer.

Van Egmond, T. (2007). Understanding western tourists in developing countries. Wallingford: CABI.

Veal, A. J. (2006). Research methods for leisure and tourism a practical guide. London: Pearson Education Limited.

Veal, A. J. (2011). Research methods for leisure and tourism, a practical guide. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Veenhoven, R. (1991). Questions on happiness: Classical topics, modern answers, blind spots. Oxford: Pergammon Press.

Verplanken, B., & Aarts, H. (1999). Habit, attitude, and planned behavior: Is habit an empty construct or an interesting case of goal-directed automaticity? In Stroebe, W., & Hewstone, M. (Eds.), European review of social psychology (pp. 101–134). Chichester: Wiley

Verplanken, B., Aarts, H., & van Knippenberg, A. (1997). Habit, Information acquisition, and the process of making travel mode choices. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 27*: 539–560.

Verplanken, B., Aarts, H., van Knippenberg, A., & Moonen, A. (1998). Habit versus planned behaviour: A field experiment. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 37,* 111–128.

Verplanken, B., & Orbell, S. (2003). Reflections of past behavior: A self-report index of habit strength. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 33*: 1313–1330.

Vignolles, A., & Paul-Emmanuel, P. (2014). A taste of nostalgia: links between nostalgia and food consumption. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal, 17*(3): 225–238.

Visit Finland. (2018). Tourism statistics. Retrieved from: http://www.visitfinland.com/travel-trade/ tourism-statistics/

Volo, S. (2010). Bloggers' reported tourist experiences: Their utility as a tourism data source and their effect on prospective tourists. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 16*(4): 297–211.

Walls, A. R., Okumus, F., Wang, Y., & Kwun, D, J-W. (2012). An epistemological view of consumer experience. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 30*: 10–21.

Wang, N. (1999). Rethinking authenticity in tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research 26*(2): 349–370.

Wang, D., Xiang, Z., & Fesenmaier, D.R. (2014). Adapting to the mobile world: A model of smartphone use. *Annals of Tourism Research, 48*: 11–26.

Warner, R.M. (2008) Applied statistics: From bivariate through multivariate techniques. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

White, N., & White, P. (2007). Home and away: tourists in a connected world. *Annals of Tourism Research, 34*: 88–104.

Wickens, E. (2002). The sacred and the profane. A tourist typology. *Annals of Tourism Research, 29*(3): 834–851.

Wiener, Y., Vardi, Y., Mukzyk, J. (1981). Antecedents of employees' mental health—The role of career and work satisfaction. *Journal of Vacation Behaviour, 19*(1): 50–60.

Wiese, B. S., Seiger, C. P., Schmid, C. M. & Freund, A. M. (2010). Beyond conflict: functional facets of the work-family interplay. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 77*(1): 104–117.

Wijaya, S., King, B., Nguyen, T-H., & Morrison, A. (2013). International visitor dining experiences: A conceptual framework. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 20*: 34–42.

Wilensky, H. (1960).Work, careers and social integration. *International Social Science Journal, 12*: 543–560.

Wilkins, H. (2011). Souvenirs: What and why we buy. *Journal of Travel Research, 50*(3): 239–247

Williams, S. (2009). Tourism geography: A new synthesis. London & New York: Routledge.

Woodside, A. G. (2008). Advances in culture, tourism and hospitality research. London: JAI Press.

Woodside, A. G. & Dubelaar, C. (2002). A general theory of tourism consumption systems: a conceptual framework and an empirical exploration. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*: 120–132.

Woodside, A. G., & King, R. (2001). An updated model of travel and tourism purchase consumption systems. Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 10(1): 3–27.

Wu, M.-Y., Wall, G., & Pearce, P. (2014). Shopping experiences: International tourists in Beijing's silk market. *Tourism Management, 41*: 96–106.

Xu, Y., & McGehee, N. G. (2012). Shopping behavior of Chinese tourists visiting the United States: Letting the shoppers do the talking. *Tourism Management, 33*(2): 427–430.

Yin, R.K. (2004). Case study research: design and methods. *Applied Social Research Methods Series*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Zauberman, G., Ratner, R. K., & Kim, B. K. (2009). Memories as assets: Strategic memory protection in choice over time. *Journal of Consumer Research, 35*(5): 715–728.

Zedeck, S. (1992). Introduction: Exploring the domain of work and family concerns. In Zedeck, S. (Ed.), *Work, family, and organizations* (pp.1–32). San Francisco: Jossey-Bash Publishers.

Publications

Sthapit, E., & Björk, P. (2017). Activity participation home and away: Examining the spillover theory among families on holiday. Anatolia, 28(2): 209–223.[2]

Sthapit, E., & Coudounaris, D. (2017). Memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and outcomes. Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 18(1): 72–94.[3]

Sthapit, E. (2017). Exploring tourists' memorable food experiences: A study of visitors to Santa's official hometown. Anatolia, 28(3): 404–421.[4]

Sthapit, E., & Björk, P. (2017). Relative contributions of souvenirs on memorability of a trip experience and revisit intention: A study of visitors to Rovaniemi, Finland. Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism. doi: https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2017.1354717[5]

---

[2] This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Taylor & Francis in Anatolia on [05.04.2017], available online: http://www.tandfonline.com/

[3] This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Taylor & Francis in Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism on [08.02.2017], available online: http://www.tandfonline.com/

[4] This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Taylor & Francis in Anatolia on [22.05.2017], available online: http://www.tandfonline.com/

[5] This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Taylor & Francis in Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism on [18.07.2017], available online: https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2017.1354717.

**Activity Participation Home and Away –
Examining the Spillover Theory among Families on Holiday**

Erose Sthapit* Peter Björk* *
* Vaasa University, Department of Marketing, Vaasa
* * Department of Marketing, HANKEN School of Economics, Vaasa

Abstract

A review of the literature on family leisure travel indicates an emphasis on the spectacular and exotic, with little empirical investigation on everyday behaviors retained while on vacation. The present study examines possible spillover from the home to tourism setting by examining the influence of leisure involvement, leisure habit, and psychological commitment on vacation behavior. Data was collected from family vacationers to Rovaniemi, Finland, and 215 valid responses were used in the analysis. The findings indicate a positive relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, and vacation behavior, while psychological commitment did not mediate the relationship between the constructs. The study offers evidence that visitors may exhibit similar behaviors in both their home and holiday environments in the family leisure travel context.

Keywords: Family tourism, leisure involvement, leisure habit, psychological commitment, vacation behavior, Finland

Introduction

Family holiday experiences have largely been marginalized in research that examines leisure travel, and remain unexplored (Carr, 2011; Shaw, Havitz, & Delamere, 2008; Schänzel & Smith, 2014; Schänzel & Yeoman, 2014; Schänzel, Yeoman, & Backer, 2012). However, in the array of conceptual and empirical work on family leisure travel, it is interesting to note some recurring themes that surface among them. One such theme is that family leisure travel activities relate to the notion of sublime, numinous and mystical experiences of the extraordinary, to illuminate the difference between being "away" and being at "home" (Seaton & Tagg, 1995). As a consequence of this emphasis on the spectacular and exotic, less frequently examined are the everyday behaviors and activities retained while on vacation (Blichfeldt & Mikkelsen, 2014; Kidron, 2013; Obrador, 2012).

Studies indicate that family tourism need not be mystified as extraordinary experiences (Kidron, 2013), but is fueled by the desire to find a "home" while being in a foreign place (Blichfeldt & Mikkelsen, 2014; Obrador, 2012). Families are in a sense most at "home" when away-from-the-home (Larsen, 2008). "Home" here is exemplified through doing various mundane social activities embedded in everyday life (Larsen, Urry, & Axhausen, 2007) such as going for hikes, playing games, and barbecuing (Löfgren, 1999), endorsing the performance turn approach, that is, the presence of home-like practice in the domain of tourism (Larsen, 2008). Also, studies state that family holidays are less about escape from home routines (Baerenholdt, Haldrup, Larsen, & Urry, 2007), and more about socializing and

bonding with family members (Shaw, Havitz, & Delamere, 2008), which may bolster the continuance of everyday domestic life while on tour (Blichfeldt & Mikkelsen, 2014; Obrador, 2012). Nevertheless, "everydayness" and tourist behavior may co-exist in family leisure travel (Therkelsen & Lottrup, 2015).

Some leisure researchers have proposed the spillover theory, in which everyday life is extended into the tourism arena, for predicting individuals' behavior while on vacation (Carr, 2002; Currie, 1997). Involvement has emerged as a central concept for studying leisure and tourism behavior (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Chang & Gibson, 2011; Smith, Pitts, & Litvin, 2012). Moreover, tourism is never entirely separate from the quotidian habits of daily experiences: they are part of the baggage (Edensor, 2001; Currie, 1997; Baerenholdt et al., 2007). Both leisure involvement and leisure habit encourage people to limit their choices, and as a result, reject alternative leisure activities (Verplanken, Aarts, Knippenberg, & Moonen, 1998). This may lead to psychological commitment and subsequent "spill-over" from daily to tourism-related practices (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Kyle, Absher, & Chancellor, 2005).

Thus, the present study investigates family vacationers' preferred leisure activities and the spillover effect in the tourism setting by examining the influence of leisure involvement, leisure habit, and psychological commitment on vacation behavior. To accomplish this, the two research questions are: is there a similarity between leisure and vacation behaviors among family vacationers? And what is the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, psychological commitment and vacation behavior? This study contributes to the family tourism literature by providing insights of the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, psychological commitment, and vacation behavior. The findings indicate that habitual behaviors could appear in family leisure travel, specifically in the context of activity participation. Both leisure involvement and leisure habit have a significant impact on vacation behavior and explain 27.8% of variation in vacation behavior. On the contrary, psychological commitment is not a significant mediator in the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, and vacation behavior.

Theoretical Background

The theoretical framework in use defines spillover theory, performance turn approach, and the four key concepts, namely leisure involvement, leisure habit, psychological commitment, vacation behavior, and five hypotheses (Figure 1).

Some leisure researchers have proposed theoretical examples using Burch's (1969) spillover theory, whereby people carry skills, routines, and habits established in their daily lives into travel (Currie, 1997; White & White, 2006). Although Harold Wilensky (1960) was the first to document the "spillover leisure" concept, a more socially positive concept of the spillover leisure concept was developed by Burch (1969) termed the "familiarity concept" (Currie, 1997). The spillover theory states that people in general do the same type of activities in their leisure as they do in their work (Thrane, 2000). Currie (1997) proposed a conceptual framework using Burch's (1969) spillover theory to aid in explaining why some everyday behaviors are retained on vacation while others are not. He suggested that individuals in their free time participate in activities that are part of

their regular routine. Likewise, on vacation they are likely to participate in activities similar to their everyday leisure. Currie (1997) further suggested that both the spill-over tourism behaviors are rooted in everyday home-based lifestyles. Brey and Lehto's (2007) study can be regarded as a good starting point in revisiting the relationship between leisure and tourism, however, there exist few empirical evidences as to how leisure activity involvement in everyday environments may influence their vacation/tourism behaviors in the context of family leisure travel (Blichfeldt & Mikkelsen, 2014; Obrador, 2012). On the other hand, the overlap between the extraordinary and every day is an aspect of tourism that a performance turn reveals (Molz, 2012). Molz (2012) states that performance turn focuses on embodied and material practices, and makes it visible the small and habitual ways in which tourism is intertwined with everyday life. For example, tourists inevitably carry "home" with them in the familiar objects that they pack in their luggage (including their phones and laptops) as well as in the unreflexively embodied habits that shape their daily routines (Haldrup & Larsen, 2010).

Leisure Involvement
Leisure involvement is defined as the extent to which an individual is involved in leisure and recreational activities, and represents how an individual and the external stimuli are related (Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammitt, & Jodice, 2007). Leisure involvement enhances individuals' sensitivity to certain activities and their perceptions of a particular activity's importance (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). Laurent and Kapferer (1985) argue that involvement is best viewed as a multifaceted concept and propose five facets of involvement, that is, importance, pleasure, symbolism, risk probability, and risk consequences, which open the door for conceptualizing involvement on a multidimensional concept. McIntyre and Pigram (1992) have extended Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) research to develop three components of leisure involvement, consisting of attraction, self-expression, and centrality to lifestyle. Attraction is a relatively intuitive component of involvement in recreational activities that refers to the concepts of importance and pleasure, implying activities that are important to an individual. Self-expression is similar to the signs, symbols, or personal impressions that individuals wish to convey to others through their leisure participation. The centrality of leisure or of a particular leisure activity includes a person's perception that the activity has valued life benefits, such as pressure reduction or other significant health outcomes (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). Based on McIntyre and Pigram's (1992) three dimensions, many subsequent quantitative studies assessed individuals' involvement in leisure or recreation activities (Hung & Lee, 2012; Kyle et al., 2003; Gross & Brown, 2008; Kyle et al., 2004a, 2004b; Kyle & Mowen, 2005; Lee, 2011; Lee & Shen, 2013). Over the years, a multi-dimensional approach to understand involvement in tourism and leisure contexts also include identity/lifestyles, hedonicity, and socializing (Chang & Gibson, 2015) and hedonic, central, self-identity, social identity and social (Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004a, 2004b; Chang, Gibson, & Sisson, 2014).

Leisure involvement contributes to participants' psychological commitment (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Kyle et al., 2005) and is considered an antecedent of commitment (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998). It is anticipated that when tourists are

continuously involved in a particular leisure activity at home, they may not be easily willing to change their preference, and will continue participating in the same activities and develop high commitment.

H1: High involvement in leisure activities at home associates positively with psychological commitment towards the activity

Recent studies show that leisure involvement has a significant influence on tourists' continued participation in activities, with the higher the involvement in an activity at-home, the greater the tendency to participate in the same when traveling (Chang & Gibson, 2011; Smith et al., 2012; Cheng, Hung, & Chen, 2016). In addition, tourists will feel that the activities are important and that their lives are associated with these activities (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). Tourists can express themselves through their total involvement in these activities (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999). By such continuous involvement, participants can acquire rich experiences and it is difficult to change their interest (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004).

H2: High involvement in leisure activities at home associates positively with vacation behavior on-site

Habit
Studies show that not all tourists behave hedonistically to the same degree (Carr, 2002), and some may exhibit similar behaviors in both home and holiday environments and across different time and spatial environments (Chang & Gibson, 2011). Therefore, behaviors are a function of both reasoned influences (e.g., attitudes, intentions) and unreasoned influences (e.g., habits: Aarts, Verplanken, & Knippenberg, 1997). Such unreasoned behaviors may be conceptualized as habits and are governed by automatic responses to specific cues and involve less complex information processing (Verplanken & Orbell, 2003).

Habit is defined as "learned sequences of acts that have become automatic responses to specific situations, which maybe functional in obtaining certain goals or end states" (Verplanken et al., 1997. p.539). The individual is usually not "conscious" of these sequences. This means that when a goal that is associated with a habit is activated, responses that are connected to specific situations or cues become more accessible. This cue then automatically triggers the habitual response (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2000). Habit is developed by extensive repetition, so well-learned that they do not require conscious effort (Verplanken & Orbell, 2003). In other words, habits are formed when using the same behavior frequently and consistently in a similar context for the same purpose (Verplanken & Aarts, 1999). The repetitive nature of goal-directed behavior causes the mental representation of the behavior to be directly elicited when encountering the given context (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2000). Accordingly, conscious effort to plan and initiate goal-directed behavior becomes redundant. That is, people can perform goal-directed behavior without forming an explicit intention because the behavior is directly mentally accessed in the context at hand as a result of frequently and consistently having performed that behavior in the past (Danner, Aarts, & de Vries, 2008).

According to Verplanken et al. (1997), a person using a habitual decision-making process usually bases the choice on knowledge and attitudes that already exist in his or her mind. As habit strength increases, the depth of the information needed before making a decision decreases and is further augmented by the reduced activation of alternative responses (Janiszewski & van Osselaer, 2005). Recent studies show that individuals develop leisure preferences, routines and habits over extended periods of time, similar to non-leisure travel behavior (Smith et al., 2012; LaMondia & Bhat, 2012). Such habitual performances or habits are unreflexively embodied in the tourist (Edensor, 2007) and are likely to induce similar behavioral patterns in both leisure and tourism setting (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Carr, 2002). It is assumed that those who habitually undertake their preferred leisure activity, with the assurance of past success and being predictable in its outcomes, are more likely to be psychologically committed towards the activity.

H3: Habit associated with a preferred leisure activity associates positively with psychological commitment towards the activity.

Habits may also have a more powerful influence on activity choices at a tourism destination (Chang & Gibson, 2011) because they represent the path of least resistance in people's ongoing stream of action (Janiszewski & van Osselaer, 2005). Researchers have found that habits can have a significant effect on future behavior and supplement cognitive evaluations (Aarts et al., 1997), as well as override the attitudinal and subjective norm components (Laroche, Bergeron, & Barbaro-Forleo, 1996). Bentler and Speckart's (1979) study shows that actions become habitual over time, and, importantly, that these actions can be instigated without the mediation of intentions. Indeed, the results of their study clearly show that a measure of habit does predict future behavior over and above intentions, suggesting that such behavior is initiated without much deliberation and thought. Moreover, habit plays a role in describing unexplained variance in consistency in past, current and future behaviors (Verplanken et al., 1997).

H4: Habit associated with a preferred leisure activity associates positively with vacation behavior on-site

Psychological Commitment
Another construct that has also assisted leisure researchers in understanding the enduring nature of the leisure experience is commitment. Commitment is defined as an individual's "dedication, loyalty, devotion, and attachment" (Buchanan, 1985), whereby individuals seek to make their current attitudes consistent with their past behavior, or individuals rationalize their behavior by developing relevant attitudes to support it (Kiesler, 1971). Committed customers are psychologically attached (Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard 1999); they invest themselves emotionally and financially in a continuing relationship and exhibit their loyal behaviors regardless of situational conditions (Story & Hess, 2006). Moreover, the bottom line in distinguishing commitment from other concepts is that behavioral action gives rise to consistent attitude, thereby reducing dissonance. Recent studies suggest that perceived cost, perceived irrecoverability, expected regret if stopped,

and other relevant activities developed from a leisure activity, should be attributed to commitment (Chang & Gibson, 2015).

Psychological commitment is based on "continuity" and "resistance to change" (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998, 2004). When individuals enjoy certain things, they will be unlikely to change their preferences. In other words, individuals will persist in their preferences. Hence, psychological commitment is considered an essential element for determining why people choose to engage in a particular leisure activity (Pritchard et al., 1999). Pritchard et al. (1999) and Iwasaki and Havitz (2004) categorized psychological commitment into informational complexity, position involvement, volitional choice, and resistance to change. Information complexity refers to the extent to which information processing is required to form cognitive structures, that is, the knowledge and beliefs related to a specific service provider (McQuiston, 1989). Positional involvement refers to a situation in which important values or self-image are identified with a particular service or product choice (Freedman, 1964). Volitional choice refers to the process that involves both freedom from constraints and the freedom to choose (Bagozzi, 1993). Resistance to change describes an individual's unwillingness to change his/her preferences toward important associations and/or beliefs regarding a product (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004). Empirical investigations have shown that psychological commitment is an essential condition that highlights an attitudinal predisposition and leads to favorable behavioral intentions (i.e., conative loyalty: Lee, Graefe, & Burns 2007).

Both leisure involvement and leisure habit encourage people to limit their choices, and as a result, reject alternative leisure activities (Verplanken, Aarts, Knippenberg, & Moonen, 1998). This may lead to psychological commitment and subsequent "spill-over" from daily to tourism-related practices (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Kyle et al., 2005).

H5: Psychological commitment mediates the relationship between leisure involvement and leisure habit on vacation behavior on-site

Vacation Behavior, On-site Activity Participation
Vacation behavior contains information about the destination (such as domestic vs. international), the type of accommodation, the transport mode used, and more. Vacation behavior reflects the outcomes of very complex decision-making processes of individuals and households, who are part of a social system with its typical norms, routines, habits, culture, institutions, and the like (Decrop & Kozak, 2014). Social systems are characterized by production and reproduction mechanisms as reflected in daily activity patterns. Vacations are part of such patterns (Bargeman, Joh, & Timmermans, 2002). In the context of this study, vacation behavior is characterized as the propensity to undertake the same favorite leisure activity in a tourism setting as at home and pertains to family vacation in general.
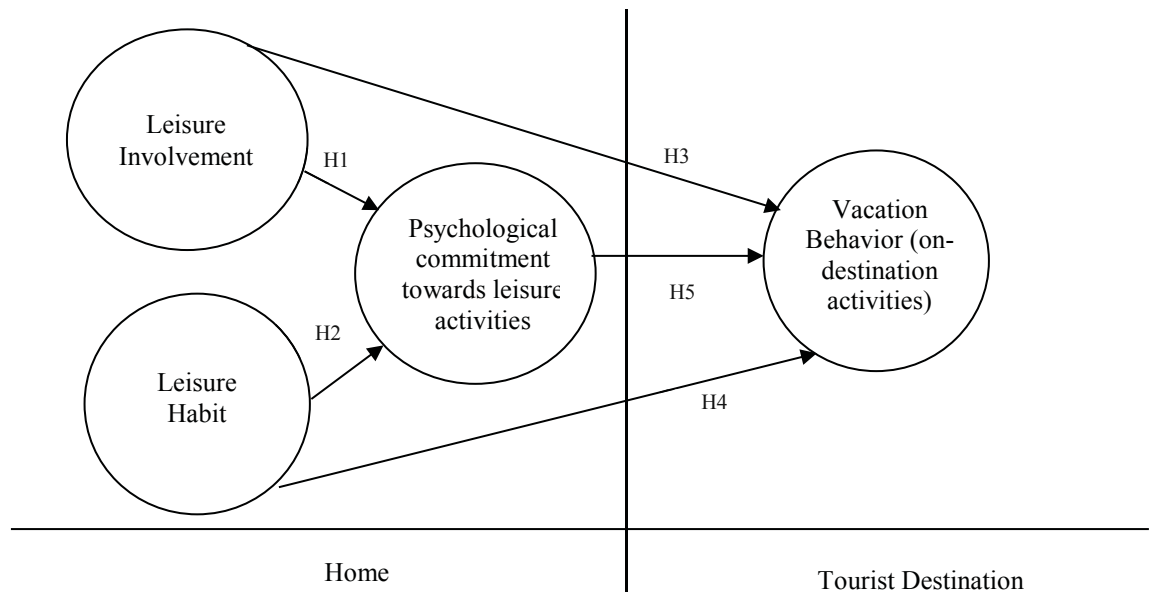
Figure 1. The proposed model

Method
Questionnaire Development
This study employs a quantitative method using an online survey questionnaire. Respondents are first instructed to mentioned one favorite leisure activity (done during free time, close to home) that he or she undertakes the most while at home, in order to respond to the leisure involvement, leisure involvement, leisure habit, and vacation behavior questions. The final questionnaire includes three sections. The first section includes demographic variables (gender, age, nationality, level of education, current family situation, net monthly income, and one favorite leisure activity undertaken the most while at home) and questions about trip characteristics (have you visited Rovaniemi? when did you visit Rovaniemi? length of stay while in Rovaniemi? travel companion, number of people in the travel party, and age of children in the travel party).The second section consists of a list of activities (visiting museums, skiing, hiking, shopping, swimming and fishing) that respondents undertake while at home alone, together with family, and while at a tourist destination alone and together with family to compare leisure and tourism activities among family vacationers for developing a better understanding of consistency in behavioral patterns. These items were measured using a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 = never to 5 = always. Finally, the third section includes 27 items measuring leisure involvement (LI), leisure habit (LH), psychological commitment (PC), and vacation behavior (VB). 11 items are used to measure leisure involvement across three domains: attraction (5 items), self-expression (3 items), and centrality (3 items), modified and adapted from Kyle et al.'s (2003) study. Leisure habit (LH) comprises eight items across three domains: automaticity (3 items), resistance (3 items), and regularity (2 items) modified from those used by Verplanken and Orbell (2003). Commitment includes 4 items adapted from Chang and Gibson's (2011) study. Vacation behavior is measured using 4 items

adapted and modified from Chang's (2009) studyAll questions (items) are measured using a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Moreover, Table 1 shows the sources and the operationalization or the scale items used to measure the key constructs in the study.

Table 1 Operationalization of constructs used in this study (variables sources and measurement items)

1) Leisure Involvement (Kyle et al., 2003) **Self-expression** X1 When I participate in my favorite leisure activity, I can be myself X2 You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them involved in their favorite leisure activity X3 When I participate in my favorite leisure activity others see me the way, I want them to see me **Centrality** X4 I find a lot of my life organized around my favorite leisure activity X5 I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with family members X6 Most of my family members are in some way connected with my favorite leisure activity **Attraction** X7 My favorite leisure activity is important to me X8 My favorite leisure activity interests me X9 Participating in my favorite leisure activity is one of the most enjoyable things that I do X10 Participating in my favorite leisure activity is pleasurable X11 I enjoy my favorite leisure activity **2) Leisure Habit (Verplanken & Orbell, 2003)** **Automaticity** X12 I do not need much of an effort to think about doing my favorite leisure activity X13 I do my favorite leisure activity without much thinking X14 I do my favorite leisure activity without having to consciously remember to do it **Resistance** X15 I feel strange if I do not participate my favorite leisure activity X16 My favorite leisure activity would require effort not to do it X 17 I would find it hard not to take part in my favorite leisure activity **Regularity** X18 My favorite leisure activity is part of my routine X19 My favorite leisure activity is part of my routine **3) Psychological Commitment (Chang & Gibson, 2011)** X20 I spend a lot of time doing my favorite leisure activity X21 I will regret if I stop and start to do another leisure activity X22 I will develop other relevant activities extended from my favorite leisure activity X23 I will lose touch with friends and family if I stop my favorite leisure activity **4) Vacation Behavior (Chang, 2009)** X24 I spend an adequate amount of my family vacation participating in my favorite leisure activity each year X25 Whenever I take a family vacation, I am usually involved in my favorite leisure activity X26 Whenever I take a family vacation, I usually take the chance to improve my favorite leisure activity skills X27 Whenever I take a family vacation, I usually spend time taking part in my favorite leisure activity with family members

Pilot Test, Data Collection and Data Analysis Tools

To reduce potential measurement error, it is important to note that during the exploratory stage of the current study the authors pre-tested the questionnaire with five academic researchers at the University of Vaasa, Finland. Also, the pilot testing of the questionnaire was conducted among 10 students at the University of Vaasa, Finland, in May 2016 to confirm the relevance, clarity, flow and phrasing of the questions. It was estimated that each questionnaire could be completed within 10 minutes. Consequently, the participants in the survey did not complain about its length. Due to the fact that the questionnaire was uploaded on-line, the respondents were able to complete it very quickly. In the final study, data is gathered from family vacationers to Finland through accessing an adult representative. The sampling frame includes tourists who have recently visited Rovaniemi, Finland. An invitation to complete the survey was sent through the Facebook web pages of local tour operators. The final questionnaire was online for three months (June-August 2016).

Results and Discussion

The sample is based on international tourists visiting Rovaniemi, Finland. 215 questionnaires were used in the data analysis. The descriptive analysis shows that male respondents (68%) marginally outnumbered their female counterparts. The age of the respondents ranged from 19 to 62. More than half of the respondents had a university degree (67%). The majority stated that they were married (91.6%), had a net monthly income of 2000-3000 euros (57.2%), and all the respondents had visited Rovaniemi. Many visited Rovaniemi one year ago (58.1%). In terms of the length of stay, a majority reported 3-4 weeks (39.1%) and 3-6 days (38.1%). Many of the respondents traveled as a family with a child (82.8%) and in groups of 3-4 people (68.8%). Regarding the number of children in the travel party, 16.7% traveled without children, while those traveling with one or more children accounted for 83.35%. The respondents represented 29 different countries and the majority were British (17.35%). In response to an open-ended question about visitor's favorite leisure activity, 35 different leisure activities were mentioned, including reading (10.7%), running (9.3%) and photography (7%). Table 2 shows the demographic and travel characteristics of respondents.

Table 2 Demographic and travel characteristics of respondents (n=215)

Characteristics	Percentage	Characteristics	Percentage
Gender		**Visited Rovaniemi**	
Male	68.0	Yes	100.0
Female	32.0	No	0.0
Age		**When did you visit Rovaniemi?**	
19-25	2.3	One week ago	0.5
26-32	4.2	One month ago	1.4
33-39	36.7	Couple of months ago	3.3
≥ 40	56.7	Six months ago	20.0
		One year ago	58.1
Nationality		More than one year ago	14.9
British	17.3		
German	14.0	**Length of stay**	
Dutch	11.0	1-2 days	9.8

Other	58.7	3-6 days	38.1
		1-2 weeks	11.2
Level of Education		3-4 weeks	39.1
Elementary School	0.9	more than 4 weeks	1.8
High School	11.6		
Polytechnic	20.5	**Travel Companion**	
University	67.0	Alone	2.8
		Husband or wife	11.6
Current family situation		Family with children	82.8
Single	4.7	Friends	2.8
Cohabiting	3.7		
Married	91.6	**People in the travel party**	
		1-2	13.0
Net Monthly Income		3-4	68.8
below 1000e	2.8	≥ 5	16.2
1001-2000e	23.3		
2001-3000e	57.2	**Number of children in the travel party**	
more than 3000e	16.7	None	16.7
		≥ 1	83.3
		Favorite leisure activity	
		Reading	10.7
		Running	9.3
		Photography	7.0

Table 3 shows the home and vacation behavior patterns. The majority of visitors stated that they rarely visit museums while at home alone (2.72) or together with family (2.80), while at the destination, the results report high mean values denoting sometime, i.e., while alone (3.40), and together with family (3.56). A somewhat similar pattern is also seen for shopping, skiing and hiking and swimming. Conversely, in the case of fishing, many reported sometimes, while it was never practiced when at the destination alone or together with family members.

Table 3 Home and vacation behavior patterns (1denotes never, 2 rarely, 3 sometimes, 4often, and 5 always)

	Mean Museum	Skiing	Hiking	Shopping	Swimming	Fishing
while at home, alone	2.72	1.93	3.14	3.36	2.70	2.07
while at home, together with family members	2.80	1.95	3.22	3.33	2.78	2.09
at a tourist destination, alone	3.40	1.98	3.11	3.37	2.45	1.95
at a tourist destination, together with family members	3.56	2.08	3.22	3.46	2.63	1.97

Exploratory Factor Analysis
First, in order to confirm the pre-specified dimensions of leisure involvement and leisure habit, a principle axis factoring using Varimax rotation was undertaken with 19 items. Bartlett's test of sphericity (using a chi-square test) statistically detects the presence of correlations among the variables. Bartlett's test of sphericity (4277.973, d.f. = 171) was significant at .000, and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin, a statistical test used to measure the appropriateness of the raw data, was 0.758, indicating that there was sufficient inter-correlation within the data to perform the factor analysis.

The results of the factor analyses showed that the item on each scale is unifactorial -namely, that they were measuring the same dimensions. Six factors with eigenvalues above 1.0 were generated, which explained about 87% of the total variance. The factor loadings for the 19 variables ranged from 0.76 to 0.98, above the suggested threshold value of 0.35 for practical and statistical significance. The loadings presented a clean and highly interpretable solution: the 19 variables loaded significantly on six factors as the researcher conceptualized – "self-expression", "centrality", "attraction", "automaticity", "resistance", and "regularity"; no variables loaded significantly on more than one factor. Cronbach's Alpha was used for the reliability analysis. Cronbach's Alphas for the six factors were robust, ranging from 0.82 to 0.92, which exceeds the recommended cut-off at 0.70 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010) (see Table 4).

Table 4 Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Factors	Factor Loading	Eigen-value	VE	Alpha
Leisure Involvement				
Self-expression		7.15	37.63	0.92
When I participate in my favorite leisure activity, I can be myself	.865			
You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them involved in their favorite leisure activity	.863			
When I participate in my favorite leisure activity others see me the wat I want them to see me	.813			
Centrality		3.49	18.39	0.82
I find a lot of my life is organized around my favorite leisure activity	.762			
I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with family members	.878			
Most of my family members are in some way connected with my favorite leisure activity	.790			
Attraction		2.12	11.17	0.85
My favorite leisure activity is important to me	.923			
My favorite leisure activity interests me	.954			
Participating in my favorite leisure activity is one of the most enjoyable things that I do	.849			
Participating in my favorite leisure activity is pleasurable	.945			
I enjoy my favorite leisure activity	.976			
Leisure Habit				
Automaticity		1.71	9.01	0.88
I do not need much of an effort to think about doing my favorite leisure activity	.899			
I do my favorite leisure activity without much thinking	.918			

I do my favorite leisure activity without having to consciously remember to do it	.882		
Resistance		1.10	5.79	0.88
I feel strange if I do not participate in my favorite leisure activity	.887		
My favorite leisure activity would require effort not to do it	.799		
I would find it hard not to take part in my favorite leisure activity	.868		
Regularity		1.01	5.32	0 .85
My favorite leisure activity is part of my routine	.874		
I take part in my favorite leisure activity regularly	.903		

Items measured on a 5-point Likert scale. VE=Variance Extracted. Cronbach's alpha (α) reported for scales with more than two items. Principal Component Analysis and full rotation. Total Variance Explained: 87.34%.

Test of hypothesis

Multiple linear regression (MLR) was conducted to examine the relationship between the factors of leisure involvement (H1) and leisure habit (H3) (see Table 5, Model 1) and psychological commitment. Model 2 was used to assess the influence of leisure involvement (H2) and leisure habit (H4) on vacation behavior (direct relationship). Model 3 tests the indirect relationship between leisure involvement and leisure habit on vacation behavior, mediated through psychological commitment (H5, indirect relationship).

MLR between the factors relating to leisure involvement, leisure habit, and psychological commitment (Model 1) achieved a satisfactory goodness of fit. The F ratio 33.65 was significant ($p < .000$), suggesting that the regression of the dependent variable (leisure involvement and leisure habit) on the independent variable was statistically significant. We expected leisure involvement (H1) to have a significant effect on commitment and found this was supported (Table 5, Model 1: $\beta=0.337$; $p<0.001$). Secondly, we expected leisure habit (H3) to have a significant impact on commitment and found this was also supported (Table 5, Model 1: $\beta=.445$; $p<0.001$). The tolerance and VIF of each of the independent variable of Model 1 was checked to test collinearity between the variables. As all tolerance levels were greater than the cut-off level of 0.10 and VIF well under 5, multicollinearity is not a problem in this study.

In the second phase, we tested the relationship between leisure involvement (H2), leisure habit (H4) and vacation behavior (direct relationship). Both leisure involvement (Table 5, Model 2: $\beta=0.277$; $p<0.001$) and leisure habit (Table 5, Model 2: $\beta=0.336$; $p<0.001$) have a significant impact on vacation behavior. Model 2 indicates that 27.8% of variation in vacation behavior can be explained by the dimensions of leisure involvement and leisure habit. Finally, we entered leisure involvement, leisure habit together with psychological commitment and vacation behavior in the third model to assess the mediating effect of psychological commitment in the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure commitment, and vacation behavior (H5). However, the indirect path from leisure involvement, leisure habit to vacation behavior was not supported (Table 5, Model 3: $\beta=0.130$; $p>0.05$).

Table 5 Effects of leisure involvement and leisure habit on commitment (Model 1) and vacation behavior (Model 2, 3) (N=215)

Independent variables, R^2, Adj R^2, F-value	Model 1 (DV= PC) Beta (t-values)	Model 2 (DV= VB) Beta (t-values)	Model 3 (DV= VB) Beta (t-values)
Leisure Involvement	.337 *** (5.67)	.277***(4.04)	.233***(3.18)
Leisure Habit	.445 *** (7.49)	.336***(4.91)	.279***(3.61)
Psychological Commitment			.130NS (1.62)
R^2 Psy. Commitment	46.4		
Adj R^2 Psy. Commitment	45.8		
F-value	89.03***		
R^2 Vacation Behavior		28.5	29.4
Adj R^2 Vacation Behavior		27.8	28.3
F-vale		41.00***	28.42***

DV =Dependent variable, PC= Psychological Commitment, VB= Vacation Behavior
***p<0.001; **p<0.01; *p<0.05; N.S=Non significant

To have an understanding of the impact of the travel trip characteristics, length of stay and number of children in the travel party showed a significant mediating effect of psychological commitment in the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, and vacation behavior. The sample was split based on length of stay focusing on those who stayed in Rovaniemi for 1-2 weeks and more. This group of visitors dominate our sample, and the results indicate that (n=110, Table 6, Model 4-5) leisure involvement and leisure habit have strong significant impact on psychological commitment (β=0.361; p<0.001 and β=0.439; p<0.001). Furthermore, we find that psychological commitment has a significant impact on vacation behavior (β=0.365; p<0.01). In contrast, for those who stayed in Rovaniemi for less than 1-2 weeks (n=105), both leisure involvement and leisure habit had a significant impact on commitment and vacation behavior, but commitment had an non-significant impact on vacation behavior (See Table 6, Models 6-7).

Table 6 Participants length of stay equal to and more than 1-2 weeks median split (N=110, model 4, 5) and less than 1-2 weeks median split (N=105, model 6, 7)

Independent variables, R^2, Adj R^2, F-value	Model 4 (DV= PC) Beta (t-values)	Model 5 (DV= VB) Beta (t-values)	Model 6 (DV=PC) Beta (t-values)	Model 7 (DV= VB) Beta (t-values)
Leisure Involvement	.361 *** (5.67)	.148NS (1.42)	.303*** (3.44)	.315** (3.13)
Leisure Habit	.439 *** (5.67)	.121 NS (1.12)	.455*** (5.17)	.430*** (4.01)
Psychological Commitment		.365** (3.22)		-.093 NS (-.849)
R^2 Psy. Commitment	49.2			
Adj R^2 Psy. Commitment	48.3			
F-value	51.83***			
R^2 Vacation Behavior		30.9	43.1	34.5
Adj R^2 Vacation Behavior		28.9	41.9	32.4
F-vale		15.79***	36.39 ***	16.68***

DV =Dependent variable, PC= Psychological Commitment, VB= Vacation Behavior
***p<0.001; **p<0.01; *p<0.05; N.S=Non significant

The sample was also split based on number of children in the travel party. This group of visitors dominate our sample (n=174) and the results indicate that (Table 5, Model 8-9) leisure involvement and leisure habit have a strong significant impact on psychological commitment (β=0.337; p<0.001 and β=0.327; p<0.001). Furthermore, we find that psychological commitment has a significant impact on vacation behavior (β=0.365; p<0.01). In contrast, in the case of those traveling without children, leisure involvement was non-significant (β=0.282; p>0.05) while leisure habit (β=0.550; p<0.001) had a significant impact on commitment. Additionally, psychological commitment had a non-significant impact on vacation behavior (see Table5, Models 10-11).

Table 7 Number of children in the travel party greater than and equal to 1median split (N=174, model 8, 9), and with no children median split (N=41, model 9, 10)

Independent variables, R^2, Adj R^2, F-value	Model 8 (DV=C) Beta (t-values)	Model 9 (DV= VB) Beta (t-values)	Model 10 (DV= C) Beta (t-values)	Model 11 (DV= VB) Beta (t-values)
Leisure Involvement	.337 ***	.208** (2.68)	.282 NS	.312 NS
Leisure Habit	(4.94)	.208**(2.69)	(1.91)	(1.67)
Psychological Commitment	.327 *** (4.78)	.167* (2.05)	.550** (3.27)	.408 NS (1.92)
R^2 Psy. Commitment			57.5	.016 NS
Adj R^2 Psy. Commitment	29.6		54.9	(.076)
F-value	28.7	20.7	21.66***	
R^2 Vacation Behavior	35.88***	19.3		
Adj R^2 Vacation Behavior		14.75***		
F-vale				40.7 35.0 7.08***

DV =Dependent variable, C=Commitment, VB= Vacation Behavior
***p<0.001; **p<0.01; *p<0.05; N.S=Non significant

Conclusion, Implications, Limitations, and Future Research
This study adopted the performance turn approach and spillover theory to examine possible spillover between everyday life and tourism behavior among family vacationers. According to this theory, people's behaviors during vacation time are reflections of their everyday life behaviors. The findings indicate a positive relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, and psychological commitment (H1, H3) and leisure involvement, leisure habit and vacation behavior (H2, H4), while psychological commitment did not mediate the relationship between the constructs (H5). Furthermore, regarding the activities undertaken at home and at the destination, a similar behavioral pattern were seen for most of the activities (visiting museum, skiing hiking, shopping and swimming) except fishing. Therefore, the study suggests that vacationers who are highly involved in their favorite leisure activity at home and have developed a leisure habit may not necessarily develop a psychological commitment towards it, but are most likely to practice it while in a tourism setting. The effect of leisure involvement and leisure habit should be thought of as a direct spillover effect.

This study contributes to the existing literature that challenges the gap between "home" and "away" polarity (Larsen, 2008). The study adds to the small but growing body of research examining the performance turn approach and spillover theory from home to tourism setting with the integration of two other concepts, leisure habit and psychological commitment, as well as involvement theory that has been widely used to understand this phenomenon. Although tourism is suffused with the notion of liminality and escape, in reality the above findings lead to the conclusion that habitual behaviors could appear in family leisure travel, specifically in the context of activity participation. One of the reasons for the possible spillover is the "ontological comfort of home" (Quan & Wang, 2004), as both leisure involvement and leisure habit may represent the affinity for convenience and minimal planning (LaMondia & Bhat, 2012), and provide stability, comfort, and relaxation in what is frequently a new, novel, or unfamiliar setting (Edensor, 2001). In the same vein, recent studies indicate that tourists often undertake the same recreational activities when on vacation as at home (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Smith et al., 2012).

From a managerial perspective, the present study supports Edensor's (2001) argument that tourism should be understood by its overlap into the everyday rather than as a special, separate field of activity. In other words, tourism is not an "exotic island", but connected to "ordinary" social life (Haldrup & Larsen, 2003), and "to understand tourism at the destination requires studying the tourist in the home market" (Brey & Lehto, 2007: 217). Moreover, Edensor (2001) and Larsen (2008) suggest that "everyday life" should be central to future tourism research and to make space within the theory for "everydayness". Therefore, tourism service providers should be aware of the activities that visitors undertake in their home country when developing and offering activities targeted towards family vacationers as not all tourists behave hedonistically (Carr, 2002) and some may exhibit similar behaviors in both their home and holiday environments, and across different time and spatial environments (Currie, 1997; Chang & Gibson, 2011). Variety-seeking and the desire for novelty may thus be found not in new activities but in new locations in which to engage in familiar activities (Smith et al., 2012). Moreover, different tiers of programs targeting different visitor segments are critical to creating satisfactory experiences and repeat tourists.

The current study results have limitations and caution should be used in any generalization of the findings to other areas, populations, and activities. The survey responses were collected from only one destination, Rovaniemi. Also, the study was limited to three dimensions in predicting tourists' vacation behavior. The questionnaire was developed in English, thus excluding non-English speakers. Moreover, given that the study tries to make a contribution to family tourism research, however, the sample includes 8.4% that are not married and 17.2% that travel not as a family with a child, thus, future studies should exclude respondents not qualifying as traveling with family. Furthermore, due to time and resource limitations, the study employed multiple regression analysis to evaluate the relationship between the dependent and independent variables, however, further studies should use Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) for testing the hypothesis.

Future studies should include other factors that may influence the possible spillover from home and tourist destination, for example, individual norms, preferences, and personality (Carr, 2002). Small daily routines, precious objects and mundane technologies also need to be taken into consideration (Larsen, 2008). Many researchers have pointed out that psychological and behavioral influences on participation in leisure activities and in vacation activities are likely to be influenced by significant others (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Carr, 2002). Moreover, leisure and recreation literature indicates that as one's experience increases, interest in participation in certain activities becomes more specialized, focused, or narrowed (Smith, 1994). Therefore, past experience should also be included in examining on-site activity involvement. Moreover, tourists who develop "leisure activity loyalty" are much less sensitive to changes in costs associated with those leisure activities (LaMondia & Bhat, 2012). Future studies should examine the moderating role of price in the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, and vacation behavior. Another application would be to test the model among first-timers and repeat tourists. Lastly, future studies should make use of qualitative methods such as family-based travel narratives to understand the link between home and away in the family leisure travel context (Kozak, 2016).

References

Aarts, H., & Dijksterhuis, A. (2000). Habits as knowledge structures: Automaticity in goal-directed behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 79*, 53–63. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.78.1.53

Aarts, H., Verplanken, B., & van Knippenberg, A. (1997). Habit and information use in travel mode choices. *Acta Psychologica, 96*, 1–14.
doi: 10.1016/S0001-6918(97)00008-5

Ajzen, I. (2002). Residual Effects of Past on Later Behavior: Habituation and Reasoned Action Perspectives. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 6*(2), 107–122. doi: 10.1207/S15327957PSPR0602_02

Baerenholdt, O. J., Haldrup, M., Larsen, J., & Urry, J. (2007). *Performing tourist places*. Hants, Burlington: Ashgate.

Bagozzi, R. P. (1993). On the neglect of volition in consumer research: A critique and proposal. *Psychology and Marketing, 10*, 215–237.
doi: 10.1002/mar.4220100305

Bargeman, B., Joh, C-H., & Timmermans, H. (2002). Vacation behavior using a sequence alignment method. *Annals of Tourism Research, 29*(2), 320–337.
doi: 10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00065-2

Bentler, P. M., & Speckart, G. (1979). Models of attitude-behavior relations. *Psychological Review, 86*, 452–464. doi: 10.1037/0033-295X.86.5.452

Blichfeldt, B.S., & Mikkelsen, M. (2014). The Extraordinariness of Ordinariness in Tourism Research. *Revista Turismo & Desenvolvimento, 20*(21), 1–22.

Brey, E.T., & Lehto, X.Y. (2007). The relationship between daily and vacation activities. *Annals of Tourism Research, 34*(1), 160–180.
doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2006.08.001

Buchanan, T. (1985). Commitment and leisure behavior: A theoretical perspective. *Leisure Sciences, 7*(4), 401–420. doi: 10.1080/01490408509512133

Burch, W. R. (1969). The social circles of leisure: competing explanations. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *1*, 125–147.

Carr, N. (2011). *Children's and families' holiday experiences*. London and New York: Routledge.

Carr, N. (2002). The tourism-leisure behavioral continuum. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*, 972–986. doi: 10.1016/S0160-7383(02)00002-6

Chang, S. (2009). *Relationship between active leisure and active vacations*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Grand Valley State University, Allendale.

Chang, S., & Gibson, H.J. (2015). The relationships between four concepts (involvement, commitment, loyalty, and habit) and consistency in behavior across leisure and tourism. *Tourism Management*, *13*, 41–50.
doi: 10.1016/j.tmp.2014.11.003

Chang, S., & Gibson, H.J. (2011). Physically active leisure and tourism connection: leisure involvement and choice of tourism activities among paddlers. *Leisure Sciences, 33*, 162–181. doi: 10.1080/01490400.2011.550233

Chang, S., Gibson, H., & Sisson, L. (2014). The loyalty process of residents and tourists in the festival context. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *17*(9), 783–799.
doi: 10.1080/13683500.2013.768214

Cheng, T-M., Hung, S-H., & Chen, M-T. (2016). The influence of leisure involvement on flow experience during hiking activity: Using psychological commitment as a mediate variable. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *21*(1), 1–19. doi: 10.1080/10941665.2014.1002507

Currie, R. (1997). A pleasure-tourism behaviors framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *24*, 884–897.doi: 10.1016/S0160-7383(97)00051-0

Danner, U.N., Aarts, H., & de Vries, N.K. (2008). Habit vs. intention in the prediction of future behavior: The role of frequency, context stability and mental accessibility of past behavior. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *47*, 245–265. doi: 10.1348/014466607X230876

Decrop, A., & Kozak, M. (2014). Consumer Goals in Vacation Decision Making. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *31*(1), 71–81.
doi: 10.1080/10548408.2014.861722

de Vaus, D. A. (2002). *Surveys in Social Research.* Australia: Allen & Unwin, Crows Nest.

Edensor, T. (2001). Performing tourism, staging tourism: (Re) producing tourist space and practice. *Tourist Studies*, *1*(1), 59–81.
doi: 10.1177/146879760100100104

Edensor, T. (2007). Mundane mobilities, performance and spaces of tourism. *Social and Cultural Geography*, *8*(2), 199–215.doi: 10.1080/14649360701360089

Freedman, J. T. (1964). Involvement, discrepancy and change. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *69*, 290–295. doi: 10.1037/h0042717

Gross, M. J., & Brown, G. (2008). An empirical structural model of tourists and places: progressing involvement and place attachment into tourism. *Tourism Management*, *29*, 1141–1151.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.02.009

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis. Seventh Edition*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Haldrup, M. & Larsen, J. (2010). *Tourism, Performance, and the Everyday.* London: Routledge.

Haldrup, M., & Larsen, J. (2003). The family gaze. *Tourist studies*, *3*(1), 23–45. doi: 10.1177/1468797603040529

Havitz, M. E., & Dimanche, F. (1999). Leisure involvement revisited: Drive properties and paradoxes. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *31*, 122–149.

Hung, C. S., & Lee, T. H. (2012). Examining how place attachment and recreation involvement affect satisfaction and future behavior: Evidence from surfing recreationists. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*, *34*(1), 93–105.

Iwasaki, Y., & Havitz, M. (2004). Examining the relationship between leisure involvement, psychological commitment and loyalty to a recreation agency. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *36*, 45–72.

Iwasaki, Y., & Havitz, M. E. (1998). A path analysis model of the relationships between involvement, psychological commitment, and loyalty. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *30*, 256–280.

Janiszewski, C., & van Osselaer, S. M. J. (2005). Behavior activation is not enough. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *15*, 218−224. doi: 10.1207/s15327663jcp1503_6

Kidron, C. A. (2013). Being there together: dark family tourism and the emotive experience of presence in the holocaust past. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *41*, 175–194. doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2012.12.009

Kiesler, C. A. (1971). *The psychology of commitment: Experiments linking behavior to beliefs.* New York: Academic Press.

Kozak, M. (2016). Family-based travel narratives: Confirmatory personal introspection of children's interpretations of their journey to three destinations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *29*, 119–125. doi: 10.1016/j.jhtm.2016.06.005

Kyle, G. T., Absher, J. D., & Chancellor, C. (2005). Segmenting Forest Recreationists Using Their Commitment Profiles. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, *23*(2), 64–86.

Kyle, G., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2004a). Predictors of behavioral loyalty among hikers along the Appalachian Trail. *Leisure Sciences*, 26, 99–118. doi: 10.1080/01490400490272675

Kyle, G., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2004b). Effect of activity involvement and place attachment on recreationists' perceptions of setting density. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *36*, 209–231.

Kyle, G. T., Absher, J. D., Norman, W., Hammitt, W. E., & Jodice, L. (2007). A modified involvement scale. *Leisure Studies*, *26*, 399–427.

Kyle, G.T., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2003). An examination of the relationship between leisure activity involvement and place attachment among hikers along the Appalachian Trail. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *35*(3), 249–273. doi: 10.1080/01490400490272675

Kyle, G., & Mowen, A. J. (2005). An examination of the leisure involvement-agency commitment relationship. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *37*(3), 342–363.

LaMondia, J., & Bhat, C. (2012). A conceptual and methodological framework of leisure activity loyalty accommodating the travel context. *Transportation, 39*(2), 321–349. doi: 10.1007/s11116-011-9342-0

Laroche, M., Bergeron, J., & Barbaro-Forleo, G. (1996). Targeting consumers who are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 18*(6), 503–520.
doi: 10.1108/EUM0000000006155

Larsen, J. (2008). De-Exoticizing tourist travel: everyday life and sociality on the move. *Leisure Studies, 27*, 21–34. doi: 10.1080/02614360701198030

Larsen, J., Urry, J., & Axhausen, K. W. (2007). Networks and tourism: Mobile social life. *Annals of Tourism Research, 34*(1), 244–262.
doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2006.08.002

Laurent, G., & Kapferer, J. N. (1985).Measuring consumer involvement profiles. *Journal of Marketing Research, 22*, 41–53.
doi: 10.2307/3151549Journal in italics

Lee, T. H. (2011). How recreation involvement, place attachment and conservation commitment affect environmentally responsible behavior. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 19*(7), 895–915.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2011.570345

Lee, J., Graefe, A. R., & Burns, R. C. (2007). Examining the antecedents of destination loyalty in a forest setting. *Leisure Studies, 29*(5), 463–481.
doi: 10.1080/01490400701544634

Lee, T. H., & Shen, Y. L. (2013). The influence of leisure involvement and place attachment on destination loyalty: Evidence from recreationists walking their dogs in urban parks. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 33*, 76–85.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2012.11.002

Löfgren, O. (1999). *On holiday: a history of vacationing.* Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

McIntyre, N., & Pigram, J. J. (1992). Recreation specialization reexamined: the case of vehicle-based campers. *Leisure Sciences, 14*(1), 3–15.
doi: 10.1080/01490409209513153

McQuiston, D. H. (1989). Novelty, complexity, and importance as causal determinants of industrial buyer behavior. *Journal of Marketing, 53*, 66–79.
doi: 10.2307/1251414

Molz, J. G. (2012). *Travel connections: tourism, technology and togetherness in a mobile world.* Abingdon: Routledge.

Obrador, P. (2012). The place of the family in tourism research: domesticity and thick sociality by the pool. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(1), 401–420.
doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2011.07.006

Pritchard, M. P., Havitz, M. E., & Howard, D. R. (1999). Analyzing the commitment-loyalty link in service contexts. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(3), 333–348. doi: 10.1177/0092070399273004

Quan, S., & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experience in tourism. *Tourism Management, 25*(3), 297–305. doi: 10.1016/S0261-5177(03)00130-4

Schänzel, H. A., & Smith, K. A. (2014). The socialization of families away from home: group dynamics and family functioning on holiday. *Leisure Sciences*, *36* (2), 126–143. doi: 10.1080/01490400.2013.857624

Schänzel, H.A, & Yeoman, I. (2014). The future of family tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *39*(3), 343–360. doi:10.1080/02508281.2014.11087005

Schänzel, H.A., Yeoman, I. & Backer, E. (2012). *Family tourism: multidisciplinary perspectives*. Channel View: Bristol.

Seaton, A.V., & Tagg, S. (1995).The family vacation in Europe: Paedonomic aspects of choices and satisfaction. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *4* (1), 1–21.doi: 10.1300/J073v04n01_01

Shaw, S., Havitz, M., & Delamere, F. (2008). I decided to invest in my kids' memories: family vacations, memories, and the social construction of the family. *Journal of Tourism, Culture, and Communication*, *8*(2), 13–16. doi: 10.3727/109830408783900361

Smith, S. (1994). The Tourism Product. *Annals of Tourism Research, 21*, 582–594. doi: 10.1177/004728759403300240

Smith, W. W., Pitts, R. E., & Litvin, S. W. (2012). Travel and leisure activity participation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *39*(4), 2207–2210. doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2012.07.008

Story, J., & Hess, J. (2006). Segmenting customer-brand relations: Beyond the personal relationship metaphor. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *23*, 406–413. doi: 10.1108/07363760610712948

Therkelsen, A., & Lottrup, M. (2015). Being together at the zoo: zoo experiences among families with children, *Leisure Studies*, *34*(3), 354–371. doi: 10.1080/02614367.2014.923493

Thrane, C. (2000). Everyday life and cultural tourism in Scandinavia: examining the spillover hypothesis. *Society and Leisure*, *23*(1), 217–234. doi: 10.1080/07053436.2000.10715610

Verplanken, B., & Aarts, H. (1999). *Habit, attitude, and planned behavior: Is habit an empty construct or an interesting case of goal-directed automaticity?* In W. Stroebe & M. Hewstone (Eds.), European review of social psychology (Vol. 10, pp. 101–134). Chichester, England: Wiley

Verplanken, B., & Orbell, S. (2003). Reflections of past behavior: A self-report index of habit strength. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *33*, 1313–1330. doi: 10.1111/j.1559-1816.2003.tb01951.x

Wilensky, H. L. (1960). Work career and social integration. *International Journal of Social Science, 12*, 544.

Memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and outcomes

Erose Sthapit* & Dafnis N. Coudounaris**
*Department of Marketing, University of Vaasa, Vaasa, Finland
** School of Economics and Business Administration, University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia

ABSTRACT
The present study examines the specific dimensions of Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick's (2012) memorable tourism experience (MTE) scale that affects tourists' subjective well-being to a single destination. A web-based post-holiday survey was conducted among tourists to Rovaniemi, Finland, and a valid sample of 202 tourists was used for data analysis. Structural equation modeling was applied to investigate the relationships between MTE dimensions and subjective well-being. Although the measurement appears to be highly destination specific, the results show that tourists' subjective well-being is influenced by hedonism and meaningfulness. The moderating variables of gender, age and nationality have a significant effect on the link between most antecedent factors of MTE and subjective well-being. Managerial implications, limitations, and future research directions are discussed.

Keywords: Memorable tourism experiences; subjective well-being; moderating effects; tourism; Finland

Introduction
The tourist experience includes everything a tourist goes through at a destination as experience, including behavior and perception, cognition and emotions: either expressed or implied (Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007). Experiences represent a distinct economic offering to commodities, goods, and services because they are unique, memorable and personal (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). However, tourist experience is a complex construct (Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2014) and is inherently personal (Urry, 1990).

Today, memorable experiences are regarded as the ultimate experience that consumers aim to obtain (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). In fact, 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 is his or her memory of that experience (BraunLaTour, Grinley, & Loftus, 2006). Larsen (2007, p. 15) verifies tourist experiences to be past, personal, travel-related events "strong enough to have entered long-term memory.", and according to Csikszentmihalyi (1990, p.3), 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."

Tourism studies emphasize the significance of memorable experiences, as memory is the single most important information source for an individual when making a revisit decision and spreading word-of-mouth (Oh et al., 2007). From a dynamic perspective, tourism experiences occur through individuals' mental, mainly memory, processes (Larsen, 2007). While on-site tourism experiences are

momentary and may provide transitory feelings (Kim, 2009), experiences stored in the human memory are of great importance as travelers often reflect on their trip experiences (Neal, Sirgy, & Uysal, 1999). The memory of a trip is critical, as it "holds a certain attraction and intrinsic reward that materialize in the moments of storytelling" (Neumann 1992, p. 179-180), reliving an event long after it has occurred (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004).

Kim et al. (2012) have developed an instrument to examine the dimensions of a "Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE)." The results of their study comprised seven dimensions (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, and knowledge) that represent the MTE. Conversely, Chandralal, Rindfleish, and Valenzuela (2015) argue that many of the studies that suggest specific experiential factors as dimensions of MTE use student samples, who can hardly be considered to be "typical" tourists, and the findings cannot be generalized to more authentic travel populations. Researchers call for further academic inquiries to enrich understanding of MTE by applying the constructs in a "real-world" tourism context (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013a; Hung, Lee, & Huang, 2014), which is the aim of this study.

Relationship between MTE and subjective well-being

Memories of holidays have been shown to contribute to individuals' happiness through reminiscent memories (Morgan & Xu, 2009) and affect different life domains such as family and social lives (Sirgy, Kruger, Lee & Bu, 2011a). Nawijn's study (2011a, 2011b) demonstrates that people who take vacations appear to be marginally happier than those who do not and the memories of vacations produce effects in people's lives. The studies of Chandralal et al. (2015), Gilbert and Abdullah (2004), McCabe and Johnson (2013), and Sirgy et al. (2011a) indicate that memories generated from the most recent trip do not contribute only to overall satisfaction in leisure life but also to other life domains (life satisfaction), and in the long term. Hence, in the study, subjective well-being is measured using happiness and life-satisfaction (McCabe & Johnson, 2013), and is related to tourist's long-term well-being.

Research Gap

Extant literature on MTE has used the construct of behavioral intentions (Kim, Ritchie, & Tung, 2010; Barnes, Mattsson, & Sorensen, 2016) and place attachment (Tsai, 2016) as possible outcomes. Very few studies, however, have explored whether other possible outcome variables such subjective well-being may also be used (Kim, Woo, & Uysal, 2015b). Moreover, while it is widely acknowledged that tourism experiences affect subjective well-being (Kim, Lee, Uysal, Kim, & Ahn, 2015a), we have little knowledge of whether MTEs contribute to visitors' subjective well-being, and particularly what dimensions/experiences. On the other hand, studies on subjective well-being focus on locals in a tourism destination. Although some research investigates how tourist experiences impact on subjective well-being (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011), few studies have yet to explore the antecedents of tourists' subjective well-being (Su, Swanson, & Chen, 2016).

Objective and contribution

Given that travel and tourism form an integrated part of other life-quality processes, opening up a discussion on how the MTE concept relates to subjective well-being presents an updated agenda (Filep, 2014). Departing from a managerialist stance, with ways in which firms create memorable experiences, the focus here is on a consumer-centric view of experiences. In this study, we focus on this gap and investigate the relationships between tourists' MTEs and subjective well-being, as long-term well-being. The objectives of this study are threefold: firstly, to investigate the dimensions of MTE that influence tourists' subjective well-being. The web survey of this study is in English and includes only seven dimensions for measuring MTEs, although other dimensions could have an impact on tourists' memories of the trip experience, for example, familiarity (Kim, 2014), togetherness/friendship (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013b; Larsen 2007; Tung & Ritchie, 2011), creativity or physical mastery (Hung et al., 2016) and visual impressions: the "tourist gaze" (Urry, 1990). Secondly, to examine whether gender, age, and nationality play a moderating role between antecedents of MTE and subjective well-being. Thirdly, we test Kim et al.'s (2012) MTE scale in a "real-tourism" context, that is, among visitors to Rovaniemi, Finland. Therefore, the measurement is highly destination specific as the survey responses were collected from only one specific destination. The specific research question is: *How are the dimensions of MTE linked to subjective well-being?*

This study contributes to the literature on MTE by providing insights into the relationship between MTE and subjective well-being. Although the measurement appears to be highly destination specific, the major findings of this study show that "hedonism and meaningfulness" have a positive and significant impact on subjective well-being. These relationships are supported by Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). Also, the moderating effects of gender, age and nationality are significant on the link between MTE and subjective well-being. In particular, female, older, and European tourists when compared to male, younger, and non-European tourists have a stronger impact on the relationship between MTE and subjective well-being.

In the remainder of the paper, the authors present a literature review and develop hypotheses. Furthermore, there is a presentation of the methodology and discussion of the results. In the last section, the authors draw conclusions and discuss the managerial implications, limitations of the study and future research directions.

Literature review and hypotheses building

Memory and memorable tourism experiences

Memory is "an alliance of systems that work together, allowing us to learn from the past and predict the future" (Baddeley, 1999, p. 1). Episodic memories, which involve individuals' long-term storing of factual memories concerning personal experiences (Schwartz, 2011), are the type of long-term memory thought to be the most interesting to study in relation to tourist experiences (Larsen, 2007), considering that "lived experiences gather significance as we reflect on and give memory to them" (Curtin, 2005, p. 3). However, memory is a more general concept than "memorable," since memorable is associated with the unforgettable or extraordinary and memory can be quite ordinary or mundane (Caru & Cova, 2003).

Kim et al. (2012) define MTE as a tourism experience remembered and recalled after the event has occurred. MTE is selectively constructed based on the individual's assessment of his/her tourism experience (Kim et al., 2012), and serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience (Ritchie & Ritchie, 1998). Kim et al.'s (2012) study reveals that individuals who perceive a tourism experience as memorable would more often recall the seven experiential dimensions (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement and knowledge). However, this study acknowledges that tourism service providers cannot deliver MTEs, but only assist in the building up of an environment that increases the possibility of tourists creating their own memorable tourism experiences (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Also, it is important to take into account the fact that an experience is usually selectively created by each person from a myriad of experiences based on the individual's unique assessment and perception of the reality (Kim et al., 2012), which might have an influence on the memorability of the trip experience. Thus, the study suggests the need to be critical about the MTEs dimensions and proposes other dimensions which might have an impact on tourists' memorability of the trip experience (future studies).

Hedonism is defined as the seeking of sensual pleasure (Trauer & Ryan 2007). Hedonism reflects the emotional value of the consumer's consumption experience and represents the returns received in terms of enjoyment and playfulness (Babin et al., 1994). Hedonism is an integral part of leisure experiences (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997) and a crucial factor in determining tourists' satisfaction as well as their future behavior (Dunman & Mattila, 2005). Otto and Ritchie (1996) confirm hedonistic factors as a construct in the tourism experience.

H1: *Tourists' subjective well-being associates positively with hedonism.*

Lee and Crompton (1992) define novelty as the difference in the degree and mode of tourist experience sought by the visitor to a destination as compared with his or her previous experience (Lee & Crompton, 1992). Novelty seeking is an innate quality in travelers (Cohen, 1979), and a popular motivation for an individual's travel (Dunman & Mattila, 2005). Novelty is a key construct in tourism, characterized by new and unfamiliar experiences (Cheng & Lu, 2013). Novelty is an important factor related to tourist satisfaction (Bello & Etzel, 1985), which influences tourists' decision-making processes (Petrick, 2002). Such novel experience is a core input for memories (Kim et al., 2010). We posit that:

H2: *Tourists' subjective well-being associates positively with novelty.*

Local culture is the local population or a significant ingredient involved in developing the destination (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Tourists' experiences are constantly mediated through social interactions (Selstad, 2007) and are situated in the gap between locals and tourists (Auld & Case, 1997). The heart of the tourist experience lies in the interaction of visitors with the local people (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Social interaction between the visitors and the hosts of the community (local culture) is identified as a crucial element of the tourist experience (Carmichael, 2005) and the most memorable aspect of the tourism experience (Morgan & Xu, 2009). We posit that:

H3: *Tourists' subjective well-being associates positively with local culture.*

Refreshment, or relaxation and renewal, is one of the most important motivational forces for tourism experiences in escaping from routine and stressful environments (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Studies suggest that people often feel happier, healthier, and more relaxed after a leisure trip (Uysal et al., 2012). Refreshment is the most defining basic component of tourism activities and affects the memory of travel (Kim et al., 2012). Refreshment concentrates on the state of mind and depth of experiential engagement. These experiences are not only engaging but also emotionally intense. Individuals highly value refreshment as a psychological benefit from their travel experiences (Uriley, 2005). We posit that:
H4: *Tourists' subjective well-being associates positively with refreshment.*

Meaningfulness is one of the ways in which individuals find meaning through tourism experiences (Kang et al., 2008). It is through the process of making sense of experiences that lasting meaning-making occurs and leaves a lasting impact (Ballantyne, Packer, & Sutherland, 2011). Meaningfulness can lead to a tourist's personal development and change: after returning home, everyday life may be viewed in a new way; what is experienced and learned during the trip can be absorbed as part of one's everyday life (Tarssanen, 2007). According to Tsiotsou and Goldsmith (2012), the meaningfulness of the experience makes it memorable. Thus, we posit that:
 H5: *Tourists' subjective well-being associates positively with meaningfulness.*
Involvement is defined as the level of importance a customer attributes to an object, an action, or an activity and the enthusiasm and interest that is generated (Goldsmith & Emmert, 1991). Involvement also refers to the extent to which tourists are interested in an activity and their affective responses aroused from the activity (Gursoy & Gavcar, 2003). Involvement enhances not only an individual's sensitivity to certain activities and the perceptions of a particular activity's importance, but also the individual's commitment to specific services or places (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). Tourists' involvement with travel experiences is the most influential factor on memory (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992). We posit that:
H6: *Tourists' subjective well-being associates positively with involvement.*

Knowledge can be defined as a cognitive aspect of the tourist experience which involves learning and education (Morgan & Xu, 2009). The desire to learn affects where people go and what they do while visiting a destination (Poria et al., 2004). Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) suggest that the consumption of experience could entail such consequences as fun, enjoyment, feelings of pleasure, and that learning can arise from the stream of associations. Travel experiences provide a myriad of unique learning opportunities for the tourist (McKercher & du Cros, 2002), where consumer learning comes in the form of newly acquired practical skills, knowledge, practical wisdom and self-consciousness (Ballantyne et al., 201; Chen et al., 2014). We posit that:
H7: *Tourists' subjective well-being associates positively with knowledge.*

Subjective well-being is defined as an individual's cognitive evaluation of his/her own life as positive and can include pleasure, the absence of negative emotions, and high satisfaction with life (Diener, Lucas, & Oishi, 2009). Subjective well-being focuses on what makes people feel good (Nawijn, Marchand, & Veenhoven, 2010) and can be conceptualized based on experience in a particular domain (e.g., job, consumption, family, tourism, health) or on satisfaction with life in general as a culmination of an individual's current life circumstance (Dagger & Sweeney, 2006). Happiness and life satisfaction are the most frequently used representations of subjective well-being (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). Martin (2008) defines happiness as subjective well-being since improvements in objective circumstances have proven to yield only limited increases in happiness (Layard, 2006). Happiness is about experiencing well-being as a subjective overall enjoyment of one's life as a whole (Tsaur, Yen, & Hsiao, 2013). Happiness can also be understood as the accumulation of many small pleasures or quality moments (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). Life satisfaction can be defined as the "degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his life-as-a-whole favorably" (Veenhoven, 1991, p. 7). Life satisfaction is influenced by satisfaction with life domains (e.g., satisfaction with the community, family, work, social life, and health). Satisfaction with a particular life domain (e.g., social life), in turn, is influenced by lower levels of life concerns within that domain (e.g., satisfaction with social events related to a tourist trip). Thus, evaluations of individual life concerns influence life satisfaction. The greater the satisfaction with events experienced on a tourist trip, the greater the positive effect these events contribute to the life domains housing the events (Sirgy, Phillips, & Rahtz, 2011b).
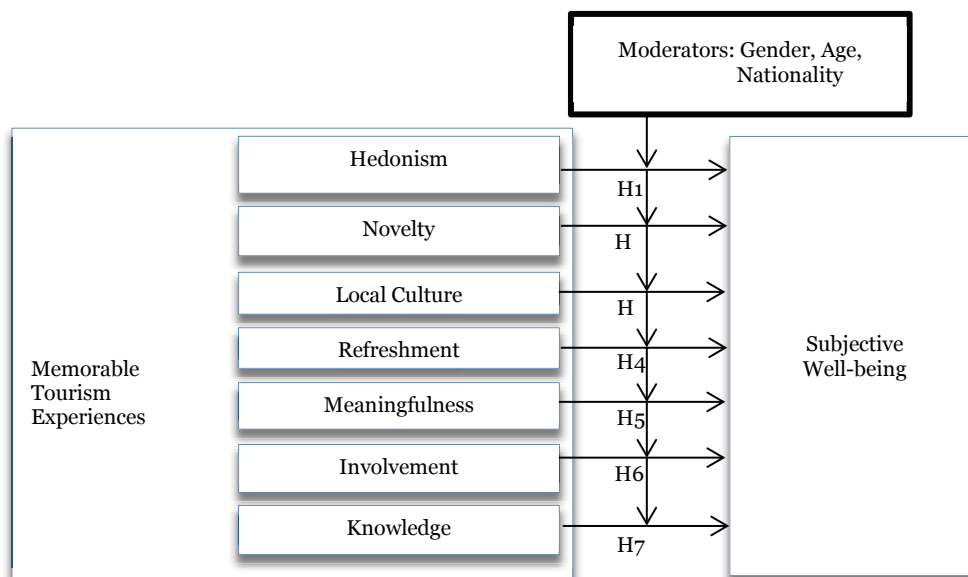
Figure 1. The proposed conceptual model

Moderation Hypotheses

The notion "experiences" may mean different things to different people (Azedevo, 2009) and consumers may differ in terms of background and

demographics – age, gender, and nationality (Johnsson & Devonish, 2008; Uysal, Perdue, & Sirgy, 2012). Also, studies indicate that the formation and recall of memory is a non-uniform process that is influenced by the demographic background of an individual (Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

A study by Pillemer et al. (2003) found that women frequently recollected more specific life episodes than men. Women recalled more positive and unique events, rated their autobiographical memories as more vivid, and assigned higher importance to their experiences. Tourism remembrances also appear to have more psychological importance for women than for men and the majority of souvenir purchases are made by women (Anderson & Littrell, 1995).

With reference to age, Hamond and Fivush (1991) and Jansari and Parkin's (1996) studies showed that seniors were able to recall recent memories and recounted more specific details of their experience than their younger counterparts. Dijkstra and Kaup (2005) suggested that older adults are more likely to retain memories with distinctive characteristics, such as self-relevant selectively and emotionally intense memories. Also, some researchers have noted that subjective well-being increases, or at least does not drop, with age (Herzog & Rogers, 1981; Horley & Lavery, 1994; Kunzmann et al., 2000).

Moreover, nationality is linked to the culture of holidaymaking within each country and is one of the variables that should be considered in predicting variation in tourist behavior (Pizam & Sussmann, 1995). Oliveira and Pereira (2008) found some national differences in the importance placed on various destination attributes among travelers to Madeira. A recent study by Leonidou, Coudounaris, Kvasova, & Christodoulides (2015) also found significant differences in demographic variables of gender, age, education level, income level on the link between antecedents and tourist eco-friendly attitude. In addition, nationality was a control variable in eco-friendly tourist attitude. However, the current study is the first one of its kind which empirically tests the moderating effects of gender, age, and nationality in the link between MTE dimensions and subjective well-being. Based on the above literature, the authors develop three moderation hypotheses testing separately gender, age, and nationality:

H8: The effects of gender on the link between antecedent factors of MTE and subjective well-being may vary between female and male tourists.

H9: The effects of age on the link between antecedent factors of MTE and subjective well-being may vary between older and younger tourists.

H10: The effects of nationality on the link between antecedent factors of MTE and subjective well-being may vary between European tourists and non-European tourists

Methodology
Study setting and the measurement instrument

The study used Rovaniemi as the study site. Rovaniemi is an international and versatile travel destination located in Finland's northernmost province, Lapland. The city of Rovaniemi was granted a European Community Trademark as the Official Hometown of Santa Claus in 2010. Around 60% of foreign visitors come to Rovaniemi in the winter season (mid-November – end of April). Recent figures show that the destination attracts about 500,000 tourists each year. The majority of

foreign tourists visiting Rovaniemi comprise Chinese, Spanish, Japanese, French, and Italian nationals (Visit Finland, 2016).

The study was based on data which was collected from visitors to Rovaniemi, using a web-based survey. A convenience sampling technique was justifiable as the population of the study had just visited the destination. To reflect individual memories, the study operationalized Kim et al.'s (2010) 24-item MTE scale measuring the seven independent dimensions. The scale has been validated in a cross-cultural context (Kim & Ritchie, 2014), and adapted in food tourism (Adongo, Anuga, & Dayour; Tsai, 2016) and heritage tourism studies (Lee, 2016). An 8-item-scale was used to measure subjective well-being (happiness and life-satisfaction). Happiness was measured using four items adopted from Lyubomirsky and Lepper's (1999) Subjective Happiness Scale, that is, "in general, I consider myself very happy", "compared to my friends, I consider myself very happy", "I am happy regardless of what is going on", and "I never seem as happy as I might be". Life-satisfaction was measured using four items drawn from Diener et al.'s (1985) Satisfaction with Life Scale, that is "in most ways my life is close to my ideal", "I am satisfied with my life", "so far I have gotten the things that I want in my life", and "if I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing".

The final questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first section included three demographic variables (age, gender, and nationality). The second part consisted of six questions about trip characteristics (the purpose of visit, the length of stay, travel companion, type of accommodation used, the primary mode of transportation, and number of people in the travel party). The third section included seven dimensions of MTE and one dimension related to subjective well-being (four items measuring happiness, and four items measuring life satisfaction). MTE and subjective well-being were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. The sampling frame included tourists who had visited Rovaniemi. An invitation to tourists to complete a questionnaire was sent through the Facebook web page of Rovaniemi Tourist Information. The survey was in English and placed online from June-August, 2015. It therefore excludes non-English speakers, and those tourists who did not access the questionnaire link during the data collection period could not possibly participate in it.

It is important to note that during the exploratory stage of the current study the researcher pre-tested the questionnaire with five researchers at the University of Vaasa, Finland. It was estimated that each questionnaire could be completed within 10 minutes. Consequently, the participants in the survey did not complain about its length. Because the questionnaire was uploaded on-line, the respondents were able to complete it very quickly.

In order to evaluate the possibility of non-response bias, early responses were compared with later ones. Armstrong and Overton (1977) referred to non-response bias when conducting mail surveys, although some other researchers (King et al., 2009) have used the non-response bias in questionnaires completed during interviews. According to these researchers, late respondents (in our case late on-line responses) are more likely to be similar to non-respondents. When conducting a *t*-test under the assumption of equal and unequal group variances for three groups (early, middle and late participants), no significant differences were found to exist between the means of any of the variables related to early, middle and late responses

to the survey. The findings 1 show that based on the *t*-test we find no significant differences between the early cases (the first 67 cases), middle tourists (the following 67 cases) and late tourists (the final 68 cases). Thus, for the total sample of 202 tourists and the three groups (early, middle and late tourists) there were no significant differences between the means of the 32 variables in the three t-test analyses done for the three pairs of tourist groups. The three significant differences found are not related to differences of means of the same variable for the three separate pairs of groups. Moreover, the rest of the 93 t-test differences of means of variables were non-significant. Consequently, the non-response bias was not relevant for the current study. The use of the method of testing three groups (early, middle and late tourists) for means differences provides more accurate and reliable results than testing the same sample for means differences by splitting it into two sub-samples, i.e., early and late tourists.

Furthermore, among the 202 participants in the survey, the average loading of the four items of hedonism has a dominant impact (4.187) in comparison with the three items of meaningfulness, which have the lowest average loading (3.653) after the average loading of the three items of knowledge (3.711). It is worth noting that the average loadings of the rest of the independent variables are as follows: involvement (4.166), refreshment (4.136), novelty (4.101) and local culture (4.030).

Results

In this study, the authors apply four different data analyses and use descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, and frequencies. Furthermore, regression lines (in hypothesis testing) as well as Pearson correlations, reliability analysis (Cronbach α) and exploratory factor analysis (while checking the dimensions of the constructs in the model) are used. Finally, the authors utilize SEM analysis, specifically CFA, with the assistance of AMOS 23 software to estimate and test the fit of the attitudinal model. In particular, for estimation of the fit of the model, the Maximum Likelihood with Bootstrapping of 1000 samples was adopted.

Respondents' Profile

A total of 209 tourists who had visited Rovaniemi completed the questionnaire. Ultimately, 202 questionnaires were used in the data analysis. The demographic profile of the respondents is shown in Table 1. The profile of the respondents included more males than females (65% vs. 35%). Age variation indicates that the largest age group of the participants was between 26-40 years (40%). Regarding nationality, the respondents came from 21 different countries, and the most common nationality was German (13%). Many traveled to Rovaniemi for leisure purposes (76%), while family visits accounted for 12% and business (12%). Regarding accommodation, the majority stayed in a hotel (55%). The primary mode of transportation to Rovaniemi was airplane (49%). Many respondents traveled to Rovaniemi with their husband/wife (35%). Regarding the number of people in a travel group, most consisted of 2 people (38%).

Table 1. Demographic and travel characteristics of respondents (N=202)

Characteristics	Percentage	Characteristics	Percentage
Gender		Accommodation	
Male	65	Hotel	55
Female	35	Rented Cabin	19
Age		Family/friend's house	16
1-25	14	Camp, tent, caravan	9
26–40	40	Primary Transportation	
41–55	36	Airplane	49
> 56	10	Car	24
Nationality		Train	23
German	13	Bus	4
British	11	Travel (with whom)	
Dutch	9	Alone	17
Australian	6	Husband /Wife	35
Swedish	5	Family with children	27
French	5	Friends	18
Other	51	Colleagues	3
Purpose		Number of people in the travel group	
Pleasure	76	1	13
Family Visit	12	2	38
Business	12	3	19
		4	13
		> 5	17

Exploratory factor analysis
The exploratory factor analysis (EFA) based on Varimax (Table 2) reveals that all factor loadings of variables are above .5 except four variables having factor loadings less than .5, i.e., X11, X13, X28, and X31. In fact, based on the results of the EFA all factors identify well with the existing variables. The total variance explained by the seven factors/experiences, i.e., novelty, refreshment, local culture, meaningfulness, involvement, hedonism, and knowledge is 78.183%, indicating that there could be other factors explaining the rest of the variance. This means other experiences such as familiarity, togetherness/friendship, recreation, physical mastery and visual impressions could explain the unexplained variance of 21.82%.

Table 2. Exploratory factor analysis results (Varimax)

Factors*	Factor Loading	Eigen-Value**	%VE**	α***
Novelty		3.451	14.378	.892
X14: I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience	.645			
X15: I had a unique experience	.700			
X16: My trip was different from previous trips	.756			
X17: I experienced something new	.628			
Refreshment		3.175	13.229	.871
X21: I relieved stress during the trip	.761			
X22: I felt free from daily routine during the trip	.817			
X23: I had a refreshing experience	.678			

X24: I felt better after the trip	.678			
Local Culture		3.102	12.924	.865
X18: I had a good impression about the local culture	.828			
X19: I had a chance to closely experience the local culture	.783			
X20: Locals in Rovaniemi were friendly to me	.631			
Meaningfulness		2.885	12.020	.877
X25: I felt that I did something meaningful	.706			
X26: I felt that I did something important	.783			
X27: I learned something about myself from the trip	.786			
Involvement		2.480	10.334	.838
X28: I visited a place that I really wanted to visit	.176			
X29: I enjoyed activities that I really wanted to do	.590			
X30: I was interested in the main activities offered	.728			
Hedonism		2.214	9.226	.791
X10: I was thrilled about having a new experience in Rovaniemi	.500			
X11: I took part in activities	.062			
X12: I really enjoyed the trip	.577			
X13: I had an existing trip	.239			
Knowledge		1.457	6.072	.826
X31: I gained a lot of information during the trip	.431			
X32: I gained a new skill (s) from the trip	.700			
X33: I experienced new culture (s)	.504			

Note. *Items measured on a 7-point Likert scale. ** Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings (Eigenvalue, % VE=% of Variance Explained). ***α= Cronbach's alpha. Total Variance Explained: 78.18%.

Estimation of the model

The data was analyzed using AMOS software to conduct the SEM analysis. The researchers estimated the default model by implementing a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The estimation of the model had a rather conservative fit because (χ^2/df) was 2.996 with 432 degrees of freedom and the value of CFI was low, i.e. below .900 (CFI= .359). Furthermore, RMSEA reached .100 with ECVI equal to 7385. Also, the NFI and RFI values were .240 and .228 respectively. Figure 1 indicates the model developed with no deductions in the variables (Byrne, 2010). The attitudinal model shows a good fit because RMSEA is 0.100, which is exactly the critical value of 0.10. However, CFI is below the critical value of 0.9 (CFI= .808) and CMIN/DF is above 2, that is $(\chi^2/df) = 2.996$. It is worth noting that for the attitudinal model the calculated Cronbach α equals .866 for the construct 'Well-being', and for the remaining seven constructs 'Hedonism', 'Novelty', 'Local Culture', 'Refreshment', 'Meaningfulness', 'Involvement', 'Knowledge', the values of Cronbach are α=.791, α=.892, α=.865, α=.871, α=.877, α=.838, and α=.826, respectively. The average Cronbach's Alpha values are above .7, so the manifest variables are unidimensional. The study utilized 202 cases out of 209 which were not outliers. In fact, seven cases (166, 51, 209, 118, 173, 41 and 80)

were eliminated from the study as outliers based on the observations furthest from the centroid (Mahalanobis distances squared were higher than 50,000) and the value of RMSEA changed from 0.114 to 0.100.

The model was tested for common method bias. To secure its non-existence, a CFA was performed, in which all indicators included in the structural model were restricted to load on a single factor (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The fit indices obtained from this analysis indicated a poor model fit, which implies that common method bias does not appear to be a problem in this study. The hypothesized associations between the constructs were tested by estimating the SEM using the maximum likelihood technique. It is worth noting that the chi-square for the model was found to be significant (χ^2) =1294.438 p=.000, although this statistic faces limitations. For this reason, the researchers used the alternative fit indices, i.e. NFI=.739, CFI=.808, RFI=.719, IFI=.810, TLI=.794, and RMSEA. The results show that NFI, CFI, RFI, IFI and TLI were below the expected values. The correlation matrix (Table 3) shows that there is a good correlation between the constructs and they are statistically significant and below 0.7.

Table 3. Pearson correlations for a sample of N=202

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
Hedonism F1	1							
Novelty F2	.399**	1						
Local Culture F3	.324**	.246**	1					
Refreshment F4	.378**	.298**	.265**	1				
Meaningfulness F5	.245**	.258**	.266**	.261**	1			
Involvement F6	.400**	.277**	.248**	.274**	.209**	1		
Knowledge F7	.225**	.248**	.316**	.220**	.310**	.241**	1	
Subjective Well-being F8	.399**	.246**	.265**	.261**	.209**	.241**	.225**	1

Note. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The standardized path coefficients of the latent variables and their t-values and p-values appear in Table 4. The standardized coefficients of Betas, particularly for two relationships, are positive and statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. The relationships between hedonism and subjective well-being (β=0.307; p<0.05) and meaningfulness and subjective well-being (β = 0.237; p<0.005) are positive and statistically significant. Both relationships show a positive causality of hedonism and meaningfulness on subjective well-being as they are supported by SEM analysis. Regarding the other relationships, they are not found to be significant, and therefore nothing can be argued about their causality to subjective well-being. The adjusted R square for both hedonism and meaningfulness to subjective well-being is 0.173.

Table 4 shows hedonism is a dominant factor, with meaningfulness being the second best factor. Both have a positive effect on subjective well-being together with involvement. Remaining factors appear to have a negative effect on subjective well-being. The high score on hedonism may be connected with the nature of the destination/attraction (Rovaniemi is known as the official hometown of Santa

Claus), rather than with experience motivation. A lower score on meaningfulness may indicate that it is not a prominent part of the destination/attraction. It is also evident from Table 3 that the correlation between hedonism and meaningfulness is rather weak, and the first factor does not associate with the second factor. Table 4 also shows that novelty, local culture, refreshment, and knowledge have a negative impact of subjective well-being. This has something to do with the nature of the destination/attraction; for example, it is possible to be the case that tourists do not want other experiences, for instance, novelty, local culture, refreshment, and knowledge. As already discussed above, hedonism is the dominant factor, while meaningfulness gets the lowest score among the other independent variables, and both involvement and refreshment get scores close to the score of hedonism. This means that in other destinations, involvement and/or refreshment may play a dominant role on subjective well-being apart from hedonism, as in this study.

Table 4. Results of the structural model*

H	Hypothesized association	Standardized estimate	t-value	p-value	Status
Main effects					
H_1	Hedonism → Subjective Well-being	.307	2.485	.014	Supported
H_2	Novelty → Subjective Well-being	-.062	-.519	.604	Non-supported
H_3	Local Culture → Subjective Well-being	-.010	-.100	.920	Non-supported
H_4	Refreshment → Subjective Well-being	-.030	-.309	.758	Non-supported
H_5	Meaningfulness → Subjective Well-being	.237	2.372	.019	Supported
H_6	Involvement → Subjective Well-being	.036	.326	.745	Non-supported
H_7	Knowledge → Subjective Well-being	-.004	-.034	.973	Non-supported

Note. Adjusted R^2 = 17.3%. Fit statistics: Chi-squared (χ^2)= 1294.438. p=.000; df=432; Ratio Chi-squared to d.f. (χ^2/df)= 2.996; Normed Fit Index (NFI)=.739; Comparative Fit Index (CFI)= .808; RFI=.719; IFI=.810; TLI=.794; Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA)= .100; 90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA= .093, .106. PCLOSE=.000; ECVI= 7.385.

Reliability and validity of the model

Table 5 shows the seven dimensions of MTE and their estimates based on SEM analysis. To assess convergent validity and reliability, we proceed with the following three steps. Firstly, the loading estimates (standardized regression weights) of 24 variables are above 0.5 within the range of 0.664 to 0.914, showing a satisfactory convergent validity. All the values of loadings are about 0.70, and consequently have an adequate convergent validity.

Secondly, the calculation of the variance extracted (VE) for each construct exceeds 50%, and the model has adequate convergent validity. Specifically, the variance extracted for the seven constructs was above 50%., i.e. VE(F1)=.766, VE(F2)=.802, VE(F3)=.835, VE(F4)=.787, VE(F5)=.815, VE(F6)=.784, and

VE(F7)=.728. Since each construct has VE>0.5 and the AVE=0.788>0.5, this consequently satisfies the discriminant validity criterion of AVE>0.5 introduced by Fornell and Larcker (1981). It should be noted that AVE of less than .5, which is not the case for the calculated AVE of this study, indicates that on average there is more error remaining in the items than there is variance explained by the latent factor structure imposed on the measure (Hair et al., 2010).

Finally, the construct reliabilities are calculated for each construct which exceeds .7. All the constructs F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, F6, and F7 have a mean construct reliability estimate of about 0.69, which is close to the critical value of 0.7 (7 (i.e., CR(F1)=0.594, CR(F2)=0.646, CR(F3)=0.701, CR(F4)=0.625, CR(F5)=0.673, CR(F6)=0.621, and CR(F7)=0.531). This suggests a satisfactory degree of reliability. The satisfactory construct reliabilities found in the calculations support the contention that internal consistency does exist. This means that all the measures are consistently representing something. The completely standardized factor loadings, the variance extracted for each factor, and the estimates calculated for construct reliability are also useful for the researcher to comment on convergent validity.

Table 5. Results of the measurement model*

	Loadings	Σ of standardized loadings	C.R	AVE
Hedonism (α=0.79)		3.06	59%	77%
H1: I was thrilled about having a new experience	0.832			
H2: I took part in activities during the trip	0.702			
H3: I really enjoyed the trip	0.868			
Hed4: I had an exciting experience	0.664			
Novelty (α=0.89)		3.20	65%	80%
N1: I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience	0.822			
N2: I had a unique experience	0.881			
N3: My trip was different from previous trips	0.742			
N4: I experienced something new during the trip	0.763			
Local Culture (α=0.87)		2.50	70%	84%
LC1: Good impression about the local culture	0.914			
LC2: Closely experienced the local culture	0.811			
LC3: Local people were friendly to me	0.781			
Refreshment (α=0.87)		3.14	63%	79%
R1: I relieved stress during the trip	0.685			
R2: I felt free from daily routine during the trip	0.752			
R3: I had a refreshing experience	0.888			
R4: I felt better after the trip	0.823			
Meaningfulness (α=0.88)		2.44	67%	82%
M1: I felt that I did something meaningful	0.822			
M2: I felt that I did something important	0.928	2.35	62%	78%

M3: I learned something about myself	0.697			
Involvement (α=0.84)				
I1: I visited a place that I really wanted to visit.	0.729			
I2: enjoyed activities that I really wanted to do.	0.893			
I3: I was interested in the main activities offered to tourists	0.731			
Knowledge (α=0.83)		2.18	53%	73%
K1: I gained a lot of information during the trip	0.769			
K2: I gained a new skill (s) from the trip	0.715			
K3: I experienced new culture(s)	0.700			

Note. Maximum likelihood. High munificence sample reported in prentices. AVE = average variance extracted = $\Sigma$of (standardized loadings)^2/ (Σ of (standardized loadings)^2 + $\Sigma$of ε_j. CV= convergent validity (AVE >.50).

Moderating effects of gender, age and nationality

The split-group approach was used to examine the moderating effects of tourists' demographic characteristics, that is, age gender, and nationality, on the link between each of the seven dimensions of MTE and subjective well-being. In particular, the sample was divided into gender (male versus female) (see Table 6), age (younger than 39 years, see Note in   Table 6) versus older (above 40 years, see Note in Table 6) and nationality (Europeans versus non-Europeans) (see Table 6). Two models were estimated for each hypothesized moderator: a constrained model, in which the path influenced by the moderator was fixed to 1, and a free model, in which all paths were freely estimated. A significant chi-square difference between the two models indicated that the moderating effect was significant in relation to the hypothesized relationship.

Table 5 shows that gender, age, and nationality are significant moderators/moderating effects between all the antecedent factors of MTE and subjective well-being except some factors for male tourists, older tourists, and non-European tourists. Specifically, male tourists do not moderate the link between local culture to subjective well-being and refreshment to subjective well-being. Additionally, older tourists do not moderate the link between local culture to subjective well-being, and non-European tourists do not moderate on four different links, i.e. between novelty and subjective well-being, local culture and subjective well-being, refreshment and subjective well-being, and meaningfulness and subjective well-being. Furthermore, the results of Table 6 provoke questions. There is a lot of variation in the variables examined relating to subjective well-being perhaps because of small numbers (non-European). Meaningfulness is not always supported by categories (Table 6, non-European), while hedonism, involvement, and knowledge always are. The high score on hedonism once again (see discussion for Table 4) may be connected with the nature of the destination/attraction, rather than with experience/motivation. A low score on meaningfulness may indicate that it is not an important part of the destination/attraction.

Table 6. Hypotheses testing of moderators – The effects of gender, age and nationality on the link between antecedents of MTE and subjective well-being

Independent Variables*	Beta	t-value	p-value	Supported / Non-supported Hypothesis
Female Tourists (N=131), χ^2=1089.195				
Hedonism	.329	3.963	.000	Supported
Novelty	.290	3.444	.001	Supported
Local Culture	.258	3.028	.003	Supported
Refreshment	.320	3.835	.000	Supported
Meaningfulness	.275	3.253	.001	Supported
Involvement	.232	2.703	.008	Supported
Knowledge	.257	3.018	.003	Supported
Male Tourists (N=71), χ^2=839.164, $\Delta\chi^2$=250.031				
Hedonism	.322	2.829	.006	Supported
Novelty	.215	1.828	.072	Supported
Local Culture	.107	.897	.373	Non-supported
Refreshment	.065	.538	.592	Non-supported
Meaningfulness	.235	2.006	.049	Supported
Involvement	.350	3.100	.003	Supported
Knowledge	.261	2.248	.028	Supported
Older Tourists: Years≥40** (N=99), χ^2=954.901				
Hedonism	.298	3.079	.003	Supported
Novelty	.233	2.364	.020	Supported
Local Culture	.141	1.405	.163	Non-supported
Refreshment	.238	2.417	.018	Supported
Meaningfulness	.271	2.777	.007	Supported
Involvement	.324	3.371	.001	Supported
Knowledge	.184	1.848	.068	Supported
Younger Tourists: Years≤39** (N=103), χ^2=917.765, $\Delta\chi^2$=37.136				
Hedonism	.471	5.372	.000	Supported
Novelty	.335	3.571	.001	Supported
Local Culture	.343	3.669	.000	Supported
Refreshment	.244	2.524	.013	Supported
Meaningfulness	.330	3.518	.001	Supported
Involvement	.306	3.232	.002	Supported
Knowledge	.308	3.257	.002	Supported
European Tourists (N=159), χ^2=1145.549				
Hedonism	.390	5.304	.000	Supported
Novelty	.317	4.190	.000	Supported
Local Culture	.248	3.202	.002	Supported
Refreshment	.267	3.478	.001	Supported
Meaningfulness	.336	4.465	.000	Supported
Involvement	.328	4.349	.000	Supported
Knowledge	.238	3.073	.002	Supported
Non-European Tourists (N=43), χ^2=945.038, $\Delta\chi^2$=200.511				
Hedonism	.310	2.087	.043	Supported
Novelty	.082	.530	.599	Non-supported
Local Culture	.247	1.632	.110	Non-supported
Refreshment	.086	.550	.585	Non-supported
Meaningfulness	.136	.880	.384	Non-supported
Involvement	.277	1.849	.072	Supported
Knowledge	.321	2.173	.036	Supported

Note. * Dependent variable = Subjective well-being, df=432. ** The calculation of the median age of younger versus older tourists was found by using frequencies, and the number of cases for younger and older should be equal or about the same. In this study the number of younger tourists

with less or equal age of 39 and less, was 51% of the total sample (51%X202=103) and the number of older tourists with age of 40 and above was 49% of the total sample (49%X202=99).

Conclusions, managerial implications, limitations, and future research
Conclusions

The study contributes to the literature on MTE by extending Kim et al.'s (2012) work, and offers theoretical and empirical evidence about the interrelationships between the dimensions of MTEs and tourists' subjective well-being. Although the measurement appears to be highly destination specific, the major findings of this study show that "hedonism" and "meaningfulness" have a positive and significant impact on subjective well-being. These relationships are supported by Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). In other words, when the participants experience thrills, enjoyment, excitement (hedonism), something meaningful or important, and learn about themselves (meaningfulness) while at the destination, they are more likely to have a memorable experience. Such experiences further contribute to their sense of well-being. This may be a question of the tourists' expectation during the trip and whether it was above and beyond their planned agenda (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Also, there may be a relationship between these factors, i.e., hedonism and meaningfulness mediated by products and marketing (e.g., if the product offers fun, so any well-being depends on the offer). Moreover, experiences other than "hedonism" and "meaningfulness", such as novelty, local culture, knowledge, involvement, refreshment, togetherness (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013b; Larsen, 2007; Tung & Ritchie, 2011), and creativity (Ali et al., 2015; Hung et al., 2016), can be part of tourists subjective well-being, even if they are not evident in this study.

Based on the findings, from the range of tourism activities offered at the destination, those that offer enjoyment and meaningfulness may add to tourists' memorability of the trip experience and subjective well-being, and is consistent with other studies. For example, Otto and Ritchie (1996) reveal that tourism products and services are primarily consumed for hedonic purposes and allow tourists to construct memorable experiences (Dunman & Mattila, 2005), while hedonism is also considered a source of happiness and reflects different dimensions, such as playfulness, enjoyment, and fun (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). Tung and Ritchie's (2011) study shows the strong impacts of meaningful experience on memory, also referred to as consequentiality. They note that when people learn more about the world and expand their perspectives on life because of eye-opening travel experiences, these experiences can become the most memorable of a lifetime. Furthermore, meaning is a significant contributor of happiness and pleasure and associated with the pursuit of life satisfaction, and is thereby an important indicator of subjective well-being (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002). Regarding the moderating effects of age, gender, and nationality in the relationship between MTE and subjective well-being, chi-square differences support that the examined moderating effects have a greater impact in the following groups: a) female more than male tourists, b) older more than younger tourists and c) European more than non-European tourists.

Managerial implications

Although highly destination specific, the results show that tourists' subjective well-being is influenced by hedonism and meaningfulness. Therefore, destination managers should develop and design their programs and the environmental atmosphere for their programs to be perceived as exciting, delightful, fun, thrilling, and interesting (Gursoy, Spangenberg, & Rutherford, 2006) as both program contents and environmental cues affect the level of hedonism perceived by visitors (Grappi & Montanari, 2011). Moreover, destination managers must also offer activities that allow tourists to assert their self-identity and broaden their thinking about life and society (meaningfulness). For example, a visit to a local food festival may offer tourists the opportunity to feel the meaning of "food," that is, the ways in which it functions emotionally, psychologically, and socially for the locals, and the ways they experience that food. Tourism activities which include the strengthening of bonds with travel companions and developing new bonds with other travelers should also be the focus which offers a meaningful experience and the enhances the probability of an event becoming more memorable (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013a). Furthermore, destination managers can offer diverse memorabilia, including not only souvenirs but also more ordinary objects, such as nail clippers, which act as meaningful reminders, as opposed to novelty focused products (Wilkins, 2011). Objects that are acquired explicitly as souvenirs often lose their sentimental value over time, whereas practical objects that are brought home from a journey often acquire meaning in retrospect (Collins-Kreiner & Zins, 2011). Such symbolic reminder, suffused with meaning and consequences, trigger an imaginary return to memorable times and place (Swanson & Timothy, 2012), and is associated with the creation of happiness in the tourism experience (Nawijn, 2011a).

Limitations and future research

Several limitations are highlighted in the above discussion. Also, there are others that deserve attention. This is a cross-sectional study. To see long term changes in well-being, longitudinal design is needed. The language of the web-based questionnaire survey is in English, and the questionnaire should be translated into different languages if data is to be collected from several nationalities. Future studies should replicate the study in other geographic regions, among different populations and from participants in different leisure activities, as well as both first-time and repeat visitors to enhance understanding of MTE.

Furthermore, future studies should adopt a critical view on MTEs and include other dimensions which might have an impact on tourists' memories of the trip experience, although not tested in this study; for example, dimensions of destination emotion scale items: joy, love and positive surprise (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). The rationale is that the positive emotional state of activation during a trip contributes to creating memories (Tung & Ritchie, 2011) and subjective well-being (Sirgy et al., 2011a). Also, tourists are increasingly engaged with genuine first-hand experiences (Hung et al., 2016). This refers to creative experiences, that is, visitors actively participate in events by simple materials and self-imagination to create unique pieces of work of their own, and they will gain individual experiences (Richards & Wilson, 2006). A recent study by Ali et al. (2015) indicates a

significant positive impact of creative experiences on memories of the trip experience. On the other hand, Chandralal & Valenzuela's (2013b) study shows that interaction with others during the trip that was a significant factor in their MEs, while Kim's (2014) study indicates familiarity as having a significant influence on MTE. Therefore, future studies need to include creativity (creative experience) and togetherness as another dimension to be included in the MTE scale.

Moreover, future research should include destination attributes, since tourists' perceptions of the destination after the trip are based on on-site experiences and determine MTEs (Kim, 2014). Furthermore, studies report a direct influence of tourist motivation (Kim et al., 2015b), and personal values on subjective well-being (Kim et al., 2015a). Future studies should test an integrated model of tourist's motivation, personal values, and MTE dimensions on subjective well-being to gain a holistic understanding of the phenomenon.

References

Ali, F., Ryu, K., & Hussain, K. (2016) Influence of experiences on memories, satisfaction and behavioral intentions: A study of creative tourism. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *33*(1), 85–100.
doi:10.1080/10548408.2015.1038418

Andereck, K., & Nyaupane, G. (2011). Exploring the nature of tourism and quality of life among residents. *Journal of Travel Research*, *50*(4), 248–260.
doi:10.1177/0047287510362918

Anderson, L., & Littrell, M. (1995). Souvenir-purchase behavior of women tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *22*(2), 328–348.
doi:10.1016/0160-7383(94)00080-8

Armstrong, J., & Overton, T. (1977). Estimating nonresponse bias in mail surveys. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *14*, 396–402. doi:10.2307/3150783

Auld, C., & Case, A. (1997). Social exchange processes in leisure and non-leisure settings. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *29*, 183–200.

Babin, B., Darden, W., & Griffin, M. (1994). Work and/or fun: Measuring hedonic and utilitarian shopping value. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *20*, 644-656.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/209376

Baddeley, A. (1999). *Essential of human memory*. East Sussex: Psychology Press.

Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Sutherland, L. (2011). Visitors' memories of wildlife tourism. *Tourism Management*, *32*(4), 770–779.
doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2010.06.012

Barnes, J., Mattsson, J., & Sorensen, F. (2016). Remembered experiences and revisit intentions: A longitudinal study of safari park visitors. *Tourism Management*, 286–294. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.06.014

Baumeister, R., & Vohs, K. (2002). *The pursuit of meaningfulness in life*. Handbook of Positive Psychology, 608–618.

Bello, D., & Etzel, M. (1985). The role of novelty in the pleasure travel experience. *Journal of Travel Research*, *24*, 20–26. doi:10.1177/004728758502400104

Blodgett, J., & Granbois, D. (1992). Toward an integrated conceptual model of consumer complaining behavior. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction, and Complaining Behavior*, *5*, 93–103.

Braun LaTour, K., Grinley, M., & Loftus, E. (2006). Tourist memory distortion. *Journal of Travel Research*, *44*, 360–367. doi:10.1177/0047287506286721

Carmichael, B. (2005). Understanding the wine tourism experience for winery visitors in the Niagara region, Ontario, Canada. *Tourism Geographies*, *7*(2), 185–204. doi: 10.1080/14616680500072414

Caru, A., & Cova, B. (2003). Revisiting consumption experience: a more humble but complete view of the concept. *Marketing Theory, 3*(2), 259–278. doi:10.1177/14705931030032004

Chandralal, L., & Valenzuela, F. (2013a). Memorable tourism experiences: scale development. *Contemporary Management Research*, *11*(3), 291–310. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.7903/cmr.13822

Chandralal, L., & Valenzuela, F. (2013b). Exploring memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management*, *1*(2), 177–181. doi:10.7763/JOEBM.2013.V1.38

Chandralal, L., Rindfleish, J., & Valenzuela, F. (2015). An application of travel blog narratives to explore memorable tourism experiences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *20*(6), 680–693. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2014.925944

Chen, G., Bao, J., & Huang, S. (2014). Developing a scale to measure backpackers' personal development. *Journal of Travel Research*, *53*(4), 522–536. doi: 10.1177/0047287513500392

Cheng, T., & Lu, C. (2013). Destination image, novelty, hedonics, perceived value, and revisiting behavioral intention for island tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism*, *18*(7), 766–883. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2012.697906

Collins-Kreiner, N., & Zins, Y. (2011). Tourists and souvenirs: Changes through time, space, and meaning. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *6*(1), 17–27. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2010.515312

Curtin, S. (2005). Nature, wild animals and tourism: An experiential view. *Journal of Ecotourism*, *4*(1), 1–15. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14724040508668434

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The psychology of optimal experience-steps toward enhancing the quality of life*. New York: Harper Collins

Dagger, T., & Sweeney, J. (2006). The effect of service evaluations on behavioral intentions and quality of life. *Journal of Service Research*, *9*(1), 3–18. doi:10.1177/1094670506289528

Diener, E. (2000). Subjective well-being: The science of happiness and a proposal for a national index. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 34–43. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.34

Diener, E., Emmons, R., Larsen, R., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *49*, 71–75. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa4901_13

Diener, E., Lucas, R., & Oishi, S. (2009). Subjective well-being. In: E. Diener (Ed.), *The science of well-being* (pp. 11–58). Dordrecht: Springer.

Dijkstra, K., Kaschak, M., & Zwaan, R. (2007). Body posture facilitates retrieval of autobiographical memories. *Cognition*, *102*, 139–149. doi:10.1016/j.cognition.2005.12.009

Dunman, T., & Mattila, A. (2005). The role of affective factors on perceived cruise vacation value. *Tourism Management*, *26*, 311–323. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2003.11.014

Dwyer, L., & Kim, C. (2003). Destination competitiveness: Determinants and indicators. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *6*(5), 369–414. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13683500308667962

Filep, S. (2014). Moving beyond subjective well-being. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *38*(2), 266–274.doi:10.1177/1096348012436609

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*, 39–50. doi: 10.2307/3151312

Gilbert, D., & Abdullah, J. (2004). Holiday taking and the sense of well-being. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(1), 103–121. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2003.06.001

Goldsmith, R., & Emmert, J. (1991). Measuring product category involvement. *Journal of Business Research*, *23*, 363–371. doi:10.1016/0148-2963(91)90021-O

Grappi, S., & Montanari, F. (2011). The role of social identification and hedonism affecting tourist re-patronizing behaviors: The case of an Italian festival. *Tourism Management*, *32*(5), 1128–1140. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.10.001

Gursoy, D., & Gavcar, E. (2003). International leisure tourists' involvement profile. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *30*(4), 906–926. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(03)00059-8

Gursoy, D., Spangenberg, E., & Rutherford, D. (2006). The hedonic utilitarian dimensions of attendee's attitudes toward festivals. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *30*(3), 279–294. doi:10.1177/1096348006287162

Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis (7th ed.)*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Hamond, N., & Fivush, R. (1991). Memories of Mickey Mouse: Young children recount their trip to Disneyworld. *Cognitive Development*, *6*(4), 433–448. doi:10.1016/0885-2014(91)90048-I

Herzog, A. R., & Rodgers, W. L. (1981). Age and satisfaction: Data from several large surveys. *Research on Aging, 3*(2), 142–165. doi:10.1177/016402758132002

Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic consumption: Emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of Marketing*, *46*, 90–101. doi:10.2307/1251707

Horley, J., & Lavery J. (1994). Subjective well-being and age. *Social Indicators Research, 34*, 275.doi:10.1007/BF01079200

Hosany, S., & Gilbert, D. (2010). Measuring tourist' emotional experiences toward hedonic holiday destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, *49*(4), 513–526. doi:10.1177/0047287509349267

Hung, W-L., Lee, Y-J., & Huang, P-H. (2016). Creative experiences, memorability and revisit intention in creative tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *19*(8), 763–770. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.877422

Jansari, A., & Parkin, A. (1996). Things that go bump in your life: Explaining the reminiscence bump in autobiographical memory. *Psychol Aging, 11*(1), 85–91. doi: 10.1037//0882-7974.11.1.85

Johnsson, C., & Devonish, D. (2008). Does nationality, gender, and age affect travel motivation? A case of visitors to the Caribbean island of Barbados. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 25*(3–4), 398–408. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10548400802508499

Kang, M., Gretzel, U., & Jamal, T. (2008). Mindfulness: definitions and development of a mindfulness scale. In: Aμndereck, K. (Ed.). 39th annual proceedings of the travel and tourism research association conference, Boise.

Kim, H., Lee, S., Uysal, M., Lim, J., & Ahn, K. (2015a). Nature-based tourism: motivation and subjective well-being. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 1–21. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2014.997958

Kim, H., Woo, E., & Uysal, M. (2015b). Tourism experience and quality of life among elderly tourists. *Tourism Management*, *46,* 465–476. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.08.002

Kim, J-H. (2014). The antecedents of memorable tourism experiences: The development of a scale to measure the destination attributes associated with memorable experiences. *Tourism Management*, 44, 34–45. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.02.007

Kim, J-H. (2009). Development of a Scale to Measure Memorable Tourism Experiences (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Indiana: Indiana University.

Kim, J-H., & Ritchie, J. (2014). Cross-cultural validation of a memorable tourism experience scale (MTES). *Journal of Travel Research, 53*(3), 323–335. doi: 10.1177/0047287513496468

Kim, J-H., Ritchie, J., & McCormick, B. (2012). Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(12), 12–25. doi: 10.1177/0047287510385467

Kim, J-H., Ritchie, J., & Tung, V. (2010). The effect of memorable experience on behavioral intentions in tourism: A structural equation modeling approach. *Tourism Analysis*, *15*(6), 637–648. doi: https://doi.org/10.3727/108354210X12904412049776

King, S., Chopova, B., Edgar, J., Gonzalez, J., McGrath, D., & Tan, L. (2009). Assessing Nonresponse Bias in the Consumer Expenditure Interview Survey. Paper presented at the 2009 Joint Statistical Meetings of the American Statistical Association, Washington, DC.

Kunzmann, U., Little, T., & Smith, J. (2000). Age-related stability of subjective well-being a paradox? Cross-sectional and longitudinal evidence from the Berlin Aging Study. *Psychology and Aging*, *15*(3), 511–526. doi:10.1037//0882-7974.15.3.511

Larsen, S. (2007). Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, *7*(1), 7–18. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15022250701226014

Layard, R. (2006). *Happiness - Lessons from a new science*. London: The Penguin Press.

Lee, Y-J. (2016). Creating memorable experience in a reuse heritage site. *Annals of Tourism Research, 55*, 155–170.

doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2015.09.009

Lee, T-H., & Crompton, J. (1992). Measuring novelty seeking in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *19*, 732–751. doi:10.1016/0160-7383(92)90064-V

Leonidou, L. C., Coudounaris, D. N., Kvasova, O., & Christodoulides, P. (2015). Drivers and outcomes of green tourist attitude and behavior: socio-demographic moderating effects. *Psychology and Marketing*, *32*(6), 635–650. doi:10.1002/mar.20806

Lyubomirsky, S., & Lepper, H. (1999). A measure of subjective happiness: Preliminary, reliability and construct validation. *Social Indicators Research, 46*, 137–155. doi: 10.1023/A:1006824100041

Mannell, R., & Iso-Ahola, S. (1987). Psychological nature of leisure and tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *14*(3), 314–331. doi:10.1016/0160-7383(87)90105-8

Mannell, R., & Kleiber, D. (1997). *A social psychology of leisure*. Pennsylvania: Venture Publishing.

Martin, M. (2008). Paradoxes of happiness. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *9*(2), 171–184. doi:10.1007/s10902-007-9056-3

McCabe, S., & Johnson, S. (2013). The happiness factor in tourism: Subjective wellbeing and social tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *41*(1), 42–65. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2012.12.001

McIntyre, N., & Pigram, J. (1992). Recreation specialization reexamined: The case of vehicle-based campers. *Leisure Sciences*, *14*(1), 3–15. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01490409209513153

McKercher, B., & du Cros, H. (2002). *Cultural tourism*. New York: Haworth Press.

Morgan, M., & Xu, F. (2009). Student travel experiences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *18*(2), 216–236. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19368620802591967

Nawijn, J. (2011a). Happiness through vacationing: Just a temporary boost or long-term benefits? *Journal of Happiness Studies, 12*(4), 651–665. doi:10.1007/s10902-010-9221-y

Nawijn, J. (2011b). Determinants of daily happiness on vacation. *Journal of Travel Research, 50*(5), 559–566. doi:10.1177/0047287510379164

Nawijn, J., Marchand, M., Veenhoven, R., & Vingerhoets, A. (2010). Vacationers happier, but most not happy after a holiday. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, *5*, 35–47. doi: 10.1007/s11482-009-9091-9

Neal, J., Sirgy, M., & Uysal, M. (1999). The role of satisfaction with leisure travel/tourism services and experiences in satisfaction with leisure life and overall life. *Journal of Business Research*, *44*(3), 153–164. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963(97)00197-5

Neuhofer, B., Buhalis, D., Ladkin, A., 2014. A typology of technology-enhanced tourism experiences. *Int. Journal of Tourism Research, 16*, 340–350. doi:10.1002/jtr.1958

Neumann, M. (1999). *On the rim: Looking for the Grand Canyon*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Oh, H., Fiore, A., & Jeong, M. (2007). Measuring experience economy concepts: Tourism applications. *Journal of Travel Research*, *46*, 119–132. doi:10.1177/0047287507304039

Oliveira, P., & Pereira, P. (2008). Who values what in a tourism destination? The case of Madeira Island. *Tourism Economics*, *14*, 155–168. doi:https://doi.org/10.5367/000000008783554758

Otto, J., & Ritchie, J. (1996). The service experience in tourism. *Tourism Management*, *17*(3), 65–74. doi:10.1016/0261-5177(96)00003-9

Petrick, J. (2002). An examination of golf vacationers' novelty. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(2), 384–400. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00040-8

Pillemer, D., Wink, P., DiDonato, T., & Sanborn, R. (2003). Gender differences in autobiographical memory styles of older adults. Memory, 11(6), 525–532. doi: 10.1080/09658210244000117

Pine, B, J. & Gilmore, J.H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review, 76*, 97–105.

Pizam, A., & Sussman, S. (1995). Does nationality affect tourist behavior? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(4), 901–917.doi: 10.1016/0160-7383(95)00023-5

Podsakoff, P., & Organ, D. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: problems and prospects. *Journal of Management, 12*, 69–82. doi:10.1177/014920638601200408

Poria, Y., Butler, R., & Airey, D. (2004). Links between tourists, heritage, and reasons for visiting heritage sites. *Journal of Travel Research*, *4*(1), 19–28. doi:10.1177/0047287504265508

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (2003). *Cross-cultural behavior in tourism*. Oxford: Elsevier.

Richards, G., & Wilson, J. (2006). Developing creativity in tourist experiences: A solution to the serial reproduction of culture? *Tourism Management, 27*, 1209–1223.doi: 10.1016/j.tourman.2005.06.002

Ritchie, R., & Ritchie, J. (1998). The Branding of Tourism Destinations: Past Achievements and Future Challenges. *1998 Annual Congress of the International Association of Scientific Experts of Tourism*, Marrakech.

Rovaniemi Tourist Information. (2016). Activities. Retrieved from: http://visitrovaniemi.fi/en/front-page/

Schwartz, B. (2011). *Memory: Foundations and applications*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Selstad, L. (2007). The social anthropology of the tourist experience. Exploring the middle road. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, *7*(1), 19–33. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15022250701256771

Sirgy, J.S., Kruger, P.S., Lee, D-J., & Bu, G.B. (2011a). How does a travel trip affect tourists' life satisfaction? *Journal of Travel Research*, *50*(3), 261–275. doi: 10.1177/0047287510362784

Sirgy, M., Phillips, R., & Rahtz, D. (2011b). *Community quality-of-life indicators: Best cases V*. London, NY: Springer.

Su, L., Swanson, S., & Chen, X. (2016). The effects of perceived service quality on repurchase intentions and subjective well-being of Chinese tourists: The mediating role of relationship quality. *Tourism Management*, *52*, 82–95. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.06.012

Swanson, K., & Timothy, D. (2012). Souvenirs: icons of meaning, commercialization and commoditization. *Tourism Management*, *33*(3), 489–499.doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2011.10.007

Tarssanen, S. (2007). *Handbook for experience stagers.* Lapland Center of Expertise for the Experience Industry: Rovaniemi.

Trauer, B., & Ryan, C. (2007). Destination image, romance and place experience - an application of intimacy theory in tourism. *Tourism Management*, *26*, 481–491.doi: 10.1016/j.tourman.2004.02.014

Tsai, C. (2016). Memorable tourist experiences and place attachment when consuming local food. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 536–548. doi:10.1002/jtr.2070.

Tsaur, S., Yen, C., & Hsiao, S. (2013). Transcendent experience, flow and happiness for mountain climbers. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *15*, 360–374. doi: https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.1881

Tsiotsou, R., & Goldsmith, R. (2012). *Strategic marketing in tourism services*. Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Tung, V., & Ritchie, J. (2011). Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *38*(4), 1367–1386. doi:10.1016/j.*annals*.2011.03.009

Uriely, N. (2005). The tourist experience: conceptual developments. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *32*(1), 199–216.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.07.008

Urry, J., 1990. *The tourist gaze*. London: Sage Publications.

Uysal, M., Perdue, R., & Sirgy, M. (2012). *The handbook of tourism and quality of life research*. Dordreche: Springer.

Veenhoven, R. (1991). *Questions on happiness: Classical topics, modern answers, blind spots*. Oxford: Pergammon Press.

Visit Finland. (2016). Tourism statistics. Retrieved from:
http://www.visitfinland.com/travel-trade/tourism-statistics/

Wilkins, H. (2011). Souvenirs: What and why we buy. *Journal of Travel Research*, *50*(3), 239–247.doi:10.1177/0047287510362782

Appendix A Operationalization of constructs used in this study versus other studies

Operationalization of constructs used in this study	Operationalization of constructs used in other studies
1) Memorable Tourism Experience (Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2012)	**1) Memorable Tourism Experience, Memories**
	A) (Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007)
a) Hedonism	I will have wonderful memories about this visit
X10: I was thrilled about having a new experience in Rovaniemi	I will remember many positive things about this visit
X11: I indulged in activities	I won't forget my experience at this destination
X12: I really enjoyed the trip	
X13: I had an exciting trip	**B) (Quadri Felitti & Fiore, 2013; Ali, Hussain, & Ragavan, 2014)**
b) Novelty	I have wonderful memories of this visit

X14: I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience

X15: I had a unique experience

X16: My trip was different from previous trips
X17: I experienced something new
c) Local Culture

X18: I had a good impression about the local culture
X19: I had a chance to closely experience the local culture
X20: The locals in Rovaniemi were friendly to me
d) Refreshment

X21: I relieved stress during the trip
X22: I felt free from daily routine during the trip
X23: I had a refreshing experience
X24: I felt better after the trip

e) Meaningfulness

X25: I felt that I did something meaningful
X26: I felt that I did something important
X27: I learned something about myself from the trip
f) Involvement

X28: I visited a place that I really wanted to visit
X29: I enjoyed activities that I really wanted to do

X30: I was interested in the main activities offered

g) Knowledge

X31: I gained a lot of information during the trip
X32: I gained a new skill (s) from the trip
X33: I experienced new culture (s)

2) Subjective Well-being (Happiness)
Subjective Happiness Scale (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999)
X34: In general, I consider myself very happy
X35: Compared to my friends, I consider myself very happy
X36: I am happy regardless of what is going on
X37: I never seem to be as happy as I might be

3) Life-satisfaction: Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin,1985)
X38: In most ways my life is close to my ideal
X39: I am satisfied with my life
X40: So far I have gotten the things that I want in my life
X41: If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing

I won't forget my experience of visiting the destination
I will remember many positive things about the destination

2) Subjective Well-being
A) (Kim, Lee, Uysal, Kim, & Ahn, 2015)
I am satisfied with life in general

Overall, I felt happy upon my return from that trip
I felt better physically and mentally
Although I have my ups and downs, in general I feel good about my life

B) (Songshan & Chen, 2015)
In general, I consider myself very happy
Compared to the ideal state, I think I have a very happy life
I am generally very satisfied with my life

C) (Su, Swanson, & Chen, 2016)
In general, I consider myself a very happy person
Compared to most of my peers, I consider myself happier
I am generally very happy and enjoy life
I will have wonderful memories about this visit
I will remember many positive things about this visit
I won't forget my experience at this destination

Exploring tourists' memorable food experiences:
A study of visitors to Santa's official hometown

Erose Sthapit*
* Vaasa University, Department of Marketing, Vaasa

Abstract
The present study was undertaken with the purpose of understanding what makes a memorable food experience (MFE) for tourists. Twenty-two interviews were carried out with a sample of tourists who visited Rovaniemi, Finland. Using grounded theory as a data analytic approach, this paper proposes a conceptual framework of MFE, which is comprised of a number of key components: local specialities and food attributes (taste), authenticity, novelty, togetherness and social interaction, hospitality, and servicescape including food souvenirs. The implications for managers are that service providers should offer local specialities; give tasty, novel and authentic food experiences; encourage social interactions between tourists and the service provider; offer warm and welcoming hospitality; focus on the servicescape; and serve food (including food souvenirs) on wooden plates and in wooden cups

Keywords: Food tourism; memorable food experiences; local food; tourism experiences; Finland

1   Introduction

Today, memorable experiences represent a new benchmark that destination managers and tourism businesses must seek to deliver (Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2012), and they are pivotal to becoming and remaining competitive in the marketplace (Kim & Ritchie, 2014). While on-site tourism experiences are momentary and may provide transitory feelings (Kim, 2009), experiences stored in the human memory are of great importance, as travellers often reflect on their trip experiences (Neal, Sirgy, & Uysal, 1999). Kim et al. (2012) developed an instrument to examine the dimensions of a memorable tourism experience (MTE). However, Chandralal, Rindfleish, and Valenzuela (2015) argued that many of the studies, which suggest specific experiential factors as components of MTEs, use sample students, who can hardly be considered "typical" tourists. Thus, the findings of these studies cannot be generalized to more authentic travel populations.

Researchers found that experiencing local culture makes travelling more memorable. Chandralal and Valenzuela's (2013) study showed that experiencing actual local life, cultures, and foods of destinations makes an experience memorable. In addition, a recent study by Adongo, Anuga, and Dayour (2015) identified local food as a significant factor that contributes to tourists' memorable experiences. However, Robinson and Getz (2014) argued that demand perspective has been lagging, and consumer-centric investigations of culinary–gastronomic experiences have been left relatively unexplored (Frisvoll, Forbord, & Blekesaune, 2016). In addition, little is known about the components that contribute to the memorability of tourists' culinary–gastronomic experiences – even though food is

an essential element for experiencing local culture (Wijaya, King, Nguyen, & Morrison, 2013), and is connected with memory (Holtzman, 2006). To date, there has been a paucity of research examining the components of local food-related experiences in crafting an MTE, thereby revealing a lacuna.

The objective of this study is to explore the components of a memorable food experience (MFE) from a tourist's perspective. Twenty-two interviews were carried out among tourists who have visited Rovaniemi, Finland, a destination marketed as the official home of Santa Claus. It is less known for its cuisines; its culinary culture differs markedly from those of "foodie" destinations. In this study, "local food" refers to food prepared from local ingredients, as well as local food specialties at a particular destination. Tourists' local food experiences extend beyond a restaurant setting into nature-based settings, such as campsites, tents, and boathouses.

Understanding tourists' memories of culinary–gastronomic experiences is worthwhile, because food may function as a trigger for destination choice (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016a) and can help tourists shape their overall impression of a destination (Wang, Kirillova, & Lehto, 2016). In addition, food-related memories can make tourists emotionally attached to the destination, enhancing their level of involvement with it (Gross & Brown, 2006) and eventually influencing revisit intentions (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). This study contributes to the literature on MTEs and food tourism by increasing our understanding of tourists' food-related experiences. The study proposes a conceptual framework of MFE, comprising a number of key components: local specialities and food attributes (taste), authenticity, novelty, togetherness and social interaction, hospitality, and servicescape (including food souvenirs). The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. First, the authors present a literature review and define the key concepts. This review is followed by a discussion of the research methods in methodology. The findings, which are presented in results, are sorted into four subsections. Finally, the conclusions, managerial implications, study limitations, and suggestions for future research are presented.

2   Literature Review

Food is an important tourist attraction in an assortment of forms, and it enhances or is central to the visitor experience (Henderson, 2009; Quan & Wang, 2004). Destinations have now integrated food into tourism products to attract more tourists (Robinson & Getz, 2014), and provide a plethora of gastronomic opportunities to differentiate themselves from others (Chang, Kivela, & Mak, 2010). Tourist food consumption is a unique form of eating that occurs in a foreign context (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Local food consumption connects tourists' with a destination's landscape and unique way of life (Mason & Paggiaro, 2012) and contributes, above all, to visitor experiences (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016b). These culinary–gastronomic experiences are founded on local, original, and authentic foods, which represent the local food culture (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016b; Mynttinen, Logren, Särkkä-Tirkkonen, & Rautiainen, 2015).

Eating novel foods during a holiday is a mark of an authentic experience that most visitors crave to participate in (Wijaya et al., 2013). For example, Mynttinen's et al. (2015) study found that Russian tourists in the South Savo region

of Finland were more inclined to taste local food. Tourists put their personal taste preferences aside when taking the opportunity to try something novel and exciting, as illustrated by Chang's et al. (2010) study, which demonstrated that many Chinese tourists expressed enthusiasm for exploring the Australian culture through food culture, and to gain authentic travel experience. However, tourists hold varying attitudes towards food (Pesonen, Komppula, Kronenberg, & Peters, 2011), which means that their interests and motivations regarding food and their desire to search for experiences vary while on a trip. Research suggests that there are various types of tourists characterized by different attitudes, motivations, and travel styles (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). Studies indicate that food consumption can be classified into three broad categories: the individual, the food, and the environment (Meiselman, Mastroianni, Buller, & Edwards, 1999). The food itself contributes sensory attributes such as flavour, aroma, texture, and appearance; the environment presents cultural, social, economic, and physical influences. As for the individual, sociocultural, psychological, and physiological factors are recognized to exert direct or indirect effects on food consumption behaviour. Amongst these three broad categories, factors relating to "the individual" are widely accepted to be crucial in explaining the variations in food consumption (Rozin, 2006). In the same vein, Mak, Lumbers, Eves, and Chang (2012) identified five major sociocultural and psychological factors influencing tourists' food consumption: cultural/religious influences (cultural background, religious beliefs), sociodemographic factors (socio-economic, demographic status), food-related traits (food neophobia, variety-seeking tendency), exposure effect/past experience, and motivational factors.

Quan and Wang (2004) applied a travel experience model to study the role of tourists' food consumption in their travel experiences. They argue that the levels of memorability and intensification determine whether tourists' food consumption during travel becomes a peak tourist experience rather than a supporting consumer experience – that is, if the consumption of food is a peak tourist experience, it leaves an unforgettable memory. In addition, consumption of local food arouses specific emotional responses, including enjoyment, sensory stimulation, and fulfilment (Mak et al., 2012). Unlike other forms of travel activities and attractions, tourism dining is an art form that gratifies all five of the human senses (Clark & Chabrel, 2007), and it may leave a lasting impression of a destination (Henderson, 2009). In fact, local food is seen as playing a significant role in enhancing sensual indulgence, which imprints strong memories upon the consumer's mind (Vignolles & Paul-Emmanuel, 2014). For example, Vignolles and Paul-Emmanuel's (2014) study indicates that food consumption addresses all five senses, while the sense of smell and taste imprint strong memories on the consumers' minds. In addition, Kauppinen-Räisänen, Gummerus, and Lehtola's (2013) study revealed that remembered positive and pleasurable food-related experiences originate mainly from sensory, emotional and social bases, as proposed by Dube and LeBel (2003). Their study also indicated the significance of family and friends during food consumption – that is, commensal eating, and which is linked to eating memory.

Memory, memorable tourism experiences, and food consumption

Memory of tourist experiences is the most significant outcome for tourists after a tour – except, perhaps, for a few souvenirs or photographs (Braun-LaTour, Grinley, & Loftus, 2006). Memory is "an alliance of systems that work together, allowing us to learn from the past and predict the future" (Baddeley, 1999, p. 1). Episodic memories, which involve individuals' long-term storing of factual memories concerning personal experiences (Schwartz, 2011), are the type of long-term memories thought to be the most interesting to study in relation to tourist experiences (Larsen, 2007). This is because "lived experiences gather significance as we reflect on and give memory to them" (Curtin, 2005, p. 3). However, "memory" is a more general concept than "memorable", as the latter is associated with something unforgettable or extraordinary; a memory, however, can be relatively ordinary or mundane (Caru & Cova, 2003). Given that eating plays an integral role in travel, visitors expect that their food-related experiences within the destination will be enjoyable and memorable (Kivela & Crotts, 2006), regardless of the primacy of culinary experiences as a travel motivator (Wijaya et al., 2013).

Ritchie and Hudson (2009) depicted the evolution of the experience concept; by advancing the previously established notions, they regarded memorable experiences as the ultimate experiences that consumers aim to obtain. Memorable experiences are based on an individual's evaluations of subjective experiences and refer to an individual's abilities to easily recall events (Kim et al., 2012). Memorable experiences represent a new standard, which destination managers and tourism businesses must seek to achieve (Marschall, 2012). 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). A memorable experience is conceptually a path-dependent construct (Boavida-Portugal, Ferreira, & Rocha, 2015) that breeds future intention (Bujisic, Bilgihan, & Smith, 2015). A memorable experience is therefore, an output of specific past activities such as accommodation, restaurants, and tours at the destination (Perdue, 2003), and it varies in strength (Murphy, Benckendorff, & Moscardo, 2007) and importance (Berntsen, 2001), which means that some memories dominate over others.

Recent studies have examined and defined an MTE as a travel experience involving positive memories that tourists acquire after personally experiencing special and surprising tourist activities and events (Kim et al., 2012). The complexity of investigating MTEs becomes apparent when considering that the tourist experience is holistic and multifaceted, encompassing a broad range of interconnected processes and dynamics. These dynamics involve anticipation, travelling to the site, the on-site experience, returning home, and post-travel recollections (Braun-LaTour et al., 2006). In particular, anticipation and expectations, which are largely constructed prior to travelling, strongly influence on-site experiences (e.g. in terms of the ways individuals experience a destination and its hosts) (Hospers, 2009). Furthermore, after travelling, individuals remember particular experiences, and these memories are derived from their on-site experiences (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). In addition, while on-site tourism experiences are momentary and may provide transitory feelings, experiences stored in human

memories generate reminiscence, as individuals can repeatedly reflect on their visit (Kim, 2009).

In the context of tourism, food consumption is the one area most likely to take people back into their past (Vignolles & Paul-Emmanuel, 2014). For example, Chandralal and Valenzuela's (2013) study showed that participants' memories of their trip were strongly related with local food and culinary experiences at foreign destinations. In addition, perceived opportunities to encounter authentic local experiences enhanced the memorability of their trip. In the same vein, Tung and Ritchie (2011) posit that experiencing the local eateries of a particular destination enriches the memorability of the tourism experience. Some tourists also take back souvenirs as conversation pieces, evidence of travel experiences, and aids to memory (Kong & Chang, 2012; Lin & Mao, 2015; Wilkins, 2011). Moreover, these souvenirs function as a means to relive the positive food and eating experiences Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016b).

Dimensions of the MTE scale and its link to culinary–gastronomic experiences
Kim's et al. (2012) study revealed that individuals who perceive a tourism experience as memorable would often recall the seven experiential dimensions (hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, and knowledge). Hedonism is the notion of 4S: sea, sand, sun, and sex (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007); it is defined as the seeking of sensual pleasure (Trauer & Ryan, 2007). However, today, there is a change from the traditional sand-, sun-, and sea-based holiday activities and sightseeing to culinary tourism (Richards, 2012). 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). Hedonism is an integral part of leisure experiences, and it is a crucial factor in determining tourists' satisfaction and future behaviours (Dunman & Mattila, 2005). Otto and Ritchie (1996) confirmed hedonistic factors to be a construct in the tourism experience.

Lee and Crompton (1992) defined "novelty" as the difference in the degree and mode of the tourist experience sought by the visitor to a destination compared to his or her previous experience. 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). Novelty is characterized by new and unfamiliar experiences (Cheng & Lu, 2013), and it is an important factor related to tourist satisfaction (Bello & Etzel, 1985). Novelty influences tourists' decision-making processes (Petrick, 2002) and is a core input for memories (Kim, Ritchie, & Tung, 2010). Studies indicate that tourists are generally open to taste novel foods while travelling (Quan & Wang, 2004) and, particularly, search for locality, newness, and authenticity (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016b). However, destinations' culinary delicacies are believed to satisfy the pursuit of novelty (Fields, 2002); by tasting novel foods tourists can savour unique and memorable gastronomic experiences (Kivela & Crotts, 2006).

"Local culture" is the local population or a significant ingredient involved in developing the destination (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Tourists' experiences are constantly mediated through social interactions (Selstad, 2007), and are situated in

the gap between locals and tourists (Auld & Case, 1997). The heart of the tourist experience lies in the interaction between the visitors and the local people (Reisinger & Turner, 1998). Social interaction between the visitors and the host of the community (local culture) is identified as a crucial element of the tourist experience (Carmichael, 2005). Morgan and Xu (2009) claimed that it is the most memorable aspect of the tourist experience. Besides social interactions with the local residents, local food also affords visitors the opportunity to appreciate the rich and diverse culture of the destination they visit (Wijaya et al., 2013), and it is perceived as a pleasurable vacation activity (Henderson, 2009). According to Richards (2002), apart from satisfying physical need, consuming local food also creates an opportunity to learn about local geography, people, and culture. Hjalager and Richards (2002) supported this by stating that local foods and cuisines strongly reflect local features; they can convey local histories and cultures as well as evoke memories of delectation.

Refreshment (or relaxation and renewal) is one of the most important motivational forces for tourism experiences aimed at escaping from routine and stressful environments (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Studies suggest that people often feel happier, healthier and more relaxed after a leisure trip (Uysal, Perdue, & Sirgy, 2012). Refreshment is the most basic defining component of tourism activities, and it affects the memory of travelling (Kim et al., 2012). It focuses on the state of mind and depth of experiential engagement. These experiences are not only engaging but also emotionally intense. Individuals highly value refreshment as a psychological benefit of their travel experiences (Uriely, 2005). Hence, being on holiday means relaxation, while this mood is also sought during food consumption at the destination (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016b). Hall (2012) suggests that tourists' desire for slow food (in contrast to fast food) includes aspects related to relaxation and not being bothered by the behaviour of others. In the same vein, a recent study by Tsai (2016) indicated that tourists who consume local foods and cuisines at a tourist destination not only learn local cultures and gain new knowledge or information, but also obtain delight and refreshment from such experiences.

"Meaningfulness" is one of the ways in which individuals find meaning through tourism experiences. As a part of life experience, tourism experience appears to constitute a large part of meaning making for individuals (Tsai, 2016). If an experience is meaningful, this means it leaves a lasting impact (Ballantyne, Packer, & Sutherland, 2011). Meaningfulness can act as a catalyst for a tourist's personal development and change. Kim's et al. (2012) study indicated that memorable experiences are personally significant. For example, after returning home, everyday life may be viewed in a new way; what is experienced and learned during the trip can be absorbed into an individual's everyday life (Tarssanen, 2007). According to Tsiotsou and Goldsmith (2012), the meaningfulness of an experience makes it memorable. Chandralal and Valenzuela's (2013) study showed that tourists gained meaningfulness from tourism experiences through self-development, relationship development, and enhanced family well-being. Given that shared food experiences offer opportunities for bonding, communication, strengthening of relationships, and creating memorable experiences (Schänzel & Lynch, 2015), they can be linked to meaningfulness. Mitchell and Hall's (2003)

study also indicated that gaining local food experiences while at a destination enhances the meaningfulness and symbolism of the experiences. Moreover, recent studies have shown food experiences as a means to contribute to social relationships (Goolaup & Mossberg, 2017; Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013; Mynttinen et al., 2015).

"Involvement" is defined as the level of importance a customer attributes to an object, an action, or an activity, and the enthusiasm and interest that is generated (Goldsmith & Emmert, 1991). Involvement enhances not only an individual's sensitivity to certain activities and his or her perception of a particular activity's importance, but it also enhances the individual's commitment to specific services or places (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). Tourists' involvement with travel experiences is the most influential factor on memory (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992). From the perspective of leisure and tourism, involvement is defined as the degree of interest in an activity and the affective response associated with that interest (Manfredo, 1989). Today, more and more people are willing to taste local foods in destinations where they go for holiday (Horng & Tsai, 2010). In fact, an increasing number of people travel for food and cuisine (Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2009). Kim's (2010) study indicates that one's level of involvement with local food experiences increases one's ability to recollect past experiences vividly.

Knowledge can be defined as a cognitive aspect of the tourist experience involving learning and education (Morgan & Xu, 2009). The desire to learn affects where people go and what they do while visiting a destination (Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2004). Travel experiences provide a myriad of unique learning opportunities for the tourist, where consumer learning comes in the form of newly acquired practical skills, knowledge, practical wisdom, and self-consciousness (Chen, Bao, & Huang, 2014). Culinary–gastronomic experiences also offer tourists intellectual development, which is considered to be the most sought tourism experience (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). For instance, eating local cuisine on holiday helps tourists to gain in-depth knowledge and understanding about their destination's culture (Hjalager & Richards, 2002).

Methodology

The current study was conducted using a qualitative approach. It aimed to explore the components that constitute an MFE and eventually build a theoretical model in relation to tourists' MFEs. More specifically, an interview approach was used to understand the meanings that the respondents attached to issues and phenomenon – that is culinary–gastronomic experiences, in more depth, rather than simply describe them at a superficial level as may be achieved through the use of questionnaires (Eves & Dervisi, 2005). This study adopted a grounded theory research design (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to analyse the collected data. A grounded theory approach is defined as a qualitative research method that uses a systematic set of processes to develop an inductively derived theory about a phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). With the help of local tour operators in Rovaniemi, email invitations were sent to 100 respondents, requesting their participation in the study. The sampling frame for this study included tourists who had visited Rovaniemi in the last two years and tasted local food while at the destination. The research used Rovaniemi, Finland, as the study site.

In September 2016, two participants were recruited for individual semi-structured pilot interviews. The pilot interviews lasted 10–30 min and aimed to identify key themes and issues related to why, how, what, and where participants chose to eat local food while on vacation. They also led to the development of an interview guide for the main phase of data collection. Then, based on these individual pilot interviews, the final interview guide was developed. It consisted of standardized, open-ended questions organized into three sections. The first section focused on demographics (e.g. gender, age, marital status, occupation, and nationality). The second section focused on questions about interviewees' Rovaniemi vacation experiences (e.g. "When and with whom did you visit Rovaniemi?", "What was your motivation for visiting Rovaniemi?" and "What activities did you participate in during your stay?"). The third section related to their local food experiences (e.g. "What kinds of local food did you eat during your recent visit to Rovaniemi, and with whom?", "How was the experience?", "What were the names of the local foods that you consumed and the places they were eaten at?", and "What made your food [culinary–gastronomic] experience memorable?").

All interviews were conducted in English via Skype between October 2016 and December 2016, and they lasted 10–30 min. With the 22nd participant, theoretical saturation was achieved, as fresh data provided no additional valuable insights that could further enhance the understanding of culinary–gastronomic experiences. When analysing the interview data, the three steps for a grounded theory approach suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990) were adopted. The first step involved scanning the collected data to obtain a broad understanding of it. The second step involved reading the interviews and listing categories of MFEs. In the last step of data analysis, the coding work was done using MAXQDA 10 qualitative data analysing software. As recommended by Strauss and Corbin (1990), three types of coding were employed: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding.

Table 1 illustrates how the open coding (line-by-line coding) worked in practice. The first column of the table contains the raw data extracted from the transcripts, and the second column details the initial codes extracted from the raw data via line-by-line coding. Every line of each interview transcript was carefully analysed to extract specific information and also to extract the participants' views.

Table 1 open coding (line-by-line coding) example

Participants Views (Extracted From Transcripts)	Open Coding (Line-by-Line Coding)
We tried a lot of specialties like Poronkäristys (my favorite), Leipäjuusto (I don't really like it), but also Ruisleipä, Grillimakkara, Korvapuusti, and I can't forget the Fazer chocolate. I always liked to taste new kind of food and well it was curious for the Leipäjuusto the taste is strange but for the others it was really good and tasty. I really miss Fazer chocolate. It's something interesting to discover new taste in foreigner's countries (Aurore, female, French).	specialities, strange, good, tasty, new taste

Table 2 Example of the coding process in practice

Open Coding (Line-by-Line Coding)	Subthemes (Axial Coding)	Main Themes (Selective Coding)
specialities; local specialities; Poronkäristys; Ruisleipä; Grillimakkara; Korvapuusti; Karjalanpiirakka; salmon; cloudberry; taste new kind of food; taste is strange; really good and tasty; new taste; mouthwatering; crunchy; yummy; tastes different than anywhere else; tasted different; it tasted good; tasty; delicious; delicious flavours.	local specialities, taste	Local specialities and taste of food as a component of memorable food experience

The researchers identified 92 initial codes that summarized the data. This process of data analysis led to axial coding of the data.

The axial coding process reduced the database into a small set of themes or categories that characterized the process under study. Through axial coding, it was possible to describe the components of an MFE. As shown in Table 2, seven sub-themes were identified and categorized. They are as follows: (1) local specialities and food attributes (taste), (2) authenticity, (3) novelty, (4) togetherness and social interaction, (5) hospitality, and (6) servicescape including (7) food souvenirs. Selective coding followed the axial phase of coding. This coding process involved integrating the categories derived from the open and axial coding processes to form a conceptual framework. The codes and categories were explored further by rereading the coded statements.

Results

As shown in Table 3, there were more female than male respondents (13 vs. 9). Their ages ranged from 26 to 60, and the majority of them were married (13). The occupations of the respondents were diverse, as were their nationalities, representing 13 different countries (Table 3). The dates of their visits to Rovaniemi ranged from six months to two years ago. The majority of respondents had travelled to Rovaniemi with their family (8). The main motivations for visiting Rovaniemi related to meeting Santa Claus (18). Respondents participated in diverse activities ranging from meeting Santa Claus to husky safaris.

Culinary–gastronomic experiences

Responses to questions about the range of local food consumed during their stay in Rovaniemi ranged from reindeer meat to berry pies. This is further highlighted by the response given by Aurore (female, French): "We tried a lot of specialties: Poronkäristys (favorite), Leipäjuusto (don't like) … also, Ruisleipa, Grillimakkara, Korvapuusti, and I can't forget the Fazer chocolate". Quan and Wang's (2004) model is useful as a theoretical framework for analysing the study participants' culinary–gastronomic experiences, in which they distinguish two dimensions – namely, "food as peak touristic experiences" and "food as the extension of the ontological comfort of home" (p. 301). In the case of the peak experience, tourists seek food experiences that are outside of their daily routine – that is, novel food experiences. In contrast, food can also be consumed as a simple necessary of daily life.

Table 3 Profile of respondents (n=22)

Interviewees	Gender	Age	Marital Status	Occupation	Nationality
Aurore	Female	26	Single	Unemployed	French
Al-Batool	Female	28	Single	Relationship Office	Kuwaiti
Mucha	Female	36	Single	Researcher	Zimbabwean
Helen	Female	34	Single	Systems Consulting	Brazilian
Mareike	Female	29	Single	Child Care Worker	German
Rita	Female	31	Single	Travel Specialist	New Zealander
Pei-Yun	Female	31	Single	Research Assistant	Taiwanese
Steph	Female	33	Married	Teacher	British
Peter	Male	53	Married	Transport Driver	Dutch
Patrick	Male	44	Married	Travel Specialist	British
Valeria	Female	41	Married	Housewife	Italian
Dietmar	Male	49	Married	Sales Manager	German
Ian	Male	52	Married	School Assistant	British
Laura	Female	32	Married	Cleaner	British
Kari	Male	60	Married	Researcher	Finnish
Kerry	Male	37	Married	Teacher	Australian
Christophe	Male	44	Married	Head of Medical Centre	French
Melanie	Female	40	Married	Lawyer	Australia
Helena	Female	49	Married	Journalist	Croatian
Rod	Male	48	Married	First Aid Trainer	Australian
Greig	Male	51	De facto	Technician	Australian
Laura, S	Female	32	Divorced	Employee	Italian

In this instance, it is consumed to meet the basic needs of the body, or to maintain the "ontological comfort of home". In the context of this study, participants' food experiences can be characterized by concepts such as "novelty", "unusualness", and "extraordinariness", and they are in sharp contrast with the daily experience.

Food neophilia and neophobia experience
The majority of the respondents (21) wanted to taste local food while at the destination, and exhibited food neophilia, which is the tendency to seek something new to taste. Food neophiliacs are more inclined towards new food experiences, and they possess a different taste physiology, which enables them to gain a greater amount of pleasure from experiencing new foods (Kim, Suh, & Eves, 2010). This is highlighted by the response given by Dietmar, a male German participant: "Well, if you are in a foreign country, you need to eat local food. It is part of getting to know the country. If you want to eat typical German food, stay in Germany". The findings support previous studies, which indicated that food neophiliacs are more open to tasting novel and even strange foods that enrich the memorability of their holiday experience (Fischler, 1988).

In contrast, one of the respondents displayed discomfort with unfamiliar food, and demonstrated an implicit preference for "routine" food. This behaviour can be related to food neophobia, a personality trait involving a relative preference for familiar foods over novel foods (Pliner & Salvy, 2006). This is illustrated by the response given by Ian (male, British): "… True, reindeer belongs to Lapland, but personally, I don't find it particularly appealing. I would honestly prefer a Chinese meal …". Pliner and Hobden (1992) found that food neophobia positively correlated with fear and anxiety measures, while the term "memorable" is typically

associated with a positive connotation, and taken to mean "positively/emotionally remembered" (Desmet & Schifferstein, 2008).

Memorable components
Local specialities and food attributes (taste)
The findings demonstrate that many tourists clearly remember local specialities and their unique food attributes. In fact, the study participants described their eating experiences in detail, including memories of sensory perceptions. The tastes of local food affected study participants culinary–gastronomic experiences and were perceived as memorable. This is further highlighted by a response given by Al-Batool (female, Kuwaiti): "I had a lovely experience with a local sweet in Rovaniemi. It was an amazing, mouthwatering, sugary sweet that has a lot of cinnamon and crunch, which I bought from a local store". These findings are in line with assertions made by Chandralal and Valenzuela (2013) and Kauppinen-Räisänen et al. (2013), who stressed the significance of sensory stimulation in food tourism and its influence on the memorability of the trip (Henderson, 2009; Vignolles & PaulEmmanuel, 2014).

Authenticity
For most of the interviewees, their culinary–gastronomic experiences were linked to qualities like genuineness and authenticity, as demonstrated by the interviewees' use of the words "genuine" and "authentic". These qualities seemed to contribute to the memorability of the food experience. Interpretive codes such as "original", "traditional", "authentic", "special", and "unique", are all indicative of the significance of authenticity in tourists' local food consumption. Tourists' search for authenticity is further highlighted by the response given by Melanie (female, Australian):

> We chose to eat mainly Finnish food. We weren't interested in eating food that was not authentically Finnish. Because our focus was on eating traditional, quintessentially Finnish food, we found the food that we did eat to be authentic and genuine. Of course, it is completely different to food that we eat in Australia ….
> Eating novel foods during a holiday is a mark of an authentic experience, which is something that most visitors crave (Wijaya et al., 2013). The term "authenticity" refers to something that is perceived as truthful and sincere (Munoz & Wood, 2009), and evokes a range of meanings, including "original", "genuine", "real", "true", and "true to itself". Chhabra, Healy, and Sills (2003) added that products of tourism (including clothing, local food, and rituals) can be defined as being authentic depending on whether they are enacted or used by local people according to customs and traditions. The findings support existing studies indicating that authentic local eating experiences enrich the memorability of the tourism experience (Adongo et al., 2015; Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013).

Novelty
Most of the respondents were also drawn to local food because of the novelty it offers. Interpretive codes such as "different from what I eat", "totally different", "very different", "really different", and "new" are all indicative of the significance of novelty when it comes to local food consumption. This is further highlighted by

a response given by Valeria, a female Brazilian participant: "Food in Finland, and especially in Lappi, was totally different: we don't find reindeer meat at home, but we would like to. So the experience was memorable because we ate something we don't have in our country". "Novelty" denotes newness and/or unusualness associated with eating food and beverages outside one's environment (Tse & Crotts, 2005). Studies have found that unusual, atypical, or distinctive events are better remembered than "typical" events (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Kim, Ritchie, et al., 2010).

Togetherness and social interaction
Several interviewees expressed the belief that family togetherness and socialization were consistently important and enriched their experiences; they also expressed that communication with others was desirable when enjoying culinary–gastronomic experiences. This is illustrated by responses given by Peter and Al-Batool. Peter said, "My wife and I were travelling together and eating together, too, and it is always memorable to be together. Especially, my wife likes to talk about what we are eating, the taste of the food, and the local ingredients". Al-Batool said, "I tasted the best salmon in my life in Saarenkyla … which was perfectly cooked …. We had a nice chat about Finland and Finnish culture. That was an amazing night to remember".

The social origin of pleasurable and memorable experiences connects, especially to engagement with friends and family (Dube & LeBel, 2003), which seems to apply to food experiences as well. According to Fields (2002), eating food can enable people on vacation to differentiate themselves from others and share their preferences or tastes with other people. Thus, experiences shared with someone can add to the pleasure taken from travel. Similarly, many studies have acknowledged the importance of "togetherness" in tourists' culinary–gastronomic experiences (Mynttinen et al., 2015; Tung & Ritchie, 2011) and that recalled food experiences are typically related to communal eating (Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013).

Hospitality
For many of the respondents, the service personnel (restaurant owners, chefs, waiters, or the hosts) were seen as hospitable and knowledgeable people. This is demonstrated by the response given by Greig, a male Australian participant:

Our waiter at the Pohjanhovi was very good to explain the traditional foods when we were ordering, which was really great and made us more confident that we would enjoy our orders. During our tours, the guides explained a lot about traditional foods and how they are cured and stored for the winter months.

Hospitality is recognized as one of the major success factors in the tourism industry (Ariffin, 2013). Hospitality, or "the general feeling of welcome that tourists receive while visiting the area", is most often what is remembered after returning home (Mill, 1990, p. 28). In addition, hospitality is defined as hosting acts motivated by the desire to please and genuine regard for the tourist as an individual to create a memorable and meaningful experience (Ariffin, 2013). Recent studies indicate that perceived hospitality during a trip also contributes to visitors' memorable experiences (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013).

Servicescape

In this study, the key elements associated with the physical environment of the service setting that contributed to the memorability of food experiences include the ambience and the plate and cup that were provided with the food. This is illustrated by the responses of two participants: Kari (Finnish) and Rita (Australian). Kari said,

> The appearance of the restaurant seemed to be one of the key attributes. The typical Lappish restaurant, Nili, in downtown Rovaniemi, is definitely worth a visit. The restaurant is not big but very cosy inside, and while waiting for your meals, you can admire all the typical Lappish decorations and items on the walls inside the restaurant.

Rita said, "The set up in the boathouse made the whole experience incredibly memorable. Yes, we ate off wooden plates and drank our coffee out of these traditional wooden cups …".

Ambience is part of the servicescape (or the physical environment of a service organization) where the service transaction occurs, and it includes music, smells, lighting, and heating (Bitner, 1992). There is ample evidence to suggest that the servicescape has a strong impact on consumption experiences (Lashley, Morrison, & Randall, 2004). Servicescape experiences are especially important in the hospitality industry, as these elements have been shown to strongly influence cognitive and affective responses towards a service encounter (Mason & Paggiaro, 2012).

Food souvenirs

Many of the respondents mentioned that buying food souvenirs prolonged the memorability of their food experience in Rovaniemi. This is highlighted by the response given by Aurore (female, French): "I usually buy some Fazer chocolate, reindeer meat, or such things to eat later at home. I like to have the impression that I am still in Rovaniemi when I eat things like chocolate or jams". These findings support existing studies that indicate that food souvenirs are tangible proof of tourists' intangible travelling experiences (Lin & Mao, 2015). They also indicate that the role of food souvenirs extends beyond tourists' own personal memories, and that food souvenirs are connected to social reminder/social prestige as part of gift-giving, particularly in Asian cultures (Kong & Chang, 2012; Xu & McGehee, 2012). Xu and McGehee's (2012) study showed that, in oriental culture, purchasing gifts for friends and relatives is a norm that provides an important purchasing motivation when tourists travel abroad.

This study indicates that exposure to destinations' food and eating habits could result in the purchase of foodstuff for the means of reconstructing and potentially sharing a food-related or sensory experience (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016a). Tourists purchase a food specialty not only to physically enjoy the taste of it, but also to mentally imagine its identity. Moreover, a food specialty is a kind of souvenir that has its own meaning, associated with one specific culture and location. Food souvenirs allow tourists to take a little piece of the location back home. Indeed, this act is almost essential, as most travellers claim to return home with souvenirs (Wilkins, 2011).

Conceptual framework of the components of tourists' MFE

Combining the results of the current study with existing literature has led to the development of a model of tourists' MFEs. The results of the analysis based on grounded theory approach identified a number of key components: local specialities and food attributes (taste), authenticity, novelty, togetherness and social interaction, hospitality, and servicescape (including food souvenirs) (as illustrated in Figure 1).
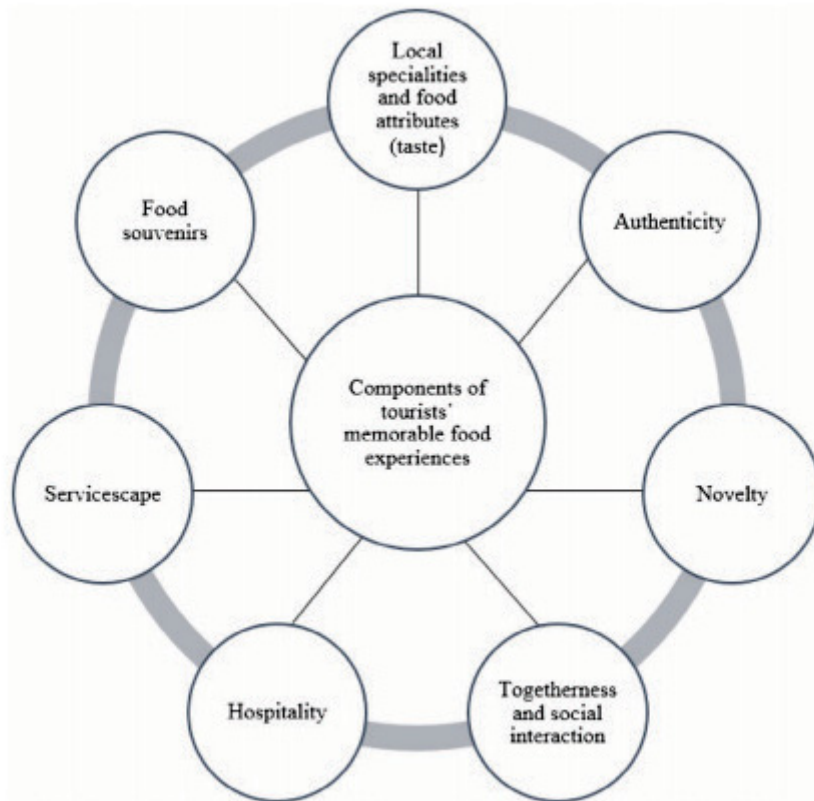
Figure 1. The conceptual framework of tourists' memorable food experiences

A closer look at the components reveals that tourists enjoy eating local food and search for locality, newness, and authenticity when consuming food at a tourist destination. Previous studies have indicated that culinary–gastronomic experiences at a destination are conditioned by what is served (the food) (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016a; Desmet & Schifferstein, 2008; Goolaup & Mossberg, 2017; Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013). In addition, sensory stimulation is also linked to tourists' memories of eating during a trip (Dube & LeBel, 2003; Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013; Vignolles & Paul-Emmanuel, 2014). Moreover, the dimensionality indicates that the focus must also be on who is with the tourist besides what is being consumed. Being on holiday involves commensal eating with friends, families and significant others (Schänzel & Lynch, 2015), and such shared eating experiences and characteristics were often recalled (Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013). Memories of culinary–gastronomic experiences are also affected by the

hospitality, quality of the service (Goolaup & Mossberg, 2017), the setting (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016a; Goolaup & Mossberg, 2017) and whether or not tourists return home with souvenirs, which prolongs the lived experience (Swanson, 2004). Overall, the proposed model was theorized through the inductive method of grounded theory. Although the findings are not generalizable to all potential consumers in a destination, this study represents an initial underpinning, and it has developed an understanding of what contributes to tourists' memorability of local food experiences.

Conclusion and implications

First, from a theoretical perspective, this study contributes to a better understanding of the link between memorability and food experiences. The study focuses on the topical issue of food. Specifically, this study explores the components of an MFE from a tourist's perspective. In accordance with past research, the findings of this study indicate that culinary–gastronomic experiences contribute to a tourist's memorability and holistic holiday experience (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016a; Henderson, 2009). In fact, the findings support the usefulness of Quan and Wang's (2004) model of touristic (food) experience and the notion that tourist food consumption may constitute a major aspect of the holistic vacation experience and contribute to a trip's memorability.

Second, although past research has portrayed instances in which food was consumed as a memorable experience, one of the yet-to-be-understood issues relates to the dimensionality of the tourist's MFEs. Given the complex and multidimensional nature of food experiences, this study identifies the multidimensionality of MFEs, which show the multifarious nature of tourists' culinary–gastronomic experiences. In other words, this study proposes a conceptual framework of MFE. The framework consists of a number of key components: local specialities and food attributes (taste), authenticity, novelty, togetherness and social interaction, hospitality, and servicescape (including food souvenirs). The current study concludes that tourists' memorability of local food experiences are affected by what is served (local specialities and taste), how it is served (authenticity and novelty), with whom it is served (togetherness), how it is served (social interaction and hospitality), where it is consumed (servicescape) and whether or not they take back home something from the destination as a tangible reminder of the tourism experience (souvenirs). These were developed through investigation of participants' memories of culinary–gastronomic experiences and the linkage between MTE and food tourism literature. The identified multidimensional factors provide further support to existing studies that have produced similar results (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016b; Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013).

Third, reflecting on Kim's et al. (2012) MTE dimensions, hedonism, local culture (food), novelty, involvement, refreshment, and knowledge can be linked to tourists' MFEs. The study participants' culinary–gastronomic experiences are closely associated with fun, pleasure and enjoyment, which link to the hedonism dimension. Almost all the participants attributed a high level of importance to local food consumption and were interested in tasting local foods and learning about local specialties while at the destination (novelty, local culture, and knowledge). Therefore, local foods and cuisines are an indispensable element of an MTE (Tsai,

2016). Contrary to existing studies, which portray food experience as passive activities, the study participants actively co-created their culinary–gastronomic experiences by interacting with other tourists and service personnel to learn about local food specialties and food culture (involvement and knowledge). Study participants' culinary–gastronomic experiences were in sharp contrast to daily food experiences (novelty and refreshment) and can be distinguished in the dimension of extraordinary to ordinary, which has been shown for food experiences (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016a). Extraordinary refers to something being perceived as unusual and new (Arnould & Price, 1993), while ordinary may relate to something defined as usual, frequent (Bhattacharjee & Mogilner, 2014), and mundane (Caru & Cova, 2003). However, ordinary experiences are also searched for, and they also can become memorable (Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013). Though, several interviewees expressed the belief that family togetherness and socialization were consistently important and enriched their food experiences, meaningfulness did not appear to be a significant contributor. Furthermore, there was no evidence concerning whether such shared food experiences contributed to self-development, relationship development, or family well-being.

Fourth, in comparison with previous literature that has focused on food experiences taking place in restaurants, study participants stated that their culinary–gastronomic experiences extend beyond a restaurant setting. In addition, the findings indicate that tourists' memories of food experiences can be linked to revisit intention and place attachment. This is in line with studies indicating that a positive destination memory enhances tourists' identification with or strong attachment to a place (Tsai, 2016) and their desire to revisit a tourist destination (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013). Lastly, the findings show that consuming local specialties is an effective form of place-making and that these food settings are becoming an important avenue through which a place is experienced and made meaningful. In these settings, visitors can experience the local culture beyond the authentic servicescape and sensory appraisal (distinctive flavour) as well as through the stories linked to the local food and food culture. The service personnel, in some cases the chef, played a central role in enhancing the study participant's knowledge and in entertaining them, which adds to the chef's identity – that is, the rituals that manifest themselves in the way chefs talk about being a chef (Palmer, Cooper, & Burns, 2010).

From a practical perspective, this study contributes to a better understanding of the role of food from a tourist's standpoint as a means of offering memorable culinary–gastronomic experiences. Indeed, holiday travelling is inherently an experiential activity, and tourist food consumption extends beyond being a daily practice; it constitutes a significant aspect of the holiday experience. For food service providers, the results highlight the value of taking a holistic view of the food experiences provided at destinations. Local food had an impact on the recalled experiences when it was perceived as a local speciality, tasty, novel, or something that the participant had not tasted before. It also had an impact when it was perceived as authentic – that is, local and traditional. Overall, the findings underscore the significance of local specialties and taste, novelty and authenticity, togetherness and social interaction, warm hospitality, and unique servicescape and food souvenirs. This study, therefore, demonstrates that food service providers –

for example, restaurants – should be more traditional in their choice of ingredients for food preparation in order to maintain the distinctive flavour, novelty, and authenticity of local dishes served to tourists. They should also encourage social interaction between the service provider and guests in a food service setting, including telling stories about the local food specialities and food culture. Moreover, they should also offer warm and welcoming hospitality to visitors, and they should focus on the servicescape as well as sell food souvenirs in order to prolong tourists' memories of the trip.

The findings of the current study are highly destination-specific, and the ability to generalize the results is limited, as data were collected from visitors to Rovaniemi alone. Studying a larger sample would increase the generalizability of the findings. In addition, the present study collected data using semi-structured interviews conducted via Skype. Adopting a greater array of research methods might overcome this research limitation. The study participants were also mainly Westerners. Given that food and attitudes towards food are culturally bounded, future studies would benefit from cross-cultural sample bases.

Future studies should be undertaken in other regions less known for their food. Future research should also examine the emotions associated with local food experiences while at the destination (also known as consumption emotions). The rationale for this is that a positive emotional state of activation during a trip contributes to the creation of memories (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). However, although the term "memorable" has a positive connotation, it could be the case that some not-so-positive emotions are also evoked by recalling local food experiences, such as grief or sadness (Locher, Yoels, Maurer, & van Ells, 2005). Thus, exploring the emotional impact of a local food experience, both positive and negative, on its memorability and influence on place attachment and behavioural intentions could yield a better insight into understanding the predictive power of consumption emotions. Memories of holidays have also been shown to contribute to individuals' subjective well-being (Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2017) and affect different life domains (life satisfaction) (Sirgy, Kruger, Lee, & Bu, 2011). Thus, opening up the discussion on how MFEs relate to tourists subjective well-being presents an updated agenda. In addition, it is important to take into account the fact that an experience is usually selectively created by each person based on the individual's unique assessment and perception of reality (Kim et al., 2012), which might have an influence on the memorability of the trip. Thus, future studies should adopt a critical view of MTE dimensions and include other dimensions that might have an impact on tourists' memories of the trip. For example, Kim's et al. (2012) MTE scale should incorporate items related to tourists' local food experiences when measuring a local culture. In addition, future studies should include sensory stimulation and authenticity as other dimensions to be included in the MTE scale.

References

Adongo, C., Anuga, S., & Dayour, F. (2015). Will they tell others to taste? International tourists' experience of Ghanaian cuisines. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 15*, 57–64. doi:10.1016/j.tmp.2015.03.009

Ariffin, A. A. M. (2013). Generic dimensionality of hospitality in the hotel industry: A host–guest relationship perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 35*, 171–179. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.06.002

Arnould, E. J., & Price, L. L. (1993). River magic: Extraordinary experience and the extended service encounter. *Journal of Consumer Research, 20*, 24–45. doi: 10.1086/209331

Auld, C. J., & Case, A. J. (1997). Social exchange processes in leisure and non-leisure settings: A review and exploratory investigation. *Journal of Leisure Research, 29*, 183–200.

Baddeley, A. (1999). Essential of human memory. East Sussex: Psychology Press.

Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Sutherland, L. (2011). Visitors' memories of wildlife tourism: Implications for the design of powerful interpretive experiences. *Tourism Management, 32*, 770–779. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2010.06.012

Bello, D., & Etzel, M. (1985). The role of novelty in the pleasure travel experience. *Journal of Travel Research, 24*, 20–26.

Berntsen, D. (2001). Involuntary memories of emotional events: Do memories of traumas and extremely happy events differ? *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 15*, S135–S158.

Bhattacharjee, A., & Mogilner, C. (2014). Happiness from ordinary and extraordinary experiences. *Journal of Consumer Research, 41*(1), 1–17. doi:10.1086/674724

Bitner, M. J. (1992). Servicescapes: The impact of physical surroundings on customers and employees. *Journal of Marketing, 56*, 57–71. doi:10.2307/1252042

Björk, P., & Kauppinen-Räisänen, H. (2016a). Interested in eating and drinking? How food affects travel satisfaction and the overall holiday experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 17*, 9–26. doi:10.1080/15022250.2016.1215871

Björk, P., & Kauppinen-Räisänen, H. (2016b). Exploring the multi-imensionality of travellers' culinary-gastronomic experiences. *Current Issues in Tourism, 19*, 1260–1280. doi:10.1080/13683500.2013.868412

Blodgett, J., & Granbois, D. (1992). Toward an integrated conceptual model of consumer complaining behavior. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction, and Complaining Behavior, 5*, 93–103

Boavida-Portugal, I., Ferreira, C. C., & Rocha, J. (2015). Where to vacation? An agent-based approach to modelling tourist decision-making process. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–18. doi:10.1080/13683500.2015.1041880

Braun-LaTour, K., Grinley, M., & Loftus, E. (2006). Tourist memory distortion. *Journal of Travel Research, 44*, 360–367. doi:10.1177/0047287506286721

Bujisic, M., Bilgihan, A., & Smith, S. (2015). Relationship between guest experience, personality characteristics, and satisfaction: Moderating effect of extraversion and openness to experience. *Tourism Analysis, 20*, 25–38. doi:10.3727/108354215X14205687167509

Carmichael, B. (2005). Understanding the wine tourism experience for winery visitors in the Niagara Region, Ontario, Canada. *Tourism Geographies, 7*, 185–204. doi:10.1080/14616680500072414

Caru, A., & Cova, B. (2003). Revisiting consumption experience: A more humble but complete view of the concept. *Marketing Theory, 3*, 259–278. doi:10.1177/14705931030032004

Chandralal, L., Rindfleish, J., & Valenzuela, F. (2015). An application of travel blog narratives to explore memorable tourism experiences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 20*, 680–693. doi:10.1080/10941665.2014.925944

Chandralal, L., & Valenzuela, F. (2013). Exploring memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and behavioural outcomes. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management, 1*, 177–181. doi:10.7763/JOEBM.2013.V1.38

Chang, R., Kivela, J., & Mak, A. (2010). Food preferences of Chinese tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research, 37*(4), 989–1011. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2010.03.007

Chen, G., Bao, J., & Huang, S. S. (2014). Developing a scale to measure backpackers' personal development. *Journal of Travel Research, 53*, 522–536. doi:10.1177/0047287513500392

Cheng, T. M., & Lu, C. C. (2013). Destination image, novelty, hedonics, perceived value, and revisiting behavioral intention for Island tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 18*, 766–783. doi:10.1080/10941665.2012.697906

Chhabra, D., Healy, R., & Sills, E. (2003). Staged authenticity and heritage tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30*, 702–719. doi:10.1016/S0160-7383(03)00044-6

Clark, G., & Chabrel, M. (2007). Measuring integrated rural tourism. *Tourism Geographies, 9*, 371–386.doi:10.1080/14616680701647550

Cohen, E., & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism: Attraction and impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*, 755–778. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2004.02.003

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The psychology of optimal experience-steps toward enhancing the quality of life*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.

Curtin, S. (2005). Nature, wild animals and tourism: An experiential view. *Journal of Ecotourism, 4*(1), 1–15. doi:10.1080/14724040508668434

Desmet, P., & Schifferstein, H. (2008). Sources of positive and negative emotions in food experience. *Appetite, 50*, 290–301. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2007.08.003

Dube, L., & LeBel, J. (2003). The content and structure of laypeople's concept of pleasure. *Cognition & Emotion, 17*, 263–295. doi:10.1080/02699930302295

Dunman, T., & Mattila, A. (2005). The role of affective factors on perceived cruise vacation value. *Tourism Management, 26*, 311–323. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2003.11.014

Dwyer, L., & Kim, C. (2003). Destination competitiveness: Determinants and indicators. *Current Issues in Tourism, 6*, 369–414. doi:10.1080/13683500308667962

Eves, A., & Dervisi, P. (2005). Experiences of the implementation and operation of hazard analysis critical control points in the food service sector.

International Journal of Hospitality Management, 24, 3–19. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2004.04.005

Fields, K. (2002). Demand for the gastronomy tourism product: Motivational factors. In A. Hjalager & G. Richards (Eds.), *Tourism and gastronomy* (pp. 36–50). London: Routledge.

Fischler, C. (1988). Food, self and identity. *Social Science Information, 27*, 275–292. doi:10.1177/053901888027002005

Frisvoll, A., Forbord, M., & Blekesaune, A. (2016). An empirical investigation of tourists' consumption of local food in rural tourism. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 16*, 76–93. doi:10.1080/15022250.2015.1066918

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago, IL: Aldine.

Goldsmith, R., & Emmert, J. (1991). Measuring product category involvement: A multitrait-multimethod study. *Journal of Business Research, 23*, 363–371. doi:10.1016/0148-2963(91)90021-O

Goolaup, S., & Mossberg, L. (2017). Exploring the concept of extraordinary related to food tourists' nature-based experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 17*, 27–43. doi:10.1080/15022250.2016.1218150

Gross, M., & Brown, G. (2006). Tourism experiences in a lifestyle destination setting: The roles of involvement and place attachment. *Journal of Business Research, 59*, 696–700. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2005.12.002

Hall, C. M. (2012). The contradictions and paradoxes of slow food: Environmental change, sustainability and the conservation of taste. In S. Fullagar, K. Markwell, & E. Wilson (Eds.), *Slow tourism: Experiences and mobilities* (pp. 53–68). Bristol: Channel View.

Henderson, J. (2009). Food tourism reviewed. *British Food Journal, 111*, 317–326. doi:10.1108/00070700910951470

Hjalager, A. M., & Richards, G. (2002). Still undigested: Research issues in tourism and gastronomy. In A. M. Hjalager & G. Richards (Eds.), *Tourism and gastronomy* (pp. 224–234). London: Routledge.

Holbrook, M. B., & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption – Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research, 9*, 132–140.

Holtzman, J. D. (2006). Food and memory. *Annual Review of Anthropology, 35*, 361–378.

Horng, J.-S., & Tsai, C.-T. (2010). Government websites for promoting East Asian culinary tourism: A cross-national analysis. *Tourism Management, 31*, 74–85. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2009.01.009

Hospers, G. J. (2009). Lynch, Urry and city marketing: Taking advantage of the city as a built and graphic image. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy, 5*, 226–233.

Kauppinen-Räisänen, H., Gummerus, J., & Lehtola, K. (2013). Remembered eating experiences described by the self, place, food, context and time. *British Food Journal, 115*, 666–685. doi:10.1108/00070701311331571

Kim, J.-H. (2009). Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Indiana University, Indiana.

Kim, J.-H. (2010). Determining the factors affecting the memorable nature of travel experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 27*, 780–796. doi:10.1080/10548408.2010.526897

Kim, Y. G., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2009). Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: A grounded theory approach. International *Journal of Hospitality Management, 28*, 423–431. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2008.11.005

Kim, J., & Ritchie, J. (2014). Cross-cultural validation of a memorable tourism experience scale (MTES). *Journal of Travel Research, 53*, 323–335. doi:10.1177/0047287513496468

Kim, J.-H., Ritchie, J., & McCormick, B. (2012). Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*, 12–25. doi:10.1177/0047287510385467

Kim, J.-H., Ritchie, J., & Tung, V. (2010). The effect of memorable experience on behavioral intentions in tourism: A structural equation modeling approach. *Tourism Analysis, 15*, 637–648. doi:10.3727/108354210X12904412049776

Kim, Y. G., Suh, B. W., & Eves, A. (2010). The relationships between food-related personality traits, satisfaction, and loyalty among visitors attending food events and festivals. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 29*, 216–226. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2009.10.015

Kivela, J., & Crotts, J. C. (2006). Tourism and gastronomy: Gastronomy's influence on how tourists experience a destination. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 30*, 354–377. doi:10.1177/1096348006286797

Kong, W.-H., & Chang, T. Z. (2012). The role of souvenir shopping in a diversified Macau destination portfolio. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 21*, 357–373. doi:10.1080/19368623.2011.615022

Larsen, S. (2007). Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*, 7–18. doi:10.1080/15022250701226014

Lashley, C., Morrison, A., & Randall, S. (2004). My most memorable meal ever! Hospitality as an emotional experience. In D. Sloan (Ed.), *Culinary taste* (pp. 165–184): Oxford: Elsevier.

Lee, T., & Crompton, J. (1992). Measuring novelty seeking in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 19*, 732–751. doi:10.1016/0160-7383(92)90064-V

Lin, L., & Mao, P.-C. (2015). Food for memories and culture – A content analysis study of food specialties and souvenirs. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 22*, 1–30. doi:10.1016/j.jhtm.2014.12.001

Locher, J., Yoels, W., Maurer, D., & van Ells, J. (2005). Comfort foods: An exploratory journey into the social and emotional significance of food. *Food & Foodways, 13*, 273–297. doi:10.1080/07409710500334509

Mak, A., Lumbers, M., Eves, A., & Chang, R. (2012). Factors influencing tourist food consumption. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*, 928–936. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.10.012

Manfredo, M. J. (1989). An investigation of the basis for external information search in recreation and tourism. *Leisure Sciences, 11*, 29–45. doi:10.1080/01490408909512203

Mannell, R., & Iso-Ahola, S. (1987). Psychological nature of leisure and tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 14*, 314–331.

Marschall, S. (2012). Tourism and memory. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*, 2216–2219. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2012.07.001

Mason, M. C., & Paggiaro, A. (2012). Investigating the role of festivalscape in culinary tourism: The case of food and wine events. *Tourism Management, 33*, 1329–1336. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2011.12.016

McIntyre, N., & Pigram, J. J. (1992). Recreation specialization reexamined: The case of vehicle-based campers. *Leisure Sciences, 14*, 3–15.

Meiselman, H. L., Mastroianni, G., Buller, M., & Edwards, J. (1999). Longitudinal measurement of three eating behavior scales during a period of change. *Food Quality and Preference, 10*, 1–8.

Mill, R. (1990). *Tourism: The international business*. New Jersey, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Mitchell, R., & Hall, C. M. (2003). Consuming tourists: Food tourism consumer behaviour. In C. M. Hall, L. Sharples, R. Mitchell, N. Macionis, & B. Cambourne (Eds.), *Food tourism around the world: Development, management and markets* (pp. 60–80). Oxford: Elevier.

Morgan, M., & Xu, F. (2009). Student travel experiences: Memories and dreams. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 18*, 216–236. doi:10.1080/19368620802591967

Munoz, C., & Wood, N. (2009). A recipe for success: Understanding regional perceptions of authenticity in themed restaurants. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 3*, 269–280. doi:10.1108/17506180910980564

Murphy, L., Benckendorff, P., & Moscardo, G. (2007). Destination brand personality: Visitor perceptions of a regional tourism destination. *Tourism Analysis, 12*, 419–432. doi:10.3727/108354207783227948

Mynttinen, S., Logren, J., Särkkä-Tirkkonen, M., & Rautiainen, T. (2015). Perceptions of food and its locality among Russian tourists in the South Savo region of Finland. *Tourism Management, 48*, 455–466. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2014.12.010

Neal, J., Sirgy, M., & Uysal, M. (1999). The role of satisfaction with leisure travel/tourism services and experience in satisfaction with leisure life and overall Life. *Journal of Business Research, 44*, 153–163. doi:10.1016/S0148-2963(97)00197-5

Otto, J., & Ritchie, J. (1996). The service experience in tourism. *Tourism Management, 17*, 65–74. doi:10.1016/0261-5177(96)00003-9

Palmer, C., Cooper, J., & Burns, P. (2010). Culture, identity, and belonging in the "culinary underbelly". *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 4*, 311–326. doi:10.1108/17506181011081497

Perdue, R. (2003). Stakeholder analysis in Colorado ski resort communities. *Tourism Analysis, 8*, 233–236. doi:10.3727/108354203774076797.

Pesonen, P., Komppula, R., Kronenberg, C., & Peters, M. (2011). Understanding the relationship between push and pull motivations in rural tourism. *Tourism Review, 66*, 32–49. doi:10.1108/16605371111175311

Petrick, J. (2002). An examination of golf vacationers' novelty. *Annals of Tourism Research, 29*, 384–400. doi:10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00040-8

Pliner, P., & Hobden, K. (1992). Development of a scale to measure the trait of food neophobia in humans. *Appetite, 19*, 105–120. doi:10.1016/0195-6663(92)90014-W

Pliner, P., & Salvy, S. (2006). Food neophobia in humans. In R. Shepherd, & M. Raats (Eds.), *The psychology of food choice* (pp. 75–92). Wallingford: CABI.

Poria, Y., Butler, R., & Airey, D. (2004). Links between tourists, heritage, and reasons for visiting heritage sites. *Journal of Travel Research, 4*, 19–28. doi:10.1177/0047287504265508

Quan, S., & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management, 25*, 297–305. doi:10.1016/S0261-5177(03)00130-4

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (1998). A cultural analysis of Japanese tourists: Challenges for tourism marketers. *European Journal of Marketing, 33*, 1203–1227. doi:10.1108/03090569910292348

Richards, G. (2002). Gastronomy as a tourist product: The perspective of gastronomy studies. In A. M. Hjalager & G. Richards (Eds.), *Tourism and gastronomy* (pp. 3–20). London: Routledge.

Richards, G. (2012). *An overview of food and tourism trends and policies, food and the tourism experience: The OECD Korea workshop*. Paris: OECD Publishing.

Ritchie, J. R. B., & Hudson, S. (2009). Understanding and meeting the challenges of consumer/tourist experience research. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 11*, 111–126. doi:10.1002/jtr.721

Robinson, R., & Getz, D. (2014). Profiling potential food tourists: An Australian study. *British Food Journal, 116*, 690–706. doi:10.1108/BFJ-02-2012-0030

Rozin, P. (2006). The integration of biological, social, cultural and psychological influences on food choice. In R. Shepherd & M. Raats (Eds.), *The psychology of food choice* (pp. 19–39). Oxfordshire: CABI.

Schänzel, H. A., & Lynch, P. A. (2015). Family perspectives on social hospitality dimensions while on holiday. *Tourist Studies, 1*, 1–18. doi:10.1177/1468797615594742

Schwartz, B. (2011). *Memory: Foundations and applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Selstad, L. (2007). The social anthropology of the tourist experience. Exploring the "middle role". *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*, 19–33. doi:10.1080/15022250701256771

Sirgy, J. S., Kruger, P. S., Lee, D.-J., & Bu, G. B. (2011). How does a travel trip affect tourists' life satisfaction? *Journal of Travel Research, 50*, 261–275. doi:10.1177/0047287510362784

Sthapit, E., & Coudounaris, D. (2017). Memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and outcomes. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*,1–23. doi:10.1080/15022250.2017.1287003.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park: Sage.

Swanson, K. K. (2004). Tourists' and retailers' perceptions of souvenirs. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 10*, 363–377. doi:10.1177/135676670401000407

Swarbrooke, J., & Horner, S. (2007). *Consumer behavior in tourism*. Oxford: Elsevier Linacre House.

Tarssanen, S. (2007). *Handbook for experience stagers*. Rovaniemi: Lapland Center of Expertise for the Experience Industry.

Trauer, B., & Ryan, C. (2007). Destination image, romance and place experience – An application of intimacy theory in tourism. *Tourism Management, 26*, 481–491. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2004.02.014

Tsai, C. (2016). Memorable tourist experiences and place attachment when consuming local food. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 18*, 536–548. doi:10.1002/jtr.2070

Tse, P., & Crotts, J. (2005). Antecedents of novelty seeking: International visitors' propensity to experiment across Hong Kong's culinary traditions. *Tourism Management, 26*, 965–968. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2004.07.002

Tsiotsou, R., & Goldsmith, R. (2012). *Strategic marketing in tourism services*. Bingley: Emerald.

Tung, V., & Ritchie, J. (2011). Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research, 38*, 1367–1386. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2011.03.009

Uriely, N. (2005). The tourist experience: Conceptual developments. *Annals of Tourism Research, 32*, 199–216. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2004.07.008

Uysal, M., Perdue, R., & Sirgy, M. (2012). *Handbook of tourism and quality-of-life research*. Dordrecht: Springer.

Vignolles, A., & Paul-Emmanuel, P. (2014). A taste of nostalgia: Links between nostalgia and food consumption. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal, 17*, 225–238. doi:10.1108/QMR-06-2012-0027

Wang, R., Kirillova, K., & Lehto, X. (2016). Travelers' food experience sharing on social network sites. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 1–14. doi:10.1080/10548408.2016.1224751

Wijaya, S., King, B., Nguyen, T.-H., & Morrison, A. (2013). International visitor dining experiences: A conceptual framework. Journal of Hospitality and *Tourism Management, 20*, 34–42. doi:10.1016/j.jhtm.2013.07.001

Wilkins, H. (2011). Souvenirs: What and why we buy. *Journal of Travel Research, 50*, 239–247. doi:10.1177/0047287510362782

Woodside, A. G. (2008). *Advances in culture, tourism and hospitality research*. London: JAI Press.

Xu, Y., & McGehee, N. (2012). Shopping behavior of Chinese tourists visiting the United States: Letting the shoppers do the talking. *Tourism Management, 33*, 427–430. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2011.05.003

Relative contributions of souvenirs on memorability of a trip experience and revisit intention: A study of visitors to Rovaniemi, Finland

Erose Sthapit* Peter Björk* *
* Vaasa University, Department of Marketing, Vaasa
* * Department of Marketing, HANKEN School of Economics, Vaasa,

Abstract
For some tourists, shopping is a "must-do" activity, and many tourists' purchases can be classified as souvenirs. This study employs a grounded theory approach to explore the central elements of souvenirs that help tourists reminisce about their holiday experiences and encourage their intentions to revisit a place. Based on semi-structured interviews with visitors to Rovaniemi, Finland, from 14 different nationalities, uniqueness, usability and functionality emerged as central elements that prolonged memorability of the travel experience and encouraged revisit intention. This research contradicts studies indicating that a lack of authenticity is an attraction when buying souvenirs and that tourists purchase "genuine counterfeit products" while on holiday due to their lower prices. The managerial implications of this study are that tourism service providers who sell souvenirs in similar contexts should invest more resources on offering objects that represent uniqueness and on local food products and clothes, as well as kitchenware, which represent usability and functionality.

Keywords: souvenirs, memorability, memorable tourism experience, revisit intention, Finland

1 Introduction

Although they may not travel for the purpose of shopping, many tourists do shop while traveling (Kinley, Forney, & Kim, 2012), which makes it a very popular tourist activity (Murphy, Moscardo, Benckendorff, & Pearce, 2011). Tourists tend to acquire tangible reminders of their special time in the form of souvenirs and artefacts, which function as reminders of the destination visited and also symbolise travel experiences (Mossberg, 2007). Dong and Siu (2013) define such purchase behavior as "experience intensification"; that is, visitors purchase souvenirs and gifts to make their travel experience more tangible, and this experience is intensified by taking photos, and collecting and keeping autographs. In fact, many tourists feel that a trip is not complete if they have not purchased souvenirs (Swanson & Horridge, 2006). Representing billions of dollars each year, souvenirs are produced specifically for the tourist economy (Griggio, 2015), while selling and buying of souvenirs are routine activities at tourism destinations (Swanson & Timothy, 2012). However, the study acknowledges that some holidaymakers hardly buy souvenirs and are more satisfied with a more distanced experience of local characteristics, that is, "anti-tourist attitudes" (Jacobsen, 2000). According to Jacobsen (2009) this line of reasoning was already advocated in Rekdal's (1988) study where young white tourists began to distance themselves from traditional masks as a response to vulgar tourists perceptions of African culture, or staying in self-catering cottages away from other holidaymakers (Berggren & Zetterström, 1974) as well as staying in second homes in search for loneliness (Alsmark, 1984).

The souvenir is a relatively recent topic of scholarship (Kong & Chang, 2016), even though it has been a relevant part of the leisure experience for many visitors (Murphy et al., 2011) and as a signifier of memory (Timothy, 2005). According to Swanson and Horridge (2006), a number of empirical studies have explored souvenirs, focussing on the meaning of souvenirs (Shenhav-Keller, 1993), purchasers of souvenirs (Anderson & Littrell, 1996), authenticity (Asplet & Cooper, 2000), purchase intention (Kim & Littrell, 2001) and travel motivation (Swanson & Horridge, 2006). Recent studies have also focused on the meaning and value of souvenirs (Haldrup, 2017; Paraskevaidis & Andriotis, 2015), and tourists' actual souvenir shopping behaviours (Correia & Kozak, 2016; Kong & Chang, 2016). Swanson and Timothy (2012) suggested two conceptions to better understand the role of souvenirs. One involves the tourist's perspective, which is that souvenirs are tangible objects or intangible experiences that are symbolic reminders of an event or experience. The other conception concerns the supplier's perspective, which is that souvenirs are tourism commodities that can be found in souvenir shops and handicraft markets. The focus in this study is on souvenirs as tangible proof of tourists' traveling experiences.

Souvenirs are among the most pervasive elements of the travel experience and may trigger positive memories of people's holidays (Torabian & Arai, 2016), however, little attention has been given to the central elements of souvenirs that contribute to tourists' memorability of the trip experience and the revisit intention spurred by their purchase. Regarding the research methodology, although souvenirs enable stories and imaginings (Miller, 2008; Tolia-Kelly, 2004), surveys are often employed, with a focus on administering questionnaires to

tourists and consumers (Bynum, Magnini, & Tuten, 2013; Collins-Kreiner & Zins, 2001; Fairhurst, Costello, & Holmes, 2007; Hu & Yu, 2007; Kim & Littrell, 2001; Kim, Timothy, & Hwang, 2011; Kinley et al., 2012; Kong & Chang, 2016; Lin & Wang, 2012; Murphy et al., 2011; Oviedo-Garcia, Vega-Vazquez, Verdugo, & Reyes-Guizar, 2014; Swanson & Horridge, 2006; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007; Wilkins, 2011). Few studies have made use of methodological approaches consisting of interviews and ethnographies (Gregson, 2011; Haldrup & Larsen, 2010; Miller, 2008; Trinh, Ryan, & Cave, 2014). Thus, it is, important to delve deeper into the rationale behind tourist souvenir shopping (Oviedo-Garcia, Vega-Vazquez, Verdugo, & Reyes-Guizar, 2014), and its impact on the memorability of the trip experience (Swanson & Timothy, 2012) and revisit intention (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007).

The present study explores some central elements of souvenirs that contribute to tourists' memorability of the trip experience and revisit intention. This study aims to answer the following two questions: What are the central elements of souvenirs that contribute to the memorability of a tourist's trip experience? Do the pleasant memories of a travel experience evoked by souvenirs translate into an intention to return to that destination?

2 Literature review
2.1 Tourism souvenirs: what are they?

A "souvenir" refers to a gift, offering or locally produced good related to a specific destination (Dougoud, 2000). Originally, the word souvenir means "to remember" (Gordon, 1986). Souvenirs are material objects, for example, objects displayed on shelves or refrigerators (Tolia-Kelly, 2004), that link people with places and memories (Ramsay, 2009) and are some of the material stuff we live by (Miller, 2008). Souvenirs are often commercial objects purchased during travel that remind us of past experiences and places visited and encapsulate intangible emotional experiences (Gordon, 1986). In other words, souvenirs are seen as a tangible symbol in the tourists' consumption (Mossberg, 2007). A good souvenir represents a local culture by expressing its ancestry, language and cosmology (Medina, 2003). According to Wilkins (2011), the souvenir product mix includes clothing, hats branded with a destination name and logo, a destination's speciality food, a destination's arts and crafts, photographs and paintings of the destination and other items (such as key rings, fridge magnets and mugs) representative of the destination. Swanson and Timothy (2012) offer four souvenir categories: totality souvenirs (e.g. logoed objects that represent visitors' feelings about the destination), linking souvenirs (e.g. functionary household goods such as kitchenware, rugs or apparel), life souvenirs (e.g. food products that evoke nostalgic feelings) and pilgrimage souvenirs (e.g. a model pyramid from a pilgrimage site).

2.2 Tourism souvenirs: what do they do?

Souvenir shopping is an important source of enjoyment and excitement during a traveller's trip (Timothy, 2005), and an essential activity that helps shape travel experiences (Hu & Yu, 2007). Souvenirs are tangible objects that preserve intangible trip memories, and serve as reminders of the people, places and events

associated with the travel experience (Kong & Chang, 2016). Tourists bring back mementos and souvenirs as evidence of the special moments they experienced (Wilkins, 2011). Hitchcock (2000) points out that items purchased from destinations are more than just mementos of a certain time and place; the acquisition makes the experience tangible. Graburn (2000) argues that an individual who brings a souvenir home can re-live the experience at a routine time and place, and it can thus bring the extraordinary in some small way to an ordinary space. In some cases, souvenir purchases could represent a significant portion of a tourist's consumption, directly affecting his or her travel experience (Swanson, 2004). Swanson and Timothy (2012) observed that tourists return home with souvenirs to help them preserve and commemorate their experiences. In addition, souvenirs have the potential to remind people of an enjoyable experience at a tourist destination and even induce their intentions to revisit (Kim, Timothy, & Hwang, 2011; Yoon, Lee, & Lee, 2010; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007). Overall, souvenirs are often central to the tourism experience, and many tourists want to take home mementos of places they have been and things they have done. These artefacts are a means by which memories may be maintained once the person returns to their home environment (Brennan & Savage, 2012).

2.3 Tourism souvenirs: why are they purchased?

Littrell, Anderson and Brown's (1993) study indicates that the propensity to purchase souvenirs may be attributed to their perceived authenticity, of which five facets are germane: uniqueness, workmanship, aesthetic and use, cultural and historical integrity and genuineness. In a study of tourists' souvenir purchase intentions, Kim and Littrell (1999) identified three dimensions of travellers' souvenir evaluation criteria: aesthetic quality, uniqueness and portability. Throsby (2003) suggests the following important characteristics of cultural products: aesthetic properties, spiritual significance, symbolic meanings, historic importance, artistic trends, authenticity, integrity and uniqueness. Turner and Reisinger (2001) also found three significant product attributes for tourists purchasing cultural products: value (range, quality), product display characteristics (colour, display, packaging, size) and uniqueness (memory of the trip). Trinh et al.'s (2014) study indicates that the authenticity of the product, relating to the destination, is an important factor when tourists buy souvenirs. Moreover, shopping literature often indicates that uniqueness and authenticity are key attributes for souvenir shopping (Littrell et al., 1993; Wong & Cheng, 2013; Yu & Littrell, 2003).

On the other hand, studies have also emphasised the practical function of products (Lin & Mao, 2015). According to Graburn (1989), the product attributes preferred by travellers include portability, inexpensiveness, cleanness and usability at home. Moreover, people purchase souvenirs to simply own something unique or something they need (Timothy, 2005). In addition, Li and Cai's (2008) study identified five attributes of souvenir shopping, namely: value, store, collectability, display and functionality. Value attributes refer to the uniqueness, figuration and the applicability of the souvenir as a gift, while store attributes relate to in-store service and the location of the shop where the souvenir was purchased, as well as its atmosphere. The attribute of collectability refers to souvenir quality and its

cultural meaning as a memento of the trip. Display attributes denote the packaging, workmanship and price of the souvenir. Finally, functionality relates to the utility and fashionability of the souvenir.

2.4 Memory and Memorable Tourism Experiences

Memory is "an alliance of systems that work together, allowing us to learn from the past and predict the future" (Baddeley, 1999, p.1). Memory is the most important personal source of information through which tourists decide whether to revisit a place (Fernandez & Paez, 2008). However, "memory" is a more general concept than "memorability" as the latter is associated with something unforgettable or extraordinary, whereas memory can be quite ordinary or mundane (Caru & Cova, 2003). A memorable tourism experience (MTE) is defined as an important event stored in the memory and recalled after it has occurred. An MTE is selectively constructed from real tourism experiences and influenced by the individual's emotional assessment of the holiday's opportunities and specific activities (Perdue, 2003). In addition, it helps to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable happenings experienced by the tourist while exploring the destination resources (Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2012).

The complexity of investigating memorable tourism experiences (MTEs) becomes apparent when considering that the tourism experience is holistic and multifaceted, encompassing a broad range of interconnected processes and dynamics involving anticipation, traveling to the site, the on-site experience, returning home and post-travel recollections (Braun-LaTour, Grinley, & Loftus, 2006). In particular, anticipation and expectations, largely constructed prior to traveling, strongly influence on-site experiences, for example, the ways individuals experience a destination and its hosts (Hospers, 2009). Furthermore, after traveling, individuals remember particular experiences (Tung & Ritchie, 2011) and these memories are derived not only from their on-site experiences, but also from the souvenirs purchased while at the destination (Wilkins, 2011). It vital for ensuring that tourists have unforgettable experiences while travelling because the memorability of a trip is critical as it "holds a certain attraction and intrinsic reward that materialize in the moments of storytelling" (Neumann, 1999, p. 179–180), reliving an event long after it has occurred (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). In addition, these memories enhance the overall quality of the tourist experience (Quan & Wang, 2004) and may create positive impressions of a tourism destination (Kerstetter & Cho, 2004). In addition, a recent study by Hung, Lee, and Huang (2014) suggested that memorability may be a more appropriate predictor of future behavioural intentions such as revisiting a place or providing a word-of-mouth recommendation.

2.5 Revisit Intention

Souvenirs are bought to retain and remember the travel experience (Trinh et al., 2014), and they enable narratives of distant times and places that can be retold and relived (Morgan & Pritchard, 2005). In fact, souvenirs concretise and preserve tourists' memories about a trip (Gordon, 1986), and these memories affect their decision to revisit a tourist destination (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Tsai, 2016).

Revisit intention refers to a tourist's willingness or plans to visit the same destination (Cole & Scott, 2004). Revisit intention is a key research topic in tourism and an important behavioural intention (Jani & Han, 2011). Tourists' behaviours include their selection of destination to visit, subsequent evaluation of that destination and future behavioural intentions (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Subsequent evaluations refer to the value perceived by visitors and their satisfaction, while future behavioural intentions refer to their willingness to revisit the same destination and recommend it to others (Som, Marzuki, Yousefi, & AbuKhlifeh, 2012). Destination and event organisations are concerned with the reasons underlying tourists' revisit intentions, because it commonly costs much less to retain repeat visitors than to attract new visitors (Um, Chon, & Roy, 2006), and revisit intention is considered an essential element for an attraction for remaining competitive (Huang & Hsu, 2009).

3 Method
3.1 Research Design, Sample Selection and Research Setting
The goal of this study was to explore some central elements of souvenirs that contribute to the memorability of the trip experiences and revisit intention. Storytelling is critical to understanding tourism experiences because stories shape memories and impressions of events over time (McGregor & Holmes, 1999) and the richest accounts tend to centre on episodic memories (personally experienced events) (Bosangit, Hibbert, & McCabe, 2015). According to Larsen (2007) episodic memory is the individual's store of factual memories concerning personal experiences. This is just the kind of memories that would be interesting in relation to the problem of tourist experiences. Therefore, we collected qualitative data through semi-structured interviews. The aim was to obtain insight into the experiences of the interviewees in their own words.

Thus, this study adopted a grounded theory research design (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to analyse the collected data. Creswell and Clark (2007) argue that grounded theory is a useful method when a theory is unavailable to explain the process. According to Bryman, Teevan and Bell (2009), the grounded theory approach is based on a range of qualitative research methods that use a systematic set of procedures and simultaneous (as opposed to sequential) processes of data collection and analysis to develop an inductive derived grounded theory about a phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Studies indicate that a grounded theory approach is appropriate for creating a theoretical model, assigning conceptual labels to data, and interpreting data in the fields of hospitality and tourism (Mehmetoglua & Altinay, 2006).

A significant advantage of this approach is its focus on and distinct guidelines for generating theory (Mehmetoglua & Altinay, 2006). In the same vein, Yin (1989) suggests that conducting data analysis in line with such a research strategy contributes to a more consistent and systematic qualitative study. Moreover, grounded theory possesses a number of unique characteristics compared to other traditional qualitative methodological approaches, for example, theoretical categories are not created on a single-step basis but rather through a process of tentative conceptualisation, whereby categories are created and redefined as relationships are clarified. As categories become saturated by evidence, the

researcher can then compare categories and check the literature to see whether what has emerged fits or confounds existing theory. Moreover, studies indicate that a grounded theory approach is appropriate for creating a theoretical model, giving conceptual labels to data, and interpreting data in the fields of hospitality and tourism (Mehmetoglua & Altinay, 2006). However, few studies have employed a grounded theory approach in souvenir research (Decrop & Masset, 2014; Torabian & Arai, 2016).

With the help of local tour operators in Rovaniemi, email invitations were sent to 100 respondents for their participation in the study. The sampling criterion for selecting participants was limited to an adequate level of souvenir shopping experience, i.e. people who had taken a vacation in the last two years and had bought souvenirs during their visit to Rovaniemi. Rovaniemi was selected as the study site because it is an international and versatile travel destination, which is located in Finland's northernmost province, Lapland. 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. Besides meeting Santa Claus, one of the major tourist attractions, tourists visit the destination to engage in a mix of activities in 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. Some of the tourist attractions in Rovaniemi include Santa Claus Village, Santa Park, Arctic Circle, Ounasvaara Sport and Skiing Centre, Arktikum Science Centre and Ranua Zoo. Around 60% of foreign visitors come to Rovaniemi in the winter (mid-November–end of April). Recent figures show that the destination attracts about 500,000 tourists each year and the majority of the city's foreign tourists are Chinese, Spanish and Japanese nationals (Visit Finland, 2017).

3.2 Interviews and Data Analysis

The current study initially recruited four participants for individual semi-structured pilot interviews in September 2016. The pilot interviews lasted 10–30 minutes and aimed to identify key themes and issues related to why what, and where participants bought souvenirs in Rovaniemi. They also led to the development of an interview guide for the main phase of data collection. Then, based on these individual pilot interviews, the interview guide was revised. The interviews consisted of open-ended questions and was semi-structured in nature, consisting of three sections.

The first section focused on demographics (e.g. gender, age, marital status, occupation and nationality). The second section focused on the interviewees' vacation experiences in Rovaniemi (e.g. "When and with whom did you visit Rovaniemi?" "What was your motivation to visit Rovaniemi?" and "What activities did you participate in during your stay?"). The third section related to interviewees' souvenir shopping experiences (e.g. "Did you buy souvenirs during your trip to Rovaniemi?", "What kind of souvenirs did you buy?", "What was your motivation for buying souvenirs?", "Did you buy the souvenir for yourself or others?", "Does the souvenir remind you of Rovaniemi?", "Did you plan to buy

souvenirs before travelling to Rovaniemi ?", "How many souvenirs did you buy?", "What kind of souvenirs do you prefer ?", "What is it that makes the souvenirs you purchased memorable for you?" and "Do the souvenirs make you feel like visiting the destination again?").

All interviews were conducted in English via Skype, between October and December 2016, and lasted 10–30 minutes. Notes were taken as the conversations proceeded. The concept of theoretical sensitivity was applied to the research process as far as possible. This implies that the researchers entered the field with an awareness of the topic and area, but without any preconceived notions about what might be discovered (Charmaz, 2006). With the 18th participant, theoretical saturation was achieved, as fresh data provided no additional valuable insights that could further enhance the understanding of souvenir shopping experiences. According to Pike (2012), it is generally recognised that repetition and saturation of responses tends to occur with approximately 15–25 respondents. Analysis was ongoing during the process of conducting these interviews. When analysing the interview data, the current study adopted the three steps for a grounded theory approach suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990). The first step involved scanning the collected data to obtain a broad understanding of it. The second step involved reading the interviews and listing categories of central elements of souvenirs that contributed to tourists' memorability of trip experiences and revisit intentions. In the last step of data analysis, coding was done using MAXQDA 10 qualitative data analysing software. As recommended by Strauss and Corbin (1990), three types of coding were employed: open coding, axial coding and selective coding.

Table 1 open coding (line-by-line coding) example

Participants Views (Extracted From Transcripts)	Open Coding (Line-by-Line Coding)
I think the thing that made a souvenir memorable is the uniqueness. I don't like the things made by industrials for souvenirs I want something quite unique. It's something that I can't find in France. Ha ha yes that's totally right I don't really like when things are sold like totally Finnish and made in China. Sadly it's often the case. Yes it's the goal of a souvenir, I like to look at it and try to remember what we did in Rovaniemi.	unique
It has to be unique, something that I could not find in other places than there and of course should make me remember the time I was there. Foods and something useful. I prefer this useful thing because I am very worried about the trash in the planet, and I do think it will not help if I buy something that I will keep it there for some time and then throw it away.	unique, useful
	unusual, useful
Uniqueness and functionality. Things unique to the life style of where I visit and something that will start a conversation at home because it is unusual. Clothed mugs games etc. are all useful. Useful things like clothes. I rarely buy plastic mass production junk.	

Table 1 illustrates how the open coding (line-by-line coding) worked in practice. The first column of the table contains the raw data extracted from the transcripts, and the second column details the initial codes extracted from the raw data through line-by-line coding. Every line of each interview transcript was carefully analysed to extract specific information and the participants' views. For example, "I think the thing that makes a souvenir memorable is its uniqueness . . . It has to be unique, something that I could not find in any other place but there and, of course, it should make me remember the time I was there" was coded as "uniqueness". The researchers identified 65 initial codes that summarized the data. This process of data analysis led to axial coding of the data.

While the purpose of open coding is to divide data into concepts, axial coding helps researchers to answer the "When", "Where", "Why", "Who", "How" and "With what consequences" questions (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Thus, the axial coding process reduced the database into a small set of themes or categories that characterised the process under study (Creswell, 2007). Through axial coding, it was possible to describe tourists' souvenir shopping practices, as well as the central elements of souvenirs that contributed to the memorability of trip experiences and revisit intention.

Table 2 The coding process in practice

Open Coding (Line-by-Line Coding)	Subthemes (Axial Coding)	Main Themes (Selective Coding)
Quite unique; that I can't find in my own country; totally Finnish; not something you will find everywhere; that will start a conversation at home because it is unusual; that is made in Finland and not China; unique to Finland; that symbols the place; handcrafted; genuine; never saw such things before; unique and new for me to see and have; genuine from the country's materials that what make it special and unique; are not sold online so not everyone can have them easily; authentic; not too normal; limited to the destination; local characteristics; typical and symbol of Lapland; not mass produced junk; locally made; real and genuine; made in Finland logo; not mass produced items in shops in UK; related with Rovaniemi or Lapland in particular; have some relation with the tradition or folklore of the place; something only available there; original; place limited; uniqueness; can't compare it with other goodies; have something that is typical there; something stating that it comes from	unique, unusual, locally produced, handmade, genuine, symbolize Lapland, Finland or Rovaniemi; authentic; local	Uniqueness, usability and functionality of purchased souvenirs as contributing to the memorability of the trip experience and revisit intention

somewhere in Finland; strongly branded as Rovaniemi; only available there; authentic Sami; local; not industrially produced as souvenirs; cannot find in other places; Finland flag; unique to the lifestyle where I visit; traditional and unique to country; have local characteristics; uniqueness of the items; not plastic mass production junk; most typical of the region; made from original material; typical; looking for authentic (reindeer items, typical wooden mugs and so on); only available there	usable, functional in daily life	
Contributing in daily life; having a usable life; useful; should be useful daily in my life; not something that I will keep it there for some time and then throw it away; functionality; practical things; possibility to use it daily; can use regularly; functional and for daily use		

As Table 2 shows, two subthemes were identified and categorised as follows: (1) uniqueness; and (2) usability and functionality. Selective coding followed the axial phase of coding. This coding process involved integrating the categories derived from the open and axial coding processes to form a conceptual framework. The codes and categories were explored further by rereading the coded statements. During the data analysis, the concepts and relationships revealed by the coding processes were compared with the ideas and concepts derived from extant literature. This stage involved noting consistencies and identifying research ideas/concepts. To further ensure validity and reliability, we considered the overall process of grounded theory as a dynamic relationship between sampling and data analysis, which enabled us to modify generated categories (subthemes) so that new data were adapted into the emerging theory. Glaser (1978) refers to this process as developing an "emergent fit". In addition, to ensure the credibility of the findings, we allowed the participants to guide the inquiry process and used the participants' actual words during the coding process (Chiovitti & Piran, 2003).

4 Results
4.1 Overall Profile of Interviewees
The profile of the respondents included 10 females and 8 males, with ages ranging from 26 to 60 years. The respondents' occupations were diverse ranging from systems consulting, dentist, relationship officer, child care worker, travel specialist, English teacher, research assistant, communications manager, retail manager, transport driver, teacher, first aid trainer, technician, researcher, co-habitation, guide to journalist, while one of the respondent was unemployed. The household structures varied and included single, married, cohabiting and de-facto relationships. Regarding nationality, the participants were highly heterogeneous

and represented 14 different countries, that is, Brazilian, French, Kuwaiti, German, New Zealander, Spanish, Taiwanese, American, British, Dutch, Australian, Finnish, Italian and Croatian (Table 3).

In response to the question, "When and with whom did you visit Rovaniemi?" the study participants' responses ranged from six months to two years ago, and many travelled with their families (17). The main motivations for visiting Rovaniemi related to meeting Santa Claus (16), with the exception of two interviewees who mentioned the Northern Lights (Silvia) and visiting family members (Kari). One participant stated "My motivation for visiting Rovaniemi was, at the beginning, the Santa Claus Office. I went there for the first time when I was three years old, and I was amazed to meet Santa Claus. Now, each year, I visit Scandinavia with my parents and we finish our trip in Rovaniemi" (Aurore). Another said, "We had always wanted to reach the Santa Claus Village because, even in Australia, a lot of children are brought up to believe in Santa, even though it is 45 degrees Celsius there on Christmas Day" (Rod).

The respondents participated in diverse activities while in Rovaniemi. One said, "The first thing I did was visit the Santa Claus Village. At night, I went on an adventurous trip to the heart of Rovaniemi in the forest to search for the Aurora . . . Ice Climbing trip . . . Arktikum Museum" (Al-Batool). Others stated, "We took the snowmobile around, tracked the Aurora Borealis with a reindeer sleigh. We went to visit Santa Claus. We went to the Aurora Museum, then Husky Point to ride a husky sleigh, and then forward to Kemi City to visit Sampo, the ice breaker" (Pei-Yun) and "We did every single activity we could during the few days we stayed: snowmobile, huskies, reindeers, and see the Aurora . . ." (Silvia).

4.2 Souvenir Shopping

In response to the question, "Did you buy souvenirs during your trip to Rovaniemi?" all respondents affirmed that they had (18). The respondents' souvenir purchases while in Rovaniemi ranged from Christmas decorations to local food and clothes. This is highlighted by the responses of two participants. "We bought clothing, Christmas tree decorations and timber ornaments. To be more precise . . . warm jackets . . . a Finland hat . . . a small timber moose . . . Christmas decoration . . ." (Rod) and "I did take a lot of berry jam home with me and chocolates from Karl Fazer and honey from the little shops in Rovaniemi, which everyone including me loved at home. It tastes different than anywhere else. I can't compare it with any other goodies" (Al-Batool).

The majority of respondents bought both totality souvenirs (logoed objects that represent visitors' feelings about the destination) and life souvenirs (food products that evoke nostalgic feelings), while some bought linking souvenirs, such as kitchenware. Interpretive codes such as "local food", "clothes", "jewellery", "magnets", "t-shirts", "wooden mugs", "postcards", "key holders", "reindeer skin", "knife" and "Christmas decorations" are all indicative of the different types of souvenirs purchased by the respondents while visiting Rovaniemi.

Many mentioned that their motivation for buying souvenirs was to have a tangible reminder of their trip, both for daily use and as gifts for family, friends and oneself. In response to the question, "Did you buy the souvenir for yourself or others?" two participants responded that they purchased souvenirs for

themselves, while the majority purchased souvenirs for their family members, friends and themselves (16). In addition, the respondents stated that souvenir shopping was interesting and special. For example, one replied "Yes, we always buy souvenirs when we travel outside the UK. We always look around for things for our home that remind us of our travels. We prefer to decorate our home with items from our travels rather than mass-produced items available from shops in the UK" (Matt). Although the findings show that souvenir shopping is a habitual behavior among the respondents, the majority (12) stated that their choice of souvenir was only decided while in Rovaniemi.

The souvenirs purchased at the destination enhanced respondents' memorability of the trip experience. For example, one respondent replied as follows: "Absolutely. We have our Christmas tree up now and it looks like one from the Santa Village. Makes me miss our holiday" (Kerry). Another responded, "Yes, they remind me of the happy times I spent in Rovaniemi and always bring a smile to my face – plenty of wonderful memories" (Greig). The number of souvenirs purchased by the respondents ranged from 3 to 50. Table 3 provides full details of the items purchased and an assessment of the items.

Table 3 Souvenirs purchased and the assessment of the items

Interviewee	Souvenirs Purchased	Assessment of the items
Helen (Female, 34, Single, Systems Consulting, Brazilian)	Bags, a kind moose and reindeers made of plush, fridge magnet (map of Finland and a reindeer with northern lights), mugs, caps, chocolate, food (ruisleipa, a kind of reindeer ham and mustard).	I find important that the souvenir should be useful daily in my life. I don't buy much things just to have it.
Euler (Male, 51, Married, Dentist, Brazilian)	T-shirts with Finnish logos, pullovers, gloves, caps, badges, stuffed reindeers and huskies, chocolates, can openers, key holders etc.	The souvenirs are unique and that we wouldn't find easily outside Finland, like snow globes with logos of Santa Claus Holiday Village or Finland, the stuffed reindeers and huskies, the wool jackets with Finnish logos etc. Another important thing is that the souvenirs should be useful in our daily lives, T-shirts, key holders, caps etc.
Aurore (Female, 26, Single, Unemployed, French)	Handmade things, postcards, Fazer chocolate, reindeer meat, Christmas decorations, clothes, jewelry	I don't like the things made by industrials for souvenirs I want something quite unique. I like to have the impression to still be in Rovaniemi when I can eat things like chocolate or jams.
Al-Batool (Female, 28, Single,	Wooden mugs, forests wood base for plates, wooden toys, bags with reindeer print, Fazer	Unique. We don't have reindeer back home or snow or wooden stuff so it was amazing to see them in real and take souvenirs on them Yes, it is very

Relationship Officer, Kuwaiti)	chocolates, blueberry jam and honey.	important to me that I can use the souvenirs I bought from Rovaniemi.
Mareike (Female, 29, Single, Child Care Worker, German)	Two little plushie polar bears, two little snowman – Lollis, and some local sweets, two little cups with Santa, and reindeer antler keychain.	I think the souvenirs are local, or that can be related with Rovaniemi or Lapland overall. If I had to choose just one of all the souvenirs I bought, I would prefer the reindeer antler, because that piece reminds me mostly of my trip and for me reindeers are one of the typical animals and symbols for Lapland.
Rita (Female, 31, Single, Travel Specialist, New Zealander)	Postcards, Santa letters, wooden pens, antlers, boots and a Suomi shirt.	I bought the souvenirs because of the uniqueness of the items.
Silvia (Female, 28, Single, English Teacher, Spanish)	Candles, magnets, postcards.	The souvenirs I bought will have a usable life in Spain or at least, I can see every day.
Pei-Yun (Female, 31, Single, Research Assistant, Taiwanese)	Sami pattern bell, dolls, post cards, logo magnet, special stamps, key chains, teaspoons, food.	I think unique and have local characteristically are very important. I bought things that can make me remember where I get it immediately. It means the souvenir must be unique and have local characteristically.
Stephanie (Female, 37, Married, Communications Manager, American)	Photos and video with Santa, magnets, postcards.	I would say they were all affordable and unique. It makes me appreciate the time I spent in Rovaniemi.
Matt (Male, 37, Married, Retail Manager, British)	Reindeer skin, Christmas ornament, fridge magnet, t-shirt, and incense.	Authentic. The souvenirs have stories attached to them, the people we meet etc. They are often the subject of conversation because they are unusual and perhaps something which cannot be found in the UK. We have some in the living room but also in the kitchen. We also bought some Christmas ornaments for the tree which we obviously only have on display in December.
Patrick (Male, 44, Married, Travel Specialist, British)	Fridge magnets, reindeer crisps, reindeer ornaments, local ceramic handicrafts, tontuu, Fazer chocolates, bottle of Koskenkorva	Fridge magnet was strongly branded as Rovaniemi, crisps were novel, ornaments and tontuu were cute gifts for children. Ceramics were attractive gifts for family. The chocolates and Koskenkorva were highlights of something delicious and only available there (unique). If I had much more money to spend, I would have bought authentic Sami souvenirs.

Peter (Male, 53, Married, Transport Driver, Dutch)	Mugs, two plaids of wool with reindeer print, arctic circle t-shirt, reindeer meat, reindeer items, and wooden items.	They are not cheap (looking) stuff you see everywhere, useful and unique. In fact, it is usability, for example, a mug or T-shirt.
Kerry (Male, 37, Married, Teacher, Australian)	Christmas items.	Uniqueness and use of local product. I bought 30-60 items. I prefer traditional Christmas of Finland over others.
Rod (Male, 48, Married, First Aid Trainer, Australian)	Clothing, Christmas tree decorations and timber ornaments.	I like the Finnish flag on the jackets and the thick woolen hats. Winter clothes from Europe are so much better than anything from Australia. I do find usability of souvenirs a good thing. I am not a fan of lots of table ornaments. I do buy Christmas tree decorations from everywhere I travel so that each year at this time I am reminded of all the wonderful adventures I have done in my life.
Greig (Male, 51, Defacto, Technician, Australian)	Jewelry, clothing, post cards, coffee mug with a Finland flag, salted liquorice and Fazer chocolates.	Uniqueness and memories. Each one of us bought a souvenir to remember our fantastic holiday. These small items invoke a memory of the holiday.
Kari (Male, 60, Married, Researcher, Finnish)	Selection of knives	Rapalla is a very good quality product in the fishing circle here where I live at the ocean in South Africa.
Valentina (Female, 34, Co-habitation, Guide, Italian)	Christmas tree decorations, handmade packet with reindeer stamps.	Uniqueness. They remind me that I visit this town and that they came from Santa's town.
Helena (Female, 49, Married, Journalist, Croatian)	Jams, dried reindeer meat, key holders, a Kuksa cup, a stick for grilling sausages. I ordered a knife from a local artist too.	I like all of them. Kuksa is maybe the nicest of all, quite expensive but I understand that it takes time to make them from original materials.

4.3 Central Elements and Revisit Intention
4.3.1 Uniqueness
When describing the central elements of souvenirs that prolonged tourists' memorability of their trip experiences and encouraged revisit intentions, the study participants often used the same word: "uniqueness". The findings show that respondents were not interested in buying unauthentic mass-produced souvenirs perceived as usual, ordinary and mundane commodities, or what Peters (2011) calls banal souvenirs, just because of their lower price (Thompson, Hannam, & Petrie, 2012). This is highlighted by the direct quotes of two respondents. "I really get angry when I see the souvenirs that are made in China, and I don't buy such things. I love them to be genuine, made from the country's materials – that's what makes them special and unique. And I also make sure that they are not sold online

so not everyone can have them easily" (Al-Batool) and "We prefer souvenirs that are unique and have some relation to the traditions or folklore of the place; for instance, the typical logo of Zakopane in Poland is the axe so we bought things with that image or representation. In Krakow, it's the Dragon, so stuffed animals and key holders were bought, for example. In Rovaniemi, everything is related to Santa Claus or the Village or Finland. We didn't buy one single souvenir made outside Finland, like China for example, though they are not very common. We always pay attention at the labels to verify if they are Finnish or made outside Finland" (Euler).

Interpretive codes such as "unique", "genuine", "handmade", "totally Finnish", "symbolises the place", "not mass-produced junk", "real and genuine" and "made in Finland logo" are all indicative of the significance of uniqueness that contributed to the respondents' memorability of their trip experiences. In the context of souvenir purchases, uniqueness is associated with the beliefs, ideas and impressions held by individuals in relation to the genuineness, authenticity, workmanship, aesthetics, utility, and cultural and historical integrity of souvenir products and their attributes (Littrell, Anderson, & Brown, 1993).

These findings contradict some studies (Correia & Kozak, 2016; Kaell, 2012) and show that the majority of the respondents were annoyed when souvenirs sold within a country were produced outside the country. This is highlighted by Rod (male, Australian): "I will never buy a souvenir not made in the country or region it is from. If the tag says 'Made in China', for example, I will not buy it. I believe in putting money into the region and industries of that region; otherwise, there is no point going somewhere. Hence, I tend to buy traditional things from the region or country whenever possible. I have never bought a souvenir online. The nearest I have done is to have something sent home to Australia because it was too heavy to carry, but I bought and paid for it in the shop, not over the computer. My online use for traveling is limited to tickets, accommodation and airfares. Never souvenirs." Moreover, the findings also do not support studies that indicate the lack of authenticity as an attraction when buying souvenirs (Paraskevaidis & Andriotis, 2015). On the contrary, the findings are aligned with studies that consider the uniqueness of a product, connected to the destination, as an important factor when purchasing a souvenir (Fairhurst et al., 2007; Swanson & Horridge, 2006). In addition, studies indicate that one of the most important characteristics of souvenirs is authenticity, which is perceived by tourists as the difference between a souvenir that is unique to a specific area and one that is mass-produced (Grayson, 2002; Littrell et al., 1993). Revilla and Dodd (2003) suggest that local production, traditional features and utility support the perception of authenticity. Moreover, tourists may perceive souvenirs to be genuine based on their function and appearance. Asplet and Cooper (2000), for example, found that tourists purchase Maori clothing with traditional motifs or labels of authenticity as souvenirs.

The findings also indicate that the purchased souvenirs may trigger the desire to return to the destination in the near future, which is consistent with some other studies (Yoon et al., 2010; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007). In fact, the findings support existing studies indicating that souvenirs concretise and preserve tourists' memories about a trip (Gordon, 1986), and that these memories affect tourists'

decisions of whether to revisit a tourist destination (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Tsai, 2016). More specifically, the uniqueness of purchased souvenirs prolonged respondents' Rovaniemi trip experiences, and these memories aroused their desire to revisit the destination in the near future.

This is highlighted by the responses of five respondents: Aurore (female, French): "I think the thing that makes a souvenir memorable is its uniqueness. It is something that I can't find in my own country. I like to look at it and try to remember what we did in Rovaniemi and I will go there still several times"; Kerry (Australian, male): "Uniqueness and use of local product. I bought 30-60 items. I prefer traditional Christmas of Finland over others. Reminds me of Rovaniemi and Santa village. It was the most magical holiday. Yes, yes, yes, my family really wants to visit again"; Pei-Yun (Taiwanese, female): "I think unique and have local characteristically are very important. I bought things that can make me remember where I get it immediately. It means the souvenir must be unique and have local characteristics. Of course, I put the dolls in my room, and it reminds me that I will be back to Rovaniemi someday in the future"; Greig (Australian, male): "Uniqueness and memories. Each one of us bought a souvenir to remember our fantastic holiday. These small items invoke a memory of the holiday. Yes, they remind me of the happy times I spent in Rovaniemi and always brings a smile to my face—plenty of wonderful memories. Yes, I feel like visiting Rovaniemi again very much. My partner and I have made a decision to return to Rovaniemi in January 2018. This time we might start off at Kakslautenen and end up in Rovaniemi"; Rita (female, New Zealander): "I bought the souvenirs because of the uniqueness of the items. They remind me of the happy times I spent in Rovaniemi. Always brings a smile to my face—plenty of wonderful memories that make me visit time and time again."

4.3.2 Usability and Functionality

The majority of respondents mentioned that the usability and functionality of the souvenirs in their everyday lives contributed to their memorability of the trip experience. Interpretive codes such as "contributing in daily life", "having a useable life", "useful", "should be useful daily in my life", "functionality", "practical things", "possibility to use it daily" and "functional and for daily use" are all indicative of the significance of the usability and functionality element of souvenirs that contributed to the memorability of the trip experience. This element reflects the use-of-value of a commodity; that is, its properties satisfy human needs. In other words, the use-of-value of a commodity refers to its intrinsic features that makes it useful to the consumer (Marx, 1976). These souvenirs, termed linking souvenirs, also help visitors make sense of the place visited by linking it to something common in their life back home, for example, functional household goods such as kitchenware (Swanson & Timothy, 2012).

In this study, 16 respondents confirmed that souvenirs used as functional items in their everyday lives prolonged the memories of their trip experiences. This was more obvious with souvenirs such as clothes, kitchen items and food. For example, nine respondents purchased food souvenirs during their trip, ranging from reindeer meat to Fazer chocolate (Finnish produce), which are tangible objects that act as symbolic reminders of an intangible event or experience (Swanson & Timothy,

2012) and prolonged the memorability of the trip experience in Rovaniemi. This is highlighted by the response of two respondents: "I usually buy some Fazer chocolate, reindeer meat, or such things to eat later at home. I like to have the impression that I am still in Rovaniemi when I eat things like chocolate or jams" (Aurore, French, female) and "Yes, I bought ruisleipa, reindeer meat and ham with mustard. Always bring food from there, this year was the third time, and for sure it will not be the last time" (Helen, Brazilian, female). The findings support existing studies indicating food souvenirs to be tangible reminders of tourists' intangible travelling experiences (Lin & Mao, 2015; Sthapit, 2017; Swanson & Timothy, 2012; Torabian & Arai, 2016).

In addition, practical objects such as nail clippers that are brought home from a travel destination act as meaningful reminders (Wilkins, 2011) and often acquire meaning in retrospect (Collins-Kreiner & Zins, 2011). Such symbolic reminders, suffused with meaning and consequences, trigger an imaginary return to memorable times and places (Swanson & Timothy, 2012). This may also lead to a fading distinction between souvenirs and regular objects with the passage of time (Collins-Kreiner & Zins, 2011). This is highlighted by the responses of five interviewees: "As I already said, I find it important that the souvenir should be useful in my daily life. I don't buy many things just to have them. I prefer useful things because I am very worried about the trash on the planet, and I do not think it will help if I buy something that I will keep for some time and then throw it away" (Helen, Brazilian, female); "Uniqueness and functionality, I must say. Useful things like clothes. I rarely buy plastic mass-produced junk. Things unique to the lifestyle of where I visit and something that will start a conversation at home because it is unusual. I don't buy many ornaments. Clothes, mugs, games, etc. are all useful and decorative" (Rod, Australian, male); "Another important thing is that the souvenirs should be useful in our daily lives—T-shirts, key holders, caps, etc. (Euler, Brazilian, male)"; "The souvenirs I bought will have a usable life in Spain or, at least, I can see every day. Wherever I travel I try to take things that are useful, so usefulness is a very good description for what I usually look for" (Silvia, Spanish, female); "They are not cheap (looking) stuff you see everywhere, useful and unique. In fact, it is usability, for example, a mug or T-shirt. Matt (male, British) "We bought reindeer skin, fridge magnet, T-shirt, incense. We also bought some Christmas ornaments for the tree, which we obviously only have on display in December. I personally prefer art or home furnishings but do buy things like magnets for friends. We have some in the living room but also in the kitchen. We prefer to decorate our home with items from our travel rather than mass-produced items available from shops in the UK. They are often the subject of conversation because they are unusual and perhaps something which cannot be found in the UK. They remind us of the place we visit" (Peter, Dutch, male).

Moreover, in addition to contributing to the memorability of a trip experience, usability and functionality subsequently encouraged travellers' desire to revisit the destination in the near future. This is highlighted by the responses of three respondents: "I did take a lot of berry jam home with me and chocolates from Karl Fazer and honey . . . everyone including me loved it at home . . . Food keeps my memory fresh and makes me dream of those days and wanting to go back as soon as possible" (Al-Batool, Kuwaiti, female); "I always try to buy souvenirs, some

local food stuffs and gifts for family and to share with friends. The chocolates and koskenkorva were highlights of something delicious and only available there and a reminder of the good parts of the visit. Yes, I will return to Rovaniemi" (Patrick, British, male); "I bought souvenirs made of wool for my wife and mugs because we need some at home; I liked the Arctic Circle T-shirts with a small print and I buy one on every trip. Yes, most of the time when we use it, these things bring always good memories, and yes, I plan to visit sometime" (Peter, Dutch, male).

5 Conclusion, Managerial Implications, Limitations and Future Research
5.1 Conclusion

First, the study respondents mentioned that the souvenirs purchased in Rovaniemi enhanced their memorability of the trip experience and the desire to return in the near future. In fact, there was strong support amongst all respondents that a souvenir acts as an aide memoire (Zauberman, Ratner, & Kim, 2009), and this further supports studies indicating that souvenirs trigger memories of people's vacations (Brennan & Savage, 2012; Kong & Chang, 2016; Ramsay, 2009; Sthapit, 2017; Torabian & Arai, 2016; Trinh et al., 2014; Wilkins, 2011). Second, this study provides a comprehensive analysis of some of the central elements of souvenirs that contribute to the memorability of tourists' trip experiences and revisit intention. In fact, this study represents a first attempt at this analysis using a grounded theory approach. The findings are classified into two central elements: uniqueness and usability and functionality.

Among the reasons for acquiring unique souvenirs is the desire to have mementos from a travel experience that differ from familiar items at home and are clearly distinguishable as "different". This "difference" is, therefore, based on something specific to the visited destination (Trinh et al., 2014). Urry (2002) states that the experience of tourism is one of opposition between the "ordinary" and the "extraordinary", between "home" and "away". Objects can be thought of in much the same way, and uniqueness in this context reflects the existence of extraordinary and serves as a reminder of an experience that differs from the daily routine, which would otherwise remain intangible (Gordon, 1986).

On the other hand, the element of usability and functionality is represented through use-of-value of souvenirs. The use-of-value of souvenirs represents a dual functionality for tourists, as products used in daily life that further remind them of the tourism experience such as a souvenir cup purchased at a destination that is used at home for drinking coffee (Thompson et al., 2012). The findings provide further support to existing studies that identify uniqueness (Fairhurst et al., 2007; Li & Cai, 2008; Timothy, 2005; Throsby, 2003; Turner & Reisinger, 2001; Yu & Littrell, 2003) and usability and functionality (Li & Cai, 2008; Lin & Mao, 2015; Timothy, 2005) to be attributes of souvenir selection.

Third, respondents mentioned that their motivation for buying souvenirs (cultural artefacts) was to have tangible reminders of their trip, both for daily use and as gifts for family, friends and oneself. These findings support some studies indicating the different motivations for purchasing souvenirs: gifts, memories and evidence (Wilkins, 2011) and functional needs (Kong & Chang, 2016). They also support findings suggesting that when tourists buy souvenirs, they are seeking items of authenticity, connections to a destination and an item of utilitarian value

(Kim, Timothy, & Hwang, 2011). Moreover, the findings indicate that the role of souvenirs extends beyond a tourist's own personal memories; it also links to social reminders/social prestige as part of gift-giving, particularly in Asian cultures (Kong & Chang, 2012; Xu & McGehee, 2012). For example, Xu and McGehee (2012) observed that in Asian cultures, purchasing gifts for friends and relatives is a norm that provides an important purchasing motivation when tourists travel abroad.

Fourth, although recent studies indicate that some tourists on holiday purchase "genuine counterfeit products" due to their lower prices (Correia & Kozak, 2016; Wu, Wall, & Pearce, 2014), the findings of this study showed a lack of support for buying cheap, ordinary and mundane commodities and clearly suggest that tourists want meaningful reminders, as opposed to ordinary items. In addition, during the interviews, respondents mentioned buying a number of different souvenir items, from Christmas decorations to local food specialties'. The findings thus support studies indicating that souvenir shopping will vary from person to person and from experience to experience; the souvenirs bought will also vary, from the artistic to the gaudy, from the unique to the commonplace, from a T-shirt to a tapestry or a shell to a snow scene (Wilkins, 2011). In addition, souvenirs take on various forms, including symbolic (a shorthand representation of a destination or attraction), pictorial, inscriptive (with the name and/or image of a destination or attraction) and ethnic (strong local flavours) (Kong & Chang, 2016).

Fifth, souvenir shopping was considered a habitual behaviour and an activity that was planned before the trip. Tourists, who are away from their normal environment and possibly even in a very different environment, need something familiar; shopping may provide a sense of comfort and homelike stability (Wu et al., 2014), or, in other words, the "ontological comfort of home" (Quan & Wang, 2004). This finding reflects a recent study by Sthapit and Björk (2017) indicating a similar behavioural pattern among international tourist for most of the activities undertaken at home and at the destination (visiting museum, skiing hiking, shopping, and swimming) except fishing. This extends Burch's (1969) spillover theory, whereby people carry skills, routines and habits established in their daily lives into travel experiences (Currie, 1997). The performance turn-approach (Molz, 2012) that focusses on embodied and material practices illuminates the small and habitual ways in which tourism is intertwined with everyday life. In other words, tourists do not only carry with them the familiar objects that they pack in their luggage (including their phones and laptops), as well as the unreflexively embodied habits that shape their daily routines (Haldrup & Larsen, 2010), and also purchased souvenirs. Overall, tourists use souvenirs as props as they participate in ordinary activities in atypical environments (Lasusa, 2007).

One of the reasons for cultural consumption, in this case souvenir shopping, is related to lifestyle (Wahlers & Etzel, 1985), leisure involvement (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Chang & Gibson, 2011; Smith, Pitts, & Litvin, 2012; Sthapit & Björk 2017) and leisure habit (Currie, 1997; Edensor, 2001; Sthapit & Björk 2017). In fact, lifestyle preference or habitus (Lee, Packer & Scott, 2015) and leisure involvement and leisure habit (Sthapit & Björk, 2017) are likely to influence activities at a tourism destination. For example, Wahlers and Etzel (1985) demonstrated that vacation activity preferences are influenced by the perceived

level of lifestyle stimulation inherent in the tourist's work, social life, and leisure activities.

Sixth, the selection of purchased souvenirs was made on-site at the travel destination. Two lines of reasoning corroborate this: vacation decisions are also made in situ (Martin & Woodside, 2012), and visitors display a great deal of flexibility in planning and enacting tourism behaviour (Woodside & Martin, 2008). This finding transcends conventional approaches, which focus on decisions that take place before the actual travel experience that are characterised, most importantly, as highly planned (Hyde & Decrop, 2011) and fixed (Jeng & Fesenmaier, 2002). In addition, the respondents' souvenir shopping behaviour can be characterised as impulsive in terms of the selection of the product for purchase, that is, they were overcome with a sudden, often powerful and persistent desire to make an unintended, unreflective and immediate purchase after being exposed to certain stimuli. The purchase is unintended because it is made when the individual is not actively looking for that item, has no pre-shopping plans to purchase the item and is not engaged in a shopping task such as looking for a gift, which the item satisfies (Rook & Fisher, 1995).

Seventh, the findings support earlier studies that demonstrate tourists are dissatisfied when they realise the souvenirs they bought in a tourist destination were imported and produced in countries with cheap labour such as China, Indonesia and Vietnam (Kaell, 2012; Littrell et al., 1993; Ming, 2011). Eighth, although Swanson and Timothy (2012) argue that souvenirs are not always connected to the tourism experience, e.g., they are also sold through the Internet and in antique shops, none of the respondents preferred buying souvenirs online.

5.2 Managerial Implications

This study highlights the significance of unique, usable and functional souvenirs for the memorability of a trip experience and subsequent revisit intention. The findings suggest that destination management organisations and souvenir retail managers in similar contexts need to be aware of this aspect of souvenirs. This study advocates that souvenir retail managers invest more resources in offering objects that represent the uniqueness of the host country or region, which should include both local food products and clothes that generate nostalgic feelings, and kitchenware, which represents usability and functionality. In other words, the focus must be on promoting the purchase of souvenirs that represent the uniqueness and the functionality of the object for tourists to enhance, evaluate and reflect upon their experiences. They should strive to provide souvenirs for commemorative uses (e.g., destination images) and practical uses (e.g., decorative, drinking and eating). This can be achieved through a variety of measures. For example, souvenir retail managers should sell food souvenirs representing local specialities that contain distinct favours and are produced from traditional ingredients. Even when consumed in ordinary time and space, they may trigger memories of the travel experience. Food souvenirs produced in Rovaniemi may best represent both uniqueness and usability and functionality.

Given that the respondents' souvenir selections were made on-site in Rovaniemi, souvenir retail managers should expand the variety of handmade and hand-packaged local products and also sell products made by well-known local

craftspeople/artisans, representing the area's uniqueness. Studies indicate that quality craftsmanship is one of the attributes that tourists seek in the crafts that they purchase (Littrell, 1990) and can be closely linked to uniqueness. These souvenirs should thus portray local languages, traditional methods of production and the habits and customs of craftspeople to meet the tourist appeal of handmade objects.

As none of the respondents preferred to buy souvenirs online and all purchased them while in Rovaniemi, visitors should be offered limited edition pieces that are not sold over the Internet. In addition, given that the respondents, regardless of age, gender and nationality, showed little desire for cheap, ordinary and mundane commodities. These types of souvenirs may not appeal to tourists and may not evoke memories of the trip experience. Therefore, souvenir retail managers should not sell such items to visitors but rather focus on the certification and labelling of souvenirs, for example, local food material; this may constitute one strategy for enhancing and promoting locally produced souvenirs in Rovaniemi. Furthermore, they should also allow visitors to personally observe how local people produce the souvenirs, for example, food specialties, as well as engage the participation of local artisans. This may allow tourists to interpret the symbolic meaning attached to a unique product and may offer a more valuable, unique, aesthetically pleasing and memorable souvenir shopping experience. Furthermore, a suggested slogan for the Rovaniemi area such as "Local and Usable Souvenirs From Finnish Lapland" could convey characteristics that may strengthen and encourage souvenir shopping.

5.3 Limitations

The findings of the current study are highly destination-specific as the data were only collected from visitors to Rovaniemi, and the selection of a single destination limits the findings' applicability to other destinations. Studying a large sample would increase the generalisability of the findings. The present study collected data using semi-structured interviews over Skype. Adopting a greater array of research methods might overcome this research limitation. This may be operationalised through a range of research instruments, including focus groups, surveys, in-depth interviews, observations and diaries obtained from sampled individuals who record their souvenir shopping experiences and MTE on-site.

Another limitation is that the interviews were conducted in the post-visit stage to assess tourist's memories of souvenir shopping experiences, while there was variation in terms of when the study participants had visited Rovaniemi, ranging from six months to two years ago. Studies indicate that remembered tourism experiences are significantly different from the actual experiences that one has had. People will reconstruct their tourism experiences by forgetting disappointment (Mitchell, Thompson, Peterson, & Cronk, 1997), integrating information presented after the experience (Braun-LaTour et al., 2006), or reinterpreting their memory to be consistent with their original expectations (Klaaren, Hodges & Wilson, 1994). Braun-Latour et al.'s (2006) study indicates post experience information, that is, advertising and word-of-mouth, as a contributing factor to tourist's memory distortion. The information that individuals receive after their travel experience is found to distort tourists' memory, with the level of distortion greater when the information is presented repeatedly. Therefore, in order to avoid this incongruence between remembered

experiences and onsite experiences, future studies should interview tourists immediately after their visit and also make use of travel blogs (Bosangit et al., 2015) and online reviews as information sources (Wu et. al., 2014). The spontaneously generated content of social media may be an emic source of information for exploring tourists' souvenir shopping experiences, thereby permitting the generation of a richer and deeper information base (Wu et. al., 2014). Moreover, the study participants were mainly Westerners; thus, future studies would benefit from a cross-cultural emphasis.

5.4 Future Research

Souvenir shopping has been associated with the creation of happiness in the tourism experience (Nawijn, 2011). In addition, memories of holidays have been shown to contribute to individuals' subjective well-being (Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2017) and to affect different life domains such as family and social life (life satisfaction) (Sirgy, Kruger, Lee, & Bu 2011) over the long term (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). Thus, opening up discussion on how pleasant memories of a travel experience spurred by souvenirs are related to tourists' subjective well-being updates the existing research agenda. In addition, future research could examine whether souvenirs help to savour positive emotions of love, interest, joy and contentment (Bryant, 2003) and whether they influence positive emotions on the basis of trip memorability. The rationale is that positive emotional activation contributes to creating memories (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Such an approach encompasses positive psychology concepts such as savouring (Bryant, 2003) when studying souvenirs and MTEs.

Negative emotions are less common in tourists' recollection of their holiday experiences due to the "rosy view" phenomenon (Mitchell et al., 1997). This phenomenon mitigates negative emotional responses and magnifies positive emotional responses in people's retrospective assessments of their emotional experiences (Lee & Kyle, 2012). However, studies also indicate that tourist may often feel negative emotions during their tourism experience (Kim et al., 2012). For example, Pine and Gilmore's (1998) study indicates that a poor service easily converts into an experience, creating a memorable encounter of a negative kind. In addition, Kensinger's (2007) study found that negative emotions boosted not only the subjective vividness of a memory but also the likelihood that event details are remembered. Therefore, future studies should incorporate both positive and negative memories of souvenir shopping experience. Moreover, studies indicate that souvenirs can evoke memories through the senses and act as channels for recalling tourism experiences (Morgan & Pritchard, 2005). Thus, given the multisensory nature of the tourism experience, and how aromas, perfumes, fragrances, tastes and sounds (particularly music) are intimately tied to memories (Lin & Wang, 2012), future studies should explore the different senses activated by souvenirs and the dominant senses that influence trip memorability.

References
Alsmark, G. (1984). Landet lagom: Några aspekter på svensk kultur (The suitable country: some aspects of Swedish culture). In *Är Lagom Bäst?: Om*

Kulturmöten i Sverige (Is Just Right also Best?: About Meetings of Culture in Sweden), (pp. 133–153). Statens invandrarverk, Norrköping.

Anderson, L.F., & Littrell, M.A. (1996). Group profiles of women as tourists and purchases of souvenirs. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal, 25*(1), 28–57.doi: 10.1177/1077727X960251002

Asplet, M., & Cooper, M. (2000). Cultural designs in New Zealand souvenir clothing: The question of authenticity. *Tourism Management, 21*, 307–312. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(99)00061-8

Baddeley, A. (1999). *Essential of human memory*. East Sussex: Psychology Press.

Berggren, M., & M. Zetterström. (1974). Att bo i stugby: Intervjuer med gäster i Fyrklöverns stugby och Siljansnäs fritidsby (Staying in a Leisure Village: Interviews with guests in Fyrklöverns stugby and Siljansnäs fritidsby). Institutet för folklivsforskning/Nordiska Museet, Stockholm.

Bosangit, C., Hibbert, S., & McCabe, S. (2015). If I was going to die I should at least be having fun: Travel blogs, meaning and tourist experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 55*, 1–14. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2015.08.001

Braun-LaTour, K. A., Grinley, M.J., & Loftus, E.F. (2006). Tourist memory distortion. *Journal of Travel Research, 44*, 360–367. doi: 10.1177/0047287506286721

Brennan, L., & Savage, T. (2012). Cultural consumption and souvenirs: An ethical framework. *Arts Marketing: An International Journal, 2*(2), 144–160. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/20442081211274020

Brey, E. T., & Lehto, X. Y. (2007). The relationship between daily and vacation activities. *Annals of Tourism Research, 34*, 160–180. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2006.08.001

Bryant, F.B. (2003). Savoring beliefs inventory (SBI): A scale for measuring beliefs about savoring. *Journal of Mental Health, 12*, 175–196. doi: 10.1080/0963823031000103489

Bryman, A., Teevan, J., & Bell, E. (2009). *Social research methods*. Canada: Oxford University Press.

Burch, W. R. (1969). The social circles of leisure: Competing explanations. *Journal of Leisure Research, 1*, 125–147.

Bynum B.B., Magnini, V.P., & Tuten, T.L. (2013). Social media picture posting and souvenir purchasing behavior: Some initial findings. *Tourism Management, 37*, 27–30.doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.11.020

Caru, A., & Cova, B. (2003).Revisiting consumption experience: A more humble but complete view of the concept. *Marketing Theory, 3*(2), 259–278. doi: 10.1177/14705931030032004

Chandralal, L., & Valenzuela, F. (2013). Exploring memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management, 1*(2), 177–181.doi: 10.7763/JOEBM.2013.V1.38

Chang, S., & Gibson, H. J. (2011). Physically active leisure and tourism connection: Leisure involvement and choice of tourism activities among paddlers. *Leisure Sciences, 33*, 162–181.doi:10.1080/01490400.2011.550233

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Chiovitti, R. F., & Piran, N. (2003). Rigour and grounded theory research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 44*, 427–435.

Cole, S.T., & Scott, D. (2004). Examining the mediating role of experience quality in a model of tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 16*(1), 79–90.doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1300/J073v16n01_08

Collins-Kreiner, N., & Zins, Y. (2011). Tourists and souvenirs: Changes through time, space, and meaning. *Journal of Heritage Tourism, 6*(1), 17–27. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2010.515312

Correia, A., & Kozak, M. (2016). Tourists' shopping experience at street markets: Cross-country research. *Tourism Management, 56*, 85–95. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.03.026

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V.L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Currie, R. (1997). A pleasure-tourism behaviors framework. *Annals of Tourism Research, 24*, 884–897.doi: 10.1016/S0160-7383(97)00051-0

Decrop, A., & Masset, J. (2014). This is a piece of coral received from captain Bob: Meanings and functions of tourist souvenirs. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 8*(1), 22–34. doi: 10.1108/IJCTHR-08-2013-0051

Dong, P., & Siu, N, Y-M. (2013). Servicescape elements, customer predispositions and service experience: The case of theme park visitors. *Tourism Management, 36*, 541–551. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.09.004

Dougoud, R. C. (2000). Souvenirs from Kambot (Papua New Guinea): The sacred search for authenticity. In M. Hitchcock & K. Teague (Ed.), *Souvenirs: The material culture of tourism* (pp. 223–237). Aldershot: Ashgate.

Edensor, T. (2001). Performing tourism, staging tourism: (Re) producing tourist space and practice. *Tourist Studies, 1*, 59–81. doi: 10.1177/146879760100100104

Fairhurst, A., Costello, C., & Holmes, A. (2007). An examination of shopping behavior of visitors to Tennessee according to tourist typologies. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 13*(4), 311–320.doi: 10.1177/1356766707081005

Gilbert, D., & Abdullah, J. (2004). Holiday taking and the sense of well-being. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(1), 103–121. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2003.06.001

Glaser, B. (1978). *Theoretical sensitivity. Advances in the methodology of grounded theory*. Mill Valley: Sociology Press.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*. Chicago: Aldine.

Gordon, B. (1986). The souvenir: Messenger of the extraordinary. *Journal of Popular Culture, 20*(3), 135–146. doi: 10.1111/j.0022-3840.1986.2003_135.x

Graburn, N.H.H. (2000). Foreword. In M. Hitchcock & K. Teague (Ed.), *Souvenirs: the material culture of tourism*, (pp. xii–xvii). Aldershot: Ashgate.

Grayson, K. (2002). Telling the difference: Consumer evaluations of authentic and inauthentic marketing offerings. *Advances in Consumer Research, 29*(1), 44–45.

Gregson, N. (2011). *Living with Things*. Wantage: Sean Kingston Publishing.

Griggio, C. (2015). Looking for experience at Vittangi Moose Park in Swedish Lapland. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 15*(3), 244–265. doi:10.1080/15022250.2014.999015

Haahti, A., & Yavas, U. (2004). A multi-attribute approach to understanding image of a theme park: The case of Santa Park in Lapland. *European Business Review, 16*(4), 390–397.doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09555340410547026

Haldrup, M. (2017). Souvenirs: Magical objects in everyday life. *Emotion, Space and Society, 22*, 52–60.doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.emospa.2016.12.004

Haldrup, M., & Larsen, J. (2010). *Tourism, performance and the everyday*. London: Routledge.

Hitchcock, M. (2000). Introduction. In M. Hitchcock & K. Teague (Ed.), Souvenirs: *The material culture of tourism* (pp. 17). Aldershot: Ashgate.

Hospers, G. J. (2009). Lynch, Urry and City Marketing: Taking advantage of the city as a built and graphic image. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy, 5*(3), 226–233.

Hu, B., & Yu, H. (2007). Segmentation by craft selection criteria and shopping involvement. *Tourism Management, 28*(4), 1079–1092. doi: 10.1057/pb.2009.10

Huang, S., & Hsu, C.H.C. (2009) Effects of travel motivation, past experience, perceived constraint and attitude on revisit intention. *Journal of Travel Research, 48*(1), 29–44.doi: 10.1177/0047287508328793

Hung, W-L., Lee, Y-J., & Huang, P-H. (2014). Creative experiences, memorability and revisit intention in creative tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–8. doi: 10.1080/13683500.2013.877422

Hyde, K., & Decrop, A. (2011). New perspectives on vacation decision-making. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 5*(2), 103–111.doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/17506181111139537

Jacobsen, J.K.S. (2009). Scandinavia. In G.M.S. Dann & G.L.Parinello (Eds.), *The sociology of tourism: European origins and developments* (pp. 228–229). Bradford: Emerald Group Publishing.

Jacobsen, J.K.S. (2000). Anti-tourist attitudes: Mediterranean charter tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 27* (2), 284–300. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00069-9

Jani, D., & Han, H. (2011). Investigating the key factors affecting behavioral intentions: Evidence from a full-service restaurant setting. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 238*(7), 1000–1018. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09596111111167579

Jeng, J., & Fesenmaier, D.R. (2002). Conceptualizing the travel decision-making hierarchy: A review of recent developments. *Tourism Analysis, 7*(1), 15–32. doi: 0.3727/108354202108749925

Kaell, H. (2012). Of gifts and grandchildren: American holy land souvenirs. *Journal of Material Culture, 17*(2), 133–151. doi: 10.1177/1359183512443166

Kensinger, E.A. (2007). Negative emotion enhances memory accuracy: Behavioral and neuroimaging evidence. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 16* (4), 213–218. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8721.2007.00506.x

Kim, J-H., Ritchie, J., & McCormick, B. (2012). Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(1), 12–25.doi: 10.1177/0047287510385467

Kim, S., & Littrell, M.A. (2001). Souvenir buying intention for self-versus others. *Annals of Tourism Research, 28*(3), 638–657.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(00)00064-5

Kim, S., Timothy, D.J., & Hwang, J. (2011). Understanding Japanese tourists' shopping preferences using the decision tree analysis method. *Tourism Management, 32*(3), 544–554.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.04.008

Kinley, T. R., Forney, J.A., & Kim, Y.-K. (2012). Travel motivation as a determinant of shopping venue. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 6*(3), 266–278.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/17506181211246429

Klaaren, K.J., Hodges, S.D., & Wilson, T.D. (1994). The role of affective expectations in subjective experience and decision-making. *Social Cognition, 12*(2), 77–101.doi: 10.1521/soco.1994.12.2.77

Kong, W.H., & Chang, T-Z. (2016). Souvenir shopping, tourist motivation, and travel experience. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism, 17*(2), 163–177.doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2015.1115242

Larsen, S. (2007). Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*(7), 7–18.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15022250701226014

Lasusa, D. M. (2007). Eiffel tower key chains and other pieces of reality: The philosophy of souvenirs. *Philosophical Forum, 38*(3), 271–287.
doi:10.1111/phil.2007.38.issue-3

Lee, K.-H., Packer, J., & Scott, N. (2015). Travel lifestyle preferences and destination activity choices of slow food members and non-members. *Tourism Management*, *46*, 1–10.doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.05.008

Lin, C. H., & Wang, W.C. (2012). Effects of authenticity perception, hedonics, and perceived value on ceramic souvenir-repurchasing intention. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 29*(8), 779–795.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2012.730941

Littrell, M. A. (1990). Symbolic significance of textile crafts for tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research, 17*(2), 228–245.
doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(90)90085-6

Littrell, M. A., Anderson, L.F., & Brown, P.J. (1993). What makes a craft souvenir authentic? *Annals of Tourism Research, 20*(1), 197–215.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(93)90118-M

Martin, D., & Woodside, A.G. (2012). Structure and process modeling of seemingly unstructured leisure-travel decisions and behavior. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 24*(6), 855–872.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09596111211247209

Marx, K. (1976). *Capital. A critique of political economy*. London: Penguin.

McGregor, I., & Holmes, J. (1999). How storytelling shapes memory and impressions of relationship events over time. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76*(3), 403–419.

Medina, L. K. (2003). Commoditizing culture: Tourism and Maya identity. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30*(2), 353–368.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(02)00099-3

Mehmetoglua, M., & Altinay, L. (2006). Examination of grounded theory analysis with an application to hospitality research. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 25*, 12–33. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2004.12.002

Miller, D. (2008). *The comfort of things*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Ming, J. S. (2011). The effects of globalized authenticity on souvenir. *International Journal of Innovative Management, Information & Production, 2*(1), 68–76.

Mitchell, T. R., Thompson, L., Peterson, E., & Cronk, R. (1997). Temporal adjustments in the evaluation of events: The rosy view. *Journal of Experimental Psychology, 33*(4), 421–448.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jesp.1997.1333

Molz, J.G. (2012). *Travel connections: Tourism, technology and togetherness in a mobile world*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Morgan, N., & Pritchard, A. (2005). On souvenirs and metonymy: Narratives of memory, metaphor and materiality. *Tourist Studies, 5*(10), 29–53.
doi: 10.1177/ 1468797605062714

Mossberg, K. (2007). A marketing approach to the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*(1), 59–74.
doi: 10.1080/15022250701231915

Murphy, L., Moscardo, G., Benckendorff, P., & Pearce, P. (2011). Evaluating tourist satisfaction with the retail experience in a typical tourist-shopping village. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 18*(4), 302–310.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2011.02.004

Nawijn, J. (2011). Happiness through vacationing: Just a temporary boost or long-term benefits? *Journal of Happiness Studies, 12*(4), 651–665.
doi: 10.1007/s10902-010-9221-y

Neumann, M. (1999). *On the rim: Looking for the Grand Canyon*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Oviedo-Garcia, M-A., Vega-Vazquez, N., Verdugo, M.C., & Reyes-Guizar, L.A. (2014). Tourist satisfaction and the souvenir shopping of domestic tourists: Extended weekends in Spain. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–16.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.877423

Paraskevaidis, P., & Andriotis, K. (2015). Values of souvenirs as commodities. *Tourism Management, 48*, 1–10.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.10.014

Perdue, R. (2003). Stakeholder analysis in Colorado ski resort communities. *Tourism Analysis, 8*(2), 233–236. doi: 10.3727/108354203774076797

Peters, K. (2011). Negotiating the place and placement of banal tourist souvenirs in the home. *Tourism Geographies, 13*(2), 234–256.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2011.569570

Pike, S. (2012). Destination positioning opportunities using personal values: Elicited through the repertory test with laddering analysis. *Tourism Management, 33*(5), 1281–1285.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.02.008

Pine, B, J. & Gilmore, J.H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review, 76*, 97–105.

Quan, S., & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management, 25*(39), 297–305.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(03)00130-4

Ramsay, N. (2009). Taking-place: Refracted enchantment and the habitual spaces of the tourist souvenir. *Soc. Cult. Geogr., 10* (29), 197–216.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14649360802652111

Rekdal, P.B. (1988). Turismens gjenstander: Et eksempel fra Zambia (Tourism objects: an example from Zambia). In J.K.S. Jacobsen (Ed.), *Friheten i det Fjerne (The Freedom Afar Off)* (pp. 145–155). The Nordic Summer University, Aalborg.

Revilla, G., & Dodd, T.H. (2003). Authenticity perceptions of Talavera pottery. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(1), 94–99. doi: 10.1177/0047287503253906

Rook, D., & Fisher, R. (1995). Normative influences on impulse buying behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research, 22*(3), 305–313. doi: 10.1086/209452

Shenhav-Keller, S. (1993). The Israeli souvenir: Its text and context. *Annals of Tourism Research, 20*(1), 182–196.
doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(93)90117-L

Sirgy, M. J., Kruger, P. S., Lee, D.-J., & Yu, G. B. (2011). How does a travel trip affect tourists' life satisfaction? *Journal of Travel Research, 50*, 261–275.
doi: 10.1177/0047287510362784

Slaybaugh, J., Littrell, M. A., & Farrell-Beck, J. (1990). Consumers of Hmong textiles. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 8*(2), 56–64.
doi: 10.1177/0887302X9000800208

Smith, W. W., Pitts, R. E., & Litvin, S. W. (2012). Travel and leisure activity participation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*, 2207–2210.
doi:10.1016/j.annals.2012.07.008

Som, A.P.M., Marzuki, M., Yousefi, M., & AbuKhalifeh, A.N. (2012). Factors influencing visitors' revisit behavioral intentions: A case study of Sabah, Malaysia. *International Journal of Marketing Studies, 4*(4), 39–50.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ijms.v4n4p39

Sthapit, E. (2017). Exploring tourists' memorable food experiences: A study of visitors to Santa's official hometown. *Anatolia* (ahead of print).
doi: 10.1080/13032917.2017.1328607

Sthapit, E., & Björk, P. (2017): Activity participation home and away: Examining the spillover theory among families on holiday. *Anatolia, 28*(2), 209–223.
doi: 10.1080/13032917.2017.1311272

Sthapit, E., & Coudounaris, D. (2017). Memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and outcomes, *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 1–23.doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2017.1287003

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Swanson, K. K., & Horridge, P.E. (2006). Travel motivations as souvenir purchase indicators. *Tourism Management, 127*, 671–683.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.03.001

Swanson, K. K., & Timothy, D.J. (2012). Souvenirs: Icons of meaning, commercialization and commoditization. *Tourism Management, 33*(3), 489–499. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.10.007

Thompson, F., Hannam, K., & Petrie, K. (2012). Producing ceramic art works through tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(1), 336–360.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.06.006

Timothy, D. J. (2005). *Shopping tourism, retailing and leisure*. Clevedon: Channel View.

Tolia-Kelly, D. (2004). Locating processes of identification: Studying the precipates of re-memory through artifacts in the British Asian home. *Trans. Inst. Br. Geogr, 29*(3), 314–329.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.0020-2754.2004.00303.x

Torabian, P., & Arai, S.M. (2016). Tourist perceptions of souvenir authenticity: An exploration of selective tourist blogs. *Current Issues in Tourism, 19*(7), 697–712.doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.820259

Trinh, T.T., Ryan, C., & Cave, J. (2014). Souvenir sellers and perceptions of authenticity: The retailers of Hội An, Vietnam. *Tourism Management, 45*, 275–283.doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.05.005

Tsai, C. (2016). Memorable tourist experiences and place attachment when consuming local food. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 536–548.
doi: 10.1002/jtr.2070

Tung, V. W. S., Ritchie, J. (2011). Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research, 38*, 1367–1386.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.03.009

Turner, L., & Reisinger, Y. (2001). Shopping satisfaction for domestic tourists. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 8*, 15–27.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0969-6989(00)00005-9

Um, S., Chon, K., & Ro, Y. (2006). Antecedents of revisit intention. *Annals of Tourism Research, 33*(4), 1141–1158.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2006.06.003

Urry, J. (2002). *The Tourist Gaze*. London: Sage.

Visit Finland. (2017). Tourism statistics.
http://www.visitfinland.com/traveltrade/tourism-statistics/ (Accessed January 5, 2017).

Wahlers, R. G., & Etzel, M. J. (1985). Vacation preference as a manifestation of optimal stimulation and lifestyle experience. *Journal of Leisure Research, 17*(4), 283–295.

Wilkins, H. (2011). Souvenirs: what and why we buy. *Journal of Travel Research, 50*(3), 239–247.doi: 10.1177/0047287510362782

Woodside, A.G., & Martin, D. (2008). Applying ecological systems and micro-tipping point theory for understanding tourists' leisure destination behavior. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(1), 14–24.doi: 10.1177/0047287507312432

Wu, M.-Y., Wall, G., & Pearce, P. (2014). Shopping experiences: International tourists in Beijing's silk market. *Tourism Management, 41*, 96–106. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.09.010

Xu, Y., & McGehee, N. G. (2012). Shopping behavior of Chinese tourists visiting the United States: Letting the shoppers do the talking. *Tourism Management, 33*(2), 427–430.

Yin, R.K. (1989). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. London: Sage.

Yoon, Y-S., Lee, J-S., & Lee, C-K. (2012). Measuring festival quality and value affecting visitors' satisfaction and loyalty using a structural approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 29*, 335–342. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2009.10.002

Yuksel, A., & Yuksel, F. (2007). Shopping risk perceptions: effects on tourists' emotions, satisfaction and expressed loyalty intentions. *Tourism Management, 28*(3), 703–713.doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2006.04.025

Zauberman, G., Ratner, R.K., & Kim, B.K. (2009). Memories as assets: Strategic memory protection in choice over time. *Journal of Consumer Research, 35*(5), 715–728.doi: https://doi.org/10.1086/592943