TOURIST EXPERIENCES AND WORD-OF-MOUTH: THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF
MEMORY

by

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B.S., Hanyang University, 2006
M.S., Hanyang University, 2008

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Hospitality Management
College of Human Ecology

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2016

Abstract

Offering memorable experiences to customers is an effective marketing strategy in hospitality and tourism. However, the effects of memorable experiences have remained largely unexamined. Two research models were proposed through a literature review to present the antecedents that effectively lead to memorizing travel experiences. Since researchers in customer service management have recently claimed the significance of creating good memories related to consumption experiences, this study developed the discussion on links among the antecedents and memory and hypothesized the sequential relationships among the constructs.

Study 1 examined the relationships between antecedents (experience quality, hedonic value, utilitarian value, and satisfaction) and post-experience memory in cruise tourism. Using an online survey, 375 vacationers who traveled on an ocean cruise ship were recruited. Structure Equation Modeling showed that the experience quality of cruise travel consisting of seven experience dimensions had a positive influence on helping memory formation through hedonic value and utilitarian value. The results underscored the critical effect of memory on word-of-mouth. This study documented that hedonic value driven by travel experience quality had a more important role in delivering the effect to memory than utilitarian value. However, in the research model of study 1, satisfaction was not connected to memory. Mediation effect analysis individually tested the partial mediating role of memory in the relationship between hedonic value/utilitarian value/satisfaction and word-of-mouth.

Study 2 examined the effects of emotions on memory, particularly the potential moderating effect of arousal on the relationship between valence and memory. This study not only proposed the direct influence of arousal and valence on memory, but also hypothesized the quasi-moderating effect of arousal in amplifying the influence of valence on increasing memory.

The results of hierarchical regression analysis using the dataset of 375 samples presented the direct relationships between arousal/valence and memory were shown although the hypothesis regarding the moderating role of arousal was rejected. Two emotional dimensions (arousal and valence) were found to be significant predictors of increased memory quality, but the moderating effect of arousal was not supported. Based on the findings of this study, practical implications for the tourism industry are provided, along with future research ideas.

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ProQuest 10161492

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Acknowledgement

This doctoral dissertation was among the most challenging projects in my life and was possible due to the contributions of many people.

First, I wish to thank my wonderful advisors, Dr. Rebecca Gould and Dr. Chihyung "Michael" Ok. Dr. Gould has guided me through all steps of constructing research ideas and writing a manuscript. I truly appreciate her support and encouragement. Dr. Ok has provided academic and financial support since 2011 when I started as a research assistant at Kansas State University. I hope to continue working and researching with both of my mentors. I also thank my committee members, Dr. Deborah Canter and Dr. Patrick Knight. Thank you to Dr. Ted Cable for serving as outside chair. You all have given me meaningful support throughout this research. I appreciate you all for your commitment to this project.

Thanks to God. With His blessing, I was able to finish this dissertation. Also, a special thanks to my family. With the support of my beloved wife (Sunjung You) and my sons (Woneui "Daniel", Keonyoung "Matthew", and Sewon "John"), I found many moments to treasure during this long journey. I am grateful to my parents (Jeongoh Park and Woosoon Lim) and parents-in-law (Jeongwoong You and Gapsoon Lee) who have encouraged me throughout my life and plan. This research is dedicated to them. I love all of you.

I would like to express my appreciation to many friends and colleagues who have helped me complete this dissertation: K-State HMD professors and graduate students, Dr. Kwangsoo Park (North Dakota State University); Wonsup Jung, Pastor; Ray Kim, Pastor; and Dr. Christine Opatrny (University of Central Missouri).

The journey was most enjoyable because of the priceless support and guidance from these people.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Creating and offering a memorable customer experience has become a critical part of service management in the hospitality and tourism management market (Andersson, 2007; Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2010; Otto & Ritchie, 1996; Pine & Gilmore, 1998, 1999; Ritchie & Hudson, 2009; Schmitt, 1999; Scott, Laws, & Boksberger, 2009; Uriely, 2005). Due to intense competition in the hospitality and tourism industry, service providers must differentiate themselves with themes or services (Gilmore & Pine, 2002). Researchers have developed a new theory that the provision of a memorable event is an offering distinct from other products or services and is an effective approach to create added value in customer experience.

The emerging movement to create memorable experiences has arisen from changing perspectives on current customers' consumption desires. Traditionally, most studies on customer behavior have focused on various aspects of rational decision making in purchasing and evaluation of consumption (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook, 2006). However, many researchers investigating the characteristics of customer experience have emphasized the need to better understand the affective side of customer consumption experiences (Rust & Oliver, 2000; Swinyard, 1993; Torres & Kline, 2006; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Zins, 2002). The emotional benefits (i.e., pleasant or delightful experiences) related to a product or service are important motivators in purchase decisions and can result in positive outcomes such as satisfaction and repurchase intention. This theory is applicable to hospitality and tourism settings because travelers seek hedonic experiences, such as pleasure, refreshment, and relaxation. To date, the discussion of customer experience has explored both types of characteristics (i.e., the cognitive and affective aspects) of customer experience to examine the experience dimension and its

effects on service management outcomes (e.g., Chen & Chen, 2010; Manthiou, Lee, Tang, & Chiang, 2014; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007).

The increasing number of search results customer experience in Google Scholar demonstrates the increasing interest in the topic. A search of research related to customer experience in tourism using the keyword "tourism experience" returned approximately 22,300 (1985–1994), 184,000 (1995–2004), and 324,000 (2005–2014) hits. This enormous growth in the body of literature on customer experience has contributed to the proposal of new research questions and solutions based on the application of relevant theories and research frameworks (Ritchie & Hudson, 2009).

Value creation through customer experience is a key topic in customer experience management (Gentile, Spiller, & Noci, 2007; Helkkula, Kelleher, & Pihlström, 2012; Nasution & Mavondo, 2008). This idea has evolved into the discussion of the added value in the real economy contributed by new offerings of customer experience. Pine and Gilmore (1998) proposed a fourth economic sector, the experience economy, in addition to the raw materials, manufacturing, and service sectors. Citing successful cases in the experience economy (e.g., Disneyland, Starbucks), Pine and Gilmore (1998) claimed that customer experience management provides distinct offerings (e.g., excellent interactive services, a unique atmosphere) and is more effective at creating added value than the three traditional economic sectors. This idea has been widely accepted and applied in diverse settings by researchers (Gentile et al., 2007; Schmitt, 1999; Williams, 2006). Schmitt (1999) developed strategic experiential modules that can be implemented to provide customers with pleasurable sensory, affective, creative, physical, and social-identity experiences. Zomerdijk and Voss (2010) proposed experience-centric services,

which are aimed at delivering memorable experiences to customers. The studies have identified factors which lead to pleasurable or memorable customer experience in the service industry.

A research stream has sought to identify dimensions of customer experience to provide researchers and practitioners with a better understanding of the major domains of customer experience. Pine and Gilmore (1999), who initiated this discussion, identified four dimensions of experiences: education, entertainment, escapism, and esthetics. Many researchers have applied measurements of these four dimensions to hospitality or tourism settings (e.g., Hosany & Witham, 2010; Manthiou et al., 2014; Oh et al., 2007). Scholars have insisted that identification of experience types should take into consideration the characteristics of different services and customers. In consumption experiences, individuals have not only multiple needs and wants but also various expectations. Researchers have proposed several experience dimension models. For example, Kim et al. (2010) proposed a scale with seven dimensions to evaluate memorable tourism experiences. Knutson, Beck, Kim, and Cha (2009) assessed hotel guest–experience through the dimensions of the environment, accessibility, driving benefit, and incentives. These proposed instruments in hospitality and tourism research have adequately represented the dimensions of customer experience and demonstrated their predictive validity for desirable outcomes of experience management, such as perceived value, satisfaction, and repurchase intention (Chen & Chen, 2010; Kim, 2010; Tian-Cole & Scott, 2004).

In customer behavior and experience research, a holistic view of cognitive and affective aspects is necessary to better understand customer perception and evaluation (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Although most research has tended to focus on the cognitive aspects of customer behaviors (Oliver, 2010; Schmitt, 1999), researchers have more recently acknowledged emotional expressions during or

after consumption, such as fun, delight, pleasure, or arousal, as significant outcomes of experiences (e.g., Bello & Etzel, 1985; Swinyard, 1993; Williams, 2006; Zins, 2002). The effects of emotional and rational perceptions on satisfaction have been widely examined and found to be desirable outcomes in service management. For example, positive satisfaction is strongly associated with future behaviors, such as word-of-mouth (WOM) and loyalty (Oliver, 2010).

Customer experience management has become an important concept because travelers' memories are an important outcome variable of interest influenced by their affective experiences (Kim, 2010; Manthiou et al., 2014; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Many companies in the service industry have applied customer experience management to develop critical moments or memorable experiences. The hospitality and tourism industry is an especially good setting for these efforts because it offers guests and travelers intangibles, such as memorable experiences. For instance, many chain-brand hotels, such as the Ritz-Carlton and W Hotel, emphasize in their mission statements the provision of memorable experiences as an important service commitment to guests. Among industry trends, an understanding of how experience management enhances customer memory is seen as important to improving the development and delivery of appropriate services for customers. Recent researchers have paid attention to the effect of experience quality on improving memory and its relationships with well-known management outcomes, such as satisfaction and loyalty (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Kim, 2014; Manthiou et al., 2014; Oh et al., 2007). Most research has addressed significant relationships between customer experience and memory and contributed to the development of customer experience management in hospitality and tourism.

Many existing studies examining factors that increase customer memory have focused on the influence of affective stimuli at an event or subject (Bradley, Greenwald, Petry, & Lang,

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1992; Christianson & Loftus, 1987; Lynch Jr & Srull, 1982). Researchers have analyzed diverse factors affecting memory processes, including emotion and mood (e.g., Bower, 1981; Mickley Steinmetz, Schmidt, Zucker, & Kensinger, 2012), attention (e.g., Christianson & Loftus, 1987; Lynch Jr & Srull, 1982), and information (e.g., Rubin & Kozin, 1984). Based on experiments with pictures and videos, it has been argued that emotional dimensions, such as arousal (strength of emotion) and valence (pleasant or unpleasant emotions), significantly influence the ability to remember an event for a long time or more accurately. These findings have contributed to investigations of customer experience and memorization processes for products and brands. In customer service management research, attentional emotions evoked by consumption experiences have been reported to influence the vividness of memory (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999; Bigné, Mattila, & Andreu, 2008; Han, Lerner, & Keltner, 2007; Lynch Jr & Srull, 1982; Mattila, 2001). Researchers have supported the claim that the creation of pleasantly surprising experiences is a significant practice for offering memorable experiences.

Cognitive information, such as important knowledge or images of events, is also an effective resource in memorization processes, such as the learning process in education (Conway, 2003; Rubin & Kozin, 1984; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). The present study, therefore, pays attention to the effects of cognitive, as well as emotional, perceptions on customer experience. The effort to identify influences on memory is related to the debate on the cognitive and affective aspects of customer experience (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Hirshman and Holbrook claimed that "sensory-emotive stimulation seeking and cognitive information seeking" (p. 95) are important dimensions of customer experience. Researchers have emphasized the importance of both utilitarian and hedonic aspects in customers' perceptions of value (e.g., Babin

et al., 1994; Batra & Ahtola, 1991). The body of evidence stresses the need for a holistic view of customer experience and judgments in marketing (Schmitt, 1999).

Customer memory is not only a significant outcome of experiences but also a critical factor affecting customer behaviors (Bettman, 1979; Fitzgerald, 1988). Among post-consumption behaviors, WOM has been identified as an especially important marketing tool to transfer a story from one customer to another (Anderson, 1998; Brown, Barry, Dacin, & Gunst, 2005; Engel, Kegerreis, & Blackwell, 1969). In tourism, recommendations from others (e.g., family, friends, online reviews) are a major information source in travelers' decision making. Customers' memories of their experiences are an important source in WOM communication (e.g., recommendations) or narratives of experiences (Delgadillo & Escalas, 2004). In particular, the vividness of memories determines the quality of narrative and WOM behaviors. Research on the vividness of memory has been conducted to document its relationships with travel experiences (Kim, 2010), emotional stimuli (Kensinger & Corkin, 2003), and loyalty (Manthiou et al., 2014). Considering the limited studies on the relationship between memory and WOM, this research explores the possible effects of memory on increasing WOM.

Statement of the Problem

Despite the contributions of previous research on travel experiences, satisfaction, memory, and WOM, several areas of research remain unsolved. The first is related to the lack of field research on memory as an outcome of travel experiences (i.e., perceived quality of experiences). Most research on cruise tourism has investigated cruise product and service types (Petrick, Tonner, & Quinn, 2006; Swain & Barth, 2002; Zhang, Ye, Song, & Liu, 2015) and examined the relationships among service quality, value, and satisfaction (Chua, Lee, Goh, & Han, 2015; Petrick, 2004). This study seeks to contribute to understanding the broader post-

experience consequences beyond the widely known sequence of quality–value–satisfaction in service management (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000).

Existing research has noted that customers regard critical experiences as having value worth paying for (Andersson, 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). In the context of designing and delivering memorable experiences, the link between memory and travelers' perceptions of value is a significant outcome, as proposed. Research has found that customers perceive rational and emotional values during and after consumption experiences (e.g., Babin et al., 1994; Gursoy, Spangenberg, & Rutherford, 2006); therefore, it is relevant to study the effects of hedonic and utilitarian value perception on memory.

The third area of inquiry is related to the limited knowledge of the effects of memory on WOM behaviors. Although WOM is recognized as a desirable outcome from marketing practices, previous research has heavily relied on satisfaction as the most important driver of WOM (e.g., Anderson, 1998; Berger & Schwartz, 2011; Trusov, Bucklin, & Pauwels, 2009; Zhang et al., 2015). Therefore, this study examines the effect of a different antecedent (memory) on WOM. For example, travelers with rich, vivid memories of previous experiences might tell others more detailed stories. This hypothesis seems to be supported by existing research on narrative WOM communication (e.g., Delgadillo & Escalas, 2004). However, little attention has been paid to the relationship between memory and WOM in hospitality and tourism studies. This topic is timely due to the demand to provide additional evidence allowing researchers and marketers to justify the importance of creating memorable experiences.

The fourth issue this study addresses is the need to understand how the emotional states evoked by travel experiences, such as arousal and valence, affect the quality of memories of these moments. Cognitive psychology research has emphasized the power of arousal and valence

to improve memory (e.g., Christianson & Loftus, 1987; Jeong & Biocca, 2012; Libkuman, Stabler, & Otani, 2004). Although this relationship has been tested in various experiments involving pictures and movies in the research field, hospitality and tourism research has ignored the possible connections between the affective dimensions and vividness of memory. To gain deeper understanding, this study explores the role of arousal in increasing the effect of emotional valence on memory in the setting of cruise travel experiences.

Additionally, more adequate experience dimensions in cruise tourism are needed to measure the quality of travel experiences because researchers have proposed diverse measurements. Researchers have developed various experience dimension frameworks. For example, the four experience dimensions of the experience economy (education, esthetics, escapism, and entertainment) assess general consumption experiences and hospitality and tourism events, including cruise travel experiences (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Oh et al., 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1999). As well, the seven dimensions of memorable tourism experiences focus on components of travel experiences, such as novelty, culture, involvement, and refreshments (Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Kim et al., 2010). Considering the various types of experiences (e.g., exotic foods and beverages, sensory experiences, recreational activities, a voyage to new destinations), appropriate experience types for cruise travel are developed in this study to measure the quality of travel experiences.

Purposes and Objectives

The purpose of this research is to understand cruise travelers' post-travel experience processes by examining the relationships among cruise-experience quality, cognitive and affective perceived value, satisfaction, memory, and WOM intention. This research is also aimed

at validating the effect of arousal in enhancing the relationship between emotional valence and memory. The specific objectives of this research are to:

- test the sequential relationships among the quality, perceived value, satisfaction, and memory of cruise travel experiences
- assess the mediating effect of utilitarian and hedonic value in increasing the vividness of memory
- examine the relationship between memory and WOM
- explore the moderating effect of arousal evoked by cruise travel experiences in the influence of emotional valence on memory

Research Model and Hypotheses

The following conceptual model based on the literature review presents the relationships studied in this research in a cruise travel setting. The first research model is designed to examine the sequential relationships among the quality, utilitarian/hedonic perceived value, satisfaction, vivid memories, and WOM of cruise travel experiences. The second research model is proposed to examine the moderating effect of arousal on the relationship between valence and travelers' memories of cruise travel experiences.

Figure 1.1 Proposed Research Model #1
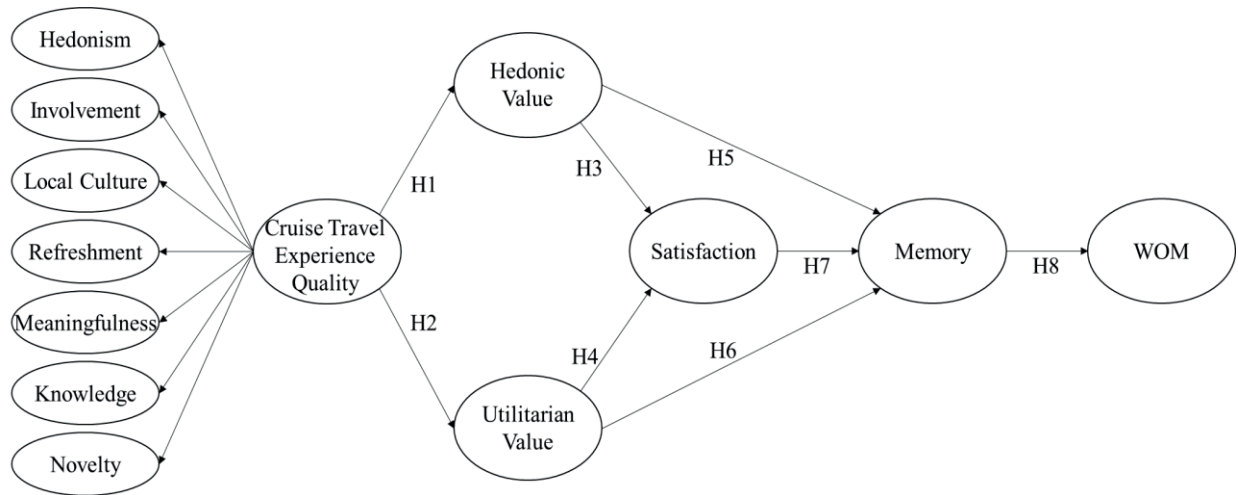
Figure 1.2 Proposed Research Model #2
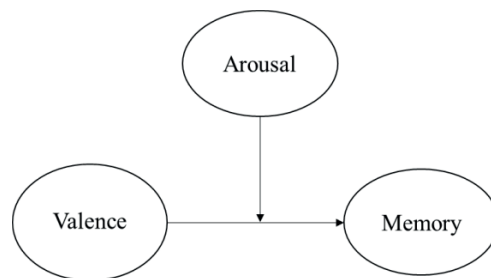
Significance of the Study

This study seeks to develop effective tourism marketing and management methods to create memorable experiences by testing constructs associated with customer experience and memory. This study makes three theoretical and practical contributions. First, this study informs hospitality and tourism researchers about the important role of memory in experience management and marketing by proving that memory exerts a mediating effect between experience quality and WOM. The research outcomes provide evidence of why businesses

should provide customers with memorable experiences. The results are useful to develop theoretical implications regarding customer memory and antecedents of WOM.

The second contribution of this research concerns the antecedents influencing memory. This study proposes that the cruise travel experience dimensions of utilitarian and hedonic value and satisfaction play a significant role in increasing the vividness of memory. This paper discusses the most effect cognitive (i.e., utilitarian value) and affective (i.e., hedonic value) routes to facilitate memory formation by travelers. Additionally, the second research model identifies effective ways to create arousal or pleasant stimuli that increase the vividness of memories of experiences (A in Figure 1.3). The outcomes can stimulate meaningful discussion among practitioners about developing experiential services, designing products and programs to offer memorable experiences, and utilizing influential antecedents to formulate marketing practices that increase WOM effects by travelers (B in Figure 1.3).

Figure 1.3 Research Framework

▲ A: Creating memorable experiences

▲ B: Benefits of creating memorable experience for marketing practices
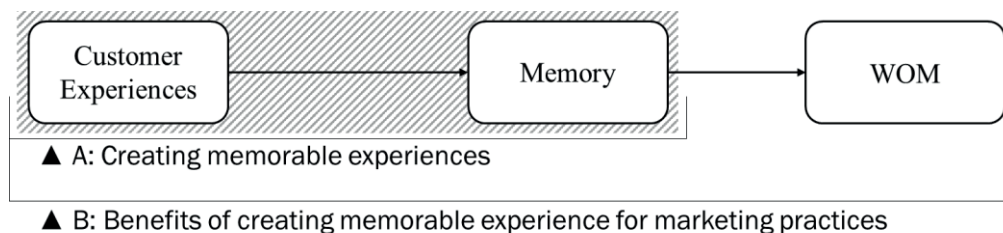
Limitation of the Study

This study also has several limitations. First, the use of an online survey restricts access to participation. However, an online survey could reach diverse populations throughout the United States and increase the generalizability of the results. Second, cruise travel experiences

may differ by travel purpose (e.g., business, conference, vacation), personality, and demographics. Although the study sample was limited to vacationers, the relationships among experience quality, perceived value, satisfaction, emotion, memory, and WOM could be influenced by differences in personality, demographics (e.g., age), and traveler type (e.g., honeymooners, families with children). Follow-up studies are necessary to reveal the intervention effects in the research models.

Due to these limitations, care was taken in interpreting and generalizing the study outcomes for cruise tourism settings. Despite these limitations, the findings can play an important role in improving understanding of the effects of memory on travel experiences and WOM and can point to future research topics to overcome the limitations of this research.

Definition of Terms

- Customer experience: An event in consumption perceived as memorable by a customer (Pine & Gilmore, 1998); hedonic, symbolic, and entertaining moments during consumption (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982)

- Experience quality: A customer's subjective response to the overall quality of an experience (Chen & Chen, 2010; Zeithaml, 1988)

- Utilitarian value: A cognitive or functional perceived benefit based on the comparison of quality and price after a consumption process (Sanchez, Callarisa, Rodriguez, & Moliner, 2006)

- Hedonic value: A subjective perceived benefit derived from multisensory, fantasy, and emotional experiences during consumption (Babin et al., 1994; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982)

- Memory: A clear, vivid, lifelike autobiographical memory (Rubin & Kozin, 1984)

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- Arousal: A level of emotional activation, ranging from emotional inactivity to surprise (Russell, 1980)

- Valance: An emotional state vacillating or ranging from pleasant to unpleasant (Russell, 1980)

- Word-of-mouth: Communication among individuals of their stories and evaluations of products, services, brands, or consumption experiences (Anderson, 1998; Oliver, 2010)

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Chapter 2 - Literature Review

This chapter describes the concepts and characteristics of the theoretical constructs applied in this research. Based on the existing literature on customer experience and diverse outcomes of memorable experiences in hospitality and tourism research and other relevant disciplines, this study develops and proposes a number of hypotheses to achieve the research objectives. This chapter reviews the literature on the quality of customer and traveler experiences, (utilitarian and hedonic) value perception, satisfaction, memory, word-of-mouth (WOM), and the emotional dimensions of arousal and valence. In addition, the dimensions of cruise travel experiences created by products, services, environments, and interactions with service personnel are discussed.

Customer Experience in Hospitality and Tourism

Definition of Customer Experience

Customer experience is a customer's internal, subjective, or reaction to a company's product, service, or brand (Meyer & Schwager, 2007). However, describing what a customer experience is not simple due to its complex formation processes and other related attributes (Palmer, 2010). Knutson, Beck, Kim, and Cha (2007) acknowledged the difficulty of defining customer experience, in which "experience is an elusive and indistinct notion" (p. 33). To understand what customer experience is, multiple aspects of what a customer possesses have been discussed. Referring to dictionary definitions, Palmer (2010) contended that there are two views of customer experience: 1) a cognitive definition, which is the accumulation of knowledge or skills through participation in an event; and 2) an affective definition, which is the feeling of an emotion or involvement in an event.

In current consumer and service management studies, researchers have paid attention primarily to the emotional aspect of customer experience. The traditional perspectives of customer decision making and consumption behaviors have emphasized the importance of cognitive aspect in consumption (Holbrook & Hirshman, 1982). Traditional service management has mainly developed approaches to delivering high-quality products and services to increase customer satisfaction and loyalty based on the assumption that customers are rational beings (e.g., Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985; Petermans, Van Cleempoel, Nuyts, & Vanrie, 2009; Taylor & Baker, 1994; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). However, Holbrook and Hirshman (1982) and other researchers have proposed the existence of a subjective or affective dimension of consumption and defined customer experience as hedonic, symbolic, and entertaining value during consumption. This perspective is different from the previous understanding of customer experience as a concept integrated with cognitive behaviors (Holbrook, Chestnut, Oliva, & Greenleaf, 1984). Other researchers have supported the new perspective, contending that contemporary customers want more to have a pleasant feeling than to be satisfied in and after service encounters and experiences (Ball, Coelho, & Vilares, 2006; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007; Oliver, Rust, & Varki, 1997; Pine & Gilmore, 1998).

Beyond creating an emotional experience, several researchers have emphasized the necessity of providing unforgettable events to customers. Pine and Gilmore (1998) defined customer experience as a memorable event during consumption and as a new offering different than traditional ones, such as products and services. During experiential consumption, customers undergo various feelings or emotions, such as fun and excitement, evoked by subconscious cognitive events, including the fantasies and themes of experience settings (Barsky & Nash, 2002; Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Williams, 2006). Offering unique

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moods and positive emotional experiences has become an effective differentiator (Palmer, 2010). Oliver et al. (1997) agreed that making customers delighted, in addition to providing quality service, has become an urgent goal of businesses seeking to improve profits, as well as customer loyalty. Other researchers have further demonstrated the significant effects of creating distinctive customer experiences on new value creation (Mathwick, Malhotra, & Rigdon, 2001; Verhoef et al., 2009).

Diverse aspects or constructs have been integrated into the literature on customer experience. Earlier, Holbrook and Hirshman (1982) proposed the consumption process paradigm, which takes a holistic perspective of information processing (i.e., cognitive) and experiential (i.e., affective) views. In information processing, companies provide customers with products or services primarily through verbal information, and customers spend money to solve problems, fulfill needs, or acquire information. Customer beliefs and attitudes which are affected by cognition, such as knowledge, memory, and protocols, determine consumption decision. In contrast, the experiential view focuses on customers' affective states. Companies offer hedonic, entertaining, and symbolic events to customers, who want to be involved in the experiences. Holbrook and Hirshman (1982) claimed that balancing the cognitive and affective aspects is necessary to investigate the process of customer experiences.

Berry, Carbone, and Haeckel (2002) described customer experience as related not only to functional attributes like products and services but also to emotions and sensory stimuli evoked by interactions with products, environments, and humans. Schmitt (1999) proposed five types of customer experience that should be considered when developing experiential marketing strategies. The strategic experiential modules were designed to create pleasurable sensory, affective, creative, cognitive, physical, behavioral, lifestyle, and social-identity experiences.

Gentile, Spiller, and Noci (2007) pointed to the "evolution of the concept of relationship between the company and the customer" (p. 397) and emphasized that customer experience has multi-dimensional factors formed by interactions between customers and companies. Gentile et al. (2007) stressed that effective experience management needs to consider both "hedonic/experiential value" and "utilitarian/functional value" (p. 405).

Value Creation: The Experience Economy

Abbott (1955) stated that "what people really desire are not products but satisfying experiences" (as cited in Holbrook, 2006). This statement implies that customer consumption experiences are the primary outcomes of consumption activities. In a series of articles and a book, Pine and Gilmore (1998, 1999, 2002) introduced the concept of the experience economy and presented many cases of the successful use of customer experience management and marketing concepts (e.g., Disney, Starbucks). This new term has been widely referenced by other researchers, and creating customer experiences or memorable events for customers has emerged as a strategy to acquire more loyal customers and increase profits (Andersson, 2007; Baum, 2006; Schmitt, 1999). As service providers have faced steep competition in the market, differentiating products and services by adding experiential value has been regarded as an attractive strategy (Berry, et al., 2002).

Thus, value creation is the most important issue in the discussion of the experience economy (Gentile et al., 2007; Knutson et al., 2007; Williams, 2006; Zomerdijk & Voss, 2010). The experience economy is a fourth economic sector, in addition to commodities, goods, and services, and offers customers unique experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, 1999). The value of goods and services has been commoditized due to increasing competition, so high service quality alone cannot stand as a clear differentiator and create high added value. In addition, existing

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customers' expectations have increased as service providers have improved quality. Creating experiential events that provide hedonic, symbolic, and entertaining value beyond appropriate services is an effective strategy to differentiate a business from its competitors (Holbrook & Hirshman, 1982). For example, the price of a cup of coffee at Starbucks includes several economic values. Water and the raw coffee beans are the first stage (commodities), and roasted coffee beans are goods sold to a customer (goods). Delivering a cup of coffee to a customer composes the service stage (service). Overall, Starbucks has achieved success by providing customers a unique atmosphere, personalized experiences, and friendly interactions with staff.

Researchers have also argued that service providers can generate new value by offering personalized and engaged experiences (Mittal & Lassar, 1996; Verhoef, Antonides, & de Hoog, 2004). Johnston and Kong (2011) explained that service providers need to focus on improving customer encounters while delivering products or services. Well-staged encounters and personalized interactions can be effective at shifting the focus of customer perceptions from service quality to experience quality.

Many suggestions to create superior customer experiences have been offered (e.g., Baum, 2006; Bitner, 1992; Gilmore & Pine, 2002; Mathwick et al., 2001; Schmitt, 1999; Swinyard, 1993). Notably, researchers have emphasized the importance of developing and controlling flow in service encounters and interactions between service personnel and customers. Recently, many researchers have participated in the discussion on designing services and customer experiences (e.g., Hsieh and Yuan, 2010; Pullman and Gross, 2004). The concepts developed integrate diverse elements of customer experiences, such as fulfilling customers' desires and needs, evoking emotional responses, and obtaining positive and affective judgment of services and experiences. The outcomes of these efforts are, for example, better WOM effects and customer

loyalty. Researchers have claimed that service providers need to provide extraordinary, optimal experiences to achieve successful customer experience design. Another issue in discussions of customer experience management is the importance of service encounters. In the context of customer experience management, service encounters should not only deliver appropriate products or services but also adapt the services based on the customer interaction (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). To encourage customers to join in human interactions, managers need to be aware of what customers regard as pleasant engagement (Palmer, 2010).

It is important to understand the specific multidimensional customer experiences involved in various types of services in different industries and to include them in designing and offering excellent customer experiences. A unique service environment or atmosphere is especially critical. The concept of servicescape proposed by Bitner (1992), which holds that environmental factors (e.g., an interior, exterior, layout) significantly affect customer perceptions and experiences, serves as a useful framework for incorporating relevant attributes into a unique or authentic service setting. Doing so can help differentiate the theme of a service or a place. A company or a destination marketing organization must design and offer authentic or staged experiences to visitors. In addition, customers' various perceptions or senses are an important consideration in creating customer experiences (Berry et al., 2002). For instance, some companies (e.g., Starbucks, Disneyland) are well known as successful cases of applying customer experience management which involves in consumption various perceptions or senses, such as entertainment, uniqueness, and authenticity.

To gain a deeper understanding of what customer experience and the experience economy are, researchers have proposed diverse notions, such as experiential marketing (e.g., en Haeckel, Carbone, & Berry, 2003; Patterson & Pegg, 2009; Schmitt, 1999), customer experience

management (e.g., Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2007; Kuntson et al., 2009; Verhoef at al., 2009), and customer experience design (e.g., Johnston & Kong, 2011; Teixeira et al., 2012; Zomerdijk & Voss, 2010). The purpose of experiential marketing is to design environments that provide pleasant, surprising experiences and lead to positive outcomes, including brand preference and loyalty (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Mano & Oliver, 1993). Six principles suggested by Petermans et al. (2009) contribute to understanding appropriate experiential marketing and management tactics to create new experience values in the service industry. First, consumption experiences should be memorable; second, experiences provide customers with a theme; third, negative factors influencing experiences should be eliminated; fourth, experiences need to evoke customers' senses; fifth, experiences are personalized offerings of interactions between a customer and an organized event; and finally, experiences must be worth their price.

The hospitality and tourism industry is well suited for discussing experience marketing and management because intangible and experiential services are significant, fundamental factors in generating pleasure for tourists (Cohen, 1988; Hull, Stewart, & Yi, 1992; Mitchell & Mitchell, 2001; Oh et al., 2007; Otto & Ritchie, 1996). Williams (2006) described tourist experiences as events in which participants feel diverse emotions, such as fantasy and fun. For example, tourists describe their experiences according to how they see, feel, think, and learn during the events (Ballantyne, Packer, & Sutherland, 2011). Exploring unique experiences of travelers in wildlife tourism, Ballantyne et al. found that travelers experienced sensory impressions, emotional affinity, reflective responses, and behavioral responses during and after travel. They also revealed that the unique experiences in wildlife tourism effectively resulted in

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positive outcomes, such as learning environmental values and forming vivid memories of experiences (e.g., arousing, amazing, or exciting experiences).

Experience Quality

Quality is defined as superiority or excellence, and perceived quality is a customer's judgment of the overall quality of an object (Oliver, 2010; Zeithaml, 1988). Unlike objective quality, perceived quality is the subjective response of a human to an objective reality, such as a product, service, or experience. Researchers have explored service quality to better understand and measure customers' perception of services. Service quality is evaluated by comparing expected and perceived service (Ladhari, Brun, & Morales, 2008; Stevens, Knutson, & Patton, 1995; Teas, 1993). Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml (1991) developed the SERVQUAL dimensions (tangible, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy) to measure service quality, taking into account the gap between normative expectation and performance.

Chen and Chen (2010) defined experiential quality in tourism services as "the subjective personal reactions and feelings that are felt by consumers when consuming or using a service" (p. 29). To explain the perceived quality of customer experience, Otto and Ritchie (1996) compared the distinctive characteristics of quality of service (QOS) and quality of experience (QOE). QOE deals with the subjective aspects, and QOS the objective aspects of consumption and decision-making processes. QOE assesses customer experience from a holistic perspective, whereas QOS evaluates specific attributes of products or services provided by a company, service provider, or environment. Research on QOE is useful to understand what experiential, hedonic, and symbolic values customers derive from their tourism experiences. QOS, in contrast, focuses on functional and utilitarian values.

While seeking to measure the quality of experiences, hospitality and tourism researchers have contributed to the conceptualization of tourist experience (Cohen, 1988; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987; Uriely, 2005; Wang, 1999). MacCannell (1973) defined tourist experience as a journey to a place possessing authenticity and original cultures, symbols, or lifestyles. Hamilton-Smith (1987) explained that tourism experience can be understood through two approaches: existential reality, which leads to high levels of satisfaction in or involvement by a traveler (an intrinsic aspect), and structural reality, which refers to completing the tasks given by the setting (an extrinsic aspect). Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) proposed multiple methods to understand tourist experience: through discussing travel motives as seeking and escaping and through observing tourist experiences, including perception, emotion, and memory. Hull et al. (1992) suggested that tourism or recreation experiences should be analyzed along the various experience patterns and that the effects of emotional perceptions other than satisfaction on travelers' experiences should be considered.

A series of discussions has shown that tourist experience consists of various aspects, including motivation, perception, theme, authenticity, satisfaction, and memory. Many scholars have contributed to the development of a body of travel experience research (Ritchie & Hudson, 2009). The first issue addressed in hospitality and tourism experience research was the conceptualization of tourist experience. Early studies were aimed at outlining the essence of customer experience. This literature review found that the first research stream demonstrated that tourist experience has multiple dimensions, and every single tourist has different perceptions of experiences, even of the same offerings. The second research stream investigated basic experience-seeking behaviors, such as preferences in travel and leisure experiences. The third research stream discussed methodological issues and categorized research methods in tourism

experience research. The fourth stream studied the nature of tourism experiences at different types of travel destinations. The fifth stream addressed diverse constructs in effective experiential marketing and management and introduced discussions on the experience economy and managerial issues regarding satisfaction, experiential quality, and memorable experiences. Ritchie and Hudson (2009) reported that the most recent research stream seeks to predict the evolution of tourism experience. Future research should adopt a new agenda or angle to investigate tourism experience and expand discussion of it and its effects.

Dimensions of Hospitality and Tourism Experience

Experience types can vary depending on the category of an offering (e.g., tangible products, intangible services, hedonic events). Tourism experiences should be understood and measured with full consideration of the major products, services, atmosphere, and environments of a destination which are driven by the associated theme. Many researchers in the hospitality and tourism field have applied relevant theories and research methods to explore numerous or specific dimensions of different settings: lodging (Gilmore & Pine, 2002; Knutson, Beck, Kim, & Cha, 2009; Oh et al., 2007; Xu & Chan, 2010), food tourism (Mitchell & Mitchell, 2001; Quan & Wang, 2004; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007), cruises (Hosany & Witham, 2010), theme parks (Bigne, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005; Dong & Siu, 2012), museums and heritage destinations (Chen & Chen, 2010; Hayes & MacLeod, 2007; Herbert, 2001; Sheng & Chen, 2012), wildlife tourism (Ballantyne et al., 2011), and events and festivals (Bouchet, Bodet, Bernache-Assollant, & Kada, 2011; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2010; Morgan, 2009). It has also been proposed that special demographic groups, such as young people, gender minorities, and those with disabilities, seek unique travel experiences (Berdychevsky, Poria, & Uriely, 2012; Morgan & Xu, 2009; Poria, 2006; Poria, Reichel, & Brandt, 2011).

Consumer experience studies have suggested several experience dimensions. Pine and Gilmore (1998, 1999) identified four experience realms: education, esthetics, entertainment, and escapism. Schmitt (1999) developed the experiential marketing concept, which holds that the five experiences of sensing, feeling, thinking, acting, and relating are important experience factors that service providers need to offer to customers. Refining these five attributes, Gentile et al. (2007) proposed a multidimensional model of customer experience in which products, services, and brands consist of sensorial, pragmatic, relational, lifestyle, and emotional components. Mathwick et al. (2001) explored customer experience in Internet and catalog shopping and found that four factors (aesthetics, playfulness, service excellence, and customer return on investment) are major dimensions of customer shopping experiences. In the hospitality industry, Hemmington (2007) identified dimensions of hospitality customer experience, including guest relationships, generosity, theatre and performance, many little surprises, safety, and security.

Numerous researchers in hospitality and tourism have investigated and confirmed different dimensions of experience quality based on survey data. Several researchers (e.g., Hosany & Witham, 2010; Manthiou, Lee, Tang, & Chiang, 2014; Oh et al., 2007) adopted four experience realms proposed by Pine and Gilmore (1998, 1999) and tested them in various settings: bed-and-breakfast lodgings, cruise travel, and festivals. Frameworks with other dimensions have been developed, reflecting important characteristics of experiences in distinct settings. Knutson et al. (2009) identified four dimensions of hotel experiences: benefits, convenience, incentives, and environment. Wu and Liang (2009) tested five dimensions of luxury hotel experiences: fair prices, time efficiency, excellent service, aesthetics, and escapism.

Brunner-Sperdin & Peters (2009) categorized factors of hotel experiences as hardware (e.g., interior, scent), humanware (e.g., employees, service delivery), and software (e.g., image, price).

Some researchers have been interested in dining experiences. Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007) analyzed Thai restaurant customers' experiences of authenticity and concluded that environmental, food, and employee concerns were major experience dimensions. Ladhari et al. (2008) focused on the emotional experience during dining and identified two dimensions: positive emotions (e.g., happiness, pleasure) and negative emotions (e.g., anger, boredom). Han and Ryu (2009) studied customer experience related to the environmental features at full-service restaurants and found three dimensions: decor and artifacts, spatial layout, and ambient conditions.

Many researchers have investigated dimensions of travel or customer experience at travel attractions. Otto and Ritchie (1996) found four dimensions in tourism services: hedonism, involvement, recognition, and peace of mind. Kim and Ritchie (2014) and Kim, Ritchie, and McCormick (2010) developed scales of memorable tourism experiences (MTE) using seven dimensions of general travel types: hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, and knowledge. For theme-park experience dimensions, Kao, Huang, and Wu (2008) proposed immersion, surprise, participation, and fun. Tian-Cole and Scott (2004) argued that entertainment, education, and community are major traveler experiences at a zoo. Keng, Huang, Zheng, and Hsu (2007) pointed to personal-interaction and physical-environment encounters as dimensions of shopping experience.
The literature review shows that the customer experience at specific settings consists of different dimensions and combinations of them, even though many researchers have mixed the different constructs of performance quality and experience quality (Tian-Cole & Scott, 2004). Customer

experience in hotels or restaurants is related to performance quality components (e.g., benefits, price, efficiency, convenience, environment) and affective factors (e.g., emotion, aesthetics, escapism). Tourism experience research has proposed that individuals develop different viewpoints based on individual experiences of in traveling, focusing, for example, on hedonism, involvement, knowledge, and novelty. The experience dimensions proposed in the literature are summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Summary of Customer Experience Dimensions Studies

Author (year)	Setting	Dimensions	Items
Otto and Ritchie (1996)	Tourism service	Hedonism	Memorable, likable, thrilling, unique, escaping, adventurous experiences
		Peace of mind	Comfort, safety, relaxation, security, assurance
		Involvement	Involvement, control, education
		Recognition	Seriousness, importance
Tian-Cole and Scott (2004)	Zoo	Entertainment	Fun, interest of effects and animals, beautifulness, feeling like a jungle
		Education	Desire to learn, awareness of environmental problems, interest in saving the environment, expansion of knowledge
		Community	Uniqueness of zoos, positive destination image
Gentile et al. (2007)	Well-known brand products (e.g., bars, McDonald's)	Sensorial	Sound cleanness, sound quality
		Pragmatic	Interface, comfort
		Relational component	Community opportunities
		Sensorial, lifestyle	Design, elegant, material, color, esthetics
		Pragmatic, cognitive, lifestyle	Function, speed, prestige
		Pragmatic, relational, emotional	Carrying ability, fun, entertainment
Keng et al. (2007)	Shopping malls	Personal-interaction	Attention, advice, honesty, solutions for my problems, help, listening, understanding

		(focusing on service encounters)	encounters	
		Physical-environment encounters	Attractiveness of decorations, accessibility, layout, variety of foods, interesting design, entertainment
Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007)	Thai restaurant	Environmental concerns	Uniform, menu language, Thai greeting, music, silverware, exterior, interior
		Food concerns	Authentic ingredient, taste
		Employee concerns	Preparing food, Thai language communication, Thai employees
Kao et al. (2008)	Theme park	Immersion	Involvement, mood, forgetting time
		Surprise	Specialties of shows, freshness of shows, unexpected situations
		Participation	Applause, experiencing all facilities, interaction with animals and expositors
		Fun	Fun, excitement, enjoyment
Ladhari et al. (2008)	Dining experience (focusing on emotions)	Positive emotions	Happiness, pleasure, excitement, contentment, enjoyment
		Negative emotions	Anger, frustration, contempt, boredom, disgust, embarrassment, sadness
Brunner-Sperdin and Peters (2009)	Hotels	Hardware	Interior design, lighting, color, scent, sound
		Humanware	Empathy and expertise of employees, responsiveness, ability to take part in service delivery process
		Software	Composition of guests, hotel image, price–performance ratio
Han and Ryu (2009)	Full-service restaurants (focusing on the environment)	Decor and artifacts	Attractiveness, happiness, appealing, atmosphere
		Spatial layout	Layout, table and seat arrangement, spaciousness and comfort
		Ambient conditions	Light and atmosphere, background music, temperature, aroma
Knutson et al. (2009)	Hotels	Benefits	No surprises, safety, confidence
		Convenience	Lay-out, information, availability of product or service, clutter-free, easiness
		Incentives	Incentive opportunities and offers, price promotions
		Environment	Entertainment, interaction, sensory, stimulation, motivation, fun
Wu and Liang	Luxury	Fair prices	Worth the price, acceptability of price

(2009)	hotel restaurants	Time efficiency	Wasting time, improving quality of life
		Excellent service	Food exquisiteness, service, service quality
		Aesthetics	Delicateness, appeal, atmosphere
		Escapism	Comfort, release, another world, escape. enjoyment
Hosany and Witham (2010); Manthiou et al. (2014); Oh et al. (2007)	Bed-and-breakfast lodgings; cruises; festivals	Education	Knowledge, curiosity, learning
		Esthetics	Sense of harmony, pleasant, blandness, attractiveness
		Entertainment	Amusing, captivating, enjoyment, fun
		Escapism	Different characteristics, different time or place, imagination, escape
Kim and Ritchie (2014); Kim et al. (2010)	Travel	Hedonism	Thrill, indulgence, enjoyment, excitement
		Novelty	Once-in-a lifetime occasions, uniqueness, different experiences, new experiences
		Local culture	Impression of local people, closeness to local culture, friendliness
		Refreshment	Liberating, sense of freedom, refreshment, revitalization
		Meaningfulness	Meaningful experiences, important experiences, learning about myself
		Involvement	Visiting and enjoying my desired place and activities, interests
		Knowledge	Exploratory experience, knowledge, new culture

Cruise Travel Experiences

Based on the arguments made in previous studies, this study investigates major cruise-travel experience dimensions to measure customer experience. For a better understanding of the significant and distinctive characteristics of cruise travel experiences, studies on cruise travelers' motivation and perceptions and the products, services, and experiences of cruise tourism are reviewed.

The Cruise Line Industry and Cruise Travel Products and Services

Cruise line travel is one of the largest segments in the tourism industry and has seen a steep rise in industry revenue and passenger numbers (Petrick, Tonner, & Quinn, 2006; Wood, 2000; Zhang, Ye, Song, & Liu, 2015). The estimated number of passengers was 21.7 million in 2014 and has risen 15.1% in the past five years (Cruise Lines International Association, 2014). The North American sector accounts for 55.1% of the global market, followed by the Caribbean (37.3%) and Alaska (4.5%). The cruise ship industry in the United States employs 356,000 people and generates a huge economic impact of $42 billion through related industries, such as ports, destinations, and other suppliers. Due to the increasing popularity of cruise tourism, the competition level in the market has escalated (Zhang et al., 2015). In 2014, the industry had 410 cruise ships and 467,629 beds, with 20 new ships and approximately 52,000 beds expected to be built by 2018 (Cruise Lines International Association, 2014).

The cruise industry has developed many tourism and hospitality-related experiential services (Hall & Braithwaite, 1990; Kester, 2003; Zhang et al., 2015), as well as transportation services (Lois, Wang, Wall, & Ruxton, 2004). Teye and Leclerc (1998) described cruise products and services delivery components, including cabin services, dining room services, ship cleanliness, cruise staff, and entertainment. Petrick et al. (2006) listed similar items, such as staff, services, entertainment, ship facilities, prices, ports, and children's services. Zhang et al. (2015) outlined cruise products and services, such as shore excursions, dining, prices, spas, and decks.

Table 2.2 Cruise Product or Service Attributes

Teye and Leclerc (1998)	Qu and Ping (1999)	Swain and Barth (2002)	Petrick et al. (2006)	Kwortnik (2008)	Zhang et al. (2015)
• Cabin service • Dining room service • Cleanliness of ship • Cruise staff • Entertainment • Bar service • Ports of call • Quality of food • Purser staff, information desk • Shore tours	• Accommodations space, facilities • Food and beverages variety and quality • Entertainment variety and attractiveness • Sports and fitness, shopping • Other facilities	• Launch year • Renovation year • Gross tons, length • Outdoor and indoor cabins • Total cabins and verandas • Square footage of cabins • Crew–passenger ratio • Space–passenger ratio	• Service issues • Staff and crew issues • Food and beverages • Entertainment and activities • Ship facilities • Miscellaneous • Children and teen issues • Policies and procedures • Prices and expenses • Ports of call and excursions	• Ambient factors (e.g., scents, sounds) • Design factors (e.g., decor, color) • Social factors (e.g., crowding, lines)	• Service • Public rooms • Shore excursions • Dining • Prices • Spa and fitness • Entertainment • Embarkation • Decks • Passengers

Note: Modified from the study by Zhang et al. (2015)

Early studies on cruise passenger behaviors and experiences focused on cruise passengers' expectations, feelings, satisfaction, and recommendation intention (e.g., Petrick, 2004; Teye & Leclerc, 1998). Teye and Leclerc (1998) revealed that cruise tourists hold various expectations, positive feelings, and high satisfaction levels. Petrick (2004) tested relationships among perceived service-performance quality, emotional responses, price, value, satisfaction, repurchase intention, and WOM. Petrick (2004) found that emotional responses, perceived quality, and price-related constructs were major factors affecting the perceived value of cruise travel. Recently, Zhang et al. (2015) collected data from a massive set of online reviews describing cruise travel stories and identified factors that significantly affect cruise travelers' satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Tian-Cole and Scott (2004) reported that cruise travel experience is based on service performance quality, the so-called "Shipscape" (Kwortnik, 2008, p. 290)

which consists of service environments. Using online review data, this study also identified

diverse cruise experience dimensions, including physiological, emotional, behavioral,

experiential, and symbolic responses. Chua, Lee, Goh, and Han (2015) found that cruise service-

quality attributes, such as interactional quality and outcome quality, have significant impacts on

the novelty, perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty of cruise customers. This study stressed

that the quality of cruise services affects cognitive responses (e.g., perceived value) and affective

ones (e.g., novelty).

Cruise Tourist Experience Dimensions

Cruise lines are known as experience-centric service businesses (Zomerdijk & Voss,

2010). Cruise product and service quality play important roles in the experience quality of cruise

passengers (Chua et al., 2015; Petrick et al., 2006). Customer experience management and

marketing involve tourists in many types of travel experiences (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987) so

that tourism experience takes on numerous sensory forms, involving sight, smell, sound, taste,

and touch (Pan & Ryan, 2009; Quan & Wang, 2004; Schmitt, 1999). Researchers have claimed

that the cruise tourist experience consists of multiple dimensions.

From the few studies examining the perceived quality of cruise experiences (Chua et al.,

2015; Hosany & Witham, 2010; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Kwortnik, 2008), the seven dimensions of

Memorable Tourism Experience (Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Kim et al., 2010) are considered an

appropriate model for investigating major cruise experiences. The MTE dimensions have the

advantage of taking into account the unique characteristics of tourism experiences and the

influences from environmental factors, such as unique moods and travelers' motivations. This

study describes cruise tourist experience dimensions by adopting the MTE dimensions

(hedonism, involvement, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, knowledge, and novelty)

(Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Kim et al., 2010) and discusses their appropriateness to explain cruise tourist experience types.

Hedonism

Like contemporary customers, travelers are pleasure seekers (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Goossens, 2000; Otto & Ritchie, 1996; Williams, 2006). Holbrook (2006) argued that pleasurable hedonic experiences, such as fantasies, feelings, and fun, are highly related to hedonic value in travel experiences. Kim et al. (2010) defined hedonism in travel experience as "pleasurable feelings that excite oneself" (p. 15). The desire to seek hedonic experiences, such as excitement and enjoyment, seems to be a fundamental factor in tourism experiences (Otto & Ritchie, 1996). Cruise travelers want to feel delighted or pleasant (Teye & Leclerc, 1998), and many are motivated to enjoy entertainment, such as wildlife observation, sports, gambling, pool, and karaoke (Qu & Ping, 1999). The cruise tourism experience includes hedonic, fantasy, and sensory elements (Zomerdijk & Voss, 2010), and hedonic services and experiences are important factors in determining perceived quality (Dong & Siu, 2012).

Involvement

Consumers get involved in situations in response to multiple objects (i.e., people or environments) (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Zaichkowsky explained that involvement in the consumption process arises from the perceived relevance of the object to consumers' needs, values, and interests. Involvement has been considered a significant attribute of travel and leisure experiences (den Breejen, 2007; Edensor, 2001) related to the level of engagement or participation in experiences (Goulding, 2000; Swinyard, 1993). For instance, tourists typically want to be involved in unique, authentic travel experiences (Herbert, 2001).

Many researchers have defined involvement as the perceived importance, arousal, or interest of an object or activity evoked by a particular stimulus (Hwang, Lee, & Chen, 2005; Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997). From the perspective of customer behavioral involvement, then, involvement in leisure and tourism is measured by time and money spent on an activity (Kim et al., 1997). Cruise travelers pay not only to experience lodgings, dining, services, and activities but also to spend several days on a ship (Chua et al., 2015). As an experience marketing strategy, cruise ship companies have developed more experiences, such as shore excursions, to attract cruise travelers and induce them spend more money during the trip (Hur & Adler, 2013).

Local Culture

Tourism promotes and sells the attractive cultures of tourism destinations, and travelers participate in experiences with authentic products, local cultures, and historical sites (Mitchell & Orwig, 2002). Understanding and exploring local cultures and meeting local residents are significant motivations for cruise tourists (MacCannell, 1973; Qu & Ping, 1999; Cohen, 1988; Lu & Stepchenkova, 2012). Cruise companies sell travelers itineraries connecting multiple destinations and ports and offer exclusive travel services, such as the travel destination itself (Rodrigue & Notteboom, 2013). As a unique travel place, cruise ships stage exotic and themed lodging and dining experiences with ethnic atmospheres and foods (e.g., staff dress, music, dancing). Shore excursions are popular experiences to encounter new cultures at tourism destinations during cruise travel (Hung & Petrick, 2011; Teye & Leclerc, 1998; Wood, 2000). Many ports or terminal areas have become important travel destinations because they are near historical city centers and travel facilities, such as restaurants, shops, and travel attractions (Jaakson, 2004).

Refreshment

Refreshment is a major component of tourism and leisure (Tinsley, Hinson, Tinsley, & Holt, 1993; Wang, 1999). Becoming refreshed, recharged, and renewed is a pull factor in travel participation (Klenosky, 2002). Similarly, relaxation and freedom from daily life is a main motivation of travelers (Herbert, 2001; Hung & Petrick, 2011; Mitchell & Mitchell, 2001; Wang, 1999). Many cruise travelers expect to feel as they have escaped from daily life during cruise travel (Kim, 2014; Qu & Ping, 1999). Kim (2010, 2014) found that refreshment increases the memorability of tourism experiences. Hosany and Witham (2010) explained that escapism is a significant dimension of cruise travel experience, and Yarnal (2004) described refreshing or revitalizing time as a core experience of cruise travel. Therefore, relaxation, the feeling of freedom or resting, is a significant experience factor determining satisfaction (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Hung & Petrick, 2011).

Meaningfulness

Kim et al. (2010) defined meaningfulness as "a sense of great value or significance" (p. 15), and Huang and Hsu (2009) found that self-reflection is an important cruise experience dimension. Previous research has explained that the dimension of meaningfulness entails learning about oneself or thinking of one's personal value through travel. This dimension is connected to the tendency for travelers to seek meaningful experiences for personal growth and self-development (Scarinci & Pearce, 2012). Tung and Ritchie (2011) explained that many people find travel a valuable experience for self-discovery. Many tourists believe that cruise travel is a more prestigious travel category than others (Hung & Petrick, 2011). Many studies have claimed the relationship between traveling and quality of life is consistent with the significance of meaningfulness in travelers' experiences (e.g., Dolnicar, Yanamandram, & Cliff, 2012; Moscardo, 2009; Neal, Sirgy, & Uysal, 2004; Neal, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2007).

Knowledge

Kolb (1984) explained that experiencing an object provides opportunities to learn about it. Knowledge of an experience site is directly transformed through action and the influence of multiple sensory inputs. Even in consumption processes, education and learning experiences are important values that encourage customers to be involved in the experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Consequently, people travel to different places to learn about their culture, history, and geography (Andriotis & Agiomirgianakis, 2010). Observing whales and wild animals and visiting historical sites and museums are representative examples of learning experiences (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Curtin, 2010; Sheng & Chen, 2012). Thus, learning or education is an important dimension of travel experiences (Hung & Petrick, 2011).

Cruise ship travel provides diverse opportunities for learning experiences (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Huang & Hsu, 2009). Reflecting the need of travelers, cruise tourism companies have developed educational programs for adults and children about the history, nature, and culture of the travel destinations (Tergesen, 2010). Cruise travelers are exposed to new cultures and peoples at different sites and learn and experience different lifestyles. In addition to the information acquired during traveling (i.e., learning), the stimuli and emotions evoked throughout travel experiences can be encoded as significant experiential knowledge (Dolcos & Cabeza, 2002).

Novelty

Novelty-seeking targets the unusual or the different and seeks to bridge the gap between present perceptions and past experience (Lee & Crompton, 1992). It is a fundamental motivation of travelers (Bello & Etzel, 1985; Lee & Crompton, 1992) who want to experience events different from their daily routine (Chang, Wall, & Chu, 2006). To gain novelty, many travelers prefer to visit new places, for example, journeying to exotic or heritage sites. In cruise tourism

research, it has been frequently noted that novelty is a significant motivation for cruise travel (Andriotis & Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Chua et al., 2015; Kwortnik, 2008). By offering novelty experiences on a cruise ship, such voyages have acquired the image of adventurous activities (Hung & Petrick, 2011). Examples of novelty experiences provided by cruise travel are opportunities to be exposed to exotic or new scenery on the ship or during shore excursions.

Based on this discussion, this study considers hedonism, involvement, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, knowledge, and novelty to be major dimensions adequate to measure the quality of cruise travel experiences.

Figure 2.1 Seven Dimensions of Cruise Travel Experiences
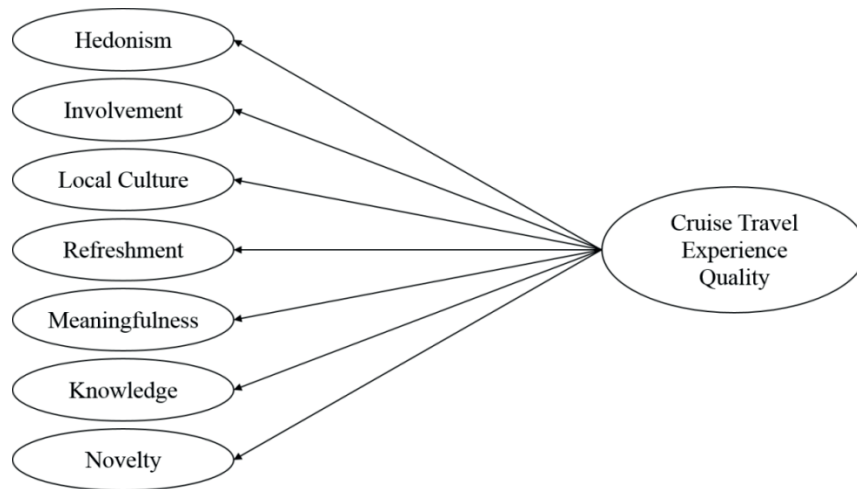
Effects of Cruise Experience Quality

Perceived quality is defined as a customer's appraisal of an object (i.e., product or service) and is related to the customer's attitudes (Gotlieb, Grewal, & Brown, 1994). Most studies have shown strong evidence that the quality perceived by customers influences their satisfaction, loyalty, and future behavioral intention (e.g., Baker & Crompton, 2000; Berry et al.,

2002; Chen & Chen, 2010; Gotlieb et al., 1994; Mathwick et al., 2001; Tian-Cole and Scott, 2004). Customer experience management and marketing attempt to maximize the quality of customer experience (Gilmore & Pine, 2002; Kim et al., 2010; Tung & Ritchie, 2011) because high quality not only makes experiences memorable but also influences diverse outcomes, such as satisfaction and pleasant experiences (Schmitt, 1999; Tsaur, Chiu, & Wang, 2007; Williams, 2006; Yuan & Wu, 2008). The relationships of quality with different constructs, such as emotion and memory, have also been explored (e.g., Bigne, Mattila, & Andreu, 2008; Brunner-Sperdin & Peters, 2009; Kim, 2014; Oh et al., 2007).

Although studies have examined the influences of experience quality on post-experience behaviors, such as revisit and repurchase intention, limited research has been conducted to understand the effects of experience quality on memory and WOM. Aho (2001) explained that tourist experience includes various processes, such as visiting, experiencing, evaluating, storing, memorizing, reflecting, enriching, and cherishing memories. This research implies that the quality of travel experience affects how travelers memorize and remember their experiences. Accumulated memories can play a significant role in changing customer attitudes and behaviors, such as revisit intention and WOM activities (Ashworth, 2002; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Ballantyne et al., 2011; Mitchell & Mitchell, 2001).

Studies in cruise tourism have produced evidence that cruise travel experience also affects diverse later evaluations and behaviors by travelers. Huang and Hsu (2009) surveyed cruise travelers to examine the relationships among customer-to-customer interaction, cruise experience, and vacation satisfaction. Despite testing the effects of cruise experience on vacation satisfaction, this study focused primarily on the importance of the quality of interactions among customers to improve cruise experience quality (Huang & Hsu, 2009). Cruise travel experiences

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consist of cognitive and affective attributes, such as physiological, emotional, behavioral, experiential, and symbolic responses (Tian-Cole & Scott, 2004); therefore, it seems that these dimensions are associated with various emotions (e.g., arousal, pleasure, escape), as well as behaviors (e.g., praise, repurchase intention, memory). Several researchers (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Oh et al., 2007) have verified the relationships of the four experience realms of customer experience (education, entertainment, esthetics, and escapism) proposed by Pine and Gilmore (1999) with memory, arousal, overall quality, overall satisfaction, and intention to recommend.

Perceived Value

Value is a judgment based on the comparison of performance and sacrifice and plays a role as a bridge connecting quality and satisfaction (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Gursoy, Spangenberg, & Rutherford, 2006; Oh, 2000; Oliver, 2010; Zeithaml, 1988). Zeithaml (1988) explained that "value is price," or "value is what I get for the price I pay." These statements indicate that customers consider the gap between what they give and what they get from an economic perspective. In the context of the experience economy, customers give money, time, or effort in return for the expected benefits of memorable experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 2002). Zeithaml (1988) explained that perceived value is different from quality. First, the concept of value relies on the "get" component of what a customer acquires in a transaction. Second, value is driven more by individual and personal perceptions than quality. Therefore, perceived value can be formed by multiple variables, such as price, quality, benefits, and mood, in the consumption experience. Kerin, Jain, and Howard (1992) claimed that, in the price–quality–value model in shopping experience, the value of the customer experience is related to experience, price, and quality perceptions.

Perceived value has been interpreted as consisting of utilitarian and hedonic value (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 2010). Utilitarian value refers to the usefulness of functions, and hedonic value to emotional benefits gained from customer experiences. Indeed, perceived value can be measured by a comparison of product or service performance which creates hedonic and utilitarian benefits and sacrifices, such as money, time, and effort (Babin et al., 1994; Oh, 2000; Oliver, 2010; Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003). Perceived utilitarian and hedonic values are both important constructs to explain what customer experience creates during and after a consumption transaction (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Gentile et al., 2007). Vacationing and traveling are high utilitarian- and hedonic-value products and experiences (Voss et al., 2003). The holistic view of value incorporating functional and affective attributes seems effective at understanding customer experience during consumption (Haeckel et al., 2003). Zomerdijk and Voss (2010) also explained that what customers get is the sum of multiple values created by experiences, service attributes, and price.

As more studies have paid attention to customer experience and value creation, several researchers have argued for the significance of experiential value in customer experience management (Kim, Ok, & Canter, 2012). Ball, Coelho, and Machás (2004) reported that the quality of customer experience is strongly related to perceived value and claimed that the size of the additional value created by customer experience is larger than the sum of the values provided by services and price. Mathwick, Malhotra, and Rigdon (2002) researched types of value perception in online and catalog shopping conditions. Mathwick et al. (2002) argued that consumption settings provide different value perceptions of economic value, efficiency, enjoyment, escapism, entertainment, visual appeal, and service excellence. The researchers proposed four experiential value dimensions: aesthetics, playfulness, service excellence, and

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customer return on investment (Mathwick et al., 2002). Despite the emerging understanding of various perceived value dimensions in consumption experiences, existing research has repeatedly described value perception as driven by customers' rational and emotional judgment.

Utilitarian Value

Utilitarian value is associated with cognitive benefits (Al-Sabbahy et al., 2004; Babin et al., 1994; Batra & Ahtola, 1991) and refers to the functional and basic goals of a product or service (Voss et al., 2003). The instrumental or cognitive dimension is also called acquisition value because it is driven by quality and price during and after the purchasing process (Sanchez, Callarisa, Rodriguez, & Moliner, 2006; Al-Sabbahy et al., 2004). Utilitarian value straightforwardly judges whether the goals of consumption or experience are fulfilled and plays an important or precedent role in justifying spending because it is easier to assess the value of consumption by comparing price and quality than by considering hedonic value (Gursoy et al., 2006; Okada, 2005). For example, in tourism, a traveler wants to secure a quality hotel room or convenient transportation services at reasonable or low prices to maximize utilitarian value (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000; Nasution & Mavondo, 2008; Oh, 2000; Petrick, 2002). In cruise tourism, experiences, such as learning and control (i.e., interaction and safety), are significant attributes associated with the overall value perceived by vacationers (Duman & Mattila, 2005).

Hedonic Value

Hedonic value is a judgment based on emotional benefits, such as multisensory, fantasy, and pleasant experiences during and after consumption (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Hedonic value is more subjective than utilitarian value (Babin et al., 1994). Batra and Ahtola (1991) explained that hedonic value is created by experiential attributes, such as sensory inputs and

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emotions, so it is closely related to quality of experiences. Gursoy et al. (2006) claimed that hedonic value is an outcome derived from experiential attributes, while utilitarian value is determined by functional dimensions.

Wertenbroch and Dhar (2000) argued that products and services should be unique, irreplaceable, and memorable so that they offer experiential consumption experiences, inducing fun, pleasure, and excitement. In tourism and hospitality, intangible services and memorable experiences are core offerings to satisfy customers. Several researchers (e.g., Andersson & Mossberg, 2004; Park, 2004) have found, for example, that restaurant consumers gain value not only utilitarian advantages (e.g., relief from hunger, economic benefits, convenience) but also hedonic ones (e.g., mood, pleasing interior, pleasant atmosphere). Museums that are designed to provide learning experiences also create hedonic value for visitors, such as psychological well-being and happiness during museum tours (Packer, 2008). In cruise tourism, diverse, exciting experiences and exotic atmospheres appeal to potential travelers and justify the cost of travel packages (Petrick et al., 2006; Wood, 2000).

Research on utilitarian and hedonic value provides evidence to support developing two hypotheses to test the relationship between perceived value dimensions and the quality of cruise travel experiences (e.g., Gotlieb et al., 1994; Petrick; 2004).

H1. Cruise travel experience quality has a significant influence on hedonic value.
H2. Cruise travel experience quality has a significant influence on utilitarian value.

Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is defined as the degree of fulfillment, whether pleasant or unpleasant, one derives from consumption activity and indicates whether products and services succeed or fail to meet or exceed customer expectations (Oliver, 2010). Satisfaction is measured by the gap between customer expectations and perceived performance (Fornell, 1992). Satisfaction is a judgment made by a customer after consumption (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Yi, 1990) and a significant outcome for understanding the post-consumption experience in tourism and hospitality (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Han & Ryu, 2009). Satisfaction is both an important assessment driven by customers' perceptions and judgments and an influence on post-consumption behaviors, such as loyalty, recommendation, and repurchase intention, in various customer service settings (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Fornell, 1992; Ladhari et al., 2008; Rust & Zahorik, 1993).

Hence, efforts to improve customer satisfaction are necessary to encourage customers to have positive attitudes towards or preferences for businesses' products and services (Han & Ryu, 2009; Oliver, 2010). The importance of researching customer satisfaction has continuously increased. For example, the American Customer Satisfaction Index was introduced as a useful tool to investigate customer satisfaction with a firm or industry as evaluated by customer perceptions or experiences with a product or service (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha, & Bryant, 1996). This index has widely been used in diverse industries (Fornell et al., 1996).

Identifying antecedents to leverage customer satisfaction and relationship models has become a significant stream in consumer behavior research (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; Oliver, 2010). Even as various models have been developed to identify the important factors that directly or indirectly increase customer satisfaction, the quality and value perceived by customers has frequently been applied in research models (Bolton & Drew, 1991; Cronin et al.,

2000). Researchers have consistently demonstrated the effects of quality or value on satisfaction in diverse service settings, such as restaurants (e.g., Kim et al., 2012; Oh, 2000), festivals (e.g., Gursoy et al., 2006), and tourism (e.g., Chen & Chen, 2010). In cruise tourism, Petrick (2004) reported that quality, value, and satisfaction are important concepts for managers to carefully consider to improve customer experience and that quality and value are effective predictors of cruise travelers' satisfaction and future behaviors. Petrick (2004) explained that the relationship model is useful to integrate and account for both cognitive perceptions and emotional responses during and after traveler experiences.

Although researchers have claimed that perceived value directly leads to future behaviors, such as repurchase and recommendation intention (e.g., Bolton & Drew, 1991; Zeithaml, 1988), recent studies have employed customer satisfaction as an important component of customer experience (Chen & Chen, 2010; Oh, 2000; Petrick, 2004). In the cruise travel setting, Duman and Mattila (2005) revealed that traveler satisfaction was affected by the quality of travel experiences, such as novelty, control, and hedonism. However, satisfaction drives the overall perceived value of cruise travel (Duman & Mattila, 2005).

Based on this discussion, perceived value and customer satisfaction are closely related. In particular, utilitarian and hedonic values and benefits are associated with increased customer satisfaction and pleasantness (Al-Sabbahy et al., 2004; Babin et al., 1994; Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Chitturi, Raghunathan, & Mahajan, 2008; Mathwick et al., 2001). Research on customer experience (e.g., Holbrook, 2006; Meyer & Schwager, 2007; Wu & Liang, 2009; Yuan & Wu, 2008) has claimed that hedonic experiences are necessary subjects of judgment and monetary assessments of experiences. The hedonic aspect during and after an experience or event is an

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essential desire or outcome expected by customers, and cruise managers have developed hedonic services and experiences for travelers.

H3. Utilitarian value has a significant influence on satisfaction.

H4. Hedonic value has a significant influence on satisfaction.

Memory

Memory is information processing, including the encoding, storage, and retrieval of information (Bettman, 1979). Most human activities rely on information encoded in the mental system; therefore, memory is an important concept for understanding human behaviors (Delgadillo & Escalas, 2004; Rubin & Kozin, 1984; Rubin, Schrauf, & Greenberg, 2003). Memory processing generally consists of two phases. Recognition encodes information obtained from an event, and recall retrieves the encoded memory for thinking or decision making (Bettman, 1979; Lynch Jr & Srull, 1982).

Humans cannot remember everything (Storbeck & Clore, 2008), which poses a simple but fundamental question to researchers: How do humans effectively memorize and recall information? The first approach to answer the question is to describe the specific steps from recognition to recall. In memorization, an individual first receives an information rehearsal and encodes the structure of the information into a word or image. In transfer, the processed information is stored in the memory system. Interestingly, the transfer process becomes more activated when information is more important, stimulating, or easier to process (Levine & Pizarro, 2004). In placement, the imported information is organized for recall. Retrieval is the step of recalling a memory, information, or part of a memory when an individual receives a

stimulus related to the information or intentionally searches for the information. This memory process allows memory evoked by stimuli and then stored to have significant influence on future behaviors through the retrieval and recall processes in the future. Based on these research findings, many papers have applied different characteristics (e.g., arousal, positive emotions) of information or events to aid memorization and have tested the quality of memory recalled after a certain period, such as a day or multiple days (e.g., Bradley, Greenwald, Petry, & Lang, 1992; Christianson & Loftus, 1987).

A different approach to researching memory is to examine the effective antecedents and influences on future behaviors, such as decision making and WOM (Bettman, 1979; Delgadillo & Escalas, 2004; Lynch Jr & Srull, 1982; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Most studies in communication and consumer science research have proven that providing a good memory is a useful strategy to increase customer loyalty and to encourage selecting a product or brand. Researchers, therefore, have recommended that service providers make great efforts to help customers build good memories (Jiang & Wang, 2006; Levine & Pizarro, 2004). This recommendation is consistent with the assumption of the experience economy that providing memorable experiences to customers is a basic strategy of effective experience management and marketing (Kim, 2010; Manthiou et al., 2014; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). The hospitality and tourism industry could derive benefits from helping customers memorize and remember critical experiences created by unique themes and pleasant interactions (LaTour & Carbone, 2014; Manthiou et al., 2014; Oh et al., 2007).

Perceived Value and Memory

The literature seems to indicate that memory, like customer satisfaction, is a desirable outcome of customer experience. Researchers have been challenged to identify effective

determinants which aid customers in forming vivid memories (Bower, 1981; Heuer & Reisberg, 1990; Christianson & Loftus, 1987). Unfortunately, investigations of the antecedents of memory are limited in hospitality and tourism research. Recent literature has shown the possibilities for leveraging travelers' and customers' memory in different settings, such as lodging, cruises, festivals, and tourism (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Kim, 2010; Manthiou et al., 2014; Oh et al., 2007). These studies have found that the major experience dimensions are related to customers' memories. However, the discussion could be expanded by consideration of additional constructs of value. Oh (2000), for example, argued that past experience in restaurants can affect future behaviors, such as repurchase intention. The value perception developed in past experiences strongly affects future behaviors.

Most studies on memory formation support that individuals are most likely to memorize an important message or emotional event (Bradley et al., 1992; Christianson & Loftus, 1987; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). In the context of customer experience, Hirshman and Holbrook (1982) emphasized the need to understand both cognitive and affective characteristics of customer experience. According to the researchers, cognitive processes can perform information processing for customer memorization (Hirshman & Holbrook, 1982). That is, the cognition or perception of an important subject or event (e.g., the monetary benefit or value judgment of consumption) can be easily memorized as significant information by an individual (e.g., Conway, 2003; Levine & Pizarro, 2004; Rosenzweig, 1984). Emotional or hedonic states associated with products, services, or experiences (e.g., fun, surprising, or exciting events) also influence memory formation (Heslin & Johnson, 1992). Researchers have examined the effects of images and events' affective attributes on increasing the accuracy or duration of memories of them (e.g., Bradley et al., 1992; Christianson & Loftus, 1987; Dolcos & Cabeza, 2002;

Kensinger & Corkin, 2003). Research on the role of the emotionality of an event could develop previous findings that experience quality helps increase the vividness of memory (e.g., Kim, 2010). That is, the subjective benefits of a hedonic or pleasant experience might be more worth memorizing than less beneficial or emotionally unimportant experiences. For example, people tend to memorize positive, surprising events that make them happy or feel emotionally good.

H5. Hedonic value has a significant influence on memory.

H6. Utilitarian value has a significant influence on memory.

Satisfaction and Memory

Although research examining the direct relationship between customer satisfaction and memory is lacking, the effect of customer satisfaction on memory formation is supported by strong evidence. Additionally, it has been well documented that, in various service settings, customer satisfaction is a determinant of future behaviors, including repurchase and WOM intention (Oliver, 2010; Athanassopoulos, Gounaris, & Stathakopoulo, 2001). Jiang and Wang (2006) reported that evaluations, as well as feelings, during consumption experiences are easily stored into memory. Thus, it is important to help customers memorize positive evaluations or thoughts about product and service attributes after consumption because memory plays a critical role in linking satisfaction and future behavioral responses, such as WOM and switching behaviors (Athanassopoulos et al., 2001). This relationship—memory formed based on past consumption heavily influences customers' decision-making processes in future consumption— is confirmed by previous studies (Lynch & Srull, 1982). This discussion is helpful to understand and support the argument in tourism research that past experiences affect future customer

behaviors (Lehto, O'Leary, & Morrison, 2004; Oh, 2000). That is, customer satisfaction gained after experiences are stored and recalled is a powerful factor in future behaviors.

Based on research on emotion and memory, it can be proposed that satisfying or pleasant experiences are most effectively memorized. Note that satisfaction can be defined as a state of being pleasant (Oliver, 2010). Experiments with pictures and videos (e.g., Bradley et al., 1992; Christianson & Loftus, 1987; Dolcos & Cabeza, 2002) have provided sufficient evidence to support the significance of the influence of pleasantness on memory. These experiments found that participants tended to memorize positive subjects more accurately and for longer periods than neutral topics. Impressive, excellent, and delightful services have consistently and frequently been cited as major techniques in customer experience management and marketing to provide memorable incidents (Manthiou et al., 2014; Pine & Gilmore, 1999; Verhoef et al., 2004; Williams, 2006). Therefore, satisfaction is an important outcome from past customer experience and a meaningful or significant factor in memorization.

H7. Satisfaction has a significant influence on memory.

Word of Mouth

WOM is the communication among individuals of their own stories and evaluations of products, services, brands, or consumption experiences (Anderson, 1998; Kozinets, De Valck, Wojnicki, & Wilner, 2010; Harrison-Walker, 2001; Oliver, 2010). WOM or storytelling is a critical information source for predicting the future behaviors of the story-teller and audience (Anderson, 1998; Tax, Chandrashekaran, & Christiansen, 1993). WOM, therefore, has been

deemed a powerful, effective, efficient marketing strategy. In other words, a satisfied customer is the best salesperson for marketers (Engel, Kegerreis, & Blackwell, 1969).

Tax et al. (1993) described two effects of WOM. First, WOM affects the behavioral intention and future behavior of a WOM receiver. Second, a receiver of WOM may transmit the information to others and influence their decision-making procedures. Much hospitality and tourism research has demonstrated the important effect of WOM (Han & Ryu, 2012; Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008). Information from others (e.g., family and friends' recommendations, online reviews) plays a vital role in decision-making in the hospitality and tourism industry, where intangible and experiential services are core offerings. The rapid growth of the Internet and social media platforms has accelerated the evolution of electronic WOM (Banyai & Glover, 2012; Bronner & de Hoog, 2011; Schmallegger & Carson, 2008; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). Customer review websites, such as TripAdvisor, aggregate numerous stories and opinions about customers' experiences at travel destinations, restaurants, and other sites. User-generated content has become considered a credible information source about sites, services, and experiences to help website visitors plan travel (Ye, Law, Gu, & Chen, 2011).

The quality of WOM is related to travelers' memories. Therefore, the quality of narrative—the action of telling a story by recalling what happened in the past—is affected by the vividness of memories of past events (Herr, Kardes, & Kim, 1991; Heuer & Reisberg, 1990; Manthiou et al., 2014). The possible relationship between memory and narrative has been discussed (Escalas, 1998; Fitzgerald, 1988), but empirical evidence for the relationship is lacking. Vivid memories can play an important role in the sharing of detailed narratives to other customers (Kozinets et al., 2010). A narrative, as a form of WOM, is more effective than a simple recommendation or information sharing (Delgadillo & Escalas, 2004). The quality of

stories the vividness of WOM communication, and the attractiveness of plots are increased in narrative WOM.

In hospitality and tourism research, it has been proven that vivid memories lead to greater loyalty toward an event (e.g., Manthiou et al., 2014; Oh et al., 2007). A positive attitude after customer experiences with products or services also influences future behaviors, such as recommending a brand or experience. Researchers have provided evidence to support the link between memory and WOM. Kim (2010) found that involvement and refreshing experiences during travel have significant relationships with the vividness of memory. In addition, Kim (2010) reported that involvement, refreshment, and local culture experiences also influence recall of memory. Manthiou et al. (2014) explained that event experiences can create perceived benefits and values and that the outcomes of experiences are important information for the memory process. Investigating the relationships between tourists' experiences and involvement in a film festival, Kim (2012) found that tourist experience is closely related to memory. Therefore, high-quality recognition and recall processes for memories of past travel experiences help customers transfer more accurate information and vivid stories.

H8. Memory influences the WOM of cruise travelers.

Figure 2.2 Research Model #1 including Eight Hypotheses
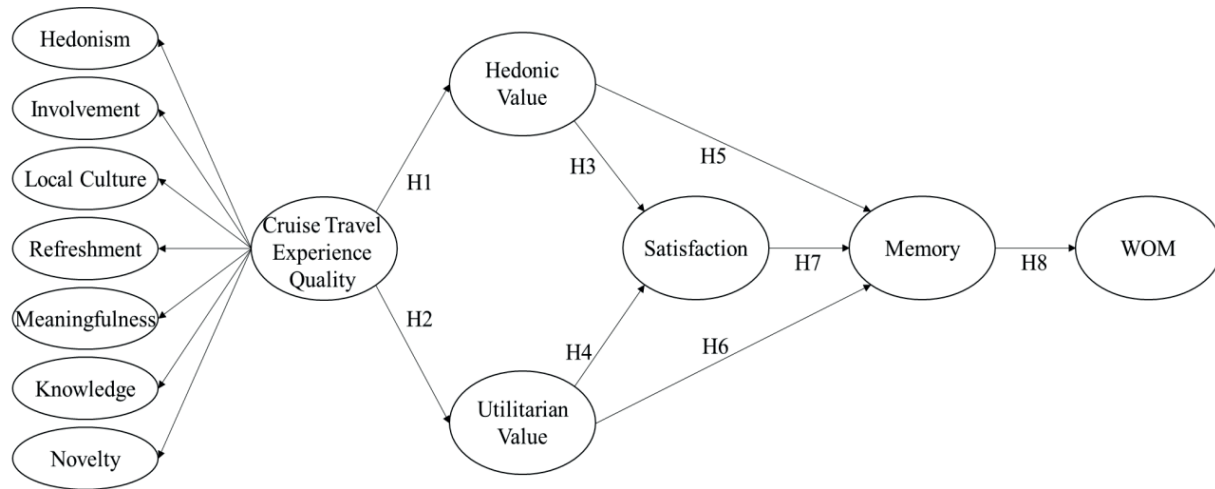
Arousal, Valence, and Memory

Emotion is not a simple response (Russell, 1980). Rather, it is a complex system of numerous feelings or combinations of emotional expressions (Plutchik, 1980, 2001). Therefore, it is necessary to study the structures in the relationship of emotions driven by experience and memory. Diverse experiences evoke single or multiple emotions, such as feeling pleasant, unpleasant, aroused, or relaxed (Kumar, Olshavsky, & King, 2001; Lang, Dhillon, & Dong, 1995; Oliver et al., 1997; Russell, 1980). To describe the types of emotions, Russell (1980) developed the circumplex model, which presents various feeling-related concepts in a circular frame with two axes representing pleasure and arousal dimensions. In the circular frame, major emotions are categorized as pleasure (0°), excitement (45°), arousal (90°), distress (135°), displeasure (180°), depression (225°), sleepiness (270°), and relaxation (315°).

In the circumplex model, arousal ranges from sleepiness to arousal and refers to the activation of emotion (Russell, 1980; Russell, Lewicka, & Niit, 1989). Arousal plays a role in

facilitating interactions with service personnel and environments and in amplifying emotional states (Gardner, 1985; Groeppel-Klein, 2005; Pham, 1992). Valence refers to whether an individual feels positive or negative, and arousal to how strongly an individual feels (Storbeck & Clore, 2008). Emotional valence is a dimension independent from arousal (Feldman, 1995; Lang et al., 1995; Russell, 1980). Valence consists of a continuum of emotions varying from pleasant to unpleasant or from positive to negative (Dolcos & Cabeza, 2002: Libkuman, Stabler, & Otani, 2004). In the emotional expressions of valence in the circumplex model of affect, glad, pleased, and happy are close to pleasantness, while frustrated and annoyed are near unpleasantness (Russel, 1980; Russell et al., 1989).

Valence, especially positive emotions, has been examined to uncover its relationships with experience quality, satisfaction, delight, loyalty, and WOM (Huang, 2001; Machleit & Eroglu, 2000; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004; Zins, 2002). Researchers have paid attention to the different roles of valence. For example, affective stimuli, such as pleasant or surprising events, have greater influence on memorizing a subject than familiar or unemotional events (Libkuman et al., 2004; Kensinger & Corkin, 2003; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). Researchers have claimed that arousal significantly influences memory formation (Bigne et al., 2005; Dolcos & Cabeza, 2002; Rosenzweig, 1984). Christianson and Loftus (1987) found that traumatic scenes or events are more effectively stored in memory than non-traumatic ones. For instance, in a picture experiment by Bradley et al. (1992), participants remembered high-arousal pictures better than low-arousal images after one year. Bradley et al. (1992) found that long-term memory retrieval is more affected by arousal than valence.

Emotional valence, though, also influences memory formation. Kensinger and Corkin (2003) reported that negative words are memorized better than neutral ones. However, several studies have found that people tend to memorize pleasant stimuli and positive valence events more than unpleasant ones (e.g., Bettman, 1979; Lynch Jr & Srull, 1982). These results have been applied to advertisement practices. To induce receivers to memorize images or information in commercials, it is more effective to portray a product or brand with refreshing images, arousing sounds, or vivid colors in the background than semantic information. Storbeck and Clore (2008) attempted to explain the effect of emotional valence on memory with the affect-as-information model. This model holds that emotional attributes, such as positive affect (pleasant expression), produce judgments about events, which are memorized as additional information.

According to the literature, arousal plays a moderating role in memorization, resulting in greater attention to a subject and helping memory retention. Several studies have provided evidence that people better recognize or recall arousing words than neutral ones over time (Bradley et al., 1992; Sharot & Phelps, 2004). Similarly, people forget arousing information or events more slowly than non-arousing ones. Especially regarding emotional valence, it has been argued that high arousal increases the tendency for people to better memorize more positive or negative events (Libkuman et al., 2004). That is, a moment providing a highly pleasant or unpleasant feeling is memorized better when it is also arousing or surprising. That arousal amplifies the effects of memorizing positive events is supported by the findings of other studies (e.g., Revelle & Loftus, 1992; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). Therefore, it is proposed that positive experiences with high arousal are more actively memorized.

Figure 2.3 Research Model #2 for testing the Moderating Effect
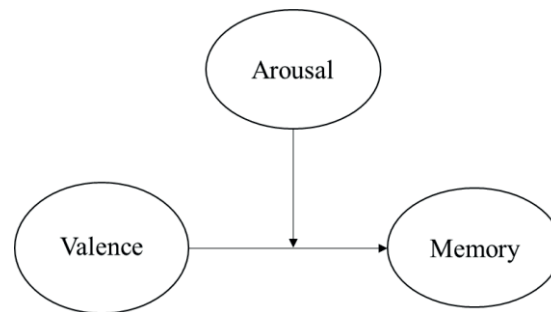
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Chapter 3 - Methodology

This chapter describes the research procedures used to achieve the research goals. This study has developed research models useful for examining the effects of cruise travel experiences, perceived value, satisfaction, memory, and word-of-mouth (WOM). In addition, the effects of emotional antecedents, such as arousal and valence, on enhancing travelers' memories were investigated. The research procedure presented in Figure 3.1 was followed. The first step was to review the literature related to the major constructs in both research models and to identify appropriate measurements to be used. The second step was to prepare a questionnaire with items modified to suit the cruise tourism setting. Filtering questions establishing eligibility criteria and questions regarding respondents' demographics and cruise travel types were added. Third, study approval was obtained from the Institutional Review Board. In the fourth step, the comprehensibility of the survey questions was evaluated in a pre-test, and reliability and validity were assessed in a pilot test. Based on the results and comments from these tests, the items and descriptions were refined. Fifth, the final survey was conducted to collect approximately 300 usable samples. Finally, after the data screening processes, various data analysis techniques were applied to test the proposed hypotheses.

Figure 3.1 Research Procedure

1. Measurement Identification	✓ Review the literature. ✓ Identify measurements of the main constructs.
↓	
2. Questionnaire Development	✓ Apply measurements of the constructs. ✓ Adapt the questions for a cruise setting.
↓	
3. Institutional Review Board Approval	✓ Apply for and receive institutional review board approval.
↓	
4. Pre-test and Pilot Test	✓ Check the comprehensibility of questions. ✓ Test reliability and validity. ✓ Refine the measurements.
↓	
5. Data Collection	✓ Specify data collection procedures and tools. ✓ Gather 350 usable samples.
↓	
6. Data Analysis	✓ Assess reliability and validity. ✓ Verify the hypotheses.

Questionnaire Development

Study 1: Measurement Identification

To identify valid measurements, the relevant literature was reviewed. A few studies have developed multi-item instruments assessing the validity of measurements to explain the constructs. Measurements for investigating the quality of cruise travel experiences were adopted from the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTES) developed by Kim, Ritchie, and McCormick (2010). Its reliability and validity have been tested and confirmed (Kim, 2010; Kim & Ritchie, 2014). The MTES includes 24 measurement items for seven dimensions of travel experiences: hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, and knowledge. In this study, a 7-point Likert scale was used (1 = strongly agree; 7 = strongly

disagree). Compared to other measurements, such as the four-realm experience economy measurements developed by Oh, Fiore, and Jeoung (2007) and the dimensions of the experience construct posed by Knutson, Beck, Kim, and Cha (2007), the MTES is appropriate for this research because it covers a wide range of travel experiences in cruise tourism.

Regarding perceived value constructs, this study considered two dimensions: utilitarian and hedonic values. The measurement developed by Babin, Darden, and Griffin (1994) was used because it also measures these two dimensions. One of the 15 items in the utilitarian value dimension ("I was disappointed because I had to go to another store(s) to complete my shopping") was excluded because it does not fit the cruise travel experience. In addition, two questions with negative meanings were changed into positive statements to avoid confusion among respondents. The wording of some original questions was modified to fit the cruise travel setting. Satisfaction items were adopted from Oliver (2010). The construct consisted of seven items. Perceived value and satisfaction were rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree; 7 = strongly disagree).

This study used the measurement developed by Sheen, Kemp, and Rubin (2001) which has been applied in studies examining the relationship between travel experiences and memory recollection and vividness (Kim, 2010). Eight questions investigated memory recollection ("I can relive my experiences," "I feel like participating in my experiences," and "I can remember my experiences") and memory vividness ("I can hear in my mind," "I can see in my mind," "I can remember the spatial layout," "I can feel the emotions now," and "I can remember the setting"). Respondents answered the items using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree; 7 = strongly disagree).

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Four questions developed by Harrison-Walker (2001) were adopted to explore the construct of WOM. This measurement has been tested for validity in investigating WOM communication activities driven by perceived service quality. The questions were modified to be suitable for the cruise travel setting ("I mention my cruise travel experiences to others quite frequently," "I have told more people about my cruise travel experiences than I have told about most other travel experiences," "I seldom miss an opportunity to tell others about my cruise travel experiences," and "When I tell others about my travel experiences, I tend to talk about the cruise travel experience in great detail"). A 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree; 7 = strongly disagree) was used to measure this construct.

Study 2: Measurement Identification

In the second research model, the construct of memory was examined with an 8-item measurement (Sheen, Kemp, & Rubin, 2001), as discussed. For the constructs of arousal and valence, the circumplex model of affect discussed by Russell (1980) was employed. Five items ("intense," "arousing," "active," "alive," "forceful") were included in the arousal construct, while the other 5 items ("pleasant," "nice," "pleasing," "pretty," "beautiful") measured valence on 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree; 7 = strongly disagree).

In addition to measurements of major constructs, the questionnaire included questions regarding participants' demographic information, such as gender, age, income, and education level. Cruise travel information, such as length and purpose of travel, types of companies, and number of cruise trips, was also included into the questionnaire. Completing the questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes.

Pre-Test and Pilot Test

A pre-test with 10 respondents who were graduate students and faculty instructors in hospitality and tourism was conducted to test the ambiguity of the measurements and refine them as necessary based on feedback from participants. A pilot test with 40 respondents of actual cruise travelers (approximately 10% of the sample size) was conducted using an online survey. Data from the pilot test were examined to check the reliability and validity of the measurements. Modification of measurements was considered if the reliability or validity was not acceptable.

Data Collection

The study population was cruise travelers in the United States. Convenience sampling, a nonprobability sampling method, was used. Nonprobability sampling methods have been applied extensively in social science research (Trochim & Donnelly, 2006). An online survey was conducted and was beneficial for capturing responses from cruise travelers from various areas of the United States. Cruise travel locations vary (e.g., ports in Florida or California), so the geographic location of study participants was not limited to a certain area (e.g., a city or state).

An online survey company (Qualitrics) conducted data collection. It sent invitation emails with a link to the survey webpage to panel members. Only respondents who had recently participated in cruise travel were recruited. For higher accuracy in responses to questions on travelers' perceptions, judgment, remembrance, emotions, and WOM of their experiences, three filtering questions were presented. The first filtering question "Please enter an approximate number of days since your last trip. Please enter a numeric value" was asked. The survey system accepted only respondents who had traveled on a cruise ship within 90 days. The second filtering question was "what wat the purpose of your travel?" and only leisure travelers were accepted for the next filtering question. The third filtering question "How many nights did you spend on the

cruise?" was asked and respondents who answered two or more nights finally were qualified for the main survey.

The targeted sample size was 350, which was usable for main research analyses. Regarding the sample size for structural equation modeling, Iacobucci (2010) suggested that the analysis requires at least 50 participants, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) contended that a sample size of more than 150 is needed for practical use, and Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) recommended a sample size of 200. The sample size of 350 was targeted, considering the ability to eliminate respondents after data screening procedures and additional analysis to test moderating effects.

Data Analysis

Data screening was conducted to ensure that the sample and items were cleaned and appropriate for statistical analyses. The data screening procedure included checking missing values, uni/multivariate outliers, skewness of responses, and multicolinearity among variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Transformation and removing samples was considered for critical problems with items. After the pilot test and final survey, the reliability of each item and construct was checked by Cronbach's alpha (> 0.7) (Trochim & Donnelly, 2006). Correlation analysis was performed to assess the relationships among items and constructs.

Using SPSS 20.0, descriptive analysis was conducted to determine the means and variances of items. Confirmatory factor analysis ensured the psychometric properties of the scales. Utilizing AMOS 21.0, structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) to examine the proposed relationships. SEM included multiple regression and analysis of the causal connections of constructs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It also accounted for the modeling of interactions and controlled for measurement errors. Significance levels of

0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 were applied to verify the hypotheses. A Chi-square p value of more than 0.05 ensured acceptable model fit. Other indicators and thresholds, such as RMSEA (< 0.05), NFI (> 0.9), CFI (> 0.9), and GFI (> 0.9) were used. Composite reliability (CR > .7) and average variance extracted (AVE > .5) examined the convergent and discriminant validity of constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). To prove the moderating effect of arousal, the interaction effect (arousal * valence) was estimated using hierarchical regression analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

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Chapter 4 - The Role of Cruise Travelers' Memories in Linking Experience Quality, Perceived Value, Satisfaction, and Word-Of-Mouth

Abstract

Offering memorable experiences to customers is an effective marketing strategy in hospitality and tourism. However, the effects of memorable experiences on customer perception, evaluation, or future behaviors have remained largely unexamined. Discussing relevant theories and constructs for travel experience research, this study suggests significant associations among travel experience quality, value perception, satisfaction, memory, and word-of-mouth in cruise tourism. Using an online survey, 375 vacationers who traveled on an ocean cruise ship were recruited. The results showed that experience quality has a significant influence on value, satisfaction, memory, and word-of-mouth. Specifically, this study confirmed the critical role of memory in the effects of predictors (hedonic value, utilitarian value, and satisfaction) and word-of-mouth behaviors of travelers. In addition, the significance of post-experience hedonic factors is emphasized. Based on findings, theoretical and practical contributions were provided.

Keywords: Experience quality, Memory, WOM, Cruise travel

Introduction

Creating memorable experiences has become an inevitable mission of service management and marketing in the hospitality and tourism (H&T) industry (Baum, 2006; Gilmore & Pine, 2002). Customers in H&T seek and choose excellent services or desirable experiences in order to meet their needs and wants (Hemmington, 2007; Mattila, 2001, 2004; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007). Beyond fulfilling essential needs through consumption, tourists also want to experience unique and personalized services so that they can cherish the memories of travel experiences (Kim, Woo, & Uysal, 2015; Ritchie & Hudson, 2009).

This necessity of offering unforgettable experiences to customers is an essential concept of the experience economy, or the so-called fourth economic stage, proposed by Pine and Gilmore (1998). The authors have paid attention to the trend of contemporary customers not being satisfied with merely a good product or service in many cases (e.g., Disneyland or Starbucks). Customers are willing to pay more to purchase emotionally fulfilling experiences (e.g., unique or delightful events). From the perspective of service providers, it can also be a way to differentiate oneself from competitors with similar products and services and thus generate high added value for the sake of customer loyalty and profit (e.g., Schmitt, 1999; Scott, Laws, & Boksberger, 2009). Several researchers have developed marketing systems that present sensorial, personalized, or themed experience to customers (e.g., Johnston & Kong, 2011; Zomerdijk & Voss, 2010).

The H&T industry has grown rapidly over the last 20 years. The number of international travelers was 527 million in 1995, and this number has increased to 1,135 million by 2014 (The World Tourism Organization, 2015). Due to the popularity of traveling, the level of competition in the H&T industry has also increased, encouraging marketers to establish new strategies with which to offer memorable experiences to travelers (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). In H&T research,

customer-experience marketing and management have been examined to determine their effects in terms of creating excellent or pleasant experiences in various settings, such as hotels, restaurants, events, or travel attraction settings (Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2010; Manthiou, Lee, Tang, & Chiang, 2014; Oh et al., 2007).

In fact, the emphasis on customer experience is not a recently developed phenomenon but rather the core of traditional services in the H&T industry (Cohen, 1979; Otto & Ritchie, 1996). For instance, staying at a great hotel, visiting a heritage site, and enjoying ethnic food are examples of traditional services providing unique and pleasant experiences. However, the major viewpoints of researchers before the proposal of the experience economy have focused on understanding the nature of travel experiences, such as authenticity or flow (Cohen, 1988; MacCannell, 1973). In addition, previous researchers have focused on measuring the performance of services or environments regarding customer behaviors (e.g., Bitner, 1992; Knutson, Stevens, Wullaert, Patton, & Yokoyama, 1990; Stevens, Knutson, & Patton, 1995). The majority of discussions have demonstrated that developing the quality of services and appropriately designing service environments are effective elements resulting in positive outcomes, such as perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty (e.g., Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Kandampully, 2000; Lin & Mattila, 2010). As more service providers in the H&T industry are focusing on creating unique themes and experiential offerings for customers and travelers, recent studies have explored the effects of improving the quality of experiences (Baum, 2006; Otto & Ritchie, 1996; Uriely, 2005). Similar to the previous studies related to service quality or the servicescape (Bitner, 1992; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988), customer experience quality also affects perceived value, satisfaction, and future behavioral intentions (Chen & Chen, 2010; Tian-Cole & Scott, 2004).

It seems necessary that researchers and experts in customer experience marketing and management think about the role of customer memory. Customer memory about a product or past experience has been known to be an essential factor in future behaviors (Alba, Hutchinson, & Lynch, 1991; Shapiro & Krishnan, 1999). In addition, customer-experience marketing and management have developed triggers, such as sensory or service interaction, to create memorable customer experiences (Gilmore & Pine, 2002). However, only a handful of researchers have paid attention to the roles of memory in the post-experience process in H&T (e.g., Kim, 2014; Kim et al., 2010; LaTour & Carbone, 2014; Manthiou et al., 2014; Oh et al., 2007), even though papers in the other disciplines (e.g., consumer studies or psychology) have investigated the influences of customer memory on the decision-making process (Alba et al., 1991; Lynch & Srull, 1982). By reviewing the streams of research regarding customer experience in H&T, this research points out three issues that have been ignored in the previous literature. First, little research has attempted to determine the antecedents of memory. Although the relationships among experience quality, perceived value, and satisfaction have been tested in diverse settings (Chen & Chen, 2010; Oh, 2000; Petrick, 2004), the link between the memory and its antecedents has not been investigated in H&T research. Second, the effectiveness of cognitive and affective information processing has not been examined. Previous papers studying the antecedents of memory have shown that cognitive or emotional attributes of a subject have different influences on facilitating memory formation (Bettman, 1979; Bower, 1981). Therefore, for a better understanding of the applicability of such findings, it is necessary to compare the differential effects of cognitive and affective attributes on memory formation after customer experiences. Third, the effects of stored memory on customer experience have not been studied. The role of memory has been researched to prove marketing effects (e.g., Alpert & Kamins, 1995; Lynch & Srull, 1982) or determine its

influence on future decision-making procedures (e.g., Alba et al., 1991; Bettman, 1979; Shapiro & Krishnan, 1999). In H&T, the power of word-of-mouth (WOM) has been greatly stressed by researchers and experts in that it is one of the most significant resources available when planning and selecting a vacation place, service brand, or experience type. Therefore, a study on customer memory must test the relationship between memory and WOM behavior.

This study aims to solve the research problem and achieve the research goal of examining the effects of memory on the relationship between tourist experience quality and WOM behavior. Specifically, four research objectives are proposed:

- to describe the major dimensions of cruise travel experiences,

- to identify and discuss the relationships between memory and its antecedents based on the previous literature,

- to examine the influence of memory on WOM to explain the significance of offering memorable experiences, and

- to develop research models to examine the role of customer memory in the tourism experience.

Literature Review

Customer Experiences

A customer has diverse experiences with products, services, or brands (Berry, Carbone, & Haeckel, 2002). Customer experience has distinct characteristics, such as subjective and emotional perceptions (Schmitt, 1999). Many researchers have discussed how to define the customer experience; it has a complex structure and multiple attributes (Knutson, Beck, Kim, & Cha, 2007; Meyer & Schwager, 2007; Palmer, 2010). In the literature, there exists a consensus

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that customer experiences consist of holistic aspects, including cognitive and affective information processing (Gentile, Spiller, & Noci, 2007; Schmitt, 1999). Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) claim that customers prefer hedonic, symbolic, or pleasant experiences during and after consumption. Contemporary customers seek out and purchase service encounters and positive emotions (Ball, Coelho, & Vilares, 2006; Holbrook, Chestnut, Oliva, & Greenleaf, 1984; Oliver, 2010).

A traveler visits a destination to see, feel, think, and learn about a genuine object or culture (Ballantyne, Packer, & Sutherland, 2011). The traditional viewpoint of researchers on the nature of travel experience has focused on understanding why a traveler visits a travel destination and explaining why a traveler wants to experience the site authentically (e.g., Cohen, 1988; Halewood & Hannam, 2001; Wang, 1999). Recently, tourism research has expanded to include a holistic perspective and the multiple desires of travelers, such as involvement, learning, uniqueness, and feeling (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Baum, 2006; Williams, 2006). According to previous discussion, a travel experience is defined as an event in which a traveler visits an authentic place, interacts with a tourism subject (e.g., attraction, service personal, or destination), and feels various emotions.

Offering Memorable Experiences and Value Creation

A customer is a rational decision maker, as well as an emotional benefit seeker (Holbrook, 2006; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). The characteristics of a customer affect expectations, consumption experiences, and post-experience judgments in many cases (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Schwartz & Chen, 2011). For example, people spend money not only for a standard hotel room for their stay but also for a more comfortable room, attractive view, or additional amenities. The consumer's preference for hedonic

experiences has forced service providers to improve offerings, delivering more exciting and pleasant experiences beyond simply delivering good products or services (Oliver, Rust, & Varki, 1997; Torres & Kline, 2006; Williams, 2006). Pine and Gilmore (1998, 1999) have proposed a new paradigm, the so-called experience economy, which prioritizes the uniqueness and theme of products or services in order to differentiate these from competitors' offerings and create higher added value by generating memorable experiences. Existing arguments, therefore, emphasize that customer experience must be recognized as a consumable offering, and a service provider must deliver a memorable experience to customers.

Value creation has been discussed in customer experience management/marketing (Mathwick, Malhotra, & Rigdon, 2002; Mitchell & Mitchell, 2001; Schmitt, 1999) and customer experience design research (Hayes & MacLeod, 2007; Teixeira et al., 2012; Zomerdijk & Voss, 2010). Petermans, Van Cleempoel, Nuyts, and Vanrie (2009) provided the following suggestions to create value: 1) provide memorable experiences, 2) design a unique theme, 3) remove variables leading to negative experiences, 4) use a trigger evoking a positive emotion, and 5) offer customer experiences with high monetary value. This increasing interest in customer experience design and marketing demonstrates that promoting and creating appropriate customer experiences are essential practices in service management.

There is no doubt that H&T focuses on delivering valuable experiences to customers (Chen & Chen, 2010; Gilmore & Pine, 2002; Wu & Liang, 2009). Tourism marketing organizations have developed and applied various strategies to effectively appeal to prospective visitors with fun, exciting, pleasant, meaningful, or relaxing experiences (Baum, 2006; Otto & Ritchie, 1996; Zins, 2002). Researchers of traveler experience have also contributed to the development of a body of travel research by conceptualizing the concept of experience,

exploring experience dimensions, and testing their effects on the relevant constructs (Ritchie & Hudson, 2009). The majority of research has presented consistent viewpoints on customer experiences in that multiple angles (e.g., considering cognitive and affective aspects, various activities, or unique environments and atmospheres) should be used to understand the diverse dimensions of customer experience. For instance, Oh et al. (2007) developed measurements of four customer experience realms: education, esthetics, entertainment, and escapism. Otto and Ritchie (1996) presented four tourism service dimensions: hedonism, peace of mind, involvement, and recognition. In addition, Kim et al. (2010) suggested seven memorable tourism experiences: hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement, and knowledge. Furthermore, various demographic segments (e.g., young generation/seniors, minorities, or the physically challenged) have distinctive H&T experiences (Berdychevsky, Poria, & Uriely, 2012; Poria, 2006). The body of research on H&T experience shows the complexity of experience dimensions and the need to consider cognitive and affective experiences driven by diverse products, services, interactions, and environments.

Dimensions of Cruise Travel Experiences

The cruise travel industry has become more popular in the United States (Cruise Line International Association, 2014). The United States occupies the largest markets in the world, which are the Caribbean, Florida, Alaska, and California. In 2014, the number of cruise passengers was 21.7 million, a 15.1% increase since 2009. The industry created $42 billion in economic impact and employed about 365,000 people. Four hundred and ten cruise ships (467,629 beds) were in operation, and about 20 more ships will be built by 2018 (Cruise Line International Association, 2014). This increasing popularity of cruise tourism is the result of the industry's success in creating various experiences (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Hung & Petrick,

2011; Petrick, 2004). Cruise travel packages in which a passenger stays for one or more nights on a ship or boat, a so-called floating resort, have developed, offering multiple types of services and programs, such as lodging, dining, entertainment, travel, and so on. Providing diverse experiences has been recognized as one of the successes of cruise tourism (Hall & Braithwaite, 1990; Wood, 2000).

The majority of previous studies have investigated the major service types and the quality of passenger experiences, as well as testing the relationships between service quality and service outcome variables such as satisfaction, loyalty, and WOM intention (Petrick, 2004; Petrick, Tonner, & Quinn, 2006; Qu & Ping, 1999; Testa & Sullivan, 2002). However, recently, researchers have emphasized the importance of delivering new and excellent experiences to travelers and have adopted instruments to measure the quality of service experiences. Several dimensions and measurement items have developed within H&T settings. Oh et al. (2007) developed 20 questions regarding bed and breakfast lodging to measure four realms of experience (education, entertainment, esthetics, and escapism), applying the concept of the experience economy discussed by Pine and Gilmore (1998). Knutson et al. (2009) created four dimensions of hotel guest experiences: benefits, convenience, incentives, and environment. Outside of the H&T area, many researchers have examined significant experience factors (e.g., Gentile et al., 2007; Mathwick, Malhotra, & Rigdon, 2001; Schmitt, 1999). Gentile et al. (2007) commented that customer experiences may differ depending on the attributes of a given product or service.

Reviewing previous literature related to cruise products, services, and experiences, this research adopts the memorable tourism experiences developed by Kim et al. (2010) to examine the effects of cruise experience dimensions on service outcome variables. The cruise tourism

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experience is not limited to one lodging, dining, event, or entertainment experience setting (Kester, 2003; Kwortnik, 2008; Rodrigue & Notteboom, 2013; Teye & Leclerc, 1998). Instead, cruise lines provide travelers with various experiences, engaging with multiple services and environments. Seven cruise tourism experience dimensions are applied to investigating these experiences, as described below.

Hedonism. Having pleasant experiences is one of the fundamental motivations of travelers (Bigne, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005; Goossens, 2000). Travelers have strong expectations of hedonic experiences, such as fantasy, fun, and delightfulness (Goossens, 2000; Otto & Ritchie, 1996). Cruise tourism is a form of hedonism-driven consumption (Chua, Lee, Goh, & Han, 2015; Zomerdijk & Voss, 2010). This desire on the part of cruise travelers can be fulfilled by various services, such as dining, entertainment, sports, and so on (Hung & Petrick, 2011; Teye & Leclerc, 1998). Cruise tourism provides passengers with sensorial experiences on board and during shore excursions (Petrick, 2004). The pleasurable feeling experienced during or after many experiences with the comprehensive services and environments is one of the most critical experience factors. Atmosphere can be used to boost hedonic emotions, thus acting as an important influencer of perceived value or satisfaction (Dong & Siu, 2012; Duman & Mattila, 2005; Kwortnik, 2008).

Involvement. Customer involvement is an essential characteristic of travel experiences (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Customer experience is created through the interaction between a customer and products, services, environments, and service personnel (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). In addition, personalized service is a significant principle of customer experience design that plays a role in making a customer become involved or engaged in an experience. To meet

expectations, travelers directly or indirectly participate in tourism experiences (Goulding, 2000; Swinyard, 1993). Travelers spend money and time to travel, and this is a fundamental factor in creating involvement with experiences (Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997). Also, involvement is a significant influencer of performance level and evaluation of experiences (Hwang, Lee, & Chen, 2005). Cruise travel services are also designed to interact with passengers and encourage them to join in the cruise programs (Qu & Ping, 1999). Appropriate cruise experience management helps create memorable experiences that are worth money and time.

Local Culture. Travelers seek authenticity (MacCannell, 1973; Qu & Ping, 1999). Authenticity strongly attracts people to visit certain places and feel their genuine cultures. Travel destinations use cultural heritage and local events to attract more travelers (Mitchell & Orwig, 2002). Cruise travel provides a unique atmosphere that is different from hotels or theme parks. Voyaging across oceans and enjoying exotic foods/dances are examples of local cultural experiences (Rodrigue & Notteboom, 2013). Specifically, excursions during the cruise travel period are planned so that passengers can meet directly with local people, experience their original culture/sites, and purchase authentic crafts (Hung & Petrick, 2011; Jaakson, 2004; Teye & Leclerc, 1998). Therefore, many ports or terminal areas have become important travel destinations because they are near historic city centers and travel facilities such as restaurants, shops, and attractions (Jaakson, 2004).

Refreshment. A vacation is a time for rest, recreation, travel, and refreshment, as well as for leaving work behind (Tinsley, Hinson, Tinsley, & Holt, 1993; Wang, 1999). Even though preferences and activities vary among individual vacationers, being refreshed, recharged, and renewed is a very common reason for traveling (Klenosky, 2002). Forgetting one's daily life and feeling free are essential reasons to travel as well (Herbert, 2001; Hung & Petrick, 2011). The

escapism and refreshment experienced during cruise travel have been considered to be among the major experience dimensions in the previous literature (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Yarnal, 2004). Interestingly, limited access to the Internet due to the expensive charge for network connections on a ship helps passengers feel a sense of escapism. Refreshment is an important factor in improving memorability (Kim, 2014; Kim et al., 2010). Furthermore, the quality of a refreshment experience influences traveler satisfaction and future behavioral intentions (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Hung & Petrick, 2011).

Meaningfulness. Meaningfulness in travel experiences can be understood as a sense of great value or significance (Kim et al., 2010). Travelers give meaning to their traveling and vacations; for instance, they believe that traveling is a chance to have a memorable time with important people, think about one's quality of life, and improve diverse skills (Scarinci & Pearce, 2012). Several studies (Neal, Sirgy, & Uysal, 2004; Neal, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2007) have confirmed that travel experience is one of the domains affecting the quality of life of travelers. Cruise travel is a planned package lasting several days. During this period, people have time to think about the value and meaning of their own lives; obtaining a sense of meaningfulness through free time is a worthy offering, beyond simply receiving a product (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

Knowledge. Experience is an effective way of learning (Kolb, 1984). Obtaining hands-on experience is a practical way to obtain knowledge (Burka, Sarnat, & John, 2007). The consumption experience or decision-making process also includes collecting and using knowledge. Furthermore, learning is one of basic dimensions of a memorable experience (Oh et al., 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). In tourism, visiting a novel place or interacting with residents can be part of an effort to understand different cultures. Tourism destinations have unique

themes and heritages, which people would likely want to learn about (Andriotis &

Agiomirgianakis, 2010). This pattern can be found in diverse settings, such as wildlife tourism,

food tourism, and event tourism (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Curtin, 2010; Sheng & Chen, 2012).

Cruise tourism also provides passengers with various offerings, such as touring local sites and

participating in leisure activities for adults and children (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Huang &

Hsu, 2009; Rodrigue & Notteboom, 2013).

Novelty. Having new experiences is an essential motivation for traveling (Bello & Etzel,

1985; Lee & Crompton, 1992). Leaving one's home to experience new scenes and tastes at

another country provides visitors with a novel experience (Chang, Wall, & Chu, 2006). New

experiences lead to positive emotional expressions such as pleasure or curiosity. Cruise lines

create a unique atmosphere, such as an adventure voyage to the new world (Hung & Petrick,

2011). Many people select cruise travel because it is an all-inclusive package, including exotic

foods, an observatory, travel to various countries, and diverse clubs for adults and children

(Andriotis & Agiomirgianakis, 2010; Chua et al., 2015; Kwortnik, 2008).

Perceived Quality, Perceived Value, and Satisfaction in Hospitality and Tourism

Perceived quality is the customer's perception of the overall quality of a given offering

(e.g., a product, service, or experience) (Mattila, 1999; Oliver, 2010; Zeithaml, 1988). In service

management, quality is subjectively determined based on product or service performance.

Groups of researchers have proposed and developed frameworks with which to measure

perceived quality, such as SERVQUAL or DINESERV (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988;

Stevens et al., 1995). Quality of experience is distinct, as a concept, from quality of service (Otto

& Ritchie, 1996). While quality of service requires the use of an objective perspective to assess

the performance of a service, quality of experience uses a subjective viewpoint to estimate the

performance of an experience. Therefore, quality of experience refers to one's objective and subjective perceptions during or after experiences (Kao, Huang, & Wu, 2008; Ryu, Lee, & Kim, 2012).

Value is a judgment based on the comparison of performance and sacrifice, and it acts as a bridge between quality and satisfaction (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Gursoy, Spangenberg, & Rutherford, 2006; Oh, 2000; Oliver, 2010; Zeithaml, 1988). Perceived value is measured by the gap between a benefit and the related sacrifice, such as cost and time (Ashworth & Johnson, 1996; Mattila, 1999). Because payment and the time spent on a purchase are significant elements of the consumption experience and decision-making, evaluating the benefits of consumption in view of the sacrifices entailed is an effective way for a customer to assess the value of a consumption experience (Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991). Therefore, perceived value is personal and subjective (Kerin, Jain, & Howard, 1992). Researchers have broken perceived value down into multiple dimensions (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000; Helkkula, Kelleher, & Pihlström, 2012; Mathwick et al., 2001). Utilitarian value and hedonic value have been applied in various settings (Babin et al., 1994; Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Gursoy, Spangenberg, & Rutherford, 2006). Utilitarian value is associated with cognitive benefits (Childers, Carr, Peck, & Carson, 2002; Chitturi, Raghunathan, & Mahajan, 2008; Spangenberg, Voss, & Crowley, 1997). Specifically, the perception of utilitarian value is driven by the perceived quality and price of consumption (Sanchez, Callarisa, Rodriguez, & Moliner, 2006). Hedonic value is related to emotional consumption experiences, such as feelings of fun, pleasure, or excitement (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Wertenbroch & Dhar, 2000). This aspect is affected by unique and memorable offerings. Although the relative weights of these dimensions depend upon product or service type (e.g., Gentile et al., 2007), it has been documented that utilitarian value and hedonic

value are influential factors leading to satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and WOM intentions (Chitturi et al., 2008).

Customer satisfaction is a significant measurement of customer response to product or service performance (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; Yi, 1990). Satisfaction has been defined as the degree of fulfillment levels and is determined by considering the discrepancy between performance and expectations (Fornell, 1992; Oliver, 2010). Indeed, being satisfied means that a service provider fulfilled the needs or wants of a customer as expected.

In the service industry, including H&T, customer satisfaction has been emphasized as a goal of marketing and management because it has strong influence on loyalty, commitment, and future behavioral intentions (Kim & Ok, 2010; Ladhari, Brun, & Morales, 2008; Shoemaker & Lewis, 1999). Diverse factors have been examined to determine their effectiveness in improving customer satisfaction. Perceived quality and value have been greatly discussed in connection with customer satisfaction (e.g., Baker & Crompton, 2000; Chen & Chen, 2010; Han & Ryu, 2009; Zins, 2002). A customer becomes more satisfied when he/she perceives that the quality of an offering to be high and judges it to be more valuable than the time and money spent to obtain it.

These relationships have also been examined in cruise tourism. The effects of qualities of specific service elements (e.g., lodging, dining, and price) on satisfaction were tested (Zhang, Ye, Song, & Liu, 2013). It has been reported that value perception of cruise travelers has a great influence on satisfaction (Meng, Liang, & Yang, 2011). Testa and Sullivan (2002) found that F&B, lodging, and entertainment greatly affected the overall perceived quality of cruise travel. Petrick (2004) compared several research models to find the one that best explains the sequential relationships among constructs and concluded that quality and value have influential effects on

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satisfaction in cruise tourism. While previous studies have considered the perceived quality of services or facilities, Hosany and Witham (2010) paid attention to the effects of cruise travel experience quality on satisfaction and concluded that esthetics and entertainment experiences greatly affected satisfaction.

H1. Cruise Travel Experience Quality (CTEQ) has a significant influence on hedonic value.

H2. CTEQ has a significant influence on utilitarian value.

H3. Hedonic value has a significant influence on satisfaction.

H4. Utilitarian value has a significant influence on satisfaction.

Antecedents of Memory

Humans can memorize information acquired via direct or indirect experiences (Bettman, 1979; Libkuman, Stabler, & Otani, 2004). Direct experiences have an especially powerful influence on information processing as compared to indirect experiences (Sheen, Kemp, & Rubin, 2001). A customer can be easily convinced by direct experience because the information acquired throughout direct experiences is reliable (Alba et al., 1991). Therefore, direct experiences cause customers to form stronger memories (Alpert & Kamins, 1995). For example, trying a product before purchasing it has a stronger impact on one's decisions (i.e., purchasing) than watching a commercial (Smith & Swinyard, 1983).

The problem, however, is that people cannot memorize all information (Storbeck & Clore, 2008). Instead, they tend to selectively store important or impressive information, such as captivating images or judgments/emotions about events (Lynch & Srull, 1982). Hence,

researchers have attempted to explain how memory is effectively formed and used in various settings. In consumer research, researchers have discussed the fact that memory plays a significant role in decision-making processes (Heslin & Johnson, 1992; Lynch & Srull, 1982). The memory of a past experience is an important resource when planning future decision making (Alba et al., 1991). Even if a customer has a strong intention to revisit or repurchase, this intention is not always linked with an actual purchase. For instance, satisfaction has been known to be an important antecedent of positive customer behavior, such as the intention of repurchase, revisit, and recommend a product to another (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Cronin et al., 2000; Verhoef, 2003).

Customers sometimes forget their intentions, preventing them from making actual purchases or recommendations. Researchers have argued that memory plays a role in linking the intention to purchase and actual future behavior (Shapiro & Krishnan, 1999). Many researchers have argued that memories reactivated by cues (e.g., advertisements or relevant images) influence future behaviors (Alpert & Kamins, 1995; Childers & Houston, 1984; Smith & Swinyard, 1983). Therefore, a person's memorizing past experiences, judgments, pleasant feelings, and even intentions is significant for marketers who wish to affect customers' future behaviors. However, little research has been conducted regarding how customers store memories after consumption experiences and how these memories can be used by effective marketing practices.

Due to the influence of memory, it is important to understand how customers store and retrieve information. Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) claim that the cognitive and affective characteristics of customer experience are related to memory formation. Important information is more easily memorized (Conway, 2003; Levine & Pizarro, 2004). The memories of past

experiences (e.g., value compared with the price or risk of an experience) can be used for future decision making (Alba et al., 1991). The memory's performance can be affected by situational variables, such as the mood or level of involvement of customers (Alba et al., 1991; Bower, 1981; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). The majority of studies have revealed that arousing and pleasant events are effectively recorded in the memory.

In tourism, travelers are involved in direct experiences by using the five senses of hearing, sight, touch, smell, and taste (Agapito, Valle, & Mendes, 2014). Sensory experiences have been emphasized in customer experience marketing in terms of creating memorable experiences (Schmitt, 1999). New and various stimuli can create an arousing mood and become stored in the memory. For instance, visual information is more easily memorized than verbal information (Childers & Houston, 1984). Furthermore, if a picture is superior or distinctive, a customer would remember it longer and better.

According to the above arguments, important messages, evaluations, and emotional states associated with products or services would have an influence on the quality of the associated memories (Bradley, Greenwald, Petry, & Lang, 1992; Heslin & Johnson, 1992; Kensinger & Corkin, 2003). Experiences involving various senses can lead to improved memory formation (Levine & Pizarro, 2004). More hedonic and memorable travel experiences will have an influence on a traveler's memories (Kim, 2010), which will be important determinants of future behavior.

H5. Hedonic value has a significant influence on memory.

H6. Utilitarian value has a significant influence on memory.

H7. Satisfaction has a significant influence on memory.

Memory and WOM

WOM is among the most influential types of marketing (Buttle, 1998; Dichter, 1966; Mangold, Miller, & Brockway, 1999). In deciding what to purchase, a customer relies on credible information such as the previous experiences of his or her family or the recommendation of experts to make the best choice (Brown & Reingen, 1987; Tax, Chandrashekaran, & Christiansen, 1993). WOM influences the behavioral intentions and future behaviors of a WOM receiver. Especially in H&T, customers cannot try or experience products or services but instead rely on credible information obtained from family, friends, or experts (Han & Ryu, 2012; Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008). The success of online review websites, such as TripAdvisor, has been driven by WOM effects on the Internet and social media platforms (Banyai & Glover, 2012; Bronner & de Hoog, 2011; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). The previous literature has concluded that customer satisfaction is a significant predictor of WOM behavior and intentions in many service-management settings (Anderson, 1998; Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009; Litvin et al., 2008). This implies that improving customer satisfaction is an effective strategy in terms of influencing customers' future decision-making processes and positive attitudes toward specific services or consumption experiences (Buttle, 1998; Tax et al., 1993).

H8. Satisfaction has a significant influence on WOM.

Even though several antecedents (e.g., satisfaction or perceived value) of WOM have been explored in many studies (Anderson, 1998; Brown, Barry, Dacin, & Gunst, 2005; Han & Ryu, 2012; Zhang et al., 2013), research examining the roles of memory on experience quality and loyalty behaviors has been limited (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Manthiou et al., 2014; Oh et al., 2007). A potential link between memory and WOM has been found in research on the

vividness of memory or the quality of narrative. Several studies have found that the quality of later storytelling is associated with the vividness of the memories of the past experiences (Herr, Kardes, & Kim, 1991; Heuer & Reisberg, 1990; Manthiou et al., 2014). That is, vivid memories can be critical in delivering detailed narratives to another (Kozinets, De Valck, Wojnicki, & Wilner, 2010). WOM requires more detailed narratives than a simple recommendation or information sharing (Delgadillo & Escalas, 2004).

H9. Memory has a significant influence on WOM.

The Proposed Research Model

The research model examining sequential relationships proposed in the first study is depicted in Figure 4.1. Cruise travel experience quality, which consists of seven experience dimensions (hedonism, involvement, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, knowledge, and novelty) has an influence on increasing hedonic value and utilitarian value. Both value perceptions enhance satisfaction and memory, and satisfaction is an antecedent of memory. Consequently, memory plays an important role in boosting the WOM effect.

Figure 4.1 The First Research Model
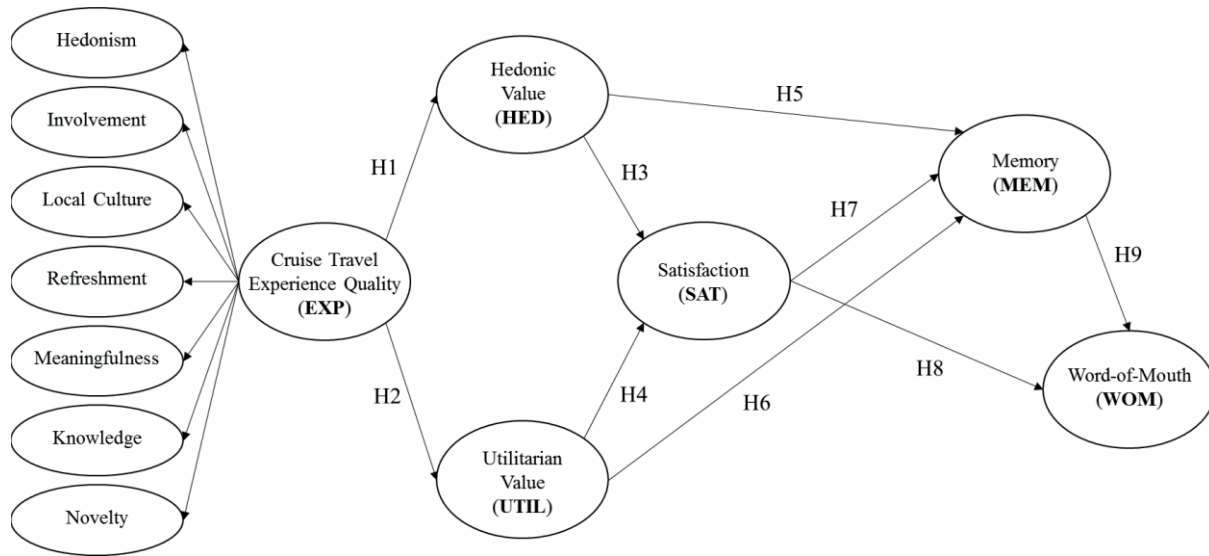
Methodology

Sampling

This survey targeted vacationers in the United States who recently (within three months) traveled via an ocean cruise ship. The questionnaire was distributed to an online survey panel provided by Qualtrics, which has a panel pool of about 6 million people in the United States. To recruit eligible respondents, three filtering questions were asked. The first question accepted only participants who had gone on a cruise within the past 90 days ("*Please enter an approximate number of days since your last trip. Please enter a numeric value.*"), and the second question was intended to accept only respondents whose purpose during their most recent cruise travel was leisure (*"What was the purpose of your travel?"* - *business or leisure*). The last filtering question was to screen out those who traveled for only one night (*"How many nights did you spend on the cruise?"* - ___ *night(s)*).

During the data collection period (February 22 to March 4 in 2016), a total of 823 travelers attempted to complete the online survey, and 448 participants (54.4%) were filtered out due to the filtering questions. Also, in the middle of the questionnaire, an attention question (*"This is an attention filter. Please select "Strongly disagree" for this statement."*) was applied to determine whether the respondents were paying attention to the survey questions. Participants who failed to check "Strongly disagree" on the attention question were removed from the final dataset. A final dataset of 375 was used for the data analysis.

Questionnaire and Measurements

The questionnaire consists of three parts: 1) the previous cruise line trip experiences (e.g., cruise line types, travel region, company, activity types, and cost per person); 2) multi-item scales to measure constructs; and 3) demographics (e.g., gender, age, race, income, and education). The multi-item scales were adopted or modified from previous studies. Seven-point Likert scales (1: strongly agree; 7: strongly disagree) were used to rate participants' responses regarding the constructs.

To measure cruise travel experience quality, 24 questions (Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Kim et al., 2010) were used. Regarding perceived value, two dimensions were considered. Three questions related to utilitarian value, and ten questions related to hedonic value (Babin et al., 1994). Satisfaction was measured via seven questions developed by (Oliver, 2010). Affect has two constructs. To measure arousal and valence, ten items were selected from scales developed by Russell (1980) and Russell and Pratt (1980). The items used to measure memory were adopted from Sheen et al. (2001). Three items were related to recollection, and five questions were associated with the vividness of memory. Finally, WOM was measured by asking about the quality of WOM or narrative. Four items developed by Harrison-Walker (2001) were adopted,

and their expressions were modified to fit the cruise travel setting. Table 4.3 lists the measurement items.

To improve the logic and legibility of the questions, a draft questionnaire was distributed to eleven faculty members who teach hospitality or tourism management and/or participated in cruise travel recently. After the pretest, the questionnaire was improved by adding questions (e.g., about the names of cruise ships) to help respondents remember their travel experiences. In addition, grammatical errors and typos were corrected. A pilot test was conducted with 40 actual cruise travelers, and the reliabilities of Cronbach's alpha were higher than .7, indicating a high level of consistency among the measured variables (Nunnally, 1978).

Analysis and Results

Data Screening

Normal data screening for univariate and multivariate outliers, multi-collinearity diagnostics were performed with the final dataset (n = 375) prior to the main analyses. There were no missing values for any variables. Standard scores (z-scores) were calculated for all samples, and six observations had extreme z-scores above 3.29 or under -3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). To check for the univariate normal distribution of variables (Hair et al, 1998), skewness scores (skewness between -1 and 1) and scatter plots were reviewed. To examine multivariate outliers, the Mahalanobis distances were inspected using the AMOS package. Compared to the critical value (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012), ten cases had higher distance values. Excluding the observations screened out, a total of 359 samples were ultimately used in the main analyses.

Profile of the Sample

The respondents in this research project consisted of slightly more females than males (57.9%). Many in this dataset were elders: 65-74 years of age (27.6%) and 55-64 years of age (24.0%). The majority of participants were white (86.4%). The largest household income groups were $50,000-74,999 (28.7%) and $75,000-99,999 (22.6%). Many people had a Bachelor's degree (35.7%) or Master's degree (25.9%). Table 4.1 provides the demographics of the survey participants.

Table 4.1 Demographics of Survey Respondents in the Final Dataset

Items		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	151	42.1
	Female	208	57.9
Age	18-24	14	3.9
	25-34	50	13.9
	35-44	41	11.4
	45-54	47	13.1
	55-64	86	24.0
	65-74	99	27.6
	75 or older	22	6.1
Ethnicity	White	310	86.4
	Black or African American	13	3.6
	American Indian or Alaska Native	3	.8
	Asian	23	6.4
	Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1	.3
	Other	9	2.5
Household Income	Less than $14,999	9	2.5
	$15,000-24,999	7	1.9
	$25,000-49,999	39	10.9
	$50,000-74,999	103	28.7
	$75,000-99,999	81	22.6
	$100,000-124,999	43	12.0
	$125,000-149,999	29	8.1
	$150,000 or higher	48	13.4
Education	High school/GED	30	8.4
	Some college	84	23.4
	Bachelor degree	128	35.7
	Master's degree	93	25.9
	Advanced graduate work or PhD/MD/JD	24	6.7

Note: N = 359.

Cruise Travel Experiences

Almost one-third of the respondents cruised for seven nights (32.3%). Many people used Royal Caribbean International (23.7%), Carnival Cruise Lines (15.6%), and Norwegian Cruise Line (15.0%). The majority of survey participants visited the areas of Caribbean/Bahamas/Mexico/Panama/South America (65.3%). More than half of the participants traveled with family, including parents, children, or seniors (56.5%). Among the respondents, the travel package of $1,000-1,999 per person (32.9%) was the most popular one. Most participated in activities during the cruise: excursion - local tour (73.5% of all respondents), movie/show/festival (73.0%), and shopping on a ship (70.5%). More information is provided in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Cruise Traveler Experience Patterns

Experience patterns		Frequency	Percent
Number of nights	2	5	1.4
	3	11	3.1
	4	24	6.7
	5	22	6.1
	6	37	10.3
	7	116	32.3
	8	19	5.3
	9	11	3.1
	10	42	11.7
	11	7	1.9
	12	11	3.1
	13	4	1.1
	14	20	5.6
	15 days or more	30	8.4
Cruise line (company)	Royal Caribbean International	85	23.7
	Norwegian Cruise Line	54	15.0
	Cunard (Queen Mary)	6	1.7
	P&O Cruises (Britannia)	3	.8
	Princess Cruises	44	12.3
	MSC Cruises	1	.3

	Costa Cruise	1	.3
	Carnival Cruise Lines	56	15.6
	Disney Cruise Line	31	8.6
	Celebrity Cruises	28	7.8
	Others	50	13.9
Region (multiple choice)	Caribbean/Bahamas/Mexico/Panama/South America	258	65.3[a]
	Alaska	16	4.1[a]
	Hawaii	40	10.1[a]
	Europe/Mediterranean	38	9.6[a]
	Australia/New Zealand/South Pacific	15	3.8[a]
	Africa/Asia	8	2.0[a]
	Others	20	5.1[a]
Company type	Family (Parents + Children + or Seniors)	203	56.5
	Senior (Only seniors)	36	10.0
	Friend(s)	87	24.2
	Alone	18	5.0
	Others	15	4.2
Cost per person	$199 or less	5	1.4
	$200-499	44	12.3
	$500-999	87	24.2
	$1,000-1,999	118	32.9
	$2,000-2,999	47	13.1
	$3,000 or more	58	16.2
Activity type (multiple choice)	Excursion - local tour	264	73.5
	Excursion activities (ex. zip line, snorkeling)	142	39.6
	Bars/nightclub	185	51.5
	Spa/fitness	171	47.6
	Kids and teens program	59	16.4
	Sports	63	17.5
	Waterworks and pools	177	49.3
	Casino	190	52.9
	Movie/show/festival	262	73.0
	Library	127	35.4
	Shopping on a ship	253	70.5
	Shopping locally	31	8.6

Note: N =359; [a] – Percentages of the number of total answers (n=395).

Measurement Model and Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The dimensionality of each construct and the fit of the research model were examined using CFA. Seven variables (EXP2, HED2, HED7, HED8, HED9, HED10, and MEM6) had loadings below .7 and were removed (see the note in Table 4.3). By estimating the residual covariances, it was concluded that two variables (EXP13 and SAT1) were potentially problematic in terms of ensuring multivariate normality and improving model fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). After the treatment, the CFA results showed fairly satisfactory measurement model fit (RMSEA = .062; IFI = .920; TLI = .914; CFI = .920). Regarding the evaluation of model fit, Bagozzi and Yi (1988) claim that goodness-of-fit indices should be higher than .9. In this study, the indices were .914 or higher, which is satisfactory. According to the criteria, the chi-square value should not be statistically significant ($\chi^2(1006) = 2399.527$, $p < .001$), yet the chi-square value has frequently been significant due to the effect of sample size. Given a large sample size, this problem does not necessarily indicate an invalid model fit (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Table 4.3 reports the factor loadings. The minimum loading was .753, and all were satisfactory (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006).

Table 4.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Loadings and Reliabilities

Construct and scale items	Standardized loadings [a]
Cruise Traveler Experience Quality	
Hedonism	**.892**
EXP1. I was thrilled about having a new experience.	.803
EXP3. I really enjoyed this tourism experience.	.821
EXP4. My experiences were exciting.	.932
Involvement	**.924**
EXP5. It was a once-in-a lifetime experience.	.862
EXP6. My experiences were unique.	.931
EXP7. My experiences were different from previous experiences.	.864
EXP8. I experienced something new.	.831
Local Culture	**.842**
EXP9. My experiences provided good impressions about the local people.	.885
EXP10. I closely experienced the local culture.	.867

EXP11. Local people in a destination were friendly.	.786
Refreshment	**.862**
EXP12. My experiences were liberating.	.903
EXP14. My experiences were refreshing.	.923
EXP15. I was revitalized.	.848
Meaningfulness	**.882**
EXP16. I did something meaningful.	.882
EXP17. I did something important.	.911
EXP18. I learned about myself.	.794
Knowledge	**.939**
EXP19. I visited a place where I really wanted to go.	.828
EXP20. I enjoyed activities that I really wanted to do.	.845
EXP21. I was interested in the main activities of this tourism experience.	.867
Novelty	**.865**
EXP22. My experiences were exploratory.	.900
EXP23. My experiences were knowledgeable.	.899
EXP24. I experienced a new culture.	.813
Utilitarian Value	
UTIL1. I accomplished just what I wanted on this cruise travel.	.833
UTIL2. I got what I really wanted to experience.	.921
UTIL3. While traveling, I found just the experience(s) I was looking for.	.874
Hedonic Value	
HED1. This cruise travel was truly a joy.	.868
HED3. This cruise travel felt like an escape.	.769
HED4. Compared to other things I could have done, the time spent traveling was enjoyable.	.828
HED5. I enjoyed being immersed in exciting new experiences.	.773
HED6. I enjoyed this cruise travel for its own sake, not just for the activities in which I may have participated.	.758
Satisfaction	
SAT2. I am satisfied with my decision to choose cruise travel.	.878
SAT3. I have truly enjoyed this cruise travel experience.	.936
SAT4. My cruise travel has been a good experience.	.920
SAT5. I'm sure it was the right thing to decide on this cruise travel experience.	.872
SAT6. Cruise travel delighted me greatly.	.818
SAT7. Selecting the cruise travel experience was wise.	.895
Memory	
MEM1. I can relive my experiences.	.833
MEM2. I can recall participating in my experiences.	.866
MEM3. I can remember experiences from my travel.	.845
MEM4. I can hear travel experiences in my mind.	.760
MEM5. I can see travel experiences in my mind.	.799
MEM7. I can feel the emotions now that I experienced during travel.	.763
MEM8. I can remember the setting of my cruise experiences.	.737
WOM	
WOM1. I mention my cruise travel experiences to others quite frequently.	.803

WOM2. I have told more people about my cruise travel experiences than I have told about most other travel experiences.	.852
WOM3. I seldom miss an opportunity to tell others about my cruise travel experiences.	.881
WOM4. When I tell others about my travel experiences, I tend to talk about the cruise travel experience in great detail.	.899

Note: [a] - All factor loadings are significant at $p < .001$.
Values in bold represent loadings of the first-order factors.
Deleted variables:
  EXP2. I indulged in the activities.
  HED2. I continue to book cruise-travel not because I have to but because I want to.
  HED7. I had a good time because I was able to act on the spur of the moment.
  HED8. During the cruise travel, I felt the excitement of the hunt.
  HED9. While traveling, I was able to forget my problems.
  HED10. While traveling, I felt a sense of adventure.
  MEM6. I can remember the spatial layout of the cruise ship.
  EXP13. I enjoyed a sense of freedom.
  SAT1. This was one of the best experiences that I could have had.

The average variance extracted (AVE) was calculated to assess the convergent validity of the constructs. All AVEs of the constructs were above .5, confirming that the measurements within each construct are closely related to one another (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The composite reliability indices were very high, proving that the internal consistency was acceptable (Hair et al., 2006); the minimum reliability index was .909. To test the discriminant validity among the constructs, AVE indices and squared correlations were compared (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Even though correlations among several constructs were high, the constructs were probably not perfectly correlated, because the model fits worsened when two constructs were merged (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kenny, 2011).

Table 4.4 Descriptive Statistics, Composite Reliabilities, Correlations, and Squared Correlations

	Mean (SD)	AVE	EXP	UTIL	HED	SAT	MEM	WOM
EXP	2.38 (1.00)	.747	**.985**[a]	.761[b]	.820	.662	.840	.693
UTIL	2.07 (.98)	.769	.579[c]	**.909**	.890	.821	.771	.626
HED	1.91 (.89)	.541	.672[d]	.792[d]	**.899**	.909	.869	.687
SAT	1.80 (.93)	.787	.438	.674	.826[d]	**.957**	.767	.596
MEM	2.05 (.83)	.643	.706[d]	.594	.755[d]	.588	**.926**	.663
WOM	2.60 (1.31)	.739	.480	.392	.472	.355	.440	**.919**

Goodness-of-fit: $\chi^2(1190) = 2448.769$, $p < .001$
RMSEA = .061; IFI = .918; TLI = .912; CFI = .918
Note: AVE = average variance extracted; EXP = cruise traveler experience quality; UTIL = utilitarian value; HED = hedonic value; SAT = satisfaction; MEM = memory; WOM = word-of-mouth.
[a] Composite reliabilities are along the diagonal in bold.
[b] Correlations are above the diagonal.
[c] Squared correlations are below the diagonal.
[d] The square of the correlations between some constructs were higher than the AVE of SAT, as well as MEM. This implies that several constructs have a problem in terms of proving discriminant validity. As suggested by Kenny (2011), a correlation between constructs that is above .85 indicates poor discriminant validity. According to recommendations (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kenny, 2011), the model fits of the test models that collapsed two factors into one construct were worsened. This implies that constructs having higher squared correlations are not perfectly correlated, suggesting discriminant validity.

Structural Model and Relationship Test

SEM was conducted to verify the relationships among constructs, followed by CFA. The goodness-of-fit indices were as follows: RMSEA = .067; IFI = .907; TLI = .901; CFI = .907; χ^2 (1012) = 2622.965, $p < .001$. Coefficients and *t*-values were estimated (Figure 4.2). EXP was composed of seven first-order factors with significant relationships ($p < .001$). The second-factor analysis showed that the first-order latent constructs (hedonic, involvement, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, knowledge, and novelty) were significantly related to the second-order factor (Cruise Travel Experience Quality, or EXP).

The coefficients between EXP and HED ($\beta = .85$, $t = 12.53$) and EXP and UTIL ($\beta = .79$, $t = 12.73$) were significant, supporting H1 and H2. EXP accounted for 72.7% of the total variance of HED and 62.3% of the variance of UTIL. SAT was significantly related with HED (β

= .68, t = 11.91) and UTIL (β = .26, t = 5.72), supporting H3 and H4. Together, HED and UTIL explained 77.5% of the variance of SAT. The relationship between SAT and MEM was not significant (β = -.118, t = -1.490, p = .136), but HED (β = .87, t = 9.53) and UTIL (β = .18, t = 3.51) were significantly related with MEM. H5 and H6 were supported, but H7 was rejected. Also, 80.9% of the variance of MEM was explained by HED and UTIL. The relationships between SAT and WOM (β = .18, t = 2.51) and MEM and WOM (β = .54, t = 7.11) were significant. H8 and H9 were supported. Also, 47.4% of the variance of WOM was explained by SAT and MEM.

Figure 4.2 Structural Model and Path Coefficients (*t*-values)
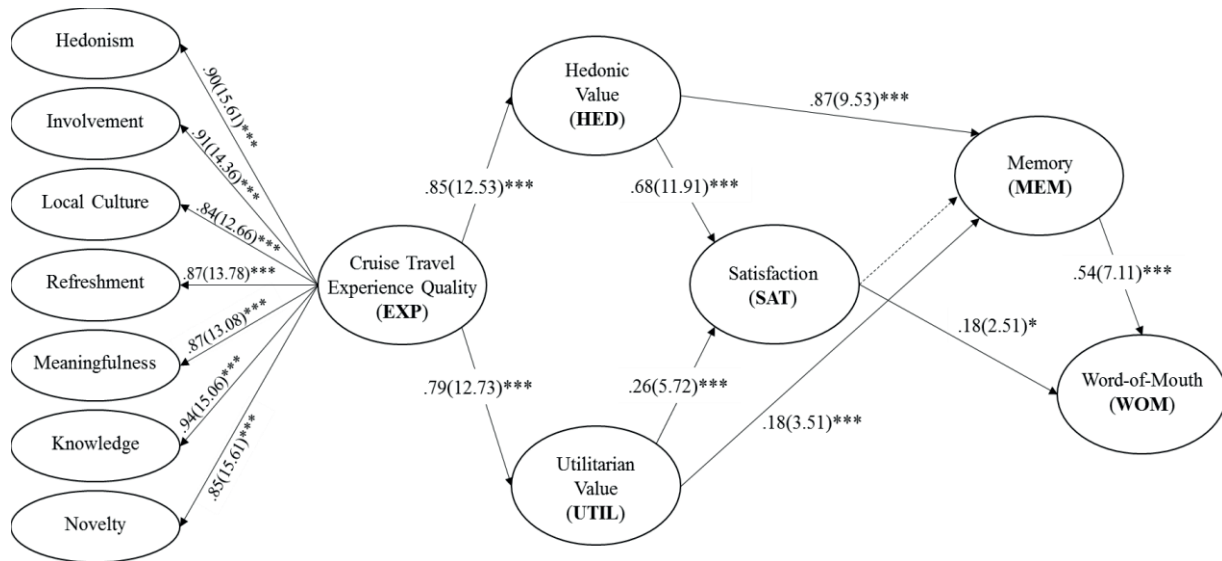
Note: * p < .05; *** p < .001.
Numbers in parentheses are *t*-values.
Numbers outside of parenteses are standarized path coefficients.
A dotted line indicates a non-significant path (p > .05).
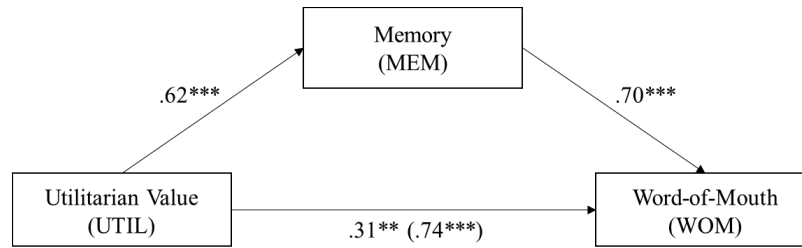
Mediation Effects of Memory

Before the mediation effect analysis, the values of the manifest variables of five latent variables (HED, UTIL, SAT, MEM, and WOM) were transformed into single variables by averaging the associated variables of each construct. Data screening procedures with five new variables detected two univariate outliers and eight multivariate outliers. The indices regarding multicollinearity were reviewed. Because there was no significant pattern among the outliers, ten outliers were removed, and a dataset of 349 samples was used in the mediation analysis.

The mediating roles of memory were examined by using "INDIRECT," which is a plugin for SPSS (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Utilitarian value, hedonic value, and satisfaction are predictors (IVs), memory plays the role of mediator, and WOM is a dependent variable (DV). When other effects are constrained, the mediating effects of memory with regard to each predictor were assessed individually.

Utilitarian Value – Memory – WOM

The research model (Figure 4.3) was designed to verify the mediation effect on the part of MEM between UTIL and WOM. Regressions analysis was used to verify the mediation effect using a bootstrapping of 1,000 samples (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The results show that UTIL is a significant antecedent of MEM, a path ($\beta = .62$, $t = 17.51$, $p < .001$), and that MEM also has a significant effect by increasing WOM, b path, ($\beta = .70$, $t = 8.08$, $p < .001$). In addition, note that the direct effect on the part of UTIL on WOM is significant ($\beta = .31$, $t = 3.94$, $p < .01$) and that the total mediating effect on the part of UTIL and MEM was also significant ($\beta = .74$, $t = 11.95$, $p < .001$). In the model, it was proven that MEM is a partial mediator. The indirect mediation effect through MEM represents 58.4% of the total effect of UTIL on WOM.

Figure 4.3 Mediating Effect of Memory between Utilitarian Value and WOM

Note: **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.
$R^2 = .401$, F (2, 346) = 117.19, $p < .001$.
Total effects of UTIL on WOM = .74 (direct effect = .31).
Indirect mediation effect of MEM between UTIL and WOM = 58.4% of the total effect.

Hedonic Value – Memory – WOM

Utilizing the same procedure shown above, the research model was used to test the direct or indirect effect of HED on WOM through MEM (Figure 4.4). The results show that hedonic value is an effective predictor of memory ($\beta = .78$, $t = 22.79$, $p < .001$) and that memory also has a significant influence on WOM ($\beta = .53$, $t = 5.37$, $p < .01$). The direct effect of hedonic value in terms of improving WOM was statistically verified ($\beta = .53$, $t = 5.37$, $p < .001$), and the total mediation effect on the part of hedonic value and memory was also proven ($\beta = .93$, $t = 14.49$, $p < .001$). A partial mediating role of memory between hedonic value and WOM was reported. The indirect mediating effect of MEM between HED and WOM is 43.7% of the total effect of HED.

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Figure 4.4 Mediating Effect of Memory between Hedonic Value and WOM

**p < .01, ***p < .001
R^2 = .425, F (2, 346) = 127.85, p < .001
Total effects of HED on WOM = .93 (direct effect = .53).
Indirect mediation effect on the part of MEM between HED and WOM = 43.7% of the total effect.

Satisfaction – Memory – WOM

Applying the bootstrapping estimation, the research model (Figure 4.5) is used to examine the mediating role of MEM between SAT and WOM. The mediation analysis showed that SAT is a significant antecedent of MEM (β = .70, t = 19.24, p < .001) and that MEM is a significant predictor of WOM (β = .71, t = 7.82, p < .001). Also, the results showed that SAT is directly effective in increasing WOM (β = .30, t = 3.35, p < .01) and that the total mediating effect on the part of SAT and MEM was also significant (β = .80, t = 11.90, p < .001). Based on these results, a partial mediating effect on the part of MEM in the relationship between SAT and WOM exists. Approximately 62.6% of the total effect of SAT on WOM is transferred by the indirect mediating effect of MEM.

Figure 4.5 Mediating Effect of Memory between Satisfaction and WOM

**p < .01, ***p < .001.
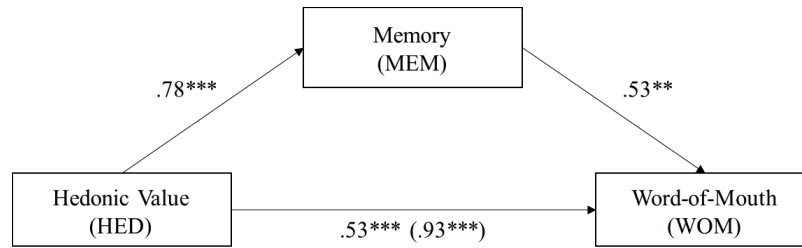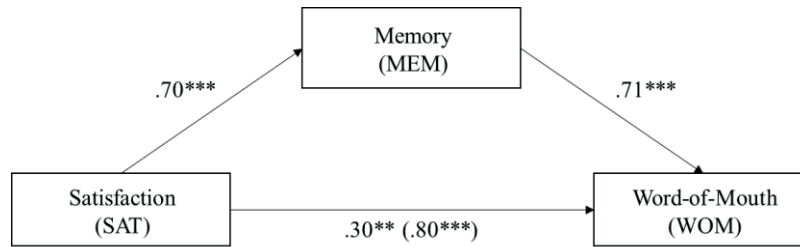R^2 = .400, F (2, 346) = 113.72, p < .001.
Total effects of SAT on WOM = .80 (direct effect = .30).
Indirect mediation effect on the part of MEM between SAT and WOM = 62.6% of the total effect.

Discussion and Implications

This research attempted to demonstrate that creating memory in travel experience management is essential to enhance WOM of cruise travelers. Customer memorable experience management and marketing have evolved in the hospitality and tourism industries. This study examining roles of traveler's memories presented researchers and marketers meaningful topics regarding how to create good memories and how to facilitate WOM behaviors, which is a critical information source in travel planning procedures, after memory acquisition.

Reviewing relevant literature, it was proposed that the quality of traveler experiences is an influential predictor of memory formation. To improve existing arguments pertinent to the relationship between experience quality and memory acquisition, this research paid more attention to the hedonic value perception of travelers to deliver the effect of experience quality onto vividness of memory than utilitarian value. Since existing studies have documented that customer satisfaction is a desirable outcome in service management followed by experience quality and perceived value, this study hypothesized that customer satisfaction plays a critical

role in linking among travel experience quality, value perception, memory, and WOM. A research model consisting of nine hypotheses was developed to exam paths from experience quality to WOM in travel experience, particularly focusing on memory.

The results of this study showed significant effects of the memorable tourism experience quality on enhancing WOM behaviors through memory formation among travelers. The relevant constructs (perceived value and satisfaction), followed by traveler experiences, were examined to explain the procedures used to improve the quality of memories about travel experience. In addition, the results indicated an important role on the part of memory in linking judgments regarding memorable experience quality and WOM. As mentioned in the introduction, four issues must be discussed based on the results and of this research project.

Significant Antecedents of Memory

Much like previous studies have proven the relation between experience quality and memory in lodging, cruise tourism, or festival tourism settings (Hosany & Witham, 2010; Manthiou et al., 2014; Oh et al., 2007), this research project also supported the idea that the quality of cruise traveler experiences is a significant predictor of memory. After reviewing several scales (e.g., Kim et al., 2010; Knutson et al., 2007; Oh et al., 2007), the seven dimensions developed by Kim et al. were adopted (2010, 2014), and it was proven that the quality of cruise travel experiences, consisting of hedonism, involvement, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, knowledge, and novelty, has an influence on memory.

This research further examined the roles of perceived value and satisfaction in connecting experience quality and memory. Many studies have proven the relationships between perceived quality, value perception, and satisfaction in H&T (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Chen & Chen, 2010; Oh, 2000; Ryu et al., 2012). However, in contrast to other studies, this study utilized a

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theoretical framework to examine their contributory roles in building consumers' post-experience memories. As the previous literature has explained (Alpert & Kamins, 1995; Bettman, 1979; Lynch & Srull, 1982), people (i.e., customers) tend to memorize important information, such as the value of products or the quality of services, for use in decision making in the future. This implies that travelers may not memorize their experiences just as they are but instead keep them in mind as practically and hedonically valuable information. This interpretation is consistent with conceptual arguments regarding memorable-experience marketing. As Pine and Gilmore (1998) argue, appropriate memorable-experiences management should aim for value creation. The core concept of value creation is making customers perceive that consumption experiences are beneficial and encouraging them to consume more valuable (e.g., meaningful or delightful) experiences.

Importance of Satisfaction and Memory on WOM

This study hypothesized effects of experience quality on the part of satisfaction and memory on WOM in tourism-experience marketing. According to the results of the SEM and mediation effect analysis, satisfaction and memory were clearly proven to increase WOM behaviors. Unveiling a contributing role on the part of memory in WOM is one of the meaningful findings of this study because WOM is a significant source of referral marketing in the H&T market (Han & Ryu, 2012; Litvin et al., 2008). Although a number of researchers have documented that experience quality, perceived value, and satisfaction are significant factors in forming the intention to recommend or spread the word about consumption experiences (e.g., Chen & Chen, 2010; File, Judd, & Prince, 1992; Jeong & Jang, 2011), the effect of memory on WOM has been largely ignored in H&T research.

In addition to the direct effect of memory on WOM, the mediation role of memory in WOM was also supported. Hedonic value, utilitarian value, and satisfaction with the quality of cruise travel experiences influence WOM via a traveler's memory. The attributes of products, services, and consumption experiences are sources used in constructing WOM narratives (Delgadillo & Escalas, 2004; Fitzgerald, 1988). Specifically, Duhan, Johnson, Wilcox, and Harrell (1997) claimed that attributes available from the memory play a significant role in determining the quality of storytelling. This study shows that memory mediates substantial sizes of effects of value perception and satisfaction on travel experiences; 58.4% of the total effect of utilitarian value, 43.7% of that of hedonic value, and 62.6% of that of satisfaction were delivered via the quality of memory to WOM. Researchers in tourism marketing who seek the antecedents of WOM must therefore pay attention to the roles of memory.

The SEM results show that satisfaction is not connected to memory when other effects are estimated simultaneously. Rather than through satisfaction, traveler memory was affected by both hedonic and utilitarian value. Although various research projects have reported a strong relationship between customer satisfaction and memory, Andreassen and Lindestad (1998) found that customers memorize perceptions or functions of consumption experience quality, while satisfaction leads to loyalty. Several research projects (Alba et al., 1991; Alpert & Kamins, 1995; Lynch & Srull, 1982) on the information used in memory formation have found that events are memorized in the form of important information or emotionally impressive images, not overall evaluations. This study has shown that the effect of travel satisfaction on improving memory may be limited when value perception is involved as a predictor of memory.

Effects of Affective Judgment on Satisfaction and Memory

This study revealed that the quality of cruise traveler experiences affects memory, especially throughout hedonic value. The coefficients of the relationships between value perception and memory were .18 (utilitarian value – memory) and .87 (hedonic value – memory). This means that for cruise travel experiences, the relationship between the hedonic value and memory is stronger than that between utilitarian value and memory, as well as that hedonic value plays a more important role in helping travelers memorize their experiences than utilitarian value. Similar results have been reported in existing literature (e.g., Bigné, Mattila, & Andreu, 2008; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Williams, 2006). Those studies have emphasized the power of the emotional side of consumption, such as delight, excitement, and fantasy, in H&T, and this is a core principle of memorable-customer-experience management (Gilmore & Pine, 2002). In addition, many researchers have proven that emotional words, images, and events can be more effectively memorized than non-emotional ones (Christianson & Loftus, 1987; Libkuman et al., 2004; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). This study also supported the claim that the emotional stimuli evoked by a consumption experience are encoded in the memory more easily than non- or less emotional judgments regarding experiences.

Relationships between Experience Quality, Value Perception, and Satisfaction

Satisfaction has been known as an essential indicator of successful service management (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha, & Bryant, 1996; Oliver, 2010). This study also supports the argument that experience quality, value perception, and satisfaction are significantly related. The sequential links have been documented in service management (e.g., Gallarza & Saura, 2006; Oh, 2000). Based on the recommendations of previous researchers (Gentile et al., 2007), this study specified the dimensions of cruise travel experiences (hedonism, involvement, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, knowledge, and novelty) and examined the effects of

travel experience quality on two value perceptions that link experience quality and satisfaction. As mentioned in previous studies (e.g., Baum, 2006; Gilmore & Pine, 2002; Zins, 2002), the hedonic factor had greater influence in terms of evaluating consumption experiences in a tourism setting as compared to the utilitarian factor.

Managerial Implications

The cruise lines have been innovative regarding service management, incorporating customer-experience management and marketing systems (Kwortnik, 2008; Kwortnik & Thompson, 2009). Providing various products, services, and experiences as a travel package has been a success, attracting more passengers to cruise lines and leading to the continuous growth of the market (Dwyer & Forsyth, 1998; Hung & Petrick, 2011). This study supported the fact that service delivery procedures should be effectively designed to create memorable experiences during cruise travel (Zomerdijk & Voss, 2010). For marketers and service managers in cruise tourism, this study has several implications.

First, they must understand the importance of creating memorable experiences. This research demonstrated that the seven experience dimensions enhances the quality of memory, which is significantly associated with WOM behaviors of travelers. Customer service managers need to assess if they are correctly designing and offering products, services, and environments to create hedonism, involvement, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, knowledge, and novelty experiences. Previous cruise companies and researchers have investigated customer satisfaction or service quality. Surveying or interviewing passengers to ask quality of the experience type questions is a way to measure successful customer memorable experience management or marketing. Providing photos or videos for passengers is one suggestion to improve the vividness or durability of memory about traveler experiences.

Second, customer-experience management in tourism should put more emphasis on creating and offering hedonic benefits. This study revealed that hedonic value is more critical in determining cruise travelers' satisfaction and memory than utilitarian value. For instance, thrilling activity programs creating hedonic experiences or educational programs introducing beauty of a travel destination would help memory formation and ultimately improve travelers' WOM behaviors after cruise travel. Emphasizing hedonic value in service management has been discussed frequently (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Wertenbroch & Dhar, 2000). Cruise tourism managers could hire and train crews who are amenable to develop services to improve passengers' perceptions of emotional benefits (e.g., excitement or relaxation). Furthermore, since hedonic value is a subjective judgment, perceived benefits after various cruise travel experiences should be assessed from the customer's perspective. One suggestion would be that companies or managers develop experience programs based on customer feedback or and evaluate what services and experiences truly generate hedonic benefits (e.g., being joyful, excited, or enjoyable).

Third, the cruise tourism industry should shift a paradigm in service management from focusing on increasing customer satisfaction to creating memorable experiences for travelers. The leadership of the industry must elevate the discussion of the value of customer-experience management and marketing. Memorable experiences should be considered to be an essential part of their business goals, strategies, or missions. This study presented that travelers will tell others details about their cruise experiences after creating vivid memories, which will be a credible information source of information, affecting the WOM receivers' decision making (Buttle, 1998; Delgadillo & Escalas, 2004; Govers, Go, & Kumar, 2007). Therefore, the paradigm shift

emphasizing the significance of memory would provide managers marketing advantages to attract more people throughout the effect of WOM.

Limitation and Suggestions for Future Study

This study has several limitations. First, this study investigated traveler experiences and perceptions in a cruise tourism setting. The interpretation of the results is thus limited to cruise travel and needs to be expanded to include overall travel experiences. The survey used in this study asked about cruise travel experiences in a limited period (within 90 days prior to the survey period: February and March). Future research should be conducted in different settings, such as events, leisure/sports, and so on. Future research should be designed to include different seasons. Also, various experience types and their effects could be examined in different regions (e.g., the Caribbean versus Alaska). Secondly, discriminant validity with several constructs (e.g., hedonic value and memory) was an issue in the analyses. Even though comparing the model fits before and after constructs were combined indicated that there were no problems, it would be beneficial for other researchers that future research discusses the development of instruments to measure constructs such as hedonic value in the tourism experience setting.

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Chapter 5 - Emotion and Memory: Arousal as a Moderator

Abstract

Emotion is known to be a significant factor in the memory formation process. In spite of its importance in consumer behavior, little research has examined the relationship between emotion and memory in the hospitality and tourism field. Reviewing the relevant literature, it was posited that two dimensions of affect (i.e., arousal and valence) regarding travel experiences influence memory related to tourism experiences. The moderating role of arousal in the relationship between emotional valence and memory was additionally hypothesized. This research collected the responses of 375 cruise travelers. Two emotional dimensions (arousal and valence) were found to be effective predictors of increased memory quality, but the moderating effect of arousal was not supported. Based on the findings of this study, practical implications for the tourism industry are provided, along with ideas for future research.

Keywords: Arousal, Valence, Memory, Tourism Experience

Introduction

Travelers want to remember their experiences (Ballantyne, Packer, & Sutherland, 2011; Bower, 1981). There are two ways to form memories. They take pictures or videos to capture memorable experiences (Aho, 2001) or store feelings, information, and images in their memories. This is an important post-experience for travelers who want to cherish various feelings evoked at the site and share stories with family, friends, or others (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Sellick, 2004). Furthermore, memory helps people form or change attitudes and loyalties on a subject, and recalling a memory will influence the planning of future travel experiences (Manthiou, Lee, Tang, & Chiang, 2014).

The literature has claimed significant effects of memory on judgment and decision making regarding future purchasing. Therefore, creating vivid memories is an important mission for marketers who want to increase brand awareness or spread the word about their products or services. One problem, however, is that customers cannot memorize entire experiences or recall all memory stored during consumption experiences (Bettman, 1979; Lynch & Srull, 1982). They can only remember parts of experiences (Curtin, 2010). This implies that humans remember selectively, depending on external situations or internal conditions. In many research areas, such as memory, cognition, and consumer psychology, researchers have paid attention to the relationship between affect and memory. The majority of studies have claimed that surprising, arousing, and pleasant events are more efficiently memorized and recalled than non-emotional ones (e.g., Heuer & Reisberg, 1990; Lynch & Srull, 1982; Mickley Steinmetz, Schmidt, Zucker, & Kensinger, 2012). Many studies have documented that arousal is significantly related to memory (e.g., Sharot & Phelps, 2004) and that arousal has a great influence on customer behaviors such as judgment and learning (e.g., Groeppel-Klein, 2005; Storbeck & Clore, 2008).

There are various emotional expressions, such as pleasant, sad, and relaxing (Russell, 1980). The existing literature related to the variety of emotional expressions has proposed that arousal and valence form the two axes characterizing emotional experiences (Plutchik, 1980). Reviewing previous studies of the accuracy or duration of memory (e.g., Bradley, Greenwald, Petry, & Lang, 1992; Heuer & Reisberg, 1990), it is posited that these two characteristics have significant effects on memory formation.

Researchers have continually proven that evoking exciting, fantastic, or delightful emotions in customers is a critical step in offering a memorable experience, which leads to satisfaction and future behavioral intentions (Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Torres & Kline, 2006; Williams, 2006). Research on how various emotions affect memory formation, however, has been rare in hospitality and tourism (H&T) fields (Kim, 2010). The H&T industry has focused on designing excellent services and experiences for customers and offering hedonic benefits, such as pleasant, exciting, or relaxing services (Johnson, Olsen, & Andreassen, 2009; Unger & Kernan, 1983; Zins, 2002). In tourism, emotional experience creates a strong impression (Aho, 2001). Studies have supported the notion that more interesting events are encoded in consumers' minds (Chin, 2004). Travelers remember hedonic moments longer and/or more accurately than ordinary ones (Kim, 2010). Even though providing memorable experiences is an important marketing strategy in H&T, research supporting the above-described link has been scarce.

Therefore, this study aims to explore relationships between emotional domains (arousal and valence) and memory regarding travel experiences. To examine these relationships, this study measures levels of arousal, valence, and memory formed after cruise experiences. According to the existing discussion, a research model is proposed to test the effects of the emotional constructs on improving memory. This study provides a theoretical contribution for

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researchers and also suggests feasible implications for managers by summarizing the research results.

Literature Review

Arousal and Valence

Affect is a state of feeling or emotion (Russell, 1980; Russell, Lewicka, & Niit, 1989). Various emotions occur during or after experiences, and the emotions evoked by stimuli are significantly associated with human cognition and behavior. Affect is not a merely simple emotional expression but an important intermediary between assessing a stimulus and determining an appropriate behavior (Plutchik, 2001). For example, a triggering event (e.g., a threat) leads to a particular cognition (e.g., danger), and the related perception (e.g., facing danger) evokes an emotion (e.g., fear). The feeling results in choosing an optimized behavior (e.g., fleeing from the threat) to obtain a desirable outcome after the behavior (e.g., safety).

Scholars have proposed several frameworks with which to understand human emotions. Plutchik (1980, 2001) developed the so-called "Plutchik's wheel of emotions." The model visualizes the complexity of emotional expressions stimulated by various events (e.g., joy, sadness, or surprise). The conceptual wheel consists of basic eight emotions (joy, trust, fear, surprise, sadness, anticipation, anger, and disgust), and additional emotions are created via combinations of the basic emotional types and various emotional degrees. Russell (1980) also proposed the "Circumplex Model of affect" to define distinctive human emotions. Similar to the Plutchik's model, eight fundamental emotions (pleasure, excitement, arousal, distress, misery, depression, sleepiness, and contentment) and 28 other expressions are identified in the Circumplex Model. Russell's model has contributed to the development of emotion research by emphasizing two main axes: arousal (arousal – sleepiness) and valence (pleasure – misery).

It is known that arousal and valence are distinctive and independent constructs (Feldman, 1995; Lang, Dhillon, & Dong, 1995). While arousal refers to the strength of an emotion, valence indicates the polarity, positive or negative, of an emotion (Storbeck & Clore, 2008). Although an emotion (e.g., being drowsy or feeling pleasant) can be created with only one dimension, either arousal or valence, many feelings can be formed by the combination of these two axes. For instance, delight can occur due to high arousal and highly pleasant feelings (Russell, 1980). Indeed, the state of being very positive emotionally (high valence) is strongly amplified by being highly aroused, generating a positive and surprising emotion called delight.

Arguments regarding human emotion have made critical contributions to the understanding of customer emotions. Researchers have explored the roles of two emotional domains in consumer behaviors and experiences (e.g., Feldman, 1995; Lazarus, 1991; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Zins, 2002). Arousal is an emotional feature of customer behavior influencing motivation, information processing, and interaction during events (Groeppel-Klein, 2005). Arousal is also related to utilitarian (cognitive) value perception in post-consumption experiences, and it plays a role in improving the magnitude of pleasant feelings and satisfaction (Bigne, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005; Mano & Oliver, 1993). Valence refers to fulfilling the emotional desires of customers who want to feel pleasure (Dube & Le Bel, 2003). The measurement scope of valence (from being pleasant to being unpleasant) is closely associated with the definition of customer satisfaction, which is feeling pleasant after consumption (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 2010). Many researchers have shown that pleasure is a meaningful construct linked to experience quality, satisfaction, delight, and WOM (e.g., Huang, 2001; Machleit & Eroglu, 2000; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Zins, 2002).

Memory in Customer Experience

Memory refers to information processing, and it is a critical process affecting customer experience (Bettman, 1979). Customers encode various information collected from past experiences, store significant information, and recall necessary information to make decisions and form specific attitudes (Alba et al., 1991; Alpert & Kamins, 1995). Due to the significant role of memory, many researchers have studied memory formation. Because no person can memorize all information, researchers in diverse disciplines, including psychology and communication, have explored the antecedents of memory to understand what causes people to store certain events in memory and recall those events better than others (Blaney, 1986; Childers & Houston, 1984; Heuer & Reisberg, 1990).

Memory is an important component of customer service management. Pine and Gilmore, (1998) who introduced the concept of the 'experience economy,' address the fact that offering a memorable experience is an essential strategy in creating value and can be distinguished from traditional offerings (i.e., good products or services). Researchers have found relevant constructs of customer experiences (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Manthiou et al., 2014; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007). Kim (2010) measured the travel experience quality of college students along seven dimensions and examined the effects of these experience dimensions on the vividness and duration of memory. The study showed that two dimensions of travel experiences (involvement and refreshment) affect memory formation. Manthiou et al. (2014) examined four experience factors (education, entertainment, esthetics, and escapism) among festival attendees and concluded that all four dimensions are significant predictors of memory vividness.

Affect and Memory

The emotions induced by stimuli affect memorability (Bower, 1981). Emotional states can be a source of memory formation or a factor in strengthening customers' attention to specific subjects (Bradley et al., 1992; Lang et al., 1995; Revelle & Loftus, 1992; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). The feelings-as-information model proposed by Schwarz (1990) explains that emotions evoked by mood or interaction during consumption experiences play a crucial role in leveraging perceptions, judgments, and behavioral intentions. Then, the information or images are encoded in memory storage. For example, feeling happy or fantastic during consumption events is a signal of positive or satisfying experiences, which will cause the customer to form positive intentions to revisit or repurchase. If a customer has a horrible interaction at a store, he/she will not return in the future. Memory of a past experience can be recalled to influence future behaviors (Alba et al., 1991; Shapiro & Krishnan, 1999) because it is a credible reference for decision making. In this context, emotional events (positive or negative) can be more efficiently recorded in the mind than unemotional events (Libkuman et al., 2004; Kensinger & Corkin, 2003; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987).

As several researchers have mentioned, arousal and valence are independent in determining emotional variety (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Plutchik, 1980; Russell, 1980). Even though many researchers have agreed that the two are related, studies on the relationship between affect and memory have reached different conclusions. Several researchers have argued that positive events are better remembered than negative ones (e.g., Bradley et al., 1992; Lang et al., 1995; Libkuman, Stabler, & Otani, 2004). Meanwhile, Kensinger and Corkin (2003) showed that words referring to negative emotion are more easily retrieved than non-emotional words; thus, traumatic events are more easily memorized than non-traumatic ones (Christianson & Loftus, 1987).

This effect of arousal and valence on memory could be enhanced by diverse sensory experiences with images or sounds. Images and music can simulate positive emotions more effectively than texts, and memory recorded via sensory experiences with images or music will be recalled to the greater extent than text information (Childers & Houston, 1984). This discussion of the relationship between positive emotions and memory is applicable to tourism. Travel experiences include multiple sensorial experiences in various settings and with various subjects; for instance, cruise travelers experience exotic moods and hedonic feelings (Bello & Etzel, 1985; Hosany & Witham, 2010). In line with the previous discussion, this study hypothesizes that the positive emotions of travelers help improve memorability.

H1. The valence of a traveler's experiences has an influence on memory.

Arousal, which varies from quietude to arousal, is the fundamental emotional dimension affecting memory (Russell, 1980). Regarding the effects of arousal on the memory, it has been documented that people forget arousing information and events more slowly than non-arousing information and events; thus, arousal is associated with memory retrieval, as well as memory formation (Sharot & Phelps, 2004). This argument is consistent with research findings by Bradley et al. (1992) in that arousal has the power to amplify the durability and accuracy of feelings or information about a past event.

Arousal works as an activation system that boosts pleasant or unpleasant emotions (Gardner, 1985; Groeppel-Klein, 2005). Indeed, arousal influences the level of attention paid during information processing, including memory formation (Sharot & Phelps, 2004). For example, pleasantness can become elation due to highly arousing emotions, and unpleasantness

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can be transformed into horribleness due to highly arousing emotions (Bradley et al., 1992). Previous studies have claimed that positively or negatively arousing emotions can enhance memory formation more than neutral emotions (Bradley et al., 1992; Libkuman et al., 2004; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). Rubin and Kozin (1984) also found that surprising and pleasant stimuli were more easily memorized than non-emotional events.

Therefore, this study poses the moderating role on the part of arousal in the relationship between valence and memory. Two types of moderators (i.e., pure and quasi- moderators) can be considered in this research model (Sharma, Durand, & Gur-Arie, 1981). One difference between the two types of moderators is the relationship between the moderator variable (arousal) and the criterion variable (memory). While a pure moderator is not related to a criterion, it is assumed that a quasi-moderator has an influence on the criterion. In this research model, the previous literature has suggested that both arousal and valence are essential predictors of memory formation. Therefore, this study proposes that arousal plays a quasi-moderating role between valence and memory.

H2. The arousal of a traveler has an influence on memory.

H3. Arousal is a quasi-moderator in the relationship between valence and memory.

Figure 5.1 The Second Research Model: Relationships Between Valence, Arousal, and Memory
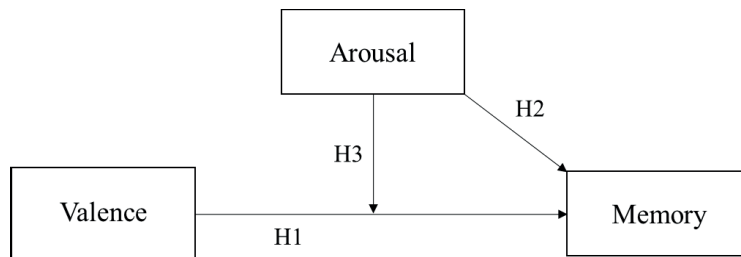
Methodology

Measurements

Arousal and valence were measured by ten questions adopted from the Russell and Pratt (1980). To measure the extent of arousal emotion, "*Intense*", "*Arousing*", "*Active*", "*Alive*", and "*Forceful*" were substituted into the following statement: "*My cruise travel experiences were…*" For valence, "*Pleasant*", "*Nice*", "*Pleasing*", "*Pretty*", and "*Beautiful*" were included as well.

Eight items were used to measure the quality of memories regarding the most recent cruise travel experiences (Sheen, Kemp, & Rubin, 2001). Example questions include "When I think about my cruise travel, I can relive my experiences" and "When I think about my cruise travel, I can hear travel experiences in my mind." The survey was designed to answer the questions regarding arousal, valence, and memory using a 7-point Likert scale (1: strongly agree; 7: strongly disagree).

Sampling

Data collection was conducted via Qualtrics, an online survey company with a panel pool of approximately 6 million in the United States. This study collected 375 responses from

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travelers who had taken a vacation cruise within the last 90 days. The online survey system filtered out people who indicated that they had cruise-traveled for two nights or less. The data collection period was from February 22 to March 4 2016 (12 days). For the main analyses, 369 responses were used.

Analysis Methods

Descriptive analysis, a reliability test, exploratory factor analysis, linear regression analysis, and hierarchical regression analysis were applied for data screening and the verification of the moderating effect in the research model. To conduct the analyses, Microsoft Excel 2016, SPSS 21.0, and AMOS 21.0 were used.

Analysis and Results

Data Screening

No missing values were detected in the dataset. Six outliers were found based on data screening suggestions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012): one sample had a z-score higher than 3.29, and nine samples had Mahalanobis values higher than the critical chi-square values. Ten outliers (2.7% of the entire sample size) were deleted because there was no significant pattern among the outliers.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA was conducted to confirm the dimensionality of each construct with regard to the measurement variables and to examine the model fit (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The factor loadings of five variables (ARO1, ARO5, VAL4, VAL5, and MEM6) were low (.7), and these variables were removed (see the note in Table 5.1) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). After this deletion, the model fit indices supported the goodness-of-fit (RMSEA=.072; IFI=.971;

TLI=.960; CFI=.970) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The chi square value ($\chi^2(58) = 170.038, p < .001$) was significant. A large sample size commonly causes a significant chi-square statistic, and this does not necessarily mean the model is invalid (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). All variables in the final model had a factor loading over .70 (the minimum level was .719), which is satisfactory according to the suggested threshold (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006).

Table 5.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Loadings

Construct and scale items	Standardized loadings [a]
Arousal	
ARO2. Arousing	.726
ARO3. Active	.864
ARO4. Alive	.892
Valence	
VAL1. Pleasant	.852
VAL2. Nice	.941
VAL3. Pleasing	.892
Memory	
MEM1. I can relive my experiences.	.805
MEM2. I can recall participating in my experiences.	.865
MEM3. I can remember experiences from my travel.	.841
MEM4. I can hear travel experiences in my mind.	.761
MEM5. I can see travel experiences in my mind.	.810
MEM7. I can feel the emotions now that I experienced.	.762
MEM8. I can remember the setting of my cruise experiences.	.719

Note: [a] - All factor loadings are significant at $p < .001$.
Deleted variables:
  ARO1. Intense,
  ARO5. Forceful,
  VAL4. Pretty,
  VAL5. Beautiful, and
  MEM6. I can remember the spatial layout of the cruise ship.

Convergent and discriminant validity were assessed. The average variance extracted (AVE) values of three constructs (ARO, VAL, and MEM) were higher than .5, which proves the convergent validity of each construct (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The composite reliabilities were higher than .869 and showed satisfactory internal consistency (Hair et al., 2006). To confirm discriminant validity, all AVEs should be higher than the squared

correlations between constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The squared correlation between

ARO and MEM was slightly higher than the AVE of MEM. At the suggestion of other

researchers (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kenny, 2011), the fit of a modified model merging two

constructs (ARO and MEM) was compared with the fit of the original model. The model fit of

the modified model had worse goodness-of-fit indices. This means that the two constructs are not

perfectly correlated in this case, indicating discriminant validity.

Table 5.2 Descriptive Statistics, Composite Reliabilities, Correlations, and Squared Correlations

	Mean (SD)	AVE	ARO	VAL	MEM
ARO	2.47 (1.09)	.690	**.869**[a]	.635[b]	.730
VAL	1.78 (.82)	.802	.403[c]	**.924**	.692
MEM	2.07 (.84)	.502	.533[d]	.479	**.944**

Goodness-of-fit: $\chi^2(58) = 170.038$, $p < .001$
RMSEA = .072; IFI = .971; TLI = .960; CFI = .970
Note: AVE = average variance extracted; ARO = arousal; VAL = valence; MEM = memory.
[a] Composite reliabilities are along the diagonal in bold.
[b] Correlations are above the diagonal.
[c] Squared correlations are below the diagonal.
[d] The square of the correlation between ARO and MEM was higher than the AVE of MEM. This implies that several constructs would have a problem proving discriminant validity.

Moderation Analysis

A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to confirm the moderation effect. For

the moderating effect test, the variables of each construct (arousal, valence, and memory) were

averaged and transformed into single variables. With these transformed variables, data screening

procedures were conducted, but no outliers were identified. In addition, there was no

multicollinearity problem, because the tolerance levels for each variable was over .10

(Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). To test the moderating effect of arousal, three variables (arousal,

valence, and memory) were centered by subtracting the mean value of each variable. The

interaction variable (centered arousal * centered valence) was created to examine the moderating effect.

The hierarchical regression analysis showed that emotional valence and arousal were significant predictors of increased memorability: valence (β = .380, t = 9.347, p < .001) and arousal (β = .486, t = 11.946, p < .001). The results support H1 and H2. In model 2, even though the two predictors were still effective, the interaction variable was not significant (β = -.068, t = -1.753, p = .080). Therefore, the moderating effect of arousal in the relationship between valence and memory (H3) was not supported.

Table 5.3 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis (Test of the Moderating Effect)

Model	Variables	R^2 (Adj. R^2)	ΔR^2	B	β	t	F Change
1	Valence	.587 (.585)	.587	.388	.380	9.347[***]	257.448[***]
	Arousal			.373	.486	11.946[***]	
2	Valence	.591 (.587)	.003	.422	.414	9.219[***]	3.073[ns]
	Arousal			.374	.487	12.002[***]	
	Valence * Arousal			-.045	-.068	-1.753[ns]	

Note: [***]p < .001, [ns] > .05
Dependent variable: Memory

Discussion and Implications

Emotion affects memory formation. Making affective aspects (i.e., emotional expressions such as delight, fun, or pleasure) induced by the memorable experience management has been recognized as a common suggestion by previous researchers (e.g., Ballantyne et al., 2011; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). This research has also shown that emotions during travel experiences are significant predictors of the quality of memories regarding the experiences. As previous research has indicated, two dimensions used to construct various emotions were identified to examine the relationship with memory (Feldman, 1995; Libkuman et al., 2004; Russell, 1980). The results of this study have clearly shown the significant effects of arousal and valence on memory. Because

memory has been known to be an essential intermediary connecting past experience and decision-making in the future (Alba et al., 1991; Bettman, 1979), it is meaningful that this study found effective antecedents of improved memory. However, this research failed to prove the moderating effect of arousal. Based on the results, the theoretical contribution and practical implications are discussed.

Theoretical Implications

First, this study provided a conclusion to support previous arguments. According to the feelings-as-information theory (Schwarz, 1990), people's emotions are an important information source for judgment and memory formation (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). Studies have proven the effects of emotions contained in words, images, or videos on the vividness of memory in other disciplines, such as psychology and consumer research (e.g., Bower, 1981; Bradley et al., 1992; Lynch & Srull, 1982). Investigating tourism experiences, this study showed that emotional states evoked by experiences help strengthen memories about those past experiences. The results of this study provide a theoretical contribution to the body of research on traveler experiences. Even though many existing tourism studies have examined the roles of traveler experience quality as a significant factor in satisfaction or loyalty (Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Zins, 2002), only a few studies have touched on the predictors of memory (Kim, 2010, 2014; Manthiou et al., 2014). This study has shown that emotion during travel experiences could be considered an important construct in researching memories regarding traveler or customer experiences.

Second, emotional valence is an important factor in improved memory vividness regarding cruise tourism experiences. The results indicate that people will better memorize experiences if they feel more positive emotions regarding those experiences, as existing research

has claimed (e.g., Bradley et al., 1992; Dolcos & Cabeza, 2002; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). Indeed, offering pleasant and happy experiences for customers and travelers is an effective way to create memorable experiences. This is different from the findings from several research projects that argued for the effects of negative emotion on memory (Christianson & Loftus, 1987; Philippot & Schaefer, 2001); for instance, extremely negative emotional events, such as a car accident, will be strongly and accurately memorized. In cruise tourism, it would be very rare for travelers to experience extremely negative emotions. In the dataset for this research project, only 1% or 2% of all respondents reported that they had somewhat negative or very negative feelings about their experiences. While this study showed that more positive experiences can facilitate memory formation, further research is necessary to test the relationship between negative emotion and memory in various tourism settings.

Third, arousal is also a significant antecedent of memory formation after travel experiences. The effect of arousal on memory has been reported by many researchers (Bradley et al., 1992; Christianson & Loftus, 1987; Lynch & Srull, 1982; Sharot & Phelps, 2004). Libkuman et al. (2004) explained that arousal has a more significant influence on leveraging memory accuracy and durability than emotional valence in that high arousal causes a narrowing of the attention to focus on a subject or event (Drake & Myers, 2006; Heuer & Reisberg, 1990). This facilitates information processing by providing more detailed memory sources. During consumer experiences, affective arousal has multiple effects. Because it facilitates attention and information processing, stimulating arousal could be an effective strategy to create active interaction between service environments and customers as a form of customer experience management (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Kolb, 1984; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). The roles of arousal

in customer or traveler experiences should be further explored to expand the body of research on memorable experiences.

Fourth, in this study, arousal did not boost the effect of emotional valence on increasing memory. In the structural framework of human emotion, it has been noted that affect consists of two dimensions: arousal and valence (Blaney, 1986; Bradley et al., 1992; Lynch & Srull, 1982; Russell et al., 1989). The affect-as-information model explains the relationship between emotion and memory (Schwarz, 1990; Storbeck & Clore, 2008). This model noted that valence is a predictor of the judgment process, leading to memory. In this procedure, arousal and thus the level of attention paid play a facilitating role in delivering feelings and accurate information for memory formation. However, the relationship between arousal and valence may be reconsidered by reviewing other literature regarding the connection between emotional factors and customer satisfaction. Mano and Oliver (1993) examined the role of arousal and pleasantness in consumption experiences and claimed that positive and negative affects mediate the effect of arousal on customer satisfaction. In theme park experiences, Bigne et al. (2005) also claimed that positive arousal and pleasure were important factors in improved satisfaction and loyalty and concluded that high arousal is an effective antecedent of positive pleasure. Future studies will explore and discuss the relationship between these two emotional factors with regard to memory processing (i.e., emotional valence as a mediator). Other moderating factors (e.g., short-term memory versus long-term memory or the number of cruises) will be considered in future studies as well.

Practical Implications

Cruise line managers and marketers need to be aware of the importance of offering stimuli and experiences to create positive or surprising emotions. According to arguments in

existing literature and the results of this study, experiencing fun or delight is not only one of basic motivations of travelers (Baum, 2006; Williams, 2006), but also an effective trigger to facilitate memory formation that is a goal of customer service management managers. To achieve the successful customer experience management, this study could suggest several ideas to cruise line managers and marketers.

Companies need to investigate and improve products so that customers can feel positive emotion, in that the products would be remembered. The products could include commodities in rooms, food and beverage, facilities on a ship, and so on. In addition to the convenience and quality of the products, how much a product induces positive emotion could be one of critical evaluation items that managers consider. Exotic foods or luxury items in guest rooms activating memory acquisition could be appropriate examples that travelers would cherish in the future.

Managers and marketers need to design and provide appropriate environments to create positive sensory experiences (Agapito, Valle, & Mendes, 2014). Sensory experiences that create surprisingly pleasant emotions can be designed by involving the five senses (sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch). Agapito et al. (2014) categorized major experience types and investigated stimuli related to sensory experiences in rural destination tourism (e.g., flowers' smell or sand's touch). Managers and experts in cruise tourism need to also identify the specific triggers of sensory travel experiences. According to the outcomes of this study, a unique event generating highly surprising or pleasant emotions will create memorable experiences, which is one mission within customer experience design and management (Hayes & MacLeod, 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). For example, service providers could set the stage with sensory activities (e.g., touching animals or feeling the wind) or a good mood (e.g., authentic music and attractive scents) (Schmitt, 1999).

Managers need to pay attention to abilities of crews, especially those who frequently serve customers, because interactions (i.e., personalized services) between service personnel and customers have a significant influence on customer's perception (Ball, Coelho, & Vilares, 2006; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). As previous researchers have described the role of service personnel in memorable experience management as an actor or actress on stage who interacts with audiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1998), cruise line staff need to have or develop their capabilities to understand customers' feelings and create a positive atmosphere with customers. It is necessary that managers evaluate and develop staffs' interactive skills in hiring or training processes; for example, add the skill in job requirements.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Study

Future studies need to overcome the limitations of this study. The first limitation of this study is that the online survey used a convenience sample made up of people who use the Internet and are listed in the panel pool of the online survey company. The second limitation is that this study examined the effects of emotion on memory in cruise tourism. Therefore, the generalization of the findings and discussion will be limited. Specifically, special travel experiences evoking negative emotions (e.g., dark tourism such as traveling to Ground Zero in New York) may create different information processing. Future research could explore the patterns and roles of emotional experiences with regard to the formation of memory. The third limitation is that this research used an online survey to measure levels of emotional expression. It would be more desirable for future research to measure emotional levels at travel sites and assess the quality of memories after travel experiences. The final limitation is that the vividness of a memory could be affected by the length of time that elapsed since the memory was formed (Lynch & Srull, 1982; Watkins, 1974). Future studies could consider various effect sizes on the

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part of emotional factors on memory formation by more precisely surveying travelers' emotions

and memories.

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Chapter 6 - Summary and Conclusion

This study explored the role of memories in linking tourist experience quality and word-of-mouth (WOM). This is a different approach from the traditional viewpoint that focuses on enhancing satisfaction and future behavior intentions through customer experiences. Study 1 and Study 2 developed research models based on the literature regarding cruise travel experiences, value creation by customer experience management, effects of emotion on memory formation, and WOM quality driven by vivid memories. The research models and hypotheses were tested on data collected using online survey methods and confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling. Findings of the studies concluded that vivid memory formed by hedonic value has a significant influence on enhancing WOM behaviors of cruise travelers. This research contributes to the development of a body of knowledge regarding customer experience management and marketing and provides meaningful managerial implications for managers in hospitality and tourism.

Memorable Tourism Experiences and Mediating Effect of Memory on Word-of-Mouth (Study 1)

Study 1 examined the relationships between antecedents (experience quality, hedonic value, utilitarian value, and satisfaction) and post-experience memory in cruise tourism. The sequential relationships have significant influences on word-of-mouth. Figure 6.1 presents the conceptual model with standardized relationship coefficients. To test the hypotheses proposed in this research model, information from 375 respondents who had cruise-traveled within 90 days were collected using an online survey.

Hypothesis 1 proposes that the quality of cruise travel experiences constructed using seven experience dimensions (hedonism, involvement, local culture, refreshment,

meaningfulness, knowledge, and novelty) is related to hedonic value. The results prove that the quality of travel experience has a positive influence on hedonic value. Hypothesis 2 posits that the quality of a cruise travel experience is related to its utilitarian value. The results show that experience quality is a significant predictor of utilitarian value.

Hypothesis 3 suggests a relationship between hedonic value and satisfaction. The findings show that hedonic value has a positive effect on satisfaction. Hypothesis 4 suggests that utilitarian value is related to satisfaction. The results show that utilitarian value is a significant predictor of increased satisfaction.

Figure 6.1 Results of Structural Equation Modeling in Study 1
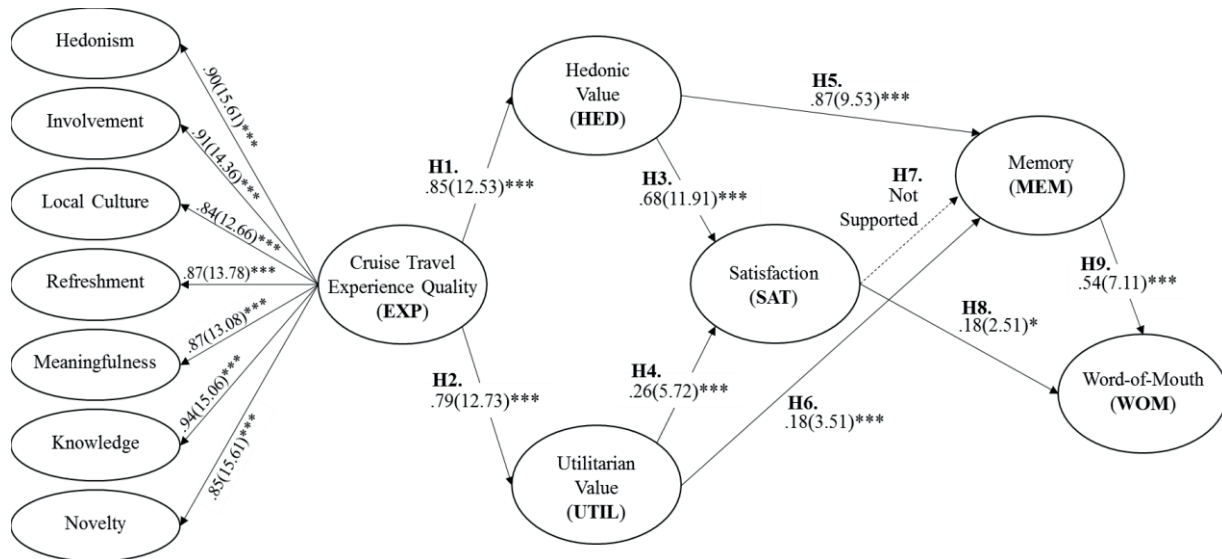
Note: $^{*}p < .05$, $^{***}p < .001$.
Note: Numbers in parentheses are the t-values.
Note: Numbers outside of parentheses are the standard path coefficients.

Hypothesis 5 assumes that hedonic value is related to memory. The results show that hedonic value has a positive influence on memory. Hypothesis 6 posits a relationship between utilitarian value and memory. The findings show that utilitarian value has a positive effect on

memory. Hypothesis 7 posits a relationship between satisfaction and memory. The analysis

shows that satisfaction is not significantly related to memory.

Hypothesis 8 posits that satisfaction is related to word-of-mouth. The results show that

satisfaction effectively enhances word-of-mouth. Hypothesis 9 proposes a relationship between

memory and word-of-mouth. The research findings show that memory has a positive effect on

word-of-mouth. Table 6.1 summarizes the major outcomes of Study 1.

Table 6.1 Major Findings of Study 1

	Effect of	On	β	t
H1	Cruise Travel Experience Quality	Hedonic Value	.85	12.53***
H2	Cruise Travel Experience Quality	Utilitarian Value	.79	12.73***
H3	Hedonic Value	Satisfaction	.68	11.91***
H4	Utilitarian Value	Satisfaction	.26	5.72***
H5	Hedonic Value	Memory	.87	9.53***
H6	Utilitarian Value	Memory	.18	3.51***
H7	Satisfaction	Memory	Not Supported	
H8	Satisfaction	Word-of-Mouth	.18	2.51*
H9	Memory	Word-of-Mouth	.54	7.11***

Note: $^*p < .05$, $^{***}p < .001$.

Discussion and Practical Implications

The revealing roles on the part of memory in linking post-experiences and word-of-

mouth are the most important findings of Study 1. Introducing an emerging concept in service

management (i.e., offering memorable experiences to customers), this study examined the

process via which tourism experiences are memorized. In summary, the antecedents travel

experience quality, hedonic value, utilitarian value, and satisfaction are effective predictors of

improved memories of travel experiences. Furthermore, memories formed by travel experiences

significantly drive word-of-mouth intentions. The research findings show that one benefit of

offering memorable experiences to travelers is effectively facilitating referral marketing practices via customer voices. As the previous literature has addressed, effective customer experience management or design is a useful strategy for value creation. This study also supports the argument that service managers in tourism must attempt to create memorable travel experiences to motivate or attract more travelers.

In the conceptual model of Study 1, seven dimensions of memorable tourism experience (hedonism, involvement, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, knowledge, and novelty) adopted from previous studies (Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2010) were useful in measuring the quality of tourism experiences. Experience quality had a significant influence on both hedonic value and utilitarian value. Again, both value perceptions affected the level of traveler satisfaction. The relationships between quality, value perception, and satisfaction have frequently been examined in the hospitality and tourism research, as well as consumer studies (e.g., Chen & Chen, 2010; Oh, 2000; Zins, 2002). Furthermore, previous research has explored the effects of a group of relationships in post-experiences on loyalty and future behavioral intentions (e.g., Baker & Crompton, 2000; Brown, Barry, Dacin, & Gunst, 2005). However, this study emphasized that the process leading to traveler satisfaction has an influence on improved memory quality regarding previous travel experiences. This approach is different from those of other studies that tested the relationship between experience quality and memory (e.g., Kim, 2010; Manthiou, Lee, Tang, & Chiang, 2014; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007). Based on existing literature, this study noted that a human being cannot memorize all events but can encode important or impressive information (e.g., significant judgment information). Based on this understanding, this study proved that value perception, of both hedonic and utilitarian value, has a strong influence on memory. Hedonic value perception was the strongest mediator

facilitating memory formation, stronger than utilitarian value and satisfaction. This provides an important clue with which managers can develop memorable travel experiences so as to provide hedonic benefits such as pleasure and excitement.

In addition, this research has shown that memory is an essential mediator of word-of-mouth. The mediation effect analysis showed the mediating effect of memory in the relationships between each of three predictors (hedonic value, utilitarian value, and satisfaction) and word-of-mouth. The three predictors have direct and indirect (through memory) influences on word-of-mouth. This study could provide grounds for important discussions in future studies regarding memorable experience management and marketing. In the conceptual model, two predictors (satisfaction and memory) were applied to test their effects on word-of-mouth. In SEM, satisfaction had a smaller effect size (.18) on word-of-mouth intention than memory (.54). Although previous research has concluded that satisfying customers is a useful way to improve the word-of-mouth effect (e.g., Anderson, 1998; Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008), the results of this study seems to show the significance of memory's roles in tourism marketing. Therefore, this study suggests that researchers in tourism marketing or customer experience management could pay more attention to the role of memory.

The results show that hedonic value is a key to memory formation. Comparing the coefficients of hedonic value and utilitarian value on memory, this study concluded that hedonic value (.87) more strongly affects memory than utilitarian value (.18). The previous discussion of implementing customer experience management (e.g., Pine & Gilmore, 1998) has emphasized the affective aspect, such as being delightful and fun, in designing memorable customer experiences (e.g., Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Williams, 2006). In addition, researchers in psychology and memory studies have documented that emotional stimuli help memory formation

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greatly. Therefore, sensory experiences evoking pleasant and positively surprising emotions (e.g., experiencing exotic foods, exciting activities, or captivating scenes) are critical points in the tourism industry. This study has shown the importance of hedonic value post-experience and concluded that affective judgments regarding travel experiences improve memory formation.

For managers and marketers, the research findings have useful implications. Cruise tourism managers could design appropriate memorable experiences because this is a critical point when attracting prospective guests to cruise lines. Because the market size of the cruise tourism industry has continuously grown and more cruise ships have been built (Cruise Lines International Association, 2014), managers should seek more effective strategies to survive in the growing competition of the industry. Marketers need to understand that customer memory is a critical factor in word-of-mouth and ensure that more emotional travel experiences are effectively memorized. To create vivid memories and maintain memories longer, more impressive and emotional experiences should be prepared and offered to cruise passengers in customer services, experiential environments, and travel programs. Several suggestions for managers (e.g., providing materials or resources such as photos or videos to help vividness or durability of memory) were provided.

Emotion and Memory: Arousal as a Moderator (Study 2)

Study 2 examined the effects of various predictors on memory, particularly the potential moderating effect of arousal on the relationship between valence and memory. The study used 359 samples from online survey respondents who had cruise-traveled for vacation.

Hypothesis 1 posits a relationship between emotional valence (pleasant or unpleasant) and memory. The findings confirm that valence has an influence on memory. Hypothesis 2 posits a relationship between arousal and memory. The results show that arousal has a significant effect

on memory. Hypothesis 3 assumes a moderating role on the part of arousal regarding the relationship between valence and memory. The results show that this moderating effect is not present in the relationship.

Figure 6.2 Results of Hierarchical Regression in Study 2
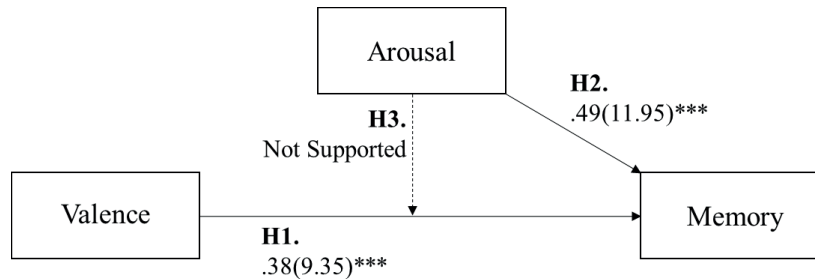
Note: ***$p < .001$.
Note: Numbers in parentheses are the t-values.
Note: Numbers outside of parentheses are the standard path coefficients.

Discussion and Practical Implications

This study has shown that emotion influences memory formation after travel experiences. Based on previous arguments related to the effects of emotional dimensions (arousal and emotional valence), this research proposed hypotheses to verify potential relationships between the three constructs. The findings in this study provided a theoretical contribution to the existing discussion in diverse disciplines and practical implication for tourism managers or marketers.

Many studies in psychology, cognition, and memory research have proven the effects of arousal or valence (i.e., pleasure) associated with texts, images, and videos on memory vividness and durability (e.g., Bradley, Greenwald, Petry, & Lang, 1992; Christianson & Loftus, 1987). Previous researchers in consumer studies have conceptually described the potential effect of emotions on memory processing during customer experiences (e.g., Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). This study supports the existence of a significant relationship between emotions evoked

by experiences and memory via quantitative research approaches. For tourism researchers, the outcomes of this study introduce an important construct (memory) that occurs after emotional experiences during travel. Previously, tourism researchers have focused on satisfaction, loyalty, or future intentions as an outcome of emotional experiences such as pleasant or delight. Therefore, the fact that this study specifically tested the relationships between emotional valence, arousal, and memory formation represents a unique contribution.

This study also proposed a quasi-moderating effect on the part of arousal on the relationship between valence and memory regarding cruise travel experiences. Even though several studies have commented that emotional information (e.g., pleasant or unpleasant events) can remain in the memory storage longer when an event is more arousing, this study concludes that the intervening role of arousal between valence and memory is not proven. According to other studies examining the effects of emotional factors in consumption experiences (e.g., Bigne, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005; Mano & Oliver, 1993), valence (or pleasure) and arousal may have a different relationship, for example, a mediating role on the part of arousal between valence and memory. Other moderating factors (e.g., short-term memory versus long-term memory or the number of cruise travel) should be considered in future studies.

Based on the previous discussion emphasizing the role of memory in affecting future decision making (Alba, Hutchinson, & Lynch, 1991; Alpert & Kamins, 1995), tourism marketers and managers should pay attention to designing emotional experiences for travelers. Feelings of pleasure, excitement, and relaxation are not only basic expectations but also a source of memories. For travelers, sensory experiences are often memorable (Agapito, Valle, & Mendes, 2014). Therefore, customer service or experience management should encourage travelers to be engaged in experiences that stimulate the five senses (sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch).

Providing programs and services with hands-on experiences, personalized interactions, music, or scent are effective examples of this. Importantly, it is a critical point in travel experience management that sensory experiences be positive and surprising to facilitate memory formation.

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Appendix A - Questionnaire (Online Survey)

TOURIST EXPERIENCES AND WORD-OF-MOUTH

We are conducting a research project to examine diverse experiences of cruise travelers in the United States. The survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Participation in this survey is voluntary. You may stop participating at any time. However, submission of a completed questionnaire indicates your willingness to participate in the study. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer the questions based on your best judgment. All the responses and personal information of respondents in this study will remain confidential. There is also an option not to provide your personal information if you choose. Data will be reported in summary form only and no individual responses will be shared. When the study is completed, a summary of results will be available at K-State Research Exchange (http://krex.k-state.edu/dspace/).

This study has been approved by the committee for Research Involving Human Subjects at Kansas State University. If you have any question regarding this study, please contact Seunghyun "Brian" Park at *515-230-7367* or *spark22@k-state.edu*. For questions about your rights as a participant or the manner in which the study is conducted, contact Dr. Rick Scheidt, Chair of Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, 785-532-3224, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506.

To proceed, please click the next (>>) button at the bottom of each page.

Sincerely,

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A-1.   Please enter an approximate number of days since your last trip. Please enter a numeric value.

(   )

A-2.   What was the purpose of your travel?

1) Business   2) Leisure

A-3.   How many nights did you spend on the cruise?

(   ) night(s)

A-4.   What cruise line did you most recently travel with?

1) Royal Caribbean International   2) Norwegian Cruise Line
3) Cunard (Queen Mary)   4) P&O Cruises (Britannia)
5) Princess Cruises   6) MSC Cruises
7) Costa Cruise   8) Carnival Cruise Lines
9) Disney Cruise Line   10) Celebrity Cruises
11) Others

A-5.   Where was the region(s) that you visited during the most recent cruise travel? (Check all items that you visited.)
1) Caribbean / Bahamas / Mexico / Panama / South America
2) Alaska
3) Hawaii
4) Europe / Mediterranean
5) Australia / New Zealand / South Pacific
6) Africa / Asia
7) Others

A-6.   Who did you travel with on the cruise ship?

1) Family (Parents + Children + or Seniors)   2) Senior (Only seniors)
3) Friend(s)   4) Alone
5) Work colleagues   6) Others

A-7. How many times in your lifetime have you traveled on a cruise ship excluding the last cruise travel?

(   ) times

A-8. On the average, how many times each year do you travel for leisure?

(   ) times per year

A-9. Which of the following ranges best depicts the cost per person of your last cruise ship package?

1) $199 or less   2) $200-499   3) $500-999
4) $1000-1999   5) $2000-2999   6) $3000 or more

A-10. Please check all items that you have experienced during the cruise traveling.
1) Excursion - local tour
2) Excursion activities (ex. Zipline, snorkeling)
3) Bars/Nightclub
4) Spa/Fitness
5) Kids &Teens Program
6) Sports
7) Waterworks & Pools
8) Casino
9) Movie/Show/festival
10) Library
11) Shopping on a ship
12) Shopping locally
13) Others

Think about your last cruise travel experience. Review each statement below and indicate your level of experience.

"During my cruise travel, …"

No.	Statement	Strongly agree (1) – strongly disagree (7)
B-1.	I was thrilled about having a new experience.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-2.	I indulged in the activities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-3.	I really enjoyed this tourism experience.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-4.	My experiences were exciting.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-5.	It was a once-in-a lifetime experience.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-6.	My experiences were unique.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-7.	My experiences were different from previous experiences.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-8.	I experienced something new.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-9.	My experiences provided good impressions about the local people.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-10.	I closely experienced the local culture.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-11.	Local people in a destination were friendly.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-12.	My experiences were liberating.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-13.	I enjoyed a sense of freedom.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-14.	My experiences were refreshing.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-15.	I was revitalized.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-16.	I did something meaningful.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-17.	I did something important.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-18.	I learned about myself.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-19.	I visited a place where I really wanted to go.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-20.	I enjoyed activities that I really wanted to do.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-21.	I was interested in the main activities of this tourism experience.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-22.	My experiences were exploratory.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-23.	My experiences were knowledgeable.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
B-24.	I experienced a new culture.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

Think about your last cruise travel experience. For each statement listed below, indicate how much you agree or disagree.

For each statement listed below please indicate how much you agree or disagree.

"With my cruise travel, …"

No.	Statement	Strongly agree (1) – strongly disagree (7)
C-1.	I accomplished just what I wanted on this cruise travel.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-2.	I could get what I really wanted to experience.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-3.	While traveling, I found just the experience(s) I was looking for.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-4.	This cruise travel was truly a joy.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-5.	I continue to book cruise-travel, not because I have to, but because I want to.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-6.	This cruise travel felt like an escape.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-7.	Compared to other things I could have done, the time spent traveling was enjoyable.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-8.	I enjoyed being immersed in exciting new experiences.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-9.	I enjoyed this cruise travel for its own sake, not just for the activities, in which I may have participated.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-10.	I had a good time because I was able to act on the "spur-of-the-moment."	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-11.	During the cruise travel, I felt the excitement of the hunt.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-12.	While traveling, I was able to forget my problems.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
C-13.	While traveling, I felt a sense of adventure.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

"My cruise travel experiences were…"

No.	Descriptor	Strongly agree (1) – strongly disagree (7)
D-1.	Intense	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
D-2.	Arousing	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
D-3.	Active	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
D-4.	Alive	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
D-5.	Forceful	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
D-6.	Pleasant	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
D-7.	Nice	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
D-8.	Pleasing	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
D-9.	Pretty	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
D-10.	Beautiful	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

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Think about your last cruise travel experience. For each statement listed below, indicate how much you agree or disagree.

"When I think about my cruise travel, …"

No.	Statement	Strongly agree (1) – strongly disagree (7)
E-1.	This was one of the best experiences that I could have had.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
E-2.	I am satisfied with my decision to choose cruise travel.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
E-3.	I have truly enjoyed this cruise travel experience.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
E-4.	My cruise travel has been a good experience.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
E-5.	I'm sure it was the right thing to decide on this cruise travel experience.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
E-6.	Cruise travel delights me greatly.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
E-7.	Selecting the cruise travel experience was a wise one.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

Think about your last cruise travel experience. For each statement listed below, indicate how much you agree or disagree.

"When I think about my cruise travel, …"

No.	Statement	Strongly agree (1) – strongly disagree (7)
F-1.	I can relive my experiences.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
F-2.	I can recall participating in my experiences.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
F-3.	I can remember experiences from my travel.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
F-4.	I can hear travel experiences in my mind.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
F-5.	I can see travel experiences in my mind.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
F-6.	I can remember the spatial layout of the cruise ship.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
F-7.	I can feel the emotions now that I experienced.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
F-8.	I can remember the setting of my cruise experiences.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

"About my cruise travel, …"

No.	Statement	Strongly agree (1) – strongly disagree (7)
G-1.	I mention my cruise travel experiences to others quite frequently.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
G-2.	I have told more people about my cruise travel experiences than I have told about most other travel experiences.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
G-3.	I seldom miss an opportunity to tell others about my cruise travel experiences.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
G-4.	When I tell others about my travel experiences, I tend to talk about the cruise travel experience in great detail.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

H-1.   My gender is …

1) Male   2) Female

H-2.   My age is …

1) 18-24   2) 25-34   3) 35-44   4) 45-54   5) 55-64   6) 65-75   7) 75 or older

H-3.   My ethnicity is…
1) White
2) Black or African American
3) American Indian or Alaska Native
4) Asian
5) Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
6) Other

H-4.   Which of the following best describes your total annual household income in US dollars before taxes?

1) Under $14,999   2) $15,000-24,999   3) $25,000-49,999
4) $50,000-74,999   5) $75,000-99,999   6) $100,000-124,999
7) $125,000-150,000   8) $150,000 or higher

H-5.   What is the highest level of education you completed?

1) Did Not Complete High School
2) High School/GED
3) Some College
4) Bachelor's Degree
5) Master's Degree
6) Advanced Graduate work or Ph.D., MD, JD, etc.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.
Your answers and information will be kept confidential.