

**An Exploration of Destination Brand Love among Theme-Park Based Tourists and
Excursionists**

by Kai Jiang

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Author's Declaration

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

Abstract

“Love” towards a brand functions as one critical component of customer brand relationships (CBRs) (Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015; Fournier, 1998). Brand love is an under-researched but increasingly important marketing construct that includes both cognitive and emotional dimensions (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Albert, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2008a; Albert, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2008b; Fournier, 1998). Destination brand love is a type of emotional place attachment that has not received enough scholarly attention (Aro, Suomi, & Saraniemi, 2018). The very few qualitative and exploratory studies on destination brand love call for quantitative investigations to establish its measurement items, reliability, and validity. Aro et al. (2018, p. 80), for instance, emphasized that “once destination brand love has been sufficiently explored qualitatively, further studies could develop quantitative measures.” The current study built on the academic literature on brand love and established the multi-dimensional and multi-indicator destination brand love construct. I defined destination brand love as the degree of intense affection a tourist holds for a branded destination. In this study, destination brand love features a six-dimensional structure comprising self-brand integration, passion-driven behaviours, positive emotional connection, long-term relationship, attitude strength, and attitude valence (Batra, Ahuvia, & Bagozzi, 2012). Destination brand love stands out as a highly inclusive marketing construct because of its more abundant variety of sub-dimensions, antecedents, and outcomes.

Consumers begin to interact with brands in their pre-patronage stage. In the case of theme-park based tourism, visitors’ pre-existing awareness, trust, and beliefs of a branded destination impact their overall emotional responses towards the destination. During travel experiences, evaluation of experiential attributes, such as shopping, activities and events,

accessibility, attractions, environment, and dining, serves as a key catalyst to spark destination brand love. As a type of desirable CBR, brand loyalty requires close emotional bonds between consumers and brands and therefore is a potential outcome of destination brand love. Visitors' actual on-site experiences at branded destinations may enhance their loyalty towards destinations. So far, few attempts have addressed the significance of destination brand love in constituting cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty.

Previous research on the outcomes of brand love have focused heavily on the “brand love leads to loyalty” paradigm, while neglecting brand love's non-business consequences. Part of the reason may be that earlier brand love studies are mostly from a business management perspective. Indeed, it is highly probable that tourists and excursionists experience “non-business” outcomes of destination brand love, such as enhanced individual well-being, improved quality of life, and more intimate family relationships. As mentioned by McCabe and Johnson (2013), the association between tourism experiences, individual happiness, and family cohesion represents a relatively new line of research in the tourism discipline. However, there has been a dearth of exploration on destination brand love's influences on individual happiness and family relationships.

Very few systematic theoretical frameworks of destination brand love have been published to explain destination brand love's brand-related and experience-related antecedents and outcomes at the individual (happiness-related), familial (family-cohesion-related), and business (loyalty-related) levels. To address this void, the researcher developed the multi-dimensional and multi-indicator conceptual framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love in a theme-park tourism context. Three key factors precede destination brand love include brand awareness, brand trust, and evaluation of experiential attributes.

Destination brand loyalty (including cognitive, attitudinal, and conative), individual perceived happiness, and family togetherness are endogenous constructs. The overall purpose of this dissertation is to explore brand awareness, brand trust, and evaluation of experiential attributes as three antecedents of destination brand love, as well as the role of destination brand love in predicting consumer responses to theme park-based visitation experiences (i.e., individual perceived happiness, family togetherness) and business-related outcomes (i.e., cognitive, attitudinal, and conative brand loyalty).

The researcher collected survey data from Shanghai Disneytown through on-site convenience sampling in January 2017. A total of 427 respondents visited Shanghai Disneyland with their families. The researcher used their responses in the Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) analysis in SmartPLS M 3.0. A set of destination brand love scales were finally established through multiple methods, that is, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients, factor loading, exploratory factor analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis. PLS-SEM results supported 15 out of 20 hypotheses put forward. Brand awareness did not exert any meaningful and significant influence on destination brand love ($\beta=-0.076$, $p>.05$, $t=1.872$; $S.E=0.041$). The direct effect of brand trust on destination brand love was statistically significant at 99.9% confidence interval level ($\beta= 0.229$, $p<.001$, $t=5.233$; $S.E=0.044$). Evaluation of experiential attributes generated a positive effect on destination brand love ($\beta=0.710$, $p<.001$, $t=18.225$; $S.E=0.039$). More importantly, destination brand love exerted positive effects on perceptions of family togetherness ($\beta=0.613$, $p<0.001$, $t=17.756$, $S.E=0.035$), perceived happiness of visitors ($\beta=0.566$, $p<0.001$, $t=11.192$, $S.E=0.051$), and all four sequential stages of destination brand loyalty, namely: cognitive brand loyalty ($\beta=0.622$, $p<0.001$, $t=11.800$, $S.E=0.053$), attitudinal brand loyalty ($\beta=0.791$, $p<0.001$, $t=16.913$, $S.E=0.047$), and conative

brand loyalty ($\beta=0.782, p<0.001, t=16.225, S.E=0.048$). The more visitors perceive destination brand love, the more individual happiness, family cohesion, and brand loyalty they express. Furthermore, the development of destination brand loyalty followed sequential stages. As predicted, cognitive loyalty affected attitudinal loyalty in a positive and significant way ($\beta=0.434, p<0.001, t= 8.058, S.E= 0.054$). Furthermore, attitudinal loyalty impacted conative loyalty significantly ($\beta=0.569, p<0.001, t= 10.249, S.E= 0.056$).

The researcher also carried out a series of mediating and moderation tests using the bootstrapping procedure and the moderation analysis techniques in SmartPLS M 3.0. Bootstrapping outputs indicated that destination brand love functioned as a statistically significant mediating construct in the conceptual framework. The mediation effect of destination brand love in the evaluation of experiential attributes \rightarrow attitudinal loyalty relationship turned out to be positive and statistically significant ($\beta =0.562, p< 0.001, CI=0.562-0.559$). Similarly, the mediation effect of destination brand love in the evaluation of experiential attributes \rightarrow conative loyalty relationship was also positive and statistically significant ($\beta=0.555, p< 0.001, CI=0.555-0.557$). Regarding moderation effects, the researcher examined “income” and “first-timers versus repeat visitors” as two categorical moderators. Bootstrapping results demonstrated that the influence of evaluation of experiential attributes on conative loyalty was stronger among repeat visitors compared with first-timers. The boosting effect of destination brand love on family togetherness was greater for low-income visitors than for their high-income counterparts. In other words, higher income levels entail a weaker relationship between visitors’ destination brand love and family togetherness, while lower levels of income lead to a stronger relationship between visitors’ destination brand love and family togetherness.

This research addresses a significant gap in the literature by validating the construct of destination brand love and establishing the multi-dimensional and multi-indicator conceptual framework. It initiated destination brand love research in the seldom-studied non-Western branded destination context. The establishment of the conceptual framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love demonstrates the importance of understanding 1) brand-related, experience-related precursors related to destination brand love; 2) cognitive, attitudinal (including emotional), and conative consequences of destination brand love; and 3) well-being related and family-related outcomes of destination brand love. The findings have implications for academics, destination management organizations, and other destination stakeholders who wish to improve their understanding of the influences of destination brand love in theme-park based tourism.

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Embarking on a Ph.D. is akin to exploring on an endless sea that no one has been to. The explorer pushes the limits of the known world, aiming at establishing new knowledge domains. Sometimes the explorer is amazed by the astonishing view at sea, the stunning sunset, the beautiful clouds, the rainstorm, and lightning. There are also times when he or she is puzzled, feeling alone and helpless. However, it is through hard times, endless trying and deep thinking that the explorer grows and matures. Gradually, the Ph.D. process allows the explorer to get more self-awareness and self-understanding. Sitting alone in the favourite corner of an office thinking about a cutting-edge research question strengthens the thinking capacity while giving him or her more self-confidence and endurance. The Ph.D. experience itself is a great gift.

I am like the explorer. The four years is full of challenges, hard-working, and enhancements. When I look back, I am very thankful for this valuable experience, and I have too many people to thank. Special thanks go to my co-supervisors Dr. Mark Havitz and Dr. Luke Potwarka. They both are great researchers that are highly respected in the scholarly world. Mark is always warm, open-minded, kind, and conscientious about research and work. Luke is such as multi-task taker. He is easygoing and passionate about research. I hope I could have more opportunities in the future to cooperate with both of them. I passed the comprehensive exam in January 2016, defended my Ph.D. dissertation proposal six months later in July 2016, and cleared research ethics in November 2016. Mark and Luke helped me reach each milestone on time.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, my husband, and my daughter, who support me unconditionally anytime, anywhere.

Table of Contents

Examining Committee Membership	ii
Author's Declaration.....	iii
Abstract	iv
Acknowledgments.....	ix
Dedication	xi
Table of Contents	xii
List of Tables	xviii
List of Figures	xix
Chapter One: Introduction	1
1.1 Theoretical Perspective: The Customer-Based Brand Equity Model	6
1.2 Research Objectives	8
1.3 Conceptual Framework	9
1.4 Theoretical and Practical Contributions.....	13
Chapter Two: Literature Review	15
2.1 Brand Love's Social Psychological Foundations.....	15
2.1.1 Sternberg's (1986) triangular theory of love and its applications.	15
2.1.2 Self-inclusion theory and brand love.	17
2.2 Similarities and Differences between Destination Brand Love and Related Marketing Constructs.....	19
2.3 The Six Sub-dimensions of Destination Brand Love	22
2.3.1 Self-brand integration.	23
2.3.2 Passion-driven behaviours.....	24

2.3.3 Positive emotional connection.....	24
2.3.4 Long-term relationship.	24
2.3.5 Attitude strength.	25
2.3.6 Attitude valence.....	25
2.4 Model Development: The Destination Brand Love Framework.....	26
2.4.1 Antecedents of destination brand love.....	27
2.4.1.1 Brand awareness.	27
2.4.1.2 Brand trust.....	29
2.4.1.3 Evaluation of experiential attributes.	30
2.4.2 Outcomes of destination brand love.	31
2.4.2.1 Brand loyalty.....	31
2.4.2.1.1 Brand loyalty’s position in the brand experience.....	31
2.4.2.1.2 Conceptualizations and sequential stages of brand loyalty.	33
2.4.2.1.3 Loyalty stage one: cognitive loyalty	37
2.4.2.1.4 Loyalty stage two: attitudinal loyalty.....	38
2.4.2.1.5 Loyalty stage three: conative loyalty	39
2.4.2.2 Perceived happiness.	41
2.4.2.3 Family togetherness.	44
2.4.3 The mediating effects of destination brand love.....	46
2.4.4 Moderating effects of selected demographic and trip characteristics.....	49
2.4.4.1 Income.....	50
2.4.4.2 First-timers versus repeat visitors	51
2.5 Tourism Destinations	54
2.6 International Theme Parks as Destination Brands	56
2.6.1 A brief history of theme park development.....	56

2.6.2 Conceptualizations and characteristics of theme parks.	58
2.6.3 Disneyland: A strong theme park brand	59
Chapter Three: Methodology	61
3.1 Study Context: Shanghai Disney Resort.	61
3.2 Data Collection Procedures	62
3.2.1 Sampling plan.	62
3.2.2 Questionnaire structure.....	65
3.3 Measures.....	66
3.4 Pilot Test	72
3.5 Back-translation	74
3.6 Data Analysis Method.....	75
3.6.1 PLS-SEM and Reflective Measurement Model	75
3.6.2 Mediation.....	81
3.7 Common Method Variance	84
Chapter Four: Results	86
4.1 Demographic Information.....	86
4.2 Data Check, Missing Data Treatment, and Common Method Variance Reduction	89
4.2.1. Missing data treatment.....	89
4.2.2 Common method variance check	90
4.3 Normality Test.....	91
4.4 The Measurement Model	94
4.4.1 Indicator reliability.	95
4.4.2 Internal consistency reliability.....	98
4.4.3 Convergent validity.	98
4.4.4 Discriminant validity.	99

4.4.5 Content validity.	107
4.4.6. Model fit indices	107
4.5 The Structural Model	109
4.5.1 Collinearity assessment.	110
4.5.2 Significance of path coefficients.	110
4.5.2.1 The influence of brand awareness on destination brand love (H1).	114
4.5.2.2 The influence of brand trust on destination brand love (H2).....	114
4.5.2.3 The influence of the evaluation of experiential attributes on destination brand love (H3a). 114	
4.5.2.4 The influence of the evaluation of experiential attributes on cognitive loyalty (H3b). 115	
4.5.2.5 The influence of the evaluation of experiential attributes on attitudinal loyalty (H3c). 116	
4.5.2.6 The influence of the evaluation of experiential attributes on conative loyalty (H3d). 116	
4.5.2.8 The influence of destination brand love on cognitive loyalty (H4a).	117
4.5.2.9 The influence of destination brand love on attitudinal loyalty (H4b).....	117
4.5.2.10 The influence of destination brand love on conative loyalty (H4c).....	117
4.5.2.12 The influence of destination brand love on perceived happiness (H5a).....	118
4.5.2.13 The influence of destination brand love on family togetherness (H5b).....	118
4.5.2.14 The influence of cognitive loyalty on attitudinal loyalty (Hloy1).	119
4.5.2.15 The influence of attitudinal loyalty on conative loyalty (Hloy2).	119
4.5.3 Coefficient of determination (R^2).	120
4.5.4 Effect size (f^2).	121
4.5.5 Blindfolding and predictive relevance (Q^2).....	122
4.6 A Competing Model.....	123

4.7 Mediation Analysis (<i>H6a, H6b, and H6c</i>)	132
4.8 Moderating Analysis (<i>H7a, H7b_1, H7b_2, and H7b_3</i>).....	135
4.8.1 The moderating effect of income.....	135
4.8.2 The moderating effect of first-timers versus repeat visitors.....	137
Chapter Five: Discussion and Conclusion	143
5.1 Measurement items of Destination Brand Love.....	145
5.2 Drivers of Destination Brand Love	145
5.2.1 Brand awareness.	146
5.2.2. Brand trust.	148
5.2.3. The evaluation of experiential attributes and destination brand love.....	149
5.3 The Evaluation of Experiential Attributes and Destination Brand Loyalty	150
5.4 Business and Familial Outcomes of Destination Brand Love	152
5.4.1. Destination brand love’s relative impacts on loyalty.	152
5.4.2 Linkages between destination brand love and family togetherness.	153
5.5 Destination Brand Love as a Mediator.....	153
5.6 Summary of the Competing Model.....	154
5.7 Implications.....	155
5.7.1 Theoretical contributions.....	155
5.7.1.1 The destination brand love framework and destination brand love scales.	156
5.7.1.2 Quantitative and confirmatory destination brand love research.	156
5.7.1.3 Keller’s CBBE model in tourism research.....	158
5.7.1.4 Chinese family visitors in destination branding research.	158
5.7.2 Practical implications.	159
5.7.2.1 A driver of revenue and visitor loyalty.	159
5.7.2.2 Visitor psychological well-being and happiness.....	159

5.7.2.3 Low-income families.	160
5.7.2.4 Brand awareness's lack of sufficiency.....	161
5.8 Limitations	162
5.8.1 Partial disclosure.....	162
5.8.2 Feedback effects.	162
5.8.3 Inclusive family types.....	163
5.8.4 Non-response bias.....	164
5.8.5 Behavioural loyalty.....	164
5.8.5 Commitment.	166
5.8.6 Experiential attributes.....	169
5.9 Future Research.....	169
5.9.1 More assessment of brand awareness.....	169
5.9.2 Other tourism or leisure contexts.....	170
5.9.3 Additional antecedents and outcomes of destining brand love.	170
5.9.4 Human-interaction-related measures.....	171
5.10 Conclusion.....	171
References.....	174
Appendix.....	204

List of Tables

Table 1: Similarities between Brand Love and Related Marketing Constructs.....	21
Table 2: Differences between Brand Love and Related Marketing Constructs.....	22
Table 3: Brand Love’s Mediating Roles in Recent Studies.....	48
Table 4: Research Hypotheses in This Study	53
Table 5: On-site Sampling Plan	63
Table 6: Latent Constructs in the Conceptual Framework	81
Table 7: Demographic Information	88
Table 8: Univariate and Multivariate Normality Test Results (n=427).....	93
Table 9: Reliability and AVE	96
Table 10: Correlations of Constructs and the Square Root of AVE (Fornell-Larcker Criterion)..	99
Table 11: Cross Loadings	101
Table 12: Confidence Interval (95%) of the HTMT Statistic.....	106
Table 13: Results of Path Relationships	112
Table 14: Values of R^2 of Endogenous Constructs.....	120
Table 15: Values of f^2 Effect Size.....	122
Table 16: Predictive Relevance by Blindfolding (Q^2).....	123
Table 17: Factor Analysis of Measurement Items	125
Table 18: Mediation Analysis	133

List of Figures

Figure 1: Keller's (2013) Customer-Based Brand Equity Model.....	7
Figure 2: A Conceptual Framework of Antecedents and Consequences of Destination Brand Love in a Theme-Park Visitation Context	10
Figure 3: TouchPoints in Tourists' Pre-Travel, Travel, and Post-Travel Brand Experience	33
Figure 4: Different Levels of Tourism Destination Brands	56
Figure 5: The Directionality of Relationships between Constructs and Indicators	77
Figure 6: Assessment of PLS Path Modelling Results in Explanatory Research Settings (Henseler et al., 2016, p.12)	109
Figure 7: The Structural Model.....	113
Figure 8: The Competing Model: Structural Model	130
Figure 9: The Moderating Effect of Income on the Relationship between Destination Brand Love and Family Togetherness	137
Figure 10: The Moderating Effect of First Timers versus Repeat Visitors on the Relationship between Evaluation of Experiential Attributes and Cognitive Loyalty	138
Figure 11: The Moderating Effect of First Timers versus Repeat Visitors on the Relationship between Evaluation of Experiential Attributes and Attitudinal Loyalty	140
Figure 12: The Moderating Effect of First Timers versus Repeat Visitors on the Relationship between Evaluation of Experiential Attributes and Conative Loyalty	141
Figure 13: Two Processes of Commitment Formation	167
Figure 14: Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard's (1999) Four-factor PCI Framework.....	168

Chapter One: Introduction

Imagine that an adult tourist is planning to visit the Shanghai Disney Resort. Before his trip, the extensive media coverage of the Disney cartoon characters and Disneyland in Tokyo, Paris, California, Hong Kong, and Orlando, may have already established his awareness of the Disney brand. His previous experience seeing Disney movies (e.g., *Finding Dory*, *Cinderella*), purchasing tie-in retail products, and travelling on Disney cruises may form his initial trust of Disneyland. During his on-site visiting experiences, he might like or dislike it and establish a certain degree of emotional bond with Disneyland. In the post-visit stage, if the overall experience is satisfying, he may become loyal to Disneyland and recommend friends and relatives to visit. From the perspective of individual well-being, he may get an enhanced level of perceived happiness after visiting. If he visited with family members, they might also feel closer to each other; therefore, their family togetherness could be strengthened. He might also be unhappy and feel more frustrated with his family members.

This story delineates the pre-visit, visit, and post-visit brand experience from knowing a destination brand to experiencing it, evaluating it, and ultimately (for some) becoming loyal to it. Some interesting questions in this scenario include: does this visitor experience a feeling of love towards branded destinations? How strong is it? What can lead to this strong affection and what can be influenced by it?

Every step in this brand experience continuum is related to consumer-brand relationships (CBRs), which have three categories: emotional connections, functional connections, and a mix of both (Fetscherin & Heilmann, 2015). Consumer affection for a brand plays a significant role in sustaining long-term consumer-brand relationships (CBRs) (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Albert et al., 2008a; Batra et al., 2012; Fournier, 1998). Healthy and enduring CBRs are fundamentally necessary

for sustaining brand loyalty (Albert & Merunka, 2013) and finally business success (Fetscherin & Heilmann, 2015).

Researchers have long suggested that attitudes alone are insufficient predictors of brand loyalty (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011), and real loyalty requires close emotional bond between consumers and brands (Oliver, 1999). Given the difficulty in measuring complicated consumer-brand emotional connections, some marketing constructs have been proposed and validated to facilitate an understanding of these emotional connections. These constructs include brand love (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Albert et al., 2008a; Batra et al., 2012; Carroll & Ahuvia 2006), emotional attachment, brand romance (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011), brand passion (Bauer, Heinrich, & Martin, 2007), brand trust (Ball, Simões Coelho, & Machás, 2004; Javed, Roy, & Mansoor, 2015), and others. Brand love, emotional attachment, brand romance, and brand passion share several similarities. Firstly, all stress the word “attachment” (Batra et al., 2012; Bauer et al., 2007; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010; Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011). Secondly, all are well-established constructs that have strong reliability and validity and lead to desirable consumer behaviours, for example, attitudinal brand loyalty, price premium, resistance to negative comments, and positive word of mouth (WoM) (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007; Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011). Thirdly, they overlap in measurement scales. Brand love stands out among these constructs because it has a more abundant variety of antecedents and consequences and is more inclusive than brand passion and emotional attachment (Aro et al., 2018; Batra et al., 2012). Brand love’s multi-dimensionality captures not only positive emotional connection, affection, pleasure, and passion, as emotional attachment and brand passions do (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011; Thomson, MacInnis, & Park, 2005), but also addresses long-term relationship and attitude strength (Batra et al., 2012), the two dimensions of which have

not been captured in emotional attachment and brand passion. Brand love features its richness, inclusiveness, and reliable power to predict loyalty.

Brand love is an under-researched but increasingly important marketing construct (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Albert et al., 2008a; Fournier, 1998) that includes both cognitive and emotional dimensions (Albert et al., 2008b). Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) appeared to have been the first to assess brand love. They defined it as “the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular trade name” (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006, p. 81). According to them, brand love includes passion, attachment, positive evaluations and reactions, and declarations of love (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) also noted that brand love is conceptually distinct from brand loyalty because measures of brand love and brand loyalty loaded on entirely different factors. Batra et al. (2012) and Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010) suggested that brand love should include the following sub-dimensions: self-brand integration, passion-driven behaviours, long-term relationship, positive emotional connection, attitude valence, attitude strength, and anticipated separation distress.

Although previous marketing researchers have validated brand love’s reliability, validity, and ability to predict emotional responses to product brands (e.g., Albert & Merunka, 2013; Batra et al., 2012), to date, this construct has only found limited use in destination research. Swanson, Medway, and Warnaby’s (2015a) exploration of brand love’s methodological and technological approaches in tourism contexts marked an original application of this construct in tourism studies. The very few qualitative and exploratory studies on destination brand love call for quantitative investigations to identify its measures, reliability, and validity. Aro et al. (2018, p. 80), for instance, emphasized that “once destination brand love has been sufficiently explored qualitatively, further studies could develop quantitative measures.”

Positive emotions and enjoyable travel experiences provide important occasions for not only business development but also individual well-being and family bonding. Previous loyalty and brand love studies have heavily focused on the “brand love leads to loyalty” paradigm and mainly focused on brand love’s business outcomes (e.g., Albert et al., 2008b; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Sarkar & Sreejesh, 2014). Brand love’s non-business influences have not received enough scholarly attention. These influences include improved quality of life, a higher level of well-being, and enhanced family cohesion. Consumer love towards a brand may enhance their individual quality of life and well-being. If a consumer shares the love of a brand with his or her family members, their family togetherness may get enhanced. What is missing in both the research and practical approaches, is a comprehensive conceptual framework which incorporates perceptual/cognitive and relationship latent constructs at the same time and delineates how these latent constructs interplay and contribute to outcomes of brands, individuals, and families. To date, no studies have compared destination brand love’s influences on business-related and non-business consequences simultaneously. Indeed, it is essential to identify destination brand love’s influences on individuals (i.e., perceived happiness), families (i.e., family togetherness), and businesses (i.e., brand loyalty). This study adds to the traditional mainstream brand love and brand loyalty approach and tests two new outcomes of destination brand love: perceived happiness and family togetherness.

Branding is a way of differentiating and strengthening destinations among competitor places. Boo, Busser, and Baloglu, (2009) argued that tourism destinations are brands that can be consumed by tourists and managed by Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs). As globalization brings about homogenization to destinations around the world at an increasingly fast pace (Terkenli, 2002), branding appears to be particularly important in the process of differentiating destinations. Some streams of destination branding research have recently tended to focus on tourist emotions because

positive tourist emotions elicit memorable travel experiences, predict visitor loyalty and differentiate destinations (Ma, Scott, & Ding, 2013). In Hosany and Gilbert's (2010, p. 513) three-dimension destination emotion scales, "*love*," "*joy*," and "*positive surprises*" are the three primary tourist emotional responses towards hedonic destinations¹. The three types of affect contributed to 21%, 24%, and 15% of the variances of emotional responses respectively (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). Based on these previous studies, the feeling of love a tourist holds for a branded vacation site is undoubtedly an essential aspect of tourist emotions and tourist-destination relationships.

Like product brands or service brands, well-branded destinations drive tourists to establish commitment, emotional connections, and loyalty. Although visitors can set emotional attachment with and loyalty to destination brands at different geographical levels (e.g., country, province/state, city, destination), the researcher mainly focused on branded destinations, employing the Shanghai Disney Resort as a context. The Walt Disney Company's business spans various fields such as mass media, entertainment (e.g., movies, cartoons), retail, theme parks, and cruises. Visitors must have known this theme park brand before visiting, therefore being able to identify this brand. Furthermore, they might have already established certain levels of trust towards Disney resort through their pre-visiting brand experiences. Indeed, brand awareness and brand trust are two critical antecedents of brand love (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015). However, there has been no published research on the relationships between brand trust, brand awareness, evaluation of experiential attributes, and brand love. No study on destination brand love' antecedents has been carried out in the context of branded destinations.

Apart from pre-existing brand beliefs of the overall Disney brand that can influence tourist perceptions of Disneyland, visitor evaluation of experiential attributes may significantly impact

¹ Hedonic destinations are places that create broad hedonic normative meanings such as delight, fun, thrill, playfulness, enjoyment, cheer, and amuse (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010).

destination brand love (Batra et al., 2012). Destination brand love may then affect perceived happiness (Batra et al., 2012; Seligman, 2011), family togetherness (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Shaw et al., 2008), and tourist destination brand loyalty (Lee, Graefe, & Burns, 2007) in sequential stages (i.e., cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty). This study explored and justified these relationships further in a later section of the introduction.

While the term brand love appears to be rather emotional for academic research, it is in fact widely used in contemporary scholarly work, such as Albert and Merunka (2013), Albert et al. (2008a), Albert et al. (2008b), Aro et al. (2018), Batra et al. (2012), Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010), Carroll and Ahuvia (2006), Sarkar and Sreejesh (2014). It also accurately reflects the word choice of many loyal customers. It has the benefit of being a short catch-all term with which to replace the wordier but less inclusive “emotional attachment,” “brand romance,” or “brand passion.” The current research uses the term brand love throughout.

1.1 Theoretical Perspective: The Customer-Based Brand Equity Model

Researchers have established various conceptualizations of how brands influence consumer perceptions and behaviours. Two widely cited examples are Aaker’s (1991) brand equity model and Keller’s (2013) Customer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE) model (Figure 1). Aaker (1991) recognized five building blocks of brand equity: brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, and other proprietary assets. Keller’s (2013) CBBE model suggests that brand development involves four primary stages. Firstly, consumers should be aware of the trademark and be able to identify it (the salience stage). Secondly, after getting some level of awareness, they experience the brand through a series of brand touch points, such as products, services, pricing, and ambiance (the performance and imagery stages). Thirdly, they may respond to the brand, develop

certain feelings towards it, and then evaluate its performance (the response stage). Fourthly, they might become loyal to the brand and generate certain levels of attachment to it (the resonance stage).

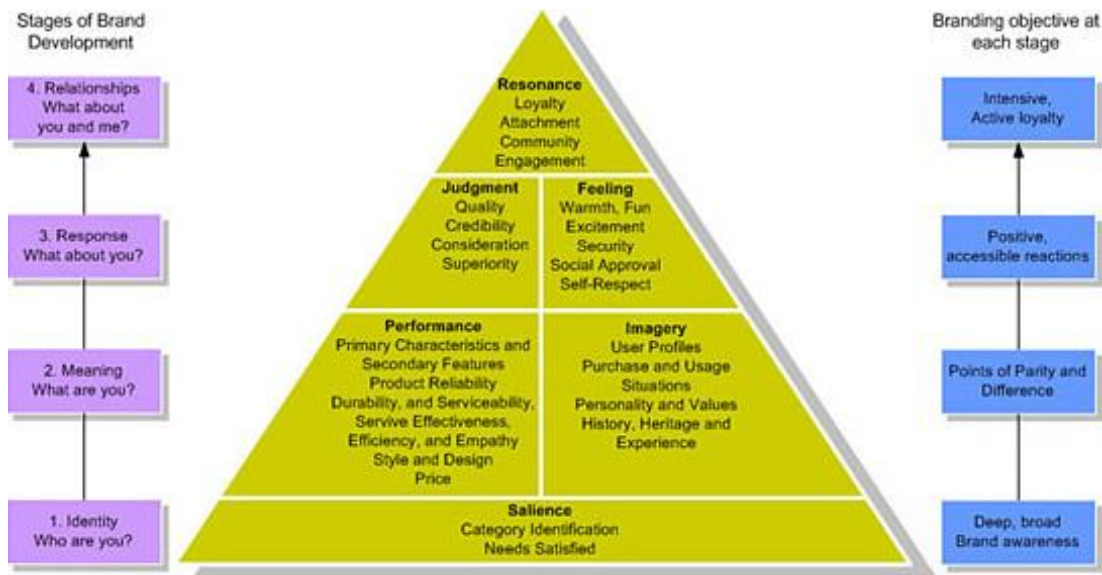


Figure 1: Keller's (2013) Customer-Based Brand Equity Model

In summary, consumer awareness, imagery, feelings, judgments, and brand resonance are essential building blocks of strong brand loyalty and brand equity (Keller, 2013). As strong destination brands, Disney theme parks are no exception. Positive and affirmative emotional responses to the overall Disney brand may influence consumers' perceptions of, evaluations of, and loyalties towards Disney theme parks (Keller, 2013).

In response to the needs to find methods to assess destination brand equity, variations of CBBE have been adapted and implemented in destination tourism research (Boo et al., 2009). For instance, the Visitor-Based Brand Equity (VBBE) model has been proposed based on Keller's (2013) CBBE model (see King & Prideaux, 2009). Strong destination brands have outstanding VBBE, which emanates from tourist preference, loyalty, and the growth in the number of visitors,

their spending, and duration of stay (Keller, 2013). So far, insufficient tourism research has adopted Keller's (2013) brand-experience perspective to delineate tourists' brand experiences from brand awareness, imagery, perceptions, evaluations, to feelings and loyalty. Destination brand love falls into the category of "feeling" in Keller's (2013) CBBE model. Few studies have examined it through the lenses of CBBE or VBBE. Moreover, existing tourist loyalty models have seldom incorporated destination brand love as a critical type of emotional bonds between tourists and branded destinations.

1.2 Research Objectives

So far, CBR research in theme-park based tourism is also relatively lacking. Very few published studies have explored destination brand love in the context of theme park visitation. This study aims to test and establish a conceptual framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love in a theme-park visitation context and to delineate how these latent constructs interplay and contribute to optimal outcomes of brands, individuals, and families. The researcher refers to theme parks visitors as tourists and excursionists. According to World Tourism Organization (WTO), a tourist (or an overnight visitor) means a visitor whose trip includes an overnight stay at a destination, while an excursionist (or a same-day visitor) is a domestic, inbound, or outbound visitor whose trip does not include an overnight stay. Specifically, this dissertation aims to address the following four research objectives:

- 1) The first research objective is to validate and establish the marketing construct of destination brand love.

- 2) Secondly, this dissertation seeks to propose, test, and establish a conceptual framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love in a theme-park tourism context (Figure 2).
- 3) Thirdly, this dissertation aims to test destination brand love's mediating role in the relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and sequential stages of destination brand loyalty (cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty).
- 4) The fourth research objective is to examine the moderating role of income in the link between destination brand love and family togetherness and the moderating role of first-time versus repeat visitors in the link between the evaluation of experiential attributes and four sequential stages of destination brand loyalty (cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty).

1.3 Conceptual Framework

The current study defines destination brand love as the degree of intense affection a tourist holds for a branded destination (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Figure 2 displays the conceptual framework of this study. The researcher developed this framework after a review of extensive branding and tourism marketing literature.

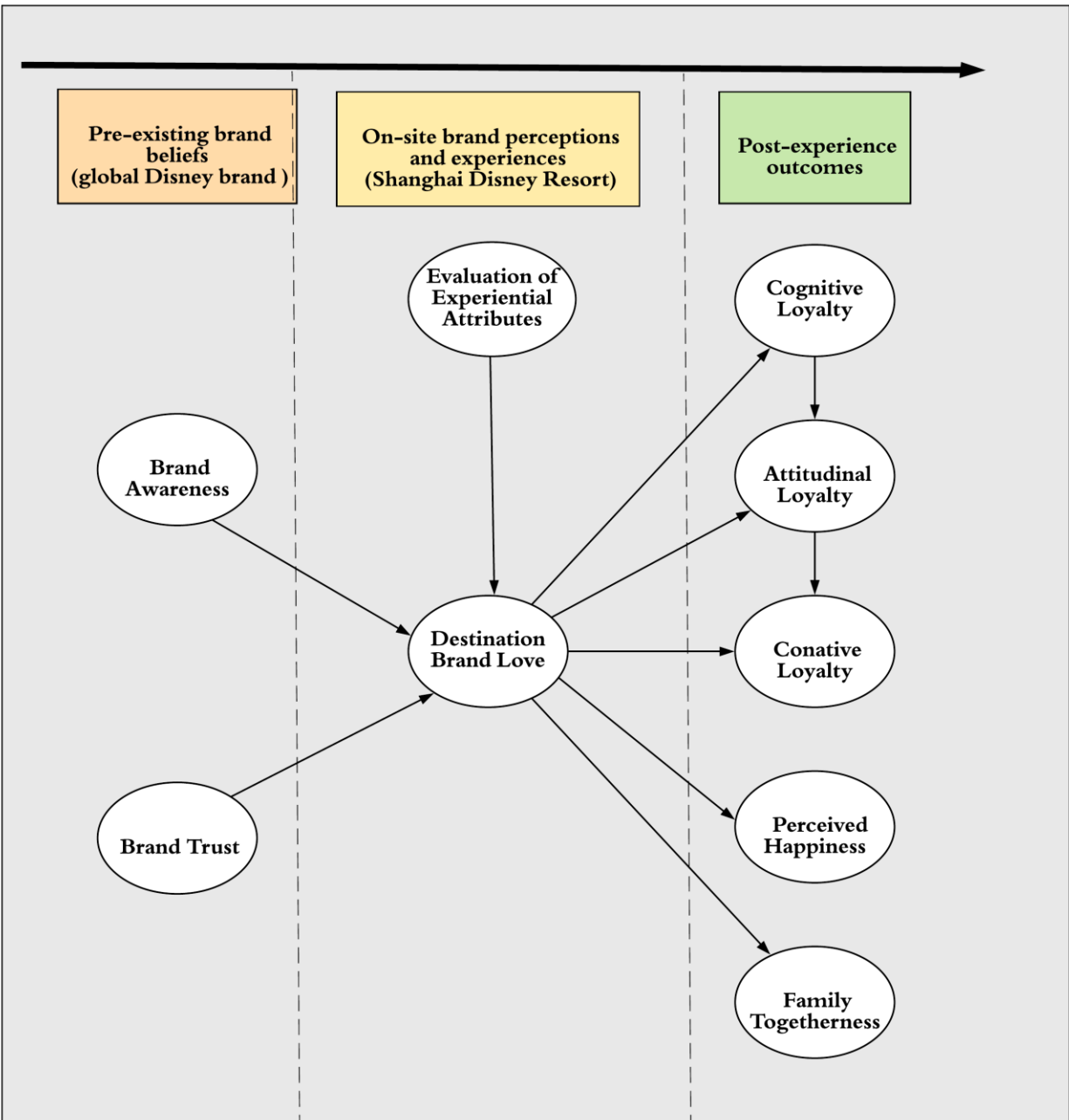


Figure 2: A Conceptual Framework of Antecedents and Consequences of Destination Brand Love in a Theme-Park Visitation Context

To capture the richness of the fabric from which destination brand loyalty, perceived happiness, and family togetherness arises, the researcher designed all the latent constructs in the conceptual framework multi-dimensional and multi-indicator. Specifically, brand awareness refers to the extent to which a brand name can be recognized based on perceptual occurrence/frequency, irrespective of product class (Helloufs & Jacobson, 1999; Oh, 2000). Brand trust means the extent to which a brand is “altruistic, reliable, honest, and competent” (Bearden & Netemeyer, 1999, p. 234), and it covers credibility, integrity, and goodwill (Hess, 1995). Brand love’s sub-dimensions include self-brand integration, passion-driven behaviours, positive emotional connection, long-term relationship, attitude strength, and attitude valence (Batra et al., 2012; 2014). Family togetherness refers to a sense of emotional closeness and bonding within families (Williams & Anthony, 2015). Perceived happiness indicates an overall assessment of the quality of life of a person (Shin & Johnson, 1978).

Destination brand loyalty has been recognized to indicate “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or re-patronize a preferred brand” (Oliver, 1999, p.34). Traditional ways of conceptualizing loyalty as univariate/one-dimensional (see Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003) or bi-dimensional (e.g., Day, 1976; Day, 1969; Jacoby, 1969, 1970, 1971) tend to be less inclusive. This dissertation adopts a more recent and holistic view that loyalty development involves four sequential stages (Harris & Goode, 2004; Oliver, 1999; Oliver, 1997). I tested sequential stages of loyalty, that is, cognitive, affective, and conative loyalty (Back, 2005; Back & Parks, 2003; Choo et al., 2011; Netemeyer, Krishnan, Pullig, Wang, Yagcid, Deane, Ricksf, & Wirth, 2004; Oliver, 1999; Oliver, 1997). Cognitive loyalty refers to “the existence of beliefs that (typically) a brand is preferable to others” (Harris & Goode, 2004, p. 141). Attitudinal loyalty reflects consumers’ favourable attitude or liking by satisfied usage (Harris & Goode, 2004). Conative loyalty is used to

represent the development of behavioural intentions and characterizes a more profound commitment (Harris & Goode, 2004).

Notably, the constructs of brand awareness, family togetherness, and perceived happiness are multi-indicator but single-dimensional (Williams & Anthony, 2015; Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999; Oh, 2000); the other constructs in the conceptual framework are all multi-indicator and multi-dimensional. In this conceptual framework (Figure 2), destination brand love functions as the critical mediating construct between its antecedents and outcomes. Three factors precede destination brand love are brand awareness, brand trust, and evaluation of experiential attributes. Outcome constructs include destination brand loyalty (in sequential stages: cognitive, attitudinal, and conative), perceived individual happiness, and family togetherness. Previous product marketing studies suggest that brand trust and brand awareness significantly influence brand love, which in turn leads to brand loyalty (e.g., Albert & Merunka, 2013). This study extended these marketing studies into destination contexts and explored destination brand love's familial (family togetherness) and individual (perceived happiness) outcomes.

So far, no systematic theoretical framework of destination brand love has been published to explain the relationships among such CBR constructs as brand loyalty and brand trust. To address this void, the researcher proposed the scaled-down conceptual framework (Figure 2). In this framework, the researcher excluded construct sub-dimensions that are entirely product-based and not directly related to destination contexts. Specifically, one sub-dimension of brand love, anticipated separation distress (Batra et al., 2012), was proposed and verified in product contexts. It appears to be inapplicable in destination studies because tourists bear the motivation to seek novelty and variety (see McAlister's Theory of Variety-seeking, 1982). As a result, the researcher deleted anticipated separation distress from the destination brand love construct in this study.

Destination brand love plays key mediating roles in a series of brand-related relationships (e.g., Albert & Merunka, 2013; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Roy, Eshghi, & Sarkar, 2013), such as the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty (Roy et al., 2013) and that between brand image and WoM (Ismail & Spinelli, 2012). Based on these previous studies, this dissertation tested a series of research hypotheses concerning the mediating role of destination brand love. Additionally, the researcher also examined “income” and “first-time versus repeat visitors” as two categorical moderators. Existing studies showed that a satisfied level of income reduces psychological distress (Thoits & Hannan, 1979), which in turn influences family togetherness (Rivera, Guarnaccia, Mulvaney-Day, Lin, Torres, & Alegria, 2008). First-time and repeat visitors also show distinct destination loyalty (e.g., Caber, 2015). With all the mediation and moderation effects, this study tested a total of 20 research hypotheses, including general hypotheses, mediation hypotheses, and moderation hypotheses.

1.4 Theoretical and Practical Contributions

Theoretically, this dissertation addressed a significant gap in the literature by validating the construct of destination brand love and proposing the multi-dimensional and multi-indicator conceptual framework. Much existing loyalty research has neglected the cognitive, attitudinal, and conative constituents of loyalty. This study narrowed this gap by clarifying destination brand love’s impacts on all four loyalty components. Moreover, the relationship between tourism, individual happiness, and family togetherness represents a relatively new line of research in tourism studies (e.g., McCabe & Johnson, 2013). This study contributed to travel research by delineating destination brand love’s contribution to non-business outcomes, namely, perceived happiness and family togetherness.

Practically, this study demonstrated two important antecedents of destination brand love, which are brand trust and evaluation of experiential attributes. Understanding these antecedents will help DMOs clarify the sources of visitors' emotional connection with destinations. Moreover, it compared the relative importance of brand awareness, brand trust, and the evaluation of experiential attributes as three antecedents of destination brand love. The results can help DMO optimize the allocation of marketing resources when advertising their branded destinations. Study results may also help respondents better understand the role of family leisure in their lives and, consequently, make choices that are best for their circumstances.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

The literature review starts with a review of existing literature about love in psychology and brand love in branding, consumer behaviour, retail, psychology, and tourism, with a particular focus on seminal journal articles published in the past 30 years. Section 2.1 revolves around two perspectives: love as a social psychological phenomenon and as a consumer behaviour construct. Section 2.2 then discusses brand love's situation in CBR Literature. Section 2.3 delineates the six sub-dimensions of brand love. After that, Section 2.4, the most relevant section in the Literature Review, explains every latent construct in the conceptual framework, as well as the moderators and mediators explored in this dissertation. Research hypotheses follow each sub-section. Section 2.5 discusses definitions and different levels of tourism destinations. To provide a more detailed background of theme parks as branded destinations, section 2.6 briefly introduces the history of theme park development, the conceptualizations and characteristics of theme parks, and Disneyland as the specific context for this study.

2.1 Brand Love's Social Psychological Foundations

2.1.1 Sternberg's (1986) triangular theory of love and its applications.

Although the construct of brand love is relatively new, it has deep roots in consumer psychology, especially consumer-emotion research (e.g., Fournier, 1998). Shimp and Madden (1988) introduced the concept of brand love drawing on Sternberg's (1986) triangular theory of love. After that, individual research has been conducted to explore consumer enthusiasm/passion for products (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007; Whang, Allen, Sahoury, & Zhang, 2004), relationships with brands (Batra et al., 2012), and love for a place in the tourism context (Swanson et al., 2015a).

The focus of marketing has shifted from transactions to relationships, and therefore from products to brands (Javed et al., 2015). Because of these changes, researchers have employed interpersonal relationship theories to understand consumers' feelings, for example, affections for branded destinations (e.g., Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). However, it is necessary to distinguish brand love from interpersonal love. Social psychologists define love as "the constellation of behaviours, cognitions, and emotions associated with the desire to enter or maintain a close relationship with a specific other person" (Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson, 1991, p. 26). From the interpersonal relationship perspective, love can be manifested through objective measures, such as sexuality and fertility rates (Albert et al., 2008a), and demonstration of affection. The triangular theory of love by Sternberg (1986; 1997) deconstructed love into three dimensions: intimacy, passion, and decision/commitment.

These three dimensions interact with each other to influence the overall feeling of love. Intimacy incorporates the feelings of "closeness, connectedness, and bondedness" that people experience in relationships (Sternberg, 1986, p. 119). The passion constituent encompasses "motivational and other sources of arousal that leads to the experience of passion" (Sternberg, 1986, p. 122). Decision/commitment means both short-term (decisions to love) and long-term commitment (endeavours to maintain the love). Sarkar (2011) noted that what differs brand love from interpersonal love is that fact that the former is unidirectional (only from people to brands), while the latter is bidirectional (people can give love to each other).

Existing consumer research into customers' love of products or services brands is, to a large extent, based on social psychology research on interpersonal love. Some of the first endeavours to understand consumer consumptions applied Sternberg's (1986) triangular theory of love (Albert & Merunka, 2013) and the Self-inclusion Theory (Aron & Aron, 1986). Although early contributions

of consumer love research set the stage for contemporary research in brand love, they appear to be vulnerable to criticism. For example, Shimp & Madden (1988) proposed eight categories of consumer-object relations based on Sternberg's (1986; 1997) triangular theory of love: non-liking, liking, infatuation, functionalism, inhibited desire, utilitarianism, succumbed desire, and loyalty. This eight-stage model has several omissions and is not robust. First, the most notable weakness is that between disliking and liking, there should be a continuum or some zones of interplay such as neutral silence. Second, utilitarianism and functionalism have areas of overlap that should be differentiated. Keller's (2013) customer-based brand equity (CBBE) model (Figure 1) corroborated the robustness of and applied the "loyalty" and "liking" components to, Shimp and Madden's (1988) categorization.

It is also worth noting that Sternberg's (1986) triangular theory has been tested and supported by subsequent branding researchers. For instance, through factor analysis, Aron and Westbay (1996) confirmed Sternberg's (1986) eight-category love configuration. Fournier (1998) suggested that passion and love are two of the six types of CBRs. Research on brand love also demonstrated Sternberg's (1986) three dimensions of love. Specifically, Carroll and Ahuvia's (2006) definition of brand love also mentioned the essential roles of passion.

2.1.2 Self-inclusion theory and brand love.

Increasingly more researchers study brand love without drawing upon theories of interpersonal love (e.g., Albert et al., 2008a; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). They argued that brand love stem from an established customer-brand connection: a person-entity relationship, rather than the interpersonal relationship (e.g., Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). It also has the function of strengthening CBRs (e.g., Albert & Merunka, 2013; Batra et al., 2012). In social psychology, Aron and Aron's

(1986) Self-inclusion Theory holds that “people need to become part of another to feel loved” (Albert & Merunka, 2013, p. 259). Researchers such as Ahuvia (1993) extended this theory to marketing studies. Based on this theory, the conditions for consumers to feel love for a brand include many aspects. These elements include certain degrees of interaction between customers’ sense of self and brand attributes (Ahuvia, 1993; see Albert & Merunka, 2013) and congruency between consumers’ personality or value propositions with brand attributes (Batra et al., 2012).

Researchers have long recognized that certain relationships exist between people and their belongings (e.g., Blackston, 1992); these relationships reflect owners’ sense of self and can also influence their identity and social relationships (Belk, 1988). Likewise, the products and services people choose may mirror their attributes and preferences. Consumers must feel “psychological proximity to developing an affective proximity with the brand” (Albert & Merunka, 2013, p. 263). This proximity could partially explain why relationship research extends into the CBR area. Consumers’ favourite brands can be irreplaceable, the same as valuable personal possessions (Kretz, 2015).

Although brand love is a relatively under-researched construct in marketing, some endeavours have been made to clarify what brand love is from the CBR perspective. For example, from the providers’ perspective, Fuchs, Schreier, and van Osselaer (2015, p. 100) defined love as “the producer’s warm-hearted passion for a product or its production process that, as a result, can be perceived as symbolically embedded in the product.” According to Fuchs et al. (2015), this conceptualization of love reflects two facets of love: the love that producers imbue to products in the handicraft production, and the metaphorical sense of love that the human-made products carry. Albert et al. (2008a) did not mention that they adopted the self-inclusion theory in developing the 11 dimensions of consumers’ love towards a brand. However, “self-congruity (congruity between self-

image and product image)” and “dreams (the brand favours consumer goals)” both reflect the essential meaning of the self-inclusion Theory (Albert et al., 2008a, p. 1071).

Love towards a tourism destination arises from a complex constellation of discreet experiences concerning various tourist-destination touch points in the pre-travel, travel, and post-travel stages. No single interpersonal relationship theory or consumer behaviour theory could claim to be able to explain tourist love towards destination brands sufficiently. Related CBR and branding literature should be reviewed to facilitate the understanding of brand love.

2.2 Similarities and Differences between Destination Brand Love and Related Marketing

Constructs

In the CBR literature, love towards a brand functions as one critical component of CBRs (Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2014; Fournier, 1998). In Fournier’s (1998) six-faceted brand relationship quality (BRQ) framework, brand love and brand passion are at the center of all strong brand relationships. Their six CBR constructs are 1) love and passion, which is at the core of all strong brand relationships; 2) self-connection, which means the extent to which “the brand delivers on essential identity concerns, tasks, or themes, thereby expressing a significant aspect of self” (Fournier, 1998, p. 364); 3) interdependence, which involved frequent brand interactions, increased scope and diversity of brand-related activities, and heightened intensity of individual communication events; 4) commitment, including Investment-related and emotional commitment; 5) intimacy; and 6) brand partner quality, which reflects consumers’ evaluation of the brand’s performance in its partnership role. Fournier’s (1998) BRQ framework corroborated love’s cornerstone characters but neglects an essential facet: trust (Delgado-Ballester, Munuera-Aleman, & Yague-Guillen, 2003), which appears to be the most critical attribute any brand can possess.

From a matrix perspective, Fetscherin and Heinrich (2014) classified CBRs into four categories based on the extent to which a particular brand can fulfill consumers' emotional (affective) and functional (cognitive) needs. The four categories comprise 1) functional invested brands, 2) emotionally invested brands, 3) fully invested brand connections, and 4) un-invested brands. Fetscherin and Heinrich (2014) positioned brand love in the quadrant where consumers showcase both strong positive feelings of and a close relationship with a particular brand. Therefore, brand love is an essential CBR construct, leading to brand commitment and loyalty.

Brand love intimately connects with other related CBR constructs such as emotional attachment (e.g., Thomson et al., 2005), brand passion (Bauer et al., 2007; Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011), brand romance (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011), brand trust (Ball, Simões Coelho, & Machás, 2004; Javed, Roy, & Mansoor, 2015), place attachment (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001) and brand personality (Aaker, 1997; Geuens, Weijters, & De Wulf, 2009). These three constructs have some degrees of similarities regarding definition, multi-dimensionality, focus, predictive power, marketing outcomes, and measurement scales. Table 1 shows the similarities between brand love and related marketing constructs. Brand love, emotional attachment, brand passion, and place attachment all stress attachment (Batra et al., 2012; Park et al., 2010; Thomson et al., 2005).

Table 1: Similarities between Brand Love and Related Marketing Constructs

Similarities	Brand Love	Emotional Attachment	Brand Passion	Place Attachment	Brand Personality
Definition	“the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular trade name” (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006, p. 81).	“the strength of the bond connecting the brand with the self” (Park et al., 2010, p. 2) (also called brand attachment)	“a state of emotional attachment (evoked in response to the brand as a stimulus) that is characterized by strong positive affect toward the brand, high arousal caused by the brand, and a tendency of the brand to dominate the consumer’s cognition” (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011, p. 299)	“ a positive affective bond between an individual and a specific place, the main characteristic of which is the tendency of the individual to maintain closeness to such a place.” (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001, p. 274)	“the set of human characteristics associated with a brand” (Aaker, 1997, p. 347)
Focus	All five constructs stress attachment or association.				
Predictive Power and Outcomes	1) All are well-established multi-dimensional constructs that have established reliability and validity. 2) All lead to desirable consumer behaviours, e, g., consumer emotions, brand preference, trust, satisfaction, brand loyalty/ repurchasing behaviour, positive WoM, patronage intention.				
Measurement	Overlapped in measurement scales				

Brand love also differs significantly from its related CBR constructs. Researchers have empirically investigated these distinctions. For example, Albert and Merunka (2013) found that brand love differs from three essential CBR constructs: brand awareness, brand commitment, and brand trust. Thomson et al. (2005) conducted a series of studies and identified the three sub-dimensions of emotional attachment: affection, passion, and connection. In their EFA results, “love” emerged as one of the four items loading on the factor “affection”; the other three items loading on “affection” were affectionate, friendly, and peaceful (Thomson et al., 2005, p. 80). The stronger a consumer’s emotional attachment, the stronger feelings of affection, passion, connection, and love he will experience (Fehr & Russell, 1991; Sternberg, 1987; Thomson et al., 2005). One of brand love’s uniqueness and advantage, however, is that it also addresses attitude strength, which has been

established as a sub-dimension of brand love (Batra et al., 2012). As a summary, as displayed in Table 2, brand love, emotional attachment, brand passion, place attachment, and brand personality differ regarding theoretical underpinnings, focus, and sub-dimensions (multi-dimensionality).

Table 2: Differences between Brand Love and Related Marketing Constructs

Differences	Brand Love	Emotional Attachment	Brand Passion	Place Attachment	Brand Personality
Theoretical Underpinnings	Sternberg's (1986) triangular theory of love; self-inclusion theory (Aron & Aron, 1986)	The attachment theory in psychology (Bowlby, 1979; Hazan & Shaver, 1987)	The self-expansion model (Aron et al., 2001)	The attachment theory (Bowlby, 1979, 1980)	Taxonomy of human personality (see Geuens et al., 2009)
Focus	intimacy, passion, and decision/commitment	familiarity, security, and safety	stimulation, novelty, and arousal	physical, emotional, and social bonding	human characteristics of brands
Sub-dimensions (multi-dimensionality)	self-brand integration, positive emotional connection, passion-driven behaviours, long-term relationship, attitude valence, and attitude strength (Batra et al., 2012)	connection, affection, and passion (Thomson et al., 2005)	pleasure, arousal, and dominance (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011)	rootedness or physical attachment (Riger & Lavrakas, 1981); social attachment or interpersonal component (Brocato, 2006; Kyle, Graefe, & Manning, 2005; Riger & Lavrakas, 1981); affective attachment (Brocato, 2006)	sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness (Aaker, 1997)

2.3 The Six Sub-dimensions of Destination Brand Love

Albert et al.'s (2008a) dimensions of brand love include 11 facets. They include passion for the brand; duration of the relationship (the relationship with the brand exists for a long time); self-congruity (congruity between self-image and product image); dreams (the brand favours consumer

ideas); memories (evoked by the brand); pleasure (that the brand provides to the customer); attraction (feel toward the brand); uniqueness (of the brand and/or of the relationship); beauty (of the brand); trust (the brand has never disappointed); and declaration of affect (feel toward the brand). Similarly, the later product-based brand love research by Batra et al. (2012) and Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen (2010) suggested that brand love should include seven sub-dimensions: self-brand integration, passion-driven behaviours, long-term relationship, positive emotional connection, attitude valence, attitude strength, and anticipated separation distress.

2.3.1 Self-brand integration.

Brands are regarded to be related to human characteristics (e.g., Aaker, 1997), for example, personality traits. Therefore, brands represent desired self-qualities. Exposure to brands can shape decision-making. As a consumer's exposure to a brand increases, the likelihood of this consumer choosing this brand also rises.

Consumers choose brands for both the utilitarian and symbolic benefits. For this reason, favourite brands should be able to reflect consumers' current and desired self-identity and life meanings (Batra et al., 2012). In other words, successful brands should relate to their consumers through self-connection (Fournier, 1998, p. 364) or self-identification. Known as a kind of "brand identification" (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010), self-brand integration means "the extent to which the consumer sees his or her self-image as overlapping the brand's image" (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006, p. 49). It is also regarded by Fournier (1998, p. 364) as a type of "self-connection," which refers to "the degree to which the brand delivers on important identity concerns, tasks, or themes, thereby expressing a significant aspect of self." The three sub-constructs of self-brand integration are life-meaning, desired self-identity, and current self-identity (Batra et al., 2012).

Self-brand integration predicts brand love (e.g., Albert & Merunka, 2013; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Batra et al., 2012). In the case of visitation at Disneyland, tourists may fit in very naturally to Disneyland's brand values, services, and staged authentic environment. This lack of inhibition allows them to enjoy themselves, wholly immersed in the simulated "authenticity."

2.3.2 Passion-driven behaviours.

Passion-driven behaviours are another sub-dimension of brand love (Batra et al., 2012). From Batra et al.'s (2012) product-brand perspective, passion-driven behaviours include willingness to invest time, money, energy, and other resources, passionate desire to use the brand, and things done in the past (involvement), for example, previous interactions with the brand or the company that makes the brand (Batra et al., 2012). In the context of Shanghai Disneyland, passion-driven behaviours mean visitors' willingness to spend money and time visiting it, passion for purchasing brand-related products, and previous interactions with the Disney.

2.3.3 Positive emotional connection.

Positive emotional connection, as another sub-dimension of brand love, is also multi-faceted. It not only captures the emotional attachment piece of the visitor-destination relationships, but also covers multiples positive affect, such as content, relaxation, fun, excitement, calm, and pleasure (Batra et al., 2012). It also informs the Intuitive fit between customers and brands (Batra et al., 2012).

2.3.4 Long-term relationship.

Long-term relationship means customers' sense of commitment towards a brand over extended periods (Batra et al., 2012). In product-choosing contexts, it can mean the willingness to use a product

for a long time. In this study, the long-term relationship between visitors and Shanghai Disney Resort means that the resort may be in their memory for a long time and they feel a sense of commitment to it.

2.3.5 Attitude strength.

Brand attitude strength and brand attachment are two distinct brand equity drivers (Park et al., 2010). Attitude strength refers to “positivity or negativity of an attitude weighted by the confidence or certainty with which it is held” (Park et al., 2010, p. 1). Attitudes strength means frequent thoughts of a brand and the certainty and confidence of feelings towards the brand (Batra et al., 2012). Theme park visitors’ attitude strength conceptually means the frequency they think of a theme park and their certainty and confidence in their feelings towards this theme park brand.

2.3.6 Attitude valence.

“Brands cannot be loved without also being liked and evaluated highly” (Batra et al., 2012, p. 6). Attitude valence has been reported as a significant predictor of brand love (Batra et al., 2012). Attitude valence can be tested using several indicators such as satisfaction, feelings of like/dislike, positive/negative evaluations, or met or unmet expectations (Batra et al., 2012). In this study, attitude valence will be assessed under the construct evaluation of experiential attributes, leaving the final sub-dimensions of destination brand love being self-brand integration, passion-driven behaviours, positive emotional connection, long-term relationship, and attitude strength.

The last sub-dimension of brand love, anticipated separation distress (Batra et al., 2012), appear to be inapplicable in the context of tourists visiting Shanghai Disney Resort because visitors

usually seek novelty/variety in travel experiences and may not feel distressed when they separate from a destination. Different from consumer-product ties, separation stress does not necessarily exist in tourist-destination relationships. McAlister's (1982) Theory of Variety-seeking, usually applied in tourism studies by the term novelty-seeking, explains why tourists switch from their loved brands to other choices. Variety- or novelty- seeking are important tourist motives (e.g., Assaker, Vinzi, & O'Connor, 2011; Feng & Jang, 2007). Exemplifications of tourists' novelty-seeking motivations include their pursuit of innovative physical places (McIntosh, Goeldner, & Ritchie, 1995); different cultures; local crafts and cuisine; new friends; ethnic settings; and prestige in their travel experiences (Assaker et al., 2011). Thus, in this study, anticipated separation distress is excluded from the sub-dimensions of destination brand love.

2.4 Model Development: The Destination Brand Love Framework

The conceptual framework explains destination brand love through both pre-existing brand beliefs (i.e., brand awareness and brand trust) and on-site perception and experiences (i.e., evaluation of experiential attributes). The outcomes of destination brand love include four-faceted brand loyalty (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Batra et al., 2012; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006), perceived happiness, and family togetherness. The conceptual framework encompasses seven primary hypotheses. The propositions about brand loyalty contain four sub-hypotheses.

It may be incorrect to view the relations among these latent constructs in a unidirectional manner. It is highly likely that the outcomes in the conceptual framework (Figure 2) will strengthen brand awareness and brand trust, thereby creating an active cycle mechanism. The following sections discuss each latent construct one by one.

2.4.1 Antecedents of destination brand love.

The antecedents of brand love are the pre-existing beliefs of the destination brand, i.e., brand awareness and brand trust (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015), and evaluation of experiential attributes. In the case of the Shanghai Disney Resort, tourists' pre-existing awareness of Disney's mass media, entertainment, retail, theme parks, and cruises can impact their overall brand love towards Shanghai Disney Resort. Section 2.3.1.1 discusses the three antecedents of destination brand love: brand awareness, brand trust, and evaluation of experiential attributes.

2.4.1.1 Brand awareness.

Consumers can be aware of a brand from various perspectives (e.g., identify with a firm or its product) (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008). In a framework clarifying consumer identification of companies, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003, p. 77) conceptualized consumers' identification with a company as "an active, selective, and volitional act motivated by the satisfaction of one or more self-definitional (i.e., "Who am I?") needs." Hughes and Ahearne (2010, p. 84) defined brand identification as "the degree to which a person defines him- or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define a brand." Pritchard, Havitz, and Howard (1999), in their exploration of airline and hotel customers' commitment, established a three-dimensional conceptualization of commitment: informational, identification, and volitional. Consistent with Crosby and Taylor's (1983) arguments, Pritchard et al. (1999) contended that the consumer identification process is the second active precursor of commitment.

Similar to identification, brand awareness functions as a decision heuristic (Hoyer & Brown, 1990; Huang & Sarigöllü, 2012) and a significant driver of customer behaviors (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008), for example, customer choice (Hoyer & Brown, 1990), customer perception and attitude

(Aaker, 1996), customer value process (Oh, 2000), and customer loyalty (Aaker, 1996). Brand awareness is one of the five components of Aaker's (1991) brand equity model. Aaker (1991) defined brand awareness as the degree to which the public knows a brand. Aaker (1991) also suggested measuring brand awareness using brand associations, familiarity and liking, commitment to a brand, and brand preference during purchase processes. Previous marketing research has verified brand identification or awareness as an antecedent of commitment (Pritchard et al., 1999), brand love (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010), and brand loyalty (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973). However, although establishing brand salient or brand awareness lies at the first and most fundamental level of the brand resonance pyramid (Keller, 2013), brand awareness related research is still scarce (Huang & Sarigöllü, 2012).

Consumers may be able to be aware of many brands but only express strong affections for and positive evaluations of particular ones. Unless users know about a brand (pure awareness), it is almost impossible that they will have a strong love for it. This process is also applicable to the case of visitation at Shanghai Disney Resort. So far, tourist awareness of theme park brands and its influences are still under-researched, especially in the Chinese theme park market. Few studies have examined the impacts of destination brand awareness on the emotional bond between tourists and branded destinations.

Brand awareness is of fundamental importance in building ideal tourist-destination relationships (Choo et al., 2011) because strong CBRs often arise from consumers' awareness with those brands (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Strong CBRs may further result in customer commitment and loyalty (Keller, 2013). Based on the related literature, this study hypothesizes that:

H1: Destination brand awareness will have a positive effect on destination brand love.

2.4.1.2 Brand trust.

Trust comes before identified relationships (Keh & Xie, 2009). Consumer trust plays critical roles in maintaining and enhancing CBRs; it is also the cornerstone and one of the ideal qualities of CBRs (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003). To understand CBRs requires analyses of consumer trust in the brand (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003). “The ultimate goal of marketing is to generate an intense bond between the consumer and the brand, and the main ingredient of this bond is trust” (Hiscock, 2001, p. 1). Hess (1995) conceptualized brand trust on the basis that its consumers trust a brand to the extent that this brand is “altruistic, reliable, honest, and competent,” and that users know what to expect from the brand (Bearden & Netemeyer, 1999, p. 234). Hess’s (1995) brand trust scales consist of 11 reliable and valid measurement items organized into three dimensions: brand honesty, brand altruism, and brand reliability. Ha and Perks (2005) found three antecedents of brand trust: consumer brand experiences and their searching for information, secondly, a high degree of consumer brand familiarity, and consumer satisfaction.

Brand trust deals with the probabilities of satisfying occurrences and consumers’ confidence and expectations; it expresses a brand’s reliability, honesty, altruism, and safety from the perspective of consumers (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Hess, 1995). Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001, p. 82) described brand trust as “the willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function.” Delgado-Ballester et al. (2003) suggested another definition which emphasizes reliability and low risk; they referred to brand trust as “the confident expectations of the brand’s reliability and intentions in situations entailing risk to the consumer.” From these definitions; brand trust bears both cognitive and affective components (Albert et al., 2008b).

Brand trust is an antecedent of brand love (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015) and brand loyalty. It also has positive impacts on loyalty (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Chaudhuri

& Holbrook, 2001; Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Based on these arguments, the researcher posits:

H2: Destination brand trust will have a positive effect on destination brand love.

2.4.1.3 Evaluation of experiential attributes.

Positive consumer evaluation of experience is one of the traditional ultimate business goals for many destinations (e.g., Chi & Qu, 2008). Consumer satisfaction is both cognitive and emotional (del Bosque & San Martín, 2008). In general marketing settings, a positive evaluation is an antecedent of loyalty (Chen, 2012; Deng, Lu, Wei, & Zhang, 2010; Flint, Blocker, & Boutin, 2011; Liu, Guo, & Lee, 2011; Nam et al., 2011). In travel circumstances, positive evaluation of experiential attributes enhances tourist loyalty towards destinations (e.g., Alexandris, Kouthouris, & Meligdis, 2006).

Existing research on travel satisfaction has adopted both the overall satisfaction approach (e.g., Oliver, 1980) and the attribute satisfaction approach (e.g., Chi & Qu, 2008; Oliver, 1993). These two types of satisfaction are distinct but also related (Oliver, 1993). The traditional single-facet overall satisfaction approach (Oliver, 1980) merely investigates “overall satisfaction” and appear to be partial and less informative. A multi-attribute perspective treats satisfaction as a function of multiple attribute-level evaluations (Oliver, 1993). This attribute-level approach regards the evaluation as arising from a complex constellation of discreet experiences concerning various tourist-destination touch points in the pre-travel, travel, and post-travel stages.

Multiple domains significantly influence the evaluation of experiential attributes. These domains include but are not limited to: culture; dining; shopping; attractions; activities and events; environment; accessibility and transportation; safety; service quality (Chi & Qu, 2008; Kozak &

Rimmington, 2000; Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Mongkonvanit, 2002). Considering that a wide range of destination components altogether lead to tourist evaluation of on-site experiences (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000), this research adopts Oliver's (1993) attribute-level conceptualization of satisfaction and uses multiple measures to test visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes.

Consumers will not love a brand unless they evaluate it highly (Batra et al., 2012; Roy et al., 2013). In this sense, the evaluation of experiential attributes serves as a critical catalyst to spark brand love during travel experiences. Because evaluation of experiences has been reported as a significant predictor of brand love (Batra et al., 2012) and brand loyalty (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2008; Chen, 2012; Liu et al., 2011), this research posits that:

H3a: Evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on destination brand love.

2.4.2 Outcomes of destination brand love.

2.4.2.1 Brand loyalty.

2.4.2.1.1 Brand loyalty's position in the brand experience.

Brand loyalty lies in the late stages of brand experience; early stages include but are not limited to brand recognition, customer feelings, and brand evaluations (Keller, 2013). It is essential to recognize the role brand loyalty plays in consumers' whole brand experience. Consumers begin to interact with brands in their pre-patronage stage, such as when they search for brand information either online or in physical settings or when they see advertisements and hear other consumers' opinions (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009; Hoch, 2002). When they actually buy physical products or service, functional factors like the assortment and display of products, service staff and their service quality, and hedonic factors like ambience and specific feelings can both influence

consumers' brand experience (e.g., Brakus et al., 2009; Lloyd, Yip, & Luk, 2011). Notably, consumers' brand experience does not end in the consumption stage. Their evaluations, feelings, feedback, and loyalty in the post-purchase or post-consumption stage also contribute to their brand experience critically, making the whole experience more complete. Customers' feelings in brand experience tend to be specific, rather than overall liking or hating (Brakus et al., 2009).

If we take the Disney brand as an example, before coming to Disney resorts, tourists may have already formed a certain level of emotional attachment towards Disney. The media coverage of Tokyo, Paris, California, Hong Kong, and Orlando Disneyland, as well as the long-term familiarity with the brand from seeing Disney movies (Lion King, for example), plays, and tie-in products make tourists familiar with the Disney brand. In their visiting, playing, and purchasing experience at Disneyland, their on-site brand experience is formed and then further enriched; they may also express a certain level of brand love and brand loyalty. After visiting Disneyland, they will evaluate their visiting experience and may recommend that their friends and relatives go to Disneyland, or otherwise, spread positive or negative WoM.

Obtaining brand experience, therefore, is a continuous process during which consumers receive brand information, products, service, visual and audio stimuli, and other brand-related attributes, digest and evaluate them in their ways, and then change or maintain their patronage or recommendation behaviour according to their experience. It is apparent that subjectivity and self-perception are unneglectable in the formation of customers' perception of brand experience. As Brakus et al. (2009, p. 53) defined, brand experience means the "subjective, internal consumer responses (sensations, feelings, and cognition) and behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications, and environments." Some brand experience is temporary and short-lived; others are long-lasting. In the

latter case, consumers can quickly collect a brand from their memory. Therefore their behavioural responses tend to be more brand related (Brakus et al., 2009). Figure 3 uses customer journal mapping to delineate some key customer touch points that usually occurs in three stages of tourist experience: pre-travel, travel, and post-travel.

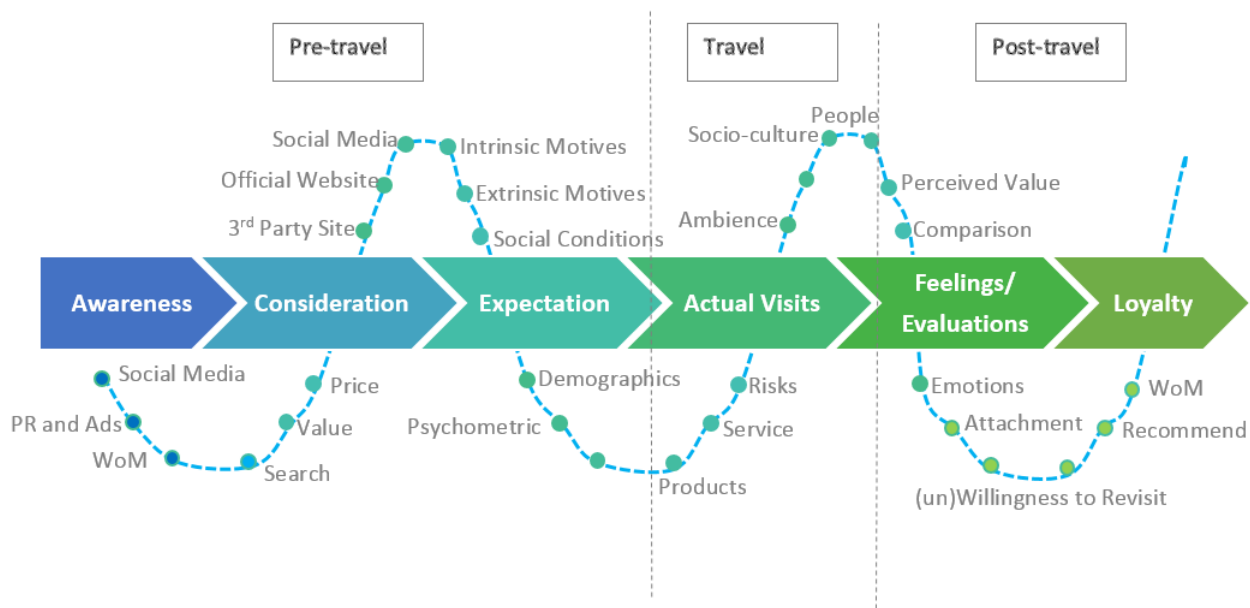


Figure 3: TouchPoints in Tourists' Pre-Travel, Travel, and Post-Travel Brand Experience

2.4.2.1.2 Conceptualizations and sequential stages of brand loyalty.

Brand loyalty, a stream of relationship marketing research, has received extensive attention for decades. Social psychologists, business researchers, and tourism and leisure scholars have all tried to address what loyalty is and what its precursors are (e.g., Pritchard, Howard, & Havitz, 1992). Crosby and Taylor's (1983) theory of psychological commitment serves as one of the building blocks of many subsequent explorations of loyalty conceptualization. According to this theory, psychological commitment indicates the inclination to resist change responding to inconsistent or incompatible experience or information (Crosby & Taylor, 1983). Two conditions can maximize

commitment: 1) customer motivations to maintain relationships between their preferences and cognition, and 2) the linkage between values and customer self-images (Crosby & Taylor, 1983). Later, Oliver (1999) also emphasized the crucial roles of commitment to defining loyalty. He stated that brand loyalty is “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or re-patronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same-brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour” (Oliver, 1999, p. 34). As this definition suggests, brand loyalty includes both behavioural /action loyalty (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Jarvis & Mayo, 1986) and attitudinal loyalty (Day, 1969).

A significant proportion of the early work on loyalty investigated loyalty as a purely behavioural phenomenon (e.g., Cunningham, 1956; Howard & Thomason, 1984). More researchers regard loyalty as composed of a blend of behaviours, attitudes, (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Day, 1976; Day, 1969; Pritchard et al., 1999), cognition, and conation (Dick & Basu, 1994). For instance, Härtel and Russell-Bennett (2010) identified attitudinal and behavioural loyalty in the traditional approaches to conceptualizing loyalty. A more mature work by Dick and Basu (1994) proposed that customer loyalty has three groups of determinants: cognitive, affective, and conative determinants. *Cognitive* precursors include four sub-dimensions: accessibility (the level of ease with which consumers can retrieve attitude from their memory); attitudinal confidence (the degree of certainty with respect to an attitude or evaluation); centrality (the extent to which consumers feel the brand is consistent with their value system); and clarity (the attitudes cannot be described using alternative feelings). The *affective* dimension contains emotions, moods, primary affect, and satisfaction. Additionally, customers’ expectations and consideration of switching costs/barriers and sunk costs belong to the *conative* components.

Oliver (1997; 1999) regarded loyalty as a procedural formation following the stages of “cognition-affect-conation” (Oliver, 1999, p. 35). In other words, loyalty should be conceived as a causal chain or sequential development starting with cognitions and affections and ending with conations and behaviours (Oliver, 1997). Consumers can become loyal at each of the three stages, albeit the mechanisms of the three loyalty phases differ. Oliver (1997; 1999) argued that consumers “become loyal in a cognitive sense first, then later in an affective sense, still later in a conative manner, and finally in a behavioural manner” (Oliver, 1999, p. 35). Customer satisfaction is an antecedent of overall customer loyalty or different loyalty dimensions. For example, Back and Parks (2003), in their studies of hotel customers in North Carolina, reported that customer satisfaction positively influenced cognitive brand loyalty in a significant manner.

Even though brand loyalty is a multi-stage construct that entails multivariate measurements, theories of brand loyalty differ in many perspectives. One critical perspective is by differentiating the number of stages of brand loyalty. Sheth and Park (1974) hypothesized a vector of seven different types of brand loyalty based upon the combinations of different types of loyalty:

- 1) Behavioural brand loyalty (one-dimensional), which only bears the behavioural dimension;
- 2) Behavioural-evaluative brand loyalty (two-dimensional);
- 3) Behavioural-emotive brand loyalty (two-dimensional);
- 4) Behavioural-evaluative-emotive brand loyalty (three-dimensional);
- 5) Evaluative brand loyalty (one-dimensional);
- 6) Evaluative-emotive brand loyalty (two-dimensional); and
- 7) Emotive brand loyalty (one-dimensional)

It is also not uncommon that researchers operationalize the loyalty construct as univariate/one-dimensional (see Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003), two-dimensional (e.g., Day, 1976; Day, 1969; Jacoby, 1969, 1970, 1971), or three-dimensional which is a more recent practice (e.g., Yuksel et al., 2010). However, traditional ways of conceptualizing loyalty as one-dimensional, two-dimensional or three-dimensional tend to be less inclusive. In particular, univariate or unidimensional measurement concerning frequency, revisit intention and repeated brand purchase behaviour is far from perfect to fully capture the brand loyalty construct (Sheth & Park, 1974). A multi-stage conceptualization of loyalty formation is more holistic and captures a more productive variety of loyalty variances (Oliver, 1999).

Some loyalty-stage categorizations vary slightly from Oliver's (1997; 1999) and Dick and Basu's (1994) stream. Härtel and Russell-Bennett (2010) combined the cognitive and affective dimensions into attitudinal brand loyalty because attitudes were believed to be composed of cognition and affect (Ajzen, 2001). However, no matter which way of categorization is to be adopted, it can be summarized that customer loyalty contains at least attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty. A more comprehensive perspective will also be to include the cognitive and conative aspects.

Existing research appears to have under-recognized cognitive or attitudinal facets of loyalty. Given this problem, the researcher suggests that future researchers adopt integrated conceptual approaches to understanding loyalty (Dick & Basu, 1994). Pritchard et al. (1992) noted that recognizing the cognitive component of loyalty could allow leisure researchers to prevent some operational difficulties in measuring loyalty. Due to the complicated nature of loyalty, we should consider cognitive, affective, and conative loyalty to capture a more abundant variety of pre-behaviour loyalty components.

In the contexts of tourism destinations, Konecnik and Gartner (2007, p. 403) identified three significant constituents of tourism destination's brand image as cognitive, affective, and conative, which further lead to destination brand equity. These three constituents of destination image are, in no small extent, consistent with cognitive loyalty, attitudinal loyalty, and conative loyalty:

“The cognitive component constitutes awareness: what someone knows or thinks they know about a destination. The affective component is based on how one feels about this knowledge. The conative component is the action step: how one acts on the information and how they feel about it (a destination)” (Konecnik & Gartner, 2007, p. 403).

The next section discusses sequential stages of loyalty. The synthesis of literature on four sequential stages provides the necessary basis for understanding loyalty's procedural formation. The psychological mechanisms of loyalty formation, such as volitional choices (or freedom to choose, autonomy) (Kiesler, 1971), brand identification (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Pritchard et al., 1999), and self-brand congruency (Batra et al., 2012) lie at the very core of consumer commitment (Kiesler, 1971; Pritchard et al., 1999), and they signify a necessary condition for attitudes to develop (Pritchard et al., 1999; Shamir, 1988).

2.4.2.1.3 Loyalty stage one: cognitive loyalty

As the earliest phase of loyalty development, cognitive loyalty rests on shallow and vicarious brand knowledge or recently acquired experience-based information (Oliver, 1999). Briefly speaking, it rests on the information offered to consumers, for example, price, and the ratio of the price paid and the benefit received (Evanschitzky & Wunderlich, 2006). It refers to “the existence of beliefs that (typically) a brand is preferable to others” (Harris & Goode, 2004, p. 141). This preliminary stage of loyalty is weak and non-stable; its depth is relatively shallow (Oliver, 1999). Therefore, customers who are only cognitively loyal are easy to switch to other brands

(Evanschitzky & Wunderlich, 2006). Pedersen and Nysveen (2001) reported cognitive loyalty as the most vulnerable phase of loyalty. If consumers are not satisfied with their actual brand experience, cognitive loyalty will terminate (Oliver, 1999) and will not transform into attitudinal loyalty. Because the evaluation of experiential attributes positively influences brand loyalty (Chen, 2012; Liu et al., 2011; Roy et al., 2013), this study hypothesizes that:

H3b: Evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on cognitive loyalty.

2.4.2.1.4 Loyalty stage two: attitudinal loyalty

Most of the definitions of attitudinal loyalty emphasize liking, commitment, and emotion. One definition of attitudinal brand loyalty refers to it as the degree of engagement that average consumers hold toward a brand (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). It includes “a degree of dispositional commitment regarding some unique value associated with the brand” (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001, p. 82). Härtel and Russell-Bennett (2010, p. 2) described attitudinal loyalty as “(a) consumer’s affective and cognitive evaluation of repurchasing a brand.” Harris and Goode (2004) regarded attitudinal loyalty as a reflection of consumers’ favourable attitude or liking by satisfied usage.

Emotion and attachment are vital elements of attitudinal loyalty. Consumers may hold specified levels of emotions towards market entities (Park et al., 2010). Attitudinal loyalty stems from cognizant preference and emotional connections with a brand (Sharifi & Esfidani, 2014), as well as satisfaction (Oliver, 1999), perceived value (Johnson, Herrmann, & Huber, 2006), and so forth. Consumers’ dispositional commitment to brands, attitudinal attachment (Keller, 2013), or attitudinal loyalty (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001) adds to the integrity of brand loyalty (Day, 1969). In the cognition-attitudes-behaviour continuum, attitudes are stronger than cognition (Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010) and corroborate loyalty (Sharifi & Esfidani, 2014). Considering that

attitudinal loyalty is based on satisfaction and perceptions (Johnson et al., 2006; Roy et al., 2013), this study posits that:

H3c: Evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty.

2.4.2.1.5 Loyalty stage three: conative loyalty

Despite its importance, conative loyalty has not drawn much attention in tourism research. It means the development of intentions and characterizes more profound commitment (Harris & Goode, 2004). Conative loyalty happens after attitudinal loyalty. By becoming conatively and behaviourally loyal, a customer can finally become truly loyal (Oliver, 1997). Customers' expectations and consideration of switching costs/barriers and sunk costs constitute conative loyalty (Dick & Basu, 1994).

Switching costs arise from changing from one brand to another (Bowen & Shoemaker, 1998) and can mean both monetary (e.g., loss of mileage points) and non-monetary costs (e.g., frustration from terminating membership and the cognitive costs to get used to another brand) (Dick & Basu, 1994). To save on costs, customers tend to maintain relatively certain relationships with some brands (Heide & Weiss, 1995). Those who perceive high switching costs would prefer to remain loyalty despite being dissatisfied (Gruen & Ferguson, 1994). A few studies suggested a moderating role of switching cost in the relationships between perceived quality, satisfaction, and loyalty (e.g., Heide & Weiss, 1995). However, Back and Lee (2009) explored switching costs' moderating effects in the country club members' satisfaction–loyalty relationship but concluded that switching cost's moderating effect was insignificant.

Another reason leading to conative loyalty is the consideration of sunk costs. Sunk costs, also called stranded costs, refer to “costs that have been incurred and cannot be recovered” (Park & Jang,

2014, p. 426). They can mean money, effort, or time Arkes and Blumer (1985). According to (Arkes & Blumer, 1985), the sunk cost effects indicate that customers tend to maintain an existing endeavour once they make an initial investment of money, effort or time. Park and Jang (2014) extended the concept of sunk cost to tourist travel cancellation research. They found that temporal sunk costs might transfer into monetary sunk costs.

Moreover, the higher the temporal and monetary sunk costs are, the less likely that tourists will cancel a travel product. This study treats conative loyalty as a key sub-dimension of destination brand loyalty. It assumes that the evaluation of experiential attributes will affect conative loyalty:

H3d: Evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on conative loyalty.

Considering that the development of brand loyalty features sequential stages, this dissertation hypothesizes that:

Hloy1: Cognitive loyalty will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty.

Hloy2: Attitudinal loyalty will have a positive effect on conative loyalty.

Brand love is one of the CBR constructs that precedes brand loyalty (e.g., Albert & Merunka, 2013; Batra et al., 2012; Lee & Hyun, 2016), WoM (Batra et al., 2012; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006), and customer resistance (Batra et al., 2012). It should be noted that cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty should all be incorporated in loyalty measurement (Baldinger & Rubinson, 1996). Keller (2013) and Roy et al. (2013) indicated that awareness and customer feelings (for instance, satisfaction) both lead to customer loyalty. Lee et al. (2007) and Yuksel et al. (2010) further reported that high tourist satisfaction and positive emotional and cognitive bonds with a particular destination lead to actual repeat visits to this place. Based on the above literature, this research hypothesizes that destination brand love would positively influence different stages of loyalty.

H4a: Destination brand love will have a positive effect on cognitive loyalty.

H4b: Destination brand love will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty.

H4c: Destination brand love will have a positive effect on conative loyalty.

2.4.2.2 Perceived happiness.

As “a global assessment of a person’s quality of life” (Shin & Johnson, 1978, p. 478), happiness relates to frequent positive affect, infrequent negative affect, and high life satisfaction (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2015). Happiness is a central criterion of positive life (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005) and it ties closely into subjective well-being (SWB) and quality of life (QoL). Although the conceptualization and empirical studies on happiness rest mainly in positive psychology, scholars from a wide range of other disciplines, for instance, economics, marketing, and leisure and tourism, have paid extensive to the research on perceived happiness (e.g., Desmeules, 2002; Filep & Deery, 2010; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

Previous economists tended to measure happiness using economic growth, personal welfare, and “revealed preferences,” such as actual choices and decisions (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006, p. 3). A traditional economic measure of happiness considers GDP per capita, income level, or social status (e.g., Fuchs, 1983). Nevertheless, this method failed to explain the fundamental connections between income increase and happiness; therefore, it appears to be incomplete or inappropriate. For example, according to Easterlin’s (1974) documentation, although people in the United States enjoyed significant income growth, their perceived happiness did not increase. Therefore, economy or income levels do not necessarily increase synchronously with happiness (Binswanger, 2006; Blanchflower & Oswald, 2000; Easterlin, 2005), partly because people may suffer from more time pressure when the economy grows.

According to the bottom-up spillover theory, happiness is not constituted by contentment in any single life domain, but by contentment in multiple domains, such as income, as previously mentioned, and social relations, work, family, health, travel, and leisure (Erdogan, Bauer, Truxillo, & Mansfield, 2012; Headey, Veenhoven, & Wearing, 1991). Given the complexity of the constitution of happiness, an increasing number of scholars tend to adopt newer ways to evaluate happiness. Kahneman and Krueger (2006) suggested SWB as a useful measure of happiness. Argyle, Martin, and Crossland (1989) devised a 29-item Oxford Happiness Inventory (OHI). These items were scored on a 4-point Likert scales (Argyle et al., 1989), mainly for measuring personal happiness. After that, Hills and Argyle (2002) improved OHI and suggested the Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (OHQ), which comprises of similar items to those of the OHI, with each item rated on a 6-point Likert scale. OHQ has been recognized to have sound validity and strong associations with wellbeing-related personality variables (Hills & Argyle, 2002).

Spiers and Walker (2009) suggested researchers examine SWB through both cognitive and affective aspects. Cognitive aspects include QoL and life satisfaction (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). Affect aspects comprise positive and adverse affect and happiness. Therefore, happiness is a significant affective indicator of both QoL (Iwasaki, 2007; Spiers & Walker, 2009) and SWB (Oshio & Kobayashi, 2010; Walker, Deng, & Spiers, 2009).

In positive psychology, Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1999) developed a 4-item measure of happiness and confirmed its reliability and validity, including construct, convergent, and discriminant validity. Lyubomirsky and Lepper's (1999) measures of happiness are global and do not test people's perceived happiness of specific activities or experiences. In this study, the researcher chose Lyubomirsky and Lepper's (1999) global measures because perceived happiness is, in fact, a global indicator of people's quality of life (Shin & Johnson, 1978). Powdthavee (2007, p.

55) defined happiness as “the degree of how one views one’s life as a whole, or some particular domain of one’s life, as favourable.” Many existing surveys of happiness use global measures as well. For example, according to Powdthavee (2007), the World Values Survey adopts the following single-item question to ask about people’s perceived happiness: ‘Taken all together, how happy would you say you are: very happy, quite happy, not very happy, not at all happy?’” Lyubomirsky and Lepper’s (1999) measures of happiness add to the abundance of happiness research and have been widely cited and adopted by subsequent researchers (Furnham & Cheng, 2000). Indeed, from a practical standpoint, measures of global happiness might be important to Disney marketers who may strive to live up to claims of being the “happiest place on earth.”

Recently, tourist happiness has been a topic of increasing relevance to tourism studies, practice, and promotions. Considering that tourists and the general population differ in many aspects, a clear-cut definition of tourist happiness is required. Filep (2014) argued that any conceptualization of tourist happiness should encompass evaluations of pre-travel, travel, and post-travel experiences. He adopted a full journey tourist-experience perspective and defined *tourist happiness* as “a psychological state of fulfillment and well-being that is experienced in anticipatory, on-site, and reflective travel phases” (Filep, 2014, p. 266). “Tourists’ happiness is a state in which the tourist experiences positive emotions (joy, interest, contentment, and love), is engaged in and derives meaning from holiday activities.” (Filep & Deery, 2010, p. 399). Because travel enhances well-being (McCabe & Johnson, 2013), tourism researchers have used the SWB theory to conceptualize and measure tourist happiness.

Existing literature suggests some links between brand love and happiness. Positive psychologist Seligman (2011) proposed the PERMA model to explain what we need to do to be happy. This model maintains that five essential elements—positive emotions, engagement, positive

relationships, meaning, and accomplishment/achievement—should be in a position to create lasting happiness (Seligman, 2011). Positive emotion denotes the crucial first element, and it includes love, pleasure, relaxation, excitement, and curiosity (Filep & Deery, 2010; Seligman, 2011). Filep and Deery (2010, p. 407) further noted that tourist happiness is about having “positive emotions, engagement, and meaning,” and a tourist may be happy if he or she experiences the three qualities. Because positive emotion is a fundamental element of the brand love prototype (Batra et al., 2012), this study hypothesizes that destination brand love positively impacts tourist happiness.

H5a: Destination brand love will have a positive effect on the perceived happiness of visitors.

2.4.2.3 Family togetherness.

The word family originates from the Latin word “familia” which denotes household. How to define the concept of family is of great significance because it influences not only socio-cultural values but also social policy-making and legislation of a country. Historically, traditional (same-sex) spousal and biological relations play essential roles in the legal definition of family (Bala & Bromwich, 2002). “The rigid familial ideal was permanent, monogamous, married, nuclear, heterosexual and Christian, and had clearly defined gender roles” (Bala & Bromwich, 2002, p. 148). Patterson (1996) maintained that family comprises firstly, parents and siblings in one’s family of origin, and secondly, spouse and children.

The concept of family has evolved dramatically from merely meaning heterosexual marriage, biological parent-child relationships, and relatives to recognizing other significant “close personal adult relationships” (Bala & Bromwich, 2002, p. 145). Recent views of what constitutes a family expand considerably to become more inclusive, recognizing various dynamic representations of

family. The Law Commission of Canada, for example, accepts more inclusive formats of family, such as psychological, same-sex and non-marital co-habitant family. According to Bala and Bromwich (2002), in Canada, unmarried cohabitants and homosexual spouses in continuing relationships have also obtained rights and obligations of being families. For the purpose of this dissertation, the researcher regards family as either a nuclear family, which means a unit where two individuals live alone by themselves or with their dependent daughters or sons in the same household, or a traditional extended family where another adult lives with the married couple (Senturk, Abas, Berksun, & Stewart, 2011).

No matter its type, family's core meaning remains unchanged over the years: family denotes a unit, something beyond a group of individuals or a collection of relationships, and an individual can belong to it (McCarthy, 2012). In other words, family represents togetherness, belonging, closeness, shared memories, care and support, emotions and ideas, and so on (Gillies, Ribbens, McCarthy, & Holland, 2001; Jallinoja, 2008; McCarthy, 2012; Richards, 1990). Gillies et al. (2001) reported that youngsters aged between 16 and 18 and their parents repeatedly mentioned the words togetherness and closeness throughout their discussions on families. Phrases used frequently include "living together," "doing things together," "going out together," "sticking together," and "pulling together" (Gillies et al., 2001, p. 26). Williams and Anthony (2015) used the term family togetherness to assess the sense of emotional closeness and bonding within families. More importantly, family togetherness has been found to contribute to positive family relationships which eventually lead to enhanced well-being (Williams & Anthony, 2015).

The human desire for togetherness and belonging is a part of natural needs (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Family togetherness is also a vital tourist motivation that ties to fundamental needs. Yoon and Uysal's (2005) exploratory factor analysis (EFA) suggested that family togetherness is a push travel

motivation that significantly impacts travel satisfaction and destination loyalty. A wide range of travel experiences can fulfill the need for family cohesion (Crompton, 1979; Kim & Eves, 2012; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). These experiences include, for instance, attending festivals and events (Formica & Uysal, 1998; Lee et al., 2004; Uysal, Gahan, & Martin, 1993) and taking family vacations (Shaw, Havitz, & Delemere, 2008). Family vacations play unneglectable roles in the social construction of families (Shaw et al., 2008).

Travel provides chances for families to escape from their mundane and stressful daily lives and engages in authentic activities jointly (Shaw et al., 2008). Therefore, travel or visiting experiences function as valuable opportunities to foster family closeness and communication, mainly through memories created during family vacation experiences (Shaw et al., 2008). Notably, in travel settings, different demographic groups view the importance of family togetherness distinctively. Lee et al. (2004), in their study of Expo attendees, concluded that the motivation of family togetherness was stronger among married people than singles.

From a positive psychological perspective, positive emotion is one of the antecedents of memorable tourism experiences that will strengthen family togetherness (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Shaw et al., 2008). Because destination brand love represents such positive affect as excitement, relaxation, pleasure, and deep liking (Batra et al., 2012), this research posits that destination brand love positively influences family togetherness.

H5b: Destination brand love will have a positive effect on family togetherness.

2.4.3 The mediating effects of destination brand love.

Existing literature has suggested the mediating role of the construct destination brand love in a series of relationships (Table 3). Based upon related literature on satisfaction's influences on

destination brand love and the latter's impacts on cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty, this study also hypothesizes that destination brand love mediates the relationships between the evaluation of experiential attributes and the four stages of loyalty. The researcher put forward the following hypotheses:

H6a: Destination brand love mediates the direct relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty.

H6b: Destination brand love mediates the direct relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty.

H6c: Destination brand love mediates the direct relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty.

Table 3: Brand Love's Mediating Roles in Recent Studies

Year	Author(s)	Brand love mediates the relationship between:	Research Context/Sample
2013	Albert & Merunka	brand global identification and willingness to pay a price premium	Two survey-based studies with undergraduate students at an Australian University
2013	Albert & Merunka	brand global identification and WoM	Two survey-based studies with undergraduate students at an Australian University
2013	Albert & Merunka	brand global identification and brand commitment	Two survey-based studies with undergraduate students at an Australian University
2013	Albert & Merunka	brand trust and willingness to pay a price premium	Two survey-based studies with undergraduate students at an Australian University
2013	Albert & Merunka	brand trust and brand commitment	Two survey-based studies with undergraduate students at an Australian University
2010	Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen	brand identification and brand loyalty	Two survey-based studies with undergraduate students at an Australian University
2010	Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen	brand identification and active engagement	Two survey-based studies with undergraduate students at an Australian University
2012	Ismail & Spinelli	brand image and WoM	fashion brands among young consumers
2006	Carroll & Ahuvia	Hedonic product and WoM	white-non-Hispanic adult consumers
2006	Carroll & Ahuvia	Hedonic product and brand loyalty	white-non-Hispanic adult consumers
2006	Carroll & Ahuvia	Self-expressive brand and WoM	white-non-Hispanic adult consumers
2006	Carroll & Ahuvia	Self-expressive brand and brand loyalty	white-non-Hispanic adult consumers
2013	Roy et al.	Satisfaction and loyalty	Research propositions based on a literature review
2013	Roy et al.	Romanticism and loyalty	Research propositions based on a literature review
2013	Roy et al.	Brand experience and loyalty	Research propositions based on a literature review
2013	Roy et al.	Consumer delight and loyalty	Research propositions based on a literature review
2013	Roy et al.	Materialism and loyalty	Research propositions based on a literature review
2013	Roy et al.	Satisfaction and WoM	Research propositions based on a literature review
2013	Roy et al.	Romanticism and WoM	Research propositions based on a literature review
2013	Roy et al.	Brand experience and WoM	Research propositions based on a literature review

2013	Roy et al.	Consumer delight and WoM	Research propositions based on a literature review
2013	Roy et al.	Materialism and WoM	Research propositions based on a literature review
2013	Roy et al.	Self-congruity and loyalty	Research propositions based on a literature review
2013	Roy et al.	Self-congruity and WoM	Research propositions based on a literature review

2.4.4 Moderating effects of selected demographic and trip characteristics.

Demographic and socio-cultural characteristics are essential criteria for market segmentation. Accurate identification and explanation of the influences of demographic and trip-specific characteristics on visitor perceptions and behaviours can produce valuable insights into travel market segmentation. Therefore, to help DMOs understand different market segmentation of visitors at Shanghai Disneyland and develop related product and service strategies, it is necessary to examine the influence of sample’s demographic and trip information on visitor perceptions and behaviours.

Demographic and trip-specific characteristics may all moderate relationships between visitor perceptions and visitor behaviours (e.g., Sung, Morrison, Hong, & O’Leary, 2001). Although empirical studies have examined Oliver’s (1997) four-stage loyalty conceptualization, the issue of moderator variables in the relationships between the evaluation of experiential attributes and four sequential stages of loyalty has been largely under-investigated. The present study aims to analyze the moderating effects of demographic and trip-related characteristics, including expenditures at the resort, on selected visitor perceptions and behaviours.

2.4.4.1 Income.

Income is an important determinant of household and recreation expenditures (Dardis, Derrick, Lehfeld, & Wolfe, 1981; Fish & Waggle, 1996). In the travel context, income also forecasts travel-related family decision makings (Fish & Waggle, 1996). Previous studies have found that current income impacts a series of family travel and vacation behaviors, such as tourism participation (Boo, 1990), the type of vacation trips chosen (Sung et al., 2001), the number of vacation trips a family would take (Fish & Waggle, 1996), and the amount of money a family would spend per trip (Fish & Waggle, 1996).

Income also has unneglectable effects on personal psychological state and family togetherness. Albrecht, Bahr, and Goodman (1983) indicated that low-income is one of the critical stressors of married life. A family's financial ability is a prominent factor to maintain family resilience, which means "the successful coping of family members under adversity that enables them to flourish with warmth, support, and cohesion" (Black & Lobo, 2008, p. 33). Thoits and Hannan (1979), in their study of US families, found that an increase in or stabilization of income could enhance individuals' ability to manage life crises and therefore decrease psychological distress. Psychological distress, in turn, also associates significantly with family togetherness (Rivera, Guarnaccia, Mulvaney-Day, Lin, Torres, & Alegria, 2008). This study expects that a relatively low income could trigger psychological distress to visitors, thereby creating potential family conflicts or incoherency. On the contrary, a relatively high income could function as a buffer against visitors' life stress, eventually enhancing family togetherness. Considering that destination brand love represents a positive state of mind which is opposite to psychological distress, this study hypothesizes that:

H7a: Income moderates the link between destination brand love and family togetherness significantly; specifically, the relationship between destination brand love and family togetherness is weaker for high-income visitors and stronger for low-income visitors.

2.4.4.2 First-timers versus repeat visitors

The extent to which destination brand love influences loyalty may vary between first-timers and repeat visitors. First-time visitors behave differently from repeat visitors in many aspects. First-timers and repeat visitors tend to visit different attractions, hold different emotional connections with destinations and show distinct destination loyalty (e.g., Caber, 2015). First-timers are likely to visit more attractions, seek excitement, variety, and alternative destinations, spend more on lodging, and be more active.

On the contrary, repeat visitors tend to visit fewer attractions, seek familiarity and relaxation, spend more on entertainment and recreation, be more passive, and show stronger intention to recommend and re-purchase (Caber, 2015; Shani, Reichel, & Croes, 2012; Fallon & Schofield, 2003; Oppermann, 1997). Repeat visitors represent a highly attractive market segment that is cost-effective and tends to require less destination knowledge and behave more favourably for destinations. Based on these findings and the theoretical reasoning outlined above, the researcher assumed that:

H7b_1: First-timers versus repeat visitors moderates the link between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty; specifically, the relationship between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty is weaker for first-timers and stronger for repeat visitors.

H7b_2: First-timers versus repeat visitors moderates the link between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty; specifically, the relationship between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty is weaker for first-timers and stronger for repeat visitors.

H7b_3: First-timers versus repeat visitors moderates the link between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty; specifically, the relationship between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty is weaker for first-timers and stronger for repeat visitors.

As a summary, this dissertation proposed a total of 20 hypotheses (Table 4). The researcher tested each hypothesis using survey data from visitors who visited the Shanghai Disney Resort, a newly opened theme park in the municipality of Shanghai, China.

Table 4: Research Hypotheses in This Study

General Hypotheses	
H1	Destination brand awareness will have a positive effect on destination brand love.
H2	Destination brand trust will have a positive effect on destination brand love.
H3a	Evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on destination brand love.
H3b	Evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on cognitive loyalty.
H3c	Evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty.
H3d	Evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on conative loyalty.
H4a	Destination brand love will have a positive effect on cognitive loyalty.
H4b	Destination brand love will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty.
H4c	Destination brand love will have a positive effect on conative loyalty.
H5a	Destination brand love will have a positive effect on the perceived happiness of visitors.
H5b	Destination brand love will have a positive effect on family togetherness
Hloy1:	Cognitive loyalty will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty.
Hloy2:	Attitudinal loyalty will have a positive effect on conative loyalty.
Mediation Hypotheses	
H6a	Destination brand love mediates the direct relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty.
H6b	Destination brand love mediates the direct relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty.
H6c	Destination brand love mediates the direct relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty.
Moderation Hypotheses	
H7a	Income moderates the link between destination brand love and family togetherness significantly; specifically, the relationship between destination brand love and family togetherness is weaker for high-income visitors and stronger for low-income visitors.
H7b_1	First-timers versus repeat visitors moderates the link between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty; specifically, the relationship between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty is weaker for first-timers and stronger for repeat visitors.
H7b_2	First-timers versus repeat visitors moderates the link between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty; specifically, the relationship between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty is weaker for first-timers and stronger for repeat visitors.
H7b_3	First-timers versus repeat visitors moderates the link between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty; specifically, the relationship between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty is weaker for first-timers and stronger for repeat visitors.

2.5 Tourism Destinations

Notwithstanding much academic efforts devoted to destination research, to date, no consensus on a widely applicable definition of “tourism destination” has been reached. Rather, various ways of defining tourism destinations exist. Tourism destination has been conceptualized as an amalgam of interconnecting supply companies/institutions and various tangible products and intangible services provided in a geographic location to which tourists are willing to travel to (Framke, 2002; Murphy, Pritchard, & Smith, 2000, based on Pearce, 1989; Snepenger, Snepenger, Dalbey, & Wessol, 2007). For instance, Bornhorst, Ritchie, and Sheehan (2010, p. 572), in their exploration of the constitution of tourism success, viewed destination as “a geographical region which contains a sufficiently critical mass or cluster of attractions so as to be capable of providing tourists with visitation experiences that attract them to the destination for tourism purposes”. Tourists overcome spatial limitations, distance, and transportation in the pursuit of travel. The products and services offered at destinations represent a broad range of contact and interaction points in the tourism industry chain that contributes to overall visitation experiences. Providing tourism experiences is one significant role of tourism (Bornhorst et al., 2010).

Usually regarded as outcomes of tourist experiences, tourist emotions occur during or after discreet episodes at diversified tourist-destination contact points. These emotions stem from a complicated set of relationships between stakeholders at both ends of the demand (e.g., tourists) and supply (e.g., airlines, hotels) chain. Brand love is one of the emotional outcomes generated by travelling experiences at branded destinations.

Bornhorst et al.’s (2010) definition of tourism destination alluded to the multi-level characteristics of destinations confined by factors such as geographic boundaries and juristic entities (e.g., country, state/province, municipality). Tourist destinations are brands themselves (Boo et al.,

2009). Destination brands can refer to brands at a broad range of geographical levels: country, province/state, region, city, tourist attraction, and even specific sites, for instance, temples, civic buildings, memorials, and dark tourism's disaster sites (see Figure 4). In recent years, "branding a destination" has grown into a big research stream among tourism scholars. For countries as brands, Shimp, Samiee, and Madden (1993) adopted the concept "country equity" to explain the emotional values that consumers associate with country brands. For cities as brands, consumers may attach romance or luxury to fashion brands made in France, good quality or reliability to cars made in Germany, and poor quality or lack of durability to souvenirs or small items made in Myanmar (Kotler & Gertner, 2002). A prime example of provinces/states as brands is that, in 2008, the tourism bureau of the Shandong province in eastern China established a provincial tourism brand—"Friendly Shandong" to denote the Confucian idiom "It is always a great pleasure to greet friends from afar!" A full series of brand logos, symbols, catchphrases, and slogans expressing "friendliness" were designed for both national and international tourism marketing promotion activities. At the city/region level, Gartner, Tasci, and So (2007) studied strategies of branding Macao as a tourist destination. The Hong Kong Tourist Board positioned Hong Kong's destination brand as "Asia's World City" and promised travellers that "every moment is a different world' here." In similar ways, the town of Alta in Norway is themed as "the City of Northern Lights," where tourists can "hunt" the Northern Lights and enjoy a full range of hotel and souvenir store services (Viken & Granås, 2014).

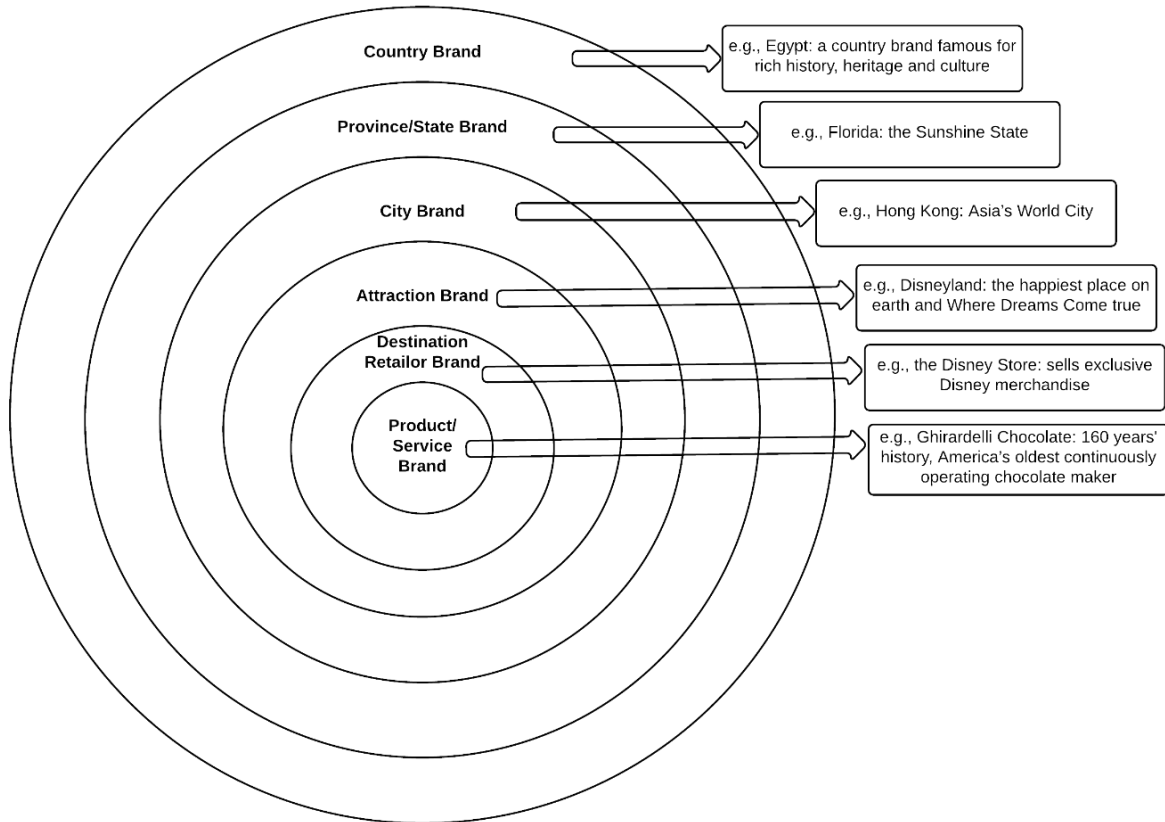


Figure 4: Different Levels of Tourism Destination Brands

No matter which level a destination brand belongs to, it is always necessary to design, build, and manage it using appropriate branding strategies. However, not every branding theory/concept is entirely applicable to destination situations.

2.6 International Theme Parks as Destination Brands

2.6.1 A brief history of theme park development.

Different from pure leisure and recreation that requires hardly any monetary spending, theme parks are manifestations of consumerist leisure and cultural creation (Clavé, 2007). Theme parks

were first introduced in the 1950s and quickly become icons of the newest form of recreation space use (Clavé, 2007). The predecessors of contemporary theme parks are believed to be traditional amusement parks and European pleasure gardens (Clavé, 2007). Amusement parks have been recognized to indicate “solidly part[s] of the national experience as a pleasure of the multitudes, and has been many things to many people — escape, fantasy, otherworldliness, illusion, drama, total theater, spectacle; a safety zone of enjoyment, absurdity and release from the habits, norms and rules of everyday life”.

The origins of American amusement parks can be traced back to the sixteenth century in Europe, first in France where people build public sports facilities and recreation gardens for entertainment, and then in Great Britain following the industrial revolution in the 18th century (Samuelson & Yegoiants, 2001). However, although American theme parks’ roots may be in the European recreation gardens, they are different from European gardens (Samuelson & Yegoiants, 2001). Nowadays, the US theme park industry has reached maturity (Wong & Cheung, 1999). Disneyland has been in successful operation for 50 years since 1955, and Six Flags has also grown into the world’s largest amusement park.

At the other side of the world, almost 20 years ago, Wong and Cheung (1999) were optimistic about the Asian theme park market and predicted that Asia would be the next leading theme park market following the US and Europe. Nowadays, Singapore’s Universal Studios, South Korea’s Samsung Everland, Hong Kong’s Disneyland and Ocean Park, and Tokyo’s Disneyland have all experienced rapid growth. Contemporary theme parks seek to facilitate visitor experiences in almost every step of park operation (Milman, 2010) from greeting customers, costumed performances, to staged shows and services. Theme parks represent not only tourist attractions but

also reflect certain geographical and socio-cultural spatial entities that construct society (Clavé, 2007).

2.6.2 Conceptualizations and characteristics of theme parks.

Academia has historically avoided defining theme parks (Clavé, 2007), possibly due to the significant similarity of theme parks with many other similar park formats (e.g., recreational parks and amusement parks). Thach and Axinn (1994) noted that people in 1990s tend to associate theme parks with “permanence, gardened park-like settings, and single price admission” (p. 51) and regard Disney World, Six Flags, and Great America as amusement parks.

Finding a universal definition that applies to all kinds of theme parks also appears to be impractical. Existing definitions of theme parks tend to be incomplete or even inaccurate (Clavé, 2007), even though much academic endeavour has been made to clarify parks’ theming and visitation motivations (e.g., Wong & Cheung, 1999). Coltier (1985, p. 24) referred to a theme park as “a closed universe whose purpose is to succeed in the encounter between the dreamy atmosphere it creates and the visitors’ desire for *dépaysement*” (a French word meaning a change of scenery/view). This very generic definition touched on the key elements of atmosphere and escapism from normal life later noted by (Clavé, 2007), but failed to capture any particular characteristics of theme parks. Meanwhile, this definition did not take into consideration the diverse types of theme parks. From the practitioners’ perspective, the International Association of Amusement Parks and Attractions (IAAPA) described theme parks as “an amusement park that has themed attractions, be it food, costumes, entertainment, retail stores, and rides.” Nevertheless, this technical definition neglected the atmospheric and experiential sphere of theme parks, which are in fact at the center of visitor experiences. This definition indicates that theme parks are also amusement parks, while the

essential difference lies in that the former has got themed areas and attractions which the latter may not have.

Instead of working towards the terminological standardization of theme parks, Mills (1990) attributed such distinguishing features as technological wonders and magnificent buildings to theme parks. Referring to Mills (1990) and various definitions, Clavé (2007) listed 12 essential characteristics that differentiate theme parks from similar park formats:

- 1) A thematic identity;
- 2) One or more themed areas;
- 3) Organized as closed areas and with controlled access;
- 4) Capacity to attract families;
- 5) Enough rides, movement, and activities to occupy visitors for an average of 5 to 7 hours;
- 6) Atmospheric quality used to enhance entertainment value;
- 7) Commercial stores, food, beverage;
- 8) High investment;
- 9) High service quality, product quality, and cleanliness-maintenance levels;
- 10) Centrally-managed productive and consumer processes;
- 11) Technology incorporated as much as possible;
- 12) Single admission system, although exceptions do exist

2.6.3 Disneyland: A strong theme park brand

Customers influence the future trajectory of the theme park industry (Milman, 2001).

Customers' awareness, imagery, feelings, judgments, and brand resonance are important building

blocks of strong brand equity (Keller, 2013). Disneyland is no exception. Disneyland cares about customers' feelings and has also conducted customer feelings studies to investigate how customers feel about and evaluate the brand (Keller, 2013). Keller (2013), in his branding textbook, chose Disneyland as an illustration of successful brands.

Disney's Brand Mantra is "fun family entertainment," with fun as the emotional modifier to emphasize the emotional value of the brand, family as the descriptive value to indicate who the brand is most fundamentally for, and entertainment as the brand function. This brand mantra aims to inform Disney's customers, employees, and external marketing cooperators what the Disney brand is, therefore helping them make decisions accordingly. Disney's customer-oriented brand strategies also indicate that establishing strong CBRs are critical towards building strong brand equity.

Chapter Three: Methodology

The methodology is the rationale for the methods chosen and design of research, serving as a connecting link between theory (macro theories) and methods. Philosophical paradigms and theoretical perspectives inform and legitimate methodology and methods whereby research topics can be studied (Crotty, 1998; 2003). This study adopts a post-positivist perspective and involves both exploratory and confirmatory aspects. Six sections constitute the methodology chapter: Study Context (3.1); Data Collection Procedures (3.2); Measures (3.3); Pilot Test (3.4); Back translation (3.5); Data Analysis (3.6); and Common Method Variance (3.7).

Regarding research ethics, the researcher did not ask participants to discuss any sensitive matter, such as financial constraints or traumatic experiences, therefore minimizing the emotional risk to participants. There were also no physiological and psychological risks involved. There were no physical injuries. Besides, the participants did not pay any participation fee, so there was no economic risk as well.

3.1 Study Context: Shanghai Disney Resort.

Shanghai Disney Resort was opened to the public on June 16, 2016. According to the information released by the Shanghai Disney Resort official website (<https://www.shanghaidisneyresort.com/en/destinations/theme-park/>), the resort includes Shanghai Disneyland, a Disney town, a large retail, dining, and entertainment venue, the Wishing Star Park, two themed Disney hotels (the Shanghai Disneyland Hotel, a luxurious and high-end hotel, and the Toy Story hotel, a family-oriented and budget hotel), and other themed recreation facilities. The whole site covers approximately 390 hectares (963 acres) in Pudong new district, Shanghai. The size is almost three times that of Hong Kong Disneyland. Shanghai Disneyland consists of six lands:

Mickey Avenue, Gardens of Imagination, Fantasyland, Adventure Isle, Treasure Cove, and Tomorrowland. It has the world's largest Disney castle—Enchanted Storybook Castle. The whole resort aims to provide both individual and family visitors recreational experiences full of fun, fantasy, and innovation. As the newest Disney resort around the world, the third Disneyland in Asia, and the first one in mainland China, Shanghai Disney Resort serves as an ideal context for studying tourists' destination brand love, brand loyalty, and their perceived happiness and family togetherness that could be enhanced by visiting experiences. Considering the uniqueness of the Shanghai Disney Resort, this study chose the Shanghai Disney Resort as the study context.

There are multiple transportation means by which visitors can get to the resort. Shanghai Metro Line 11 is a line that connects the two main airports and two main railway stations. Its terminal station is the Disney Resort station. This line provides convenient and fast access to Disney Resort by running a train every a few minutes. Moreover, Disney Resort shuttles offer free ways of transportation to get hotel guests to park areas. Public buses (Pudong Bus Line 50/51/52), taxis, and car parking space are also available.

3.2 Data Collection Procedures

3.2.1 Sampling plan.

The data collection method was on-site surveys using convenience sampling. The process of recruiting on-site investigators involved selecting five undergraduate students as student helpers. They all majored in Social Science at the Fudan University, which is a high-ranking comprehensive university in mainland China. The researcher followed the following investigator-selecting criteria: 1) the student helper should be in good standing in their areas of studies and extracurricular activities; 2) the student helper must have conducted on-site social science research before; 3) the

student helper is expected to be diligent and responsible. It is preferable that they could have a one-page recommendation letter from one of their course instructors or professors. After selecting the five student helpers, the researcher invited them to a two-hour orientation meeting in Shanghai, in which the researcher introduced the study, finalized daily survey target and logistics schedules, and guided them through a role play exercise. The researcher also explained specific issues to be paid attention to during the actual survey to be happening, e.g., techniques to avoid uncompleted answers.

Table 5 displays the specific on-site sampling plan. The researcher chose three locations for conducting the survey. The first location, Starbucks in Shanghai Disneytown, has huge customer flow and therefore is an excellent place to approach visitors. The second location, the Food Republic in Shanghai Disneytown, is a casual dining food hall with many small restaurants. It is an ideal place to collect the data because of the diverse demographic characteristics of the visitors there. The researcher approached respondents when they were taking a break or waiting for their food. The third location, BreadTalk, is a western style bakery brand with in-store tables and seats for customers use. Many visitors stop by there to buy breakfast, light lunch or dinner meal, making it an ideal location to conduct the survey.

Table 5: On-site Sampling Plan

Locations	Sampling Method
Starbucks in Shanghai Disneytown	convenience sampling
Food Republic in Shanghai Disneytown	convenience sampling
BreadTalk in Shanghai Disneytown	convenience sampling

To fulfill the aims of this research, the investigators engaged a recruitment process and began with a series of screening questions. Specifically, after getting the consent of potential respondents to participate in the survey, the investigators started with a series of screening questions. The

investigators asked if the participant: is 18 years or older (only those who are 18 years or older may proceed with the study); has not completed this study previously (only those who indicate no may proceed with the study), and has not been told anything about this study from another person. Only those who indicate “No” proceeded. The investigators thanked those who did not fulfill any of the screening criteria for their time and attention.

After obtaining the oral consent of potential respondents, the investigators delivered self-administered paperback questionnaires to those who did fulfill all the selection criteria. The investigators also explained the purpose and aims of the study, informed participants that participation is entirely voluntary, and all data will remain confidential and anonymous. Respondents may choose to stop participating in the survey at any point. In the case of multiple family members visiting together, the investigators only invited the person with the closest birthday to the survey date to fill out the questionnaire. At the end of the study, the researchers thanked respondents for their participation and gave them each a thank-you gift valued at RMB 5.00.

In January 2017, the researcher distributed 550 questionnaires at three locations in Shanghai Disneytown using convenience sampling. The three locations are Starbucks, Food Republic, and BreadTalk in Shanghai Disneytown. None of these locations required admission tickets. Approximately 20 respondents refused to participate in this survey for reasons of inconvenient timing, for example, in a rush to re-enter the park area after a quick lunch or having a young kid to look after. A total of 24 questionnaires were either uncompleted or blank, creating a response rate of 95.63%. Finally, the researcher collected 526 complete and valid questionnaires, among which 427 respondents (81.2%) visited with family members to Shanghai Disney resort at the time of the survey. There were 99 respondents (18.8%) who did not visit with family members. This dissertation only used the 427 sample who visited with their families.

Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample-size table provides useful guidelines for determining a sample size from a given population. This chart applies to any defined population (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) and previous researchers have extensively used it (e.g., Zarandian, Shalbfafian, Ryan, & Bidokhti, 2016). According to this method, a sample size of 384 is required to represent a population of 1,000,000 or more. Stevens (1996) further suggested that a sample of at least 400 is necessary to avoid misspecification errors. Therefore, the sample size 427 is ideal for the study purpose.

3.2.2 Questionnaire structure.

The questionnaire (Appendix II) in this study contains both open-ended questions and close-ended questions, and covers the following sections:

- 1) *Experience with the destination.* Open-ended questions will get the data on the number of times the respondents have been to Shanghai and whether they have visited the Shanghai Disney Resort, with the latter issue being a screening question;
- 2) *Previous exposure to the global Disney brand as a whole,* including whether they have watched Disney movies, purchased retail merchandise, visited other Disneyland or resorts, and travelled on Disney cruises;
- 3) *Experiences with the Shanghai Disney Resort.* The researcher will test visitor experiences by asking when they first heard of Shanghai Disney Resort, their familiarity with it, their overall feelings of it, and all the questions about the latent variables in the theoretical framework
- 4) *Respondent information,* which includes demographic data and the rough amount of money spent during their entire trip and in the park area.

3.3 Measures

The researcher adapted measures of each latent construct in the conceptual model based on well-established items from existing tourism, marketing, and psychology literature. Particular attention was paid to ensure that the measures reflect the case of Shanghai Disney Resort, as it is the study context chosen for this research.

Brand awareness. The researcher revised the five 7-point click-button brand awareness scales developed by Oh (2000). Oh (2010) verified the brand awareness items in the context of upscale (well-known brands, e.g., Marriott and Motel 6) and budget-economy (relatively unknown, e.g., Central Park Hotel and Roadside Motel) lodging markets. Oh (2000) worded his five questions as the brand name XYZ is.....“Very unfamiliar” to “Very familiar”, “Not known at all” to “Very well known”, “Not visible at all” to “Very visible”, “Never heard of” to “Heard of a lot”, and “Not famous at all” to “Very famous”. To make all items consistent in the way that 1 stands for “Strongly Disagree” and 7 stands for “Strongly Agree”, the researcher revised all of the five items into 7-point Likert scales where 1 means “Strongly Disagree” and 7 means “Strongly Agree” to measure the brand awareness of the global Disney brand. Sample items include “I am very familiar with the Disney brand” and “this brand is well known.”

Brand Trust. This study adapted Hess’s (1995) brand trust scales to make them reflect the theme park visitation context. Regardless of the variety of consumer brand trust scales available (e.g., Chaudhuri & Holbrook 2001), no consensus exists on the measurement items for brand trust (Brudvig, 2015). Hess’s (1995) original brand trust scales are 5-point Likert scales where 1=totally disagree, and 5=totally agree. His scales are amongst the most widely adopted, and many researchers have verified these scales’ reliability and validity (e.g., Delgado-Ballester, 2004). Hess’s (1999) Cronbach’s alpha testing results showed the satisfying internal consistency reliability of these scales.

Hess (1999) also conducted CFA, and the results supported the overall validity of the measurement model consisting of these scales.

There has been a large body of research on how rating scale format may or may not affect scale validity and reliability (Dawes, 2008). Five- or seven-point formats are the most common in marketing and tourism research (Dawes, 2008; Naresh & Mark, 2006). There exist many merits using 7-point scales over with 5-point Likert scales. Firstly, from the perspective of researchers, 7-point Likert scales can help researchers capture a more abundant variety of information on a particular research topic. 7-point Likert scales provide more accurate measures of participants' true evaluations (Finstad, 2010). The more variability that Likert scales entail, the more heterogeneous respondent answers will be. Secondly, from the perspective of respondents, 7-point Likert scales make it possible for respondents to choose more variations (i.e., 2, 3, 5, 6) around extreme points (i.e., 1, 7) and the midpoint (i.e., 4). Therefore, respondents have more options to choose in order to express their true thoughts. The midpoint is crucial because it lies at "the heart of the relationship between awareness, effort and validity in Likert response" (Johns, 2005, p. 240). Researchers should make Likert scales midpoints available for survey respondents when the survey is on obscure topics, where many respondents will have no basis for choice (Johns, 2005). Thirdly, from the perspective of the immediate memory ability of human minds, Miller (1956) suggested seven categories in Likert scales are the best for people to memorize. Miller (1956, p. 91) argued that "there is a finite span of immediate memory and that for a lot of different kinds of test materials this span is about seven items in length." Fourthly, a review of the literature indicates that 7-point Likert scales generate optimized validity and reliability (Preston & Colman, 2000; Symonds, 1924). Validity increases with growing numbers of scale points or response categories (e.g., Chang, 1994; Hancock & Klockars, 1991). The use of seven categories can maximize the reliability of scores (e.g., Finn,

1972; Miller, 1956; Nunnally, 1967; Ramsay, 1973; Symonds, 1924). Also, internal consistency is the highest for rating scales with seven or more points (Preston & Colman, 2000). Considering these advantages that 7-point scales hold over 5-point ones, the researcher chose to adopt 7-point scales for this dissertation.

Furthermore, even though it is not rare that a single tourism study adopts both 5-point and 7-point Likert scales (e.g., Baloglu & Mangalolu, 2001), the inconsistency of response categories may cause respondent confusion (Principles of Questionnaire Construction, 1998). To avoid ambiguity and to make items all consistent in the way that 1=1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree, the researcher modified Hess's (1995) scales from 5-point to 7-point Likert scale items (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Sample items of brand trust include "Most of what Disney says about it is true" and "When I see a Disney advertisement, I believe that the information in it is accurate." All the brand trust scales showed satisfying reliability and validity, as shown in Chapter Three.

Evaluation of experiential attributes. The researcher adapted items under the construct evaluation of experiential attributes from Chi and Qu's (2008) destination attribute satisfaction scales. Chi and Qu (2008) established a set of 33 7-point (1 =very dissatisfied; 7 = very satisfied) scales to evaluate tourist satisfaction with specific attributes. In an EFA analysis in which they confirmed the reliability and validity of these scales, they found that all items fell under seven factors: shopping, activities and events, lodging, accessibility, attractions, environment, and dining. According to Chi and Qu (2008), the Cronbach's alphas of these 33 items were robust, ranging from 0.85 to 0.91, indicating high internal consistency among the manifest indicators under each dimension.

In this dissertation, the researcher selected a total of 12 representative scales from each of the seven factors (shopping, activities and events, lodging, accessibility, attractions, environment, and dining) to measure visitor evaluation of experiential attributes. These 12 scales are the most representative of and most relevant to the context of the Shanghai Disney Resort. To make these 12 items consistent with other items, the researcher revised the 7-point into 1= strongly disagree, and 7= strongly agree. Sample items include “please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statement: the price for activities and events is reasonable” and “please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statement: the service is friendly.”

There are a few reasons why the researcher selected 12 scales from Chi and Qu’s (2008) 33 scales. Firstly, the researcher aimed to strike to balance between lowering respondent fatigue and collecting accurate and sufficient information. Many questions in a particular questionnaire will create respondent fatigue and thus will deteriorate the quality of the data and the reliability and validity of the results. Respondent fatigue happens when survey participants become tired of the survey questions and survey task; as a result, their attention and motivation decreases towards later sections of a questionnaire (Ben-Nun, 2008). The best way to avoid or reduce respondent fatigue is to avoid using too-long questionnaires (Ben-Nun, 2008). Secondly, these 12 scales reflect visitor experiences in the research context (Shanghai Disney Resort) very well. Those unselected scales appear less related to the research context. For example, one of Chi and Qu’s (2008) scale is “variety of spa/massage/healing options.” This scale is unrelated to visitor experiences in the research context of this study because visitors go to Shanghai Disney not for spa or wellness treatments.

Destination brand love. The brand-love scales developed by Batra et al. (2012) encompass 56 items. Bagozzi, Batra, and Ahuvia (2014) developed three sets of scaled-down measures based on Batra et al. (2012): the multi-factor scales (26 items); the single-factor scales (13 items); and the

short scales (6 items) (see Appendix I: Brand Love Scales). This study adapted Bagozzi et al.'s (2014) and Batra et al.'s (2012) brand love scales. Batra et al. (2012) conducted EFA and SEM and finally established a first-order structural model of the brand love prototype, which generated sufficient composite construct reliability (>0.7), discriminant validity, and nomological validity. All items are 7-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Representative statements include "Shanghai Disney Resort makes me relaxed" and "My overall feelings/evaluations towards Shanghai Disney Resort are positive."

Family togetherness. For this dissertation, the researcher regards family as either a nuclear family, which means a unit where two individuals live alone by themselves or with their dependent children in the same household, or a traditional extended family where another adult lives with the married couple (Senturk et al., 2011). Family togetherness was measured using 7-point Likert scale items (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) adapted from Lee et al. (2004) and Williams and Anthony (2015). Lee et al.'s (2004) structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis of Expo attendees' motivations established four items to measure family togetherness, such as "to increase blood kinship" and "to spend time with my family together." Williams and Anthony's (2015) testing of a cross-sectional model of positive family and peer relationships validated their items. Yoon and Uysal (2005) also used CFA in LISREL to confirm the reliability and validity of their items. For example, the factor loadings of the three family togetherness items ranged from 0.48 to 0.74. In this study, some sample statements of family togetherness include responses to "I thought the entire family enjoyed the visiting experience at Shanghai Disney Resort" and "our family kinship was increased."

Perceived happiness. Perceived happiness was measured using 7-point Likert scale items from Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1999), who developed four 7-point Likert scale measures of global subjective happiness and validated them in 14 studies (including longitudinal studies) with a total of

2,732 participants. In these 14 studies, the internal consistency among the four items ranged from 0.79 to 0.94 ($M = 0.86$) and test-retest reliability ranged from 0.55 to 0.90 ($M = 0.72$) (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). Their finalized Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS) measures people's sense of global happiness by taking the mean of four items rated on 7-point Likert scales; it has been tested and shown test-retest reliability of 0.72 and internal consistency of 0.86 (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). The correlations between these four items were between 0.52 and 0.72, showing a sound level of convergent validity.

To test tourist perceived happiness, the researcher adopted Lyubomirsky and Lepper's (1999) four 7-point subjective happiness scales (1 means less happy, 7 means happier) and kept them as measured by 7 points. The researcher revised these items' response format slightly, making one stand for strongly disagree, and seven for strongly agree to make them consistent with items under other constructs. Sample measures include "Compared to most of my peers, I am a happy person" and "in general, I consider myself a very happy person."

Destination brand loyalty. Destination brand loyalty in this dissertation is composed of cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty. The 7-point Likert scale items (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) measuring destination brand loyalty were revised from Yuksel et al. (2010), which rested upon Back (2005) and Back and Parks (2003). The Cronbach's alpha values of Yuksel et al.'s (2010) items ranged from 0.78 to 0.88, surpassing the threshold of 0.7 (Hair et al., 1995). Therefore all the items are satisfactorily reliable. Additionally, Yuksel et al. (2010) also conducted CFA and provided evidence supporting item convergent validity and discriminant validity. In this study, three items will be used to test each sub-dimension of destination brand loyalty. Sample items include "It provided me with more good experiences than other places" and "I felt better when I stayed here."

In summary, all constructs in this dissertation were measured using 7-point Likert scales where one means “Strongly Disagree,” four means “Neither Disagree or Agree,” and seven means “Strongly Agree.” Appendix IV (Original and Modified Measures) provides explicit details regarding how various individual measurement items were modified and which items were dropped and why.

3.4 Pilot Test

The pilot test aims to verify the reliability and validity of the selected measurement items in the contexts of Disney parks. Three graduate students and two professors in recreation and leisure studies evaluated the face validity of all adapted items. The researcher incorporated their opinions on measure revisions, adding, and dropping. The researcher paid special attention when adapting brand love items in the tourism context. After that, the researcher surveyed a total of 61 Chinese visitors who had been to Shanghai Disneyland in December 2016 using convenience sampling and snowball sampling. Considering that in December 2016 the Shanghai Disneyland was only in business for no more than five months, snowball sampling is an appropriate method to use acquaintances to find the right sample source. The researcher firstly asked people in her social networks whether they have been to Shanghai Disneyland. People who have been to were invited to fill out a paperback pilot study questionnaire. The researcher informed respondents the survey purposes and procedure and emphasized that participation is out of free will. All the data was kept confidential and anonymous. Those who completed the survey received a 5-RMB supermarket coupon as a thank-you gift. After that, the researcher invited these respondents to provide a list of contact of their acquaintances who also had already visited Shanghai Disneyland. The next step involved contacting the people on this list, informing them of the study purposes, and inviting them to participate in either a paper survey

or an electronic survey out of free will. Consequently, the researcher obtained a total of 61 valid responses through the paper and electronic questionnaires for the analysis in the pilot study.

The researcher tested the reliability and validity of the pilot data using 1) Cronbach's α of all measurement items and all latent constructs (Nunnally, 1978); and 2) composite reliability (p_c) for each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The overall Cronbach's α of all the measurement items turned to be 0.964. The composite reliability (p_c) of brand awareness, brand trust, evaluation of experiential attributes, and destination brand love were 0.813, 0.926, 0.810, and 0.957 respectively. The composite reliability (p_c) of perceived happiness, family togetherness, cognitive loyalty, attitudinal loyalty, and conative loyalty turned out to be 0.820, 0.857, 0.918, 0.882, and 0.907 respectively. Hair et al. (2014) recommended the cut-off point of 0.708 for composite reliability (p_c). Therefore, all latent constructs generated satisfactory composite reliability (p_c).

One indicator under the construct of perceived happiness (11_4: I am generally not very happy. Although I am not depressed, I seldom seem as happy as I might be) was initially reversely coded with one standing for Strongly Disagree and seven standing for Strongly Agree. After reversely coding this indicator to make it consistent with other indicators in this study, the researcher found that this indicator's factor loading with its corresponding construct was 0.392, below the acceptable range of 0.400 to 0.700 (Hair et al., 2014). Hair et al. (2014, p. 103) suggested that "indicators with very low outer loading (below 0.4) should, however, always be eliminated from the scale (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011)." Accordingly, the researcher removed indicator 11_4 (I am generally not very happy. Although I am not depressed, I seldom seem as happy as I might be) from the main survey questionnaire. After that, all indicators met the recommending criterion of 0.70 regarding factor loading (Nunnally, 1978; Bagozzi, 1980).

3.5 Back-translation

Because all measures adopted in this study were initially in English, back-translating the measures into Chinese is necessary. Most of the visitors at Shanghai Disney Resort speak and read Chinese, but a small percentage of visitors are foreigners living or working in Shanghai. Therefore, the researcher printed 30 copies of English questionnaires in case some foreign visitors are also willing to participate in this survey.

The researcher adopted Brislin's (1970) back-translation approach to ensure the language equivalence. The process involved recruiting a translation panel of two bilingual (English and Simplified Chinese) researchers: the author herself and one of her Ph.D. classmates who had not seen the original indicators and the questionnaire. The author herself translated the questionnaire from English to Chinese, and her classmate translated the questionnaire back from Chinese to English. Then the author read the two versions of English questionnaires for comparison. After several rounds of comparisons and minor revisions, the two English questionnaires turned out to be virtually identical. Consequently, the back-translated Chinese questionnaire and the English questionnaire were ready to be used in the following research stages.

Furthermore, the researcher also translated all the documents in the research ethics application package from English to Chinese. These materials include 1) the information letter and consent form; 2) the recruitment letter; 3) the online and on-site verbal scripts, and 4) the feedback and appreciation letter. Another Ph.D. student from the same department as the researcher helped check the language consistency and the correctness of the translation.

3.6 Data Analysis Method

3.6.1 PLS-SEM and Reflective Measurement Model

In the primary survey data analysis step, the researcher employed SPSS 22.0 and SmartPLS 3.0 for descriptive statistics analysis (e.g., frequencies, cross-tabulations) and exploratory analysis (e.g., EFA). To test the measurement model, all the hypotheses, and the structural relationships between the latent constructs, the researcher conducted a Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) in SmartPLS 3.0.

Two types of models have been distinguished in research using SEM: covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM), also called common factor SEM, and variance-based structural equation modelling (VB-SEM), also known as PLS-SEM. Historically, CB-SEM is an earlier form of SEM, and it was until 1980 that Word (1980) created PLS as a not-interchangeable but rather complementary approach to CB-SEM. Researchers should choose the type of SEM depending on a series of factors, such as:

- 1) whether the research model comprises common elements or composites (Henseler, Hubona, & Ray, 2016);
- 2) the estimation objective (Hair, Hult, Ringle, Sarstedt, & Thiele, 2017) (predictive vs. explanatory);
- 3) model complexity (small to moderate complexity vs. all kinds of model complexity) (Hair et al., 2017);
- 4) measurement model specification (the model contains only reflective constructs vs. the model contains both reflective and composite constructs) (Hair et al., 2017);
- 5) data distributional assumptions (normal distribution required vs. no normal distribution assumption made) (Hair et al., 2017);

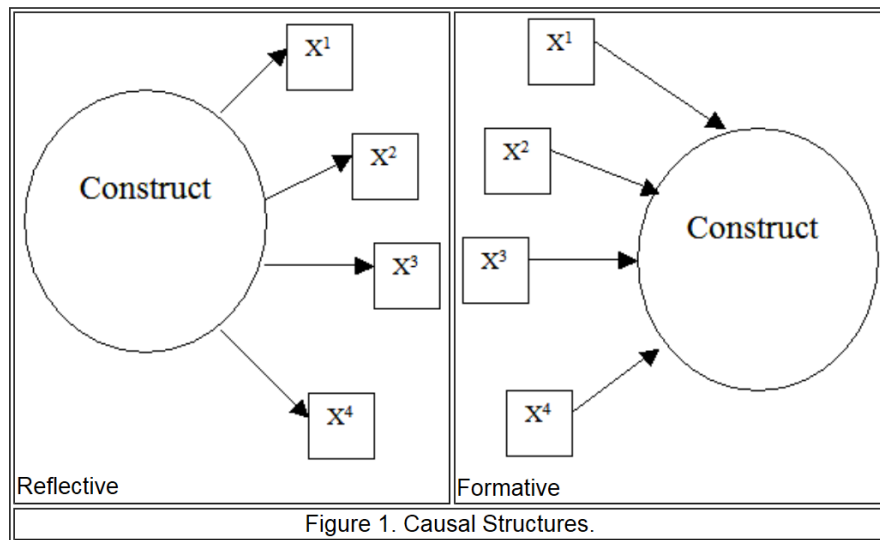
- 6) the relationships among the observed indicators (Baumann, Elliott, & Hamin, 2011, p. 252);
- 7) the direction of causality between the construct and indicators (Baumann et al., 2011, p. 252); and
- 8) a theoretical judgment (Baumann et al., 2011, p. 252)

However, determining whether a construct is formative or reflective it is not always easy and straightforward. For example, academia has seen emerging and complex debate on whether brand loyalty is a formative or reflective construct (e.g., Baumann, et al., 2011). The nature of a conceptual model, either formative or reflective, could be rooted in many theoretical and empirical aspects (Coltman, Devinney, Midgley, & Venaik, 2008). Baumann et al. (2011, p. 252) summarized previous work (e.g., Coltman et al., 2008; Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003; Wilcox, Howell, & Breivik, 2008) and noted that to determine whether a model is formative or reflective, researchers should consider the following four aspects: the nature of the construct, relationships between indicators, direction of causality, and theoretical judgment.

In PLS-SEM, measurement models mean outer models (Hair et al., 2014). Inner models display path relationships while outer models depict relationships between latent constructs and their corresponding manifest indicators. The traditional approach to SEM tends to be reflective modelling (Baumann et al., 2011), nevertheless, increasingly more scholars have noted that this reflective approach is not always suitable for all model types (e.g., Petter, Straub, & Rai, 2007) and it is necessary for researchers to differentiate between reflective and formative models and adopt respective model analytical programs and tools.

There exist two types of measurement models in PLS-SEM: reflective and formative measurement models. A construct’s nature of being formative or reflective determines the analytical program to choose, the analytical steps, and the reliability and validity indices to report (e.g., Hair et al., 2014). Testing the validity of a formative construct differs from that of a reflective construct. What to report for measurement model analysis is also different. Therefore, it is imperative to make it clear the formative or reflective nature of both constructs and the theoretical framework of a study in the early research design stage.

Hair et al. (2014, p. 92) differentiated formative models from reflective ones by stating that “a reflective measurement model has relationships from the latent variable to its indicators.....and formative measurement models have relationships from the indicators to the latent variable.” Figure 5 presents the directionality of relationships between constructs and indicators for these two types of models.



Source: <http://www.rasch.org/rmt/rmt221d.htm>

Figure 5: The Directionality of Relationships between Constructs and Indicators

Jarvis, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2003) explained the distinctions between reflective and composite models in a detailed manner. The principle factor model has been the more commonly used type so far, but composite-based SEM models have gained momentum to the equal number or even outnumber principle factor models since 1990s (Hair et al., 2017). In principle factor models, the directionality of causal action moves from the latent constructs (also called latent variables or factors, see Wong, 2013) to the manifest indicators (also called measurement items or measures). That said, latent constructs impact manifest indicators and the co-variation among them (Jarvis et al., 2003). Manipulation of the latent constructs produces alterations in manifest indicators. Therefore, Fornell and Bookstein (1982) referred to these manifest indicators as reflective and called these models reflective (indicator) models. All manifest indicators under a particular latent construct are hypothesized to indicate the latent construct equally (Jarvis et al., 2003); however, this is not always the case in empirical studies. Contrariwise, in composite (latent variable) models, the causal action flows from manifest indicators to latent constructs (Jarvis et al., 2003). Changes in manifest indicators lead to changes in latent constructs. Thus, these manifest indicators are formative (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982) in nature. All manifest indicators under a latent construct jointly affect the symbolic meanings of the latent construct.

Both reflective and composite models contain error terms. The former model's error terms happen at the level of manifest indicators while the latter's error terms show at the level of latent constructs. This difference explains why researchers put an error term for each manifest indicator when drawing principle factor models but for composite latent variable models. For composite latent variable models, no error term for individual indicators is needed (Jarvis et al., 2003).

SmartPLS generates outputs for both reflective and formative models. According to Hair et al. (2014), in reflective measurement models, item loadings are called "outer loadings" (p. 87),

which mean “the results of single regressions of each indicator variable on their corresponding construct” (p. 92). In measurement models that are formative, item loadings are called “outer weights” (p. 87), which refer to “the results of multiple regression of a construct on its set of indicators” (p. 92). If the measurement model in question is reflective, researchers should interpret outer loadings; in contrast, if the measurement model in question is formative, researchers are suggested to explain outer weights.

At the same time, research objectives determine the nature of being formative or reflective. As Baumann et al. (2011, p.251) recommended, “if the focus of the model is in empirically verifying an a priori theoretical variable or model, then a reflective model or variable is appropriate.” Conversely, if the research objective is to identify a theoretical model or variable which best fits the empirical data or observations, then a formative approach is warranted.” Whether a latent construct is formative or reflective is also a matter of conceptualization, and statistical considerations play a role later on. Following Baumann et al.’s. (2011) guidelines on determining the nature of a construct, the researcher concluded that all the latent constructs in the theoretical framework of this dissertation are reflective.

From these differences, it is apparent that the conceptual framework of this dissertation, the DBLF, is composed of reflective constructs. The constructs of destination brand love, evaluation of experiential attributes, destination brand loyalty, brand awareness, brand trust, family togetherness, and perceived happiness are all reflective. The authors who proposed the original brand love scales, Batra et al. (2012), identified that brand love scales are interrelated, also statistically supported by large covariances. Batra et al. (2012, p. 9) stated that “following emerging interpretations of formative versus reflective measurement and recent recommendations in consumer research and psychology (Bagozzi, 2011), we represent the brand love prototype using reflective indicators of

hierarchically organized factors. The three second-order factors and four first-order factors all loaded on a single third-order factor, which we labelled ‘brand love’” (Batra et al., 2012). All sub-dimensions of destination brand love— *self-brand integration, passion-driven behaviours, long-term relationship, positive emotional connection, attitude valence, and attitude strength*— are reflective (Batra et al., 2012). Each sub-dimension contains its manifest indicators. For instance, frequent thoughts of the brand are a manifest indicator of the sub-dimensions of attitude strength (Batra et al., 2012). A high likelihood of frequent thoughts could impact attitude strength but may not necessarily influence other sub-dimensions and the overall destination brand love construct. Manifest indicators under the destination brand love latent construct do not jointly shape the conceptual and empirical meanings of it. Moreover, the causal action flows from constructs to manifest indicators, confirming that this construct is reflective.

Evaluation of experiential attributes captures visitors’ evaluation of various brand touchpoints at destinations, such as shopping, activities and events, lodging, accessibility, attractions, environment, and dining. This construct is also reflective. The researcher adapted Chi and Qu’s (2008) attribute-level satisfaction items that cover: shopping, activities and events, lodging, accessibility, attractions, environment, and dining. Disneyland controls the atmosphere of the destination. All the shopping, activities, product, security, transportation, and accessibility pieces influence and depend on each other to form the overall tourist experiences at a Disneyland. All these attributes may co-vary. Therefore, in this dissertation, the construct “evaluation of experiential attributes” is also reflective. In the same vein, cognitive loyalty, attitudinal loyalty, and conative loyalty are also reflective. The other constructs, brand awareness, brand trust, perceived happiness, and family togetherness are all reflective (Table 6).

Table 6: Latent Constructs in the Conceptual Framework

Latent Construct	Reflective or Formative	Sub-dimensions or Attributes (if any)
Brand Awareness	Reflective	NA
Brand Trust	Reflective	NA
Destination Brand Love	Reflective	self-brand integration; passion-driven behaviors; long-term relationship; positive emotional connection; attitude valence; attitude strength
Evaluation of Experiential Attributes	Reflective	shopping, activities and events, lodging, accessibility, attractions, environment, and dining
Perceived Happiness	Reflective	NA
Family Togetherness	Reflective	NA
Cognitive Loyalty	Reflective	NA
Attitudinal Loyalty	Reflective	NA
Conative Loyalty	Reflective	NA

Note: NA means not applicable

Therefore, the researcher chose PLS-SEM as the data analysis approach as carried out in software programs such as PLS-Graph, SmartPLS, XLSTAT, and ADANCO (Hair et al., 2017). The researcher chose SmartPLS 3.0 as the program to conduct the model analysis. SmartPLS 3.0 is one of the popular software of Partial Least Square (PLS) path modelling. Since its inception in 2005, it has gained growing usage business and information systems research as a useful SEM tool to address both formative and reflective path models.

3.6.2 Mediation

Previous studies have suggested the mediating role of brand love in various contexts (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Roy et al., 2013). This study extended the mediating role of brand love into destination contexts and tested whether and the

extent to which the construct destination brand love is a critical mediating construct in the relationships between the evaluation of experiential attributes and destination brand loyalty. Notably, the structural model of this study includes only one mediating construct: destination brand love.

Mediation analysis facilitates substantiating the underlying mechanisms that exist in seemingly simple cause-effect relationships (Hair et al., 2017). In mediation testing, the researcher interpreted the direct, indirect, and total effects from SmartPLS bootstrapping outputs. Direct effects refer to relationships between two constructs which are linked by a single-headed arrow (Hair et al., 2017). Indirect effects are known to reflect relationships between two constructs which are intervened by a third construct (Hair et al., 2017). Total effects are the sum of the two. Hair et al. (2017, p. 197) emphasized the importance of total effects by stating that “the interpretation of total effects is particularly useful in studies aimed at exploring the differential impact of several driver constructs on a criterion construct via one or more mediating variables.”

Bootstrapping as a nonparametric resampling procedure is a more advanced method for mediation testing. Preacher and Hayes (2008, p. 880) explained that bootstrapping as “an additional method advocated for testing mediation that does not impose the assumption of normality of the sampling distribution.” It is “a computationally intensive method that involves repeatedly sampling from the data set and estimating the indirect effect in each resampled data set. By repeating this process thousands of times, an empirical approximation of the sampling distribution of ab is built and used to construct confidence intervals for the indirect effect” (Preacher & Hayes, 2008, p. 880). Hair et al. (2014), in their textbook on SmartPLS, commented that bootstrapping is a suited for PLS-SEM especially considering that both bootstrapping and PLS-SEM do not assume large sample size and normal distribution of sample data. They recommended researchers to follow Preacher and Hayes’s (2004, 2008) bootstrapping procedure and interpret the indirect effects in SmartPLS.

Baron and Kenny's (1986) method for testing mediation is a "citation classic" for mediation research. They suggested the following four criteria to demonstrate the existence of mediating effects:

- 1) The independent variable must account significantly for the dependent variable (the direct effect);
- 2) The independent variable must significantly associate with the mediator;
- 3) The mediator must account significantly for the dependent variable; and
- 4) After the researcher adds the mediator, the original effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be reduced partially (partial mediation) or fully (to nonsignificance, i.e., full mediation).

Although Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation testing approach appeared to be a widely accepted and cited classic, recently, researchers have challenged Baron and Kenny (1986) and developed more systematic and holistic approaches to differentiate various types of mediation. Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010, p. 200), for instance, criticized Baron and Kenny (1986) by stating that there need not be a significant effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable for a mediation effect to occur. They contributed by conducting a synthesis of previous research on mediation and proposing the "typology of mediations and non-mediations." They identified two types of non-mediation and three categories of mediation. On the one hand, the two patterns of non-mediation include (Zhao et al., 2010, p. 232):

- 1) Direct-only non-mediation: Direct effect exists, but no indirect effect; and
- 2) No-effect non-mediation: Neither direct effect nor indirect effect exists.

On the other hand, the three types of mediation are (Zhao et al., 2010, p. 232):

- 1) Complementary mediation: Mediated effect and direct effect both exist and point in the same direction.
- 2) Competitive mediation: Mediated effect and direct effect both exist and point in opposite directions.
- 3) Indirect-only mediation: Mediated effect exists, but no direct effect.

In this dissertation, the researcher referred to Zhao, Lynch, and Chen's (2010) criteria as fundamental conditions for the existence of mediation. Then, the researcher conducted mediation tests based on the approach recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2008), with 95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals (Preacher et al., 2007)) based on 1,000 bootstrap samples (Rogers et al., 2017) in the software of SmartPLS M3.0. Indirect effects rest upon 10,000 bootstrapping sample draws.

3.7 Common Method Variance

Common method variance (CMV) refers to "variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 879). It has gained strong consideration in business research (e.g., consumer research) but has only drawn little attention from scholars in tourism and leisure studies. The reason why we should deal with potential CMV biases seriously and explicitly is that, in same-respondent research drawing upon self-report questionnaires, CMV could generate spurious internal consistency (Chang, Van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010). This kind of false consistency could stem from the research design stage: if exogenous and endogenous variables of a study come from the same source, these variables are likely to correlate with each other (Chang et al., 2010). Respondents' propensity

to offer consistent answers to questions not related to exogenous or endogenous variables could also lead to CMV (Chang et al., 2010). Perceptual questionnaire data provided by single respondents could have CMV biases (Chang et al., 2010).

The ways the researcher adopted to reduce the likelihood of CMV will be discussed in detail in Section 4.2.2 in Chapter Four.

Chapter Four: Results

This chapter reports the complete procedure of data check, data treatment, descriptive characteristics of the data, and model analysis results. Section 4.1 presents the demographic information of 427 survey participants. Section 4.2 describes the techniques to treat invalid questionnaires, missing data, and common method variance (CMV). Section 4.3 presents characteristics of the normal distribution of the data, using Skewness and Kurtosis as two main criteria.

The rest of this chapter is structured around the four research objectives of this dissertation. Section 4.4 and 4.5 describe the results of the measurement model. Section 4.4 discusses the results of the exploratory factor analysis of all the measurement items. This section validates the destination brand love construct, therefore addressing the first research objective. Through the establishment of the conceptual framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love, the second research objective is met in Section 4.5. Section 4.6 explains a competing model. After that, section 4.7 fulfills the third research objective, which is to test destination brand love's mediating role in the relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and four sequential stages of destination brand loyalty. Section 4.8 assesses the moderating roles of income and visitors' status of being first-time versus repeat visitors, thereby meeting the fourth research objective.

4.1 Demographic Information

The researcher collected 526 complete and valid questionnaires, among which 427 (81.2%) respondents visited with family members to Shanghai Disney resort at the time of the survey, and 99 (18.8%) did not visit with family members. Considering that family togetherness is an essential latent construct in the conceptual model of this dissertation and one research question is to identify

destination brand love's influence on family togetherness, the subsequent analyses only used the 427 sample who visited with their families.

The sample of 427 respondents was highly representative of married, employed, middle-aged, well-educated, and first-time visitors. Female respondents (52.7%) outnumbered their male counterparts (47.1%). The overwhelming majority of them were married (66.7%) and employed (85.7%). Over 70% (72.2%) of the respondents aged between 29 and 48. The majority of the respondents were well educated; specifically, more than 70% (72.8%) of the survey participants reported having a Bachelor's degree or above. The sample of 427 respondents comprised of 324 (75.9%) first-time visitors and 103 (24.1%) repeat visitors. Nearly all of them (n=415) were from mainland China (97.2%), with the remaining 12 participants reporting Japan as their home country. Considering that the Shanghai Disney Resort was opened to the public on June 16, 2016, it is no surprise that over 70% of the visitors were first-timers.

Moreover, among the 427 respondents, 263 of them (61.6%) reported their identity as tourists, 82 (19.2%) reported as non-Shanghai residents who work, study, or live in Shanghai, and an equal number of 82 respondents (19.2%) were Shanghai residents. Approximately 25% (23.8%) of the respondents had an after-tax personal monthly income of 3,001-6,000 RMB, followed by 6,001-9,000 RMB (17.9%), 9,001-12,000 RMB (17%), <3000 RMB (11.8), and > 27,001 RMB (8.1%).

In terms of previous interactions of the overall Disney brand, 343 respondents (81.7%) had ever watched Disney movies; 321 of them (76.1%) had ever purchased Disney retailer products such as books, toys, coffee mugs; 127 of them (30.1%) had ever visited Hong Kong Disneyland; only 35 (8.3%) respondents had travelled on a Disney cruise over their lifetime (Table 7). Some demographic questions contained a choice of "prefer not to say" to allow respondents to protect their privacy so that missing data exists in questions concerning sex, income, and age group.

Table 7: Demographic Information

<i>Demographics</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Demographics</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Previous Visiting Experience at Shanghai Disney</i>			<i>Income continued</i>		
First-timers	324	75.9	> 27,001 RMB	33	8.1
Repeat visitors	103	24.1	<i>Country/region</i>		
<i>Gender</i>			Mainland China	415	97.2
Female	225	52.7	Other countries or regions	12	2.8
Male	201	47.1	<i>Marital Status</i>		
Prefer not to say	1	0.2	Single, never married	129	31.4
<i>Age</i>			Married	274	66.7
18–28	20	4.7	Widowed	3	.7
29–38	145	34.0	Divorced or separated	5	1.2
39–48	163	38.2	<i>Employment status</i>		
49–58	57	13.3	Employed	366	85.7
59–68	18	4.2	Unemployed	2	.5
69 or above	21	4.9	Retired	9	2.1
Prefer not to say	3	0.7	Student	32	7.5
<i>Highest Level of Education</i>			Housewife	5	1.2
Junior high School or below	24	5.8	Other	13	3.0
Senior high school	55	13.3	<i>Had watched Disney movies before visiting</i>		
College	33	8.0	Yes	343	81.7
University (Bachelor)	236	57.3	No	77	18.3
Postgraduate or higher	64	15.5	<i>Had purchased Disney products before visiting</i>		
<i>Income</i>			Yes	321	76.1
<3000RMB	48	11.8	No	101	23.9
3,001-6,000 RMB	97	23.8	<i>Had visited Hong Kong Disneyland before visiting</i>		
6,001- 9,000 RMB	73	17.9	Yes	127	30.1
9,001-12,000 RMB	69	17.0	No	295	69.9
12,001-15,000 RMB	31	7.6	<i>Had travelled on Disney cruises before visiting</i>		
15,001-18,000 RMB	23	5.7	Yes	35	8.3
18,001-21,000 RMB	16	3.9	No	383	90.5
21,001-24,000 RMB	14	3.4			
24,001-27,000 RMB	3	.7			

Note: The income here means after-tax personal monthly income.

4.2 Data Check, Missing Data Treatment, and Common Method Variance Reduction

4.2.1. Missing data treatment

Whether intentionally or unintentionally, missing data occurs when respondents fail to provide an answer to survey questions. It is important to spot and treat missing data before conducting any statistical analysis. Before the primary data analysis, the researcher firstly searched for missing data of the 427 sample. Several categorical demographic variables contained a choice “prefer not to say” (e.g., Q17: Sex) and this decision was considered a valid category because it indicated respondents’ actual willingness not to answer private or sensitive questions. The researcher checked missing data points of all variables in the questionnaire following Ali and Cobanoglu’s (2017) criteria below:

- 1) For each questionnaire, if the percentage of missing data points exceeded 25%, throw out this poll;
- 2) For each indicator/question, if the proportion of missing data points was less than 5%, use this indicator/question;
- 3) If a respondent did not answer any question related to a construct, throw out this questionnaire;
- 4) If any suspicious data pattern appears, for example, all answers are the same in one questionnaire, throw out this questionnaire

The researcher adopted the mean replacement method to deal with missing values of indicators in the theoretical framework. For example, when the researcher spot a missing value of the indicator “I am very familiar with the Disney brand” (this indicator is under the construct brand awareness), she first checked to see whether the proportion of missing points was higher than 5%. If

no, she continued to use the mean value of the overall brand awareness construct to replace the missing value of this indicator.

Three accommodation-related indicators under the construct “evaluation of experiential attributes” showed missing values of over 5%. These three indicators are 10_10: The lodging is unique; 10_11: The lodging facilities are of good quality; and 10_12: The lodging facilities are clean. Over half of the respondents skipped these three questions because they did not stay at either of the two official Disneyland hotels due to relatively high daily rates and lack of availability. The researcher removed these three indicators from the dataset for further analysis. These respondents who skipped the three questions stayed at hotels, Airbnb, or other places near the Shanghai Disney Resort. The most common distance from their accommodation places to Shanghai Disney Resort is two to five subway stations. Other indicators did not contain any missing data of more than 5%.

4.2.2 Common method variance check

As mentioned in Section 3.7 in Chapter Three, researchers should check CMV before conducting PLS-SEM analysis. The researcher followed Chang et al.’s (2010) strategies to reduce the likelihood of CMV biases. Firstly, in the research design stage, the researcher adopted multi-source measures, especially for endogenous latent constructs. The researcher mix-ordered questions and applied different scales to questions. Secondly, survey respondents are “unlikely to be guided by a cognitive map that includes difficult-to-visualize interaction and non-linear effects” (Chang et al., 2010, p. 179). The researcher designed regression models that are not seemingly linear to respondents. Thirdly, the researcher employed post-hoc Harman one-factor analysis to determine whether a single underlying factor accounts for the variance in the data. The results showed the single factor only accounted for an explained variance of less than 20%. There was neither a

dominant factor that emerged from the EFA analysis nor any general factor that could be attributable to the majority of variance among variables.

Another approach to testing CMV is the marker variable approach (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). This method tests CMV specifically by using a theoretically irrelevant construct in the analysis. In the questionnaire, the researcher incorporated two measures, namely “number of nights that a respondent stayed in the destination city Shanghai” and “identity in Shanghai” to construct two marker factors to detect the likelihood of CMV. Theoretically, these two measures were not related to any of the latent constructs in the conceptual model. Correlation results showed that these two marker variables did not correlate significantly with any of the latent constructs.

Additionally, the inclusion of the marker factor “number of nights that a respondent stayed in the destination city Shanghai” caused a minor decrease in the value of the fit statistics, including TLI (- 0.015) and RMSEA (- 0.001). The inclusion of the marker factor “identity in Shanghai” also minimally reduced the value of TLI (- 0.014) and RMSEA (- 0.001). In summary, all these results supported that CMV was not a severe threat to the analysis in this dissertation.

4.3 Normality Test

Although normal distribution is not a pre-requisite for statistical analysis in PLS-SEM (Ali & Cobanoglu, 2017), the researcher still examined data normality using SmartPLS 3.0 data view to get a basic understanding of the data distribution characteristics of the sample data. Skewness and Kurtosis are the two primary criteria to evaluate data distribution. Skewness assesses “the extent to which a variable’s distribution is symmetrical. If the distribution of responses for a variable stretches toward the right or left tail of the distribution, then the distribution is referred to as skewed” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 54). Skewness suggests whether and to what extent the data in question is left-tailed or

right-tailed. Kurtosis represents “a measure of whether the distribution is too peaked (a very narrow distribution with most of the responses in the center) (Hair et al., 2014, p. 54). In short, Kurtosis informs how flat the data tails are compared to a normal distribution. A statistical normal distribution has a Skewness or Kurtosis value of 0 (Hair et al., 2014). In most social science empirical studies, this “0” situation is almost unachievable. It is more common to encounter non-zero Skewness or Kurtosis values. A Skewness value of greater than +1 or lower than –1 indicates substantially non-normal distribution; similarly, a Kurtosis value of bigger than +1 or less than –1 means peaked or flat distribution respectively. Therefore, if the values of both Skewness and Kurtosis fall into the range of +1 to –1, it could be considered that the tested data achieve normal distribution (Hair et al., 2014). The data view in SmartPLS 3.0 provides values of Skewness and Kurtosis of all variables. Some of the indicators Kurtosis and Skewness did not fall into the range of -1 to +1 (see those italicized numbers in Table 1), especially those indicators under the construct of brand awareness. The univariate distribution of all indicators were deemed acceptable since the mean kurtosis and mean skewness were inferior to 1 (Mhthen & Kaplan, 1985).

The researcher then performed descriptive statistics such as mean, median, minimum, and maximum analyses to assess the sample deviation patterns concerning multivariate normality. The distribution of standardized deviations (SD) displayed no obvious cues of non-normality. Table 8 shows that the indicators are within two standard deviations around their respective means.

Table 8: Univariate and Multivariate Normality Test Results (n=427)

Construct and Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Excess Kurtosis	Skewness
Brand Awareness				
I am very familiar with the Disney brand.	5.178	1.641	-0.345	-0.622
This brand is well known.	6.012	1.418	1.805	-1.543
I have heard of Disney before.	6.347	1.208	4.761	-2.204
Disney is very famous.	6.319	1.172	4.928	-2.163
Disney is visible.	5.382	1.57	-0.214	-0.724
Brand Trust				
Disney is genuinely committed to my satisfaction.	5.248	1.487	0.142	-0.689
When I see a Disney advertisement, I believe that the information in it is accurate.	5.155	1.458	0.08	-0.607
Most of what Disney says about it is true.	5.342	1.401	0.24	-0.722
I trust the Disney brand whenever I visit its site.	5.290	1.479	-0.184	-0.609
Brand Love: Self-brand integration (SBI)				
It makes my life more meaningful.	5.489	1.329	0.171	-0.709
Brand Love: Passion-driven behaviours (PDB)				
I felt myself desiring to go to Shanghai Disney Resort.	5.564	1.433	0.708	-0.963
I have the feeling of desire toward visiting it.	5.641	1.325	0.071	-0.783
I am willing to spend time visiting it.	5.662	1.368	0.653	-0.947
Brand Love: Positive emotional connection (PEC)				
Shanghai Disney Resort meets my visiting expectations.	5.241	1.534	0.163	-0.786
I'm emotionally connected to it.	4.859	1.611	-0.262	-0.453
Shanghai Disney Resort makes me relaxed.	5.333	1.554	0.741	-1.026
It is fun.	5.561	1.352	0.992	-1.007
It is exciting.	5.450	1.422	0.689	-0.939
It is pleasurable.	5.499	1.428	0.8	-1.039
Brand Love: Long-term relationship (LR)				
I feel a sense of long-time commitment to it.	4.644	1.755	-0.56	-0.378
It will be part of my life.	5.429	1.522	0.309	-0.9
Brand Love: Attitude valence (AV)				
I like Shanghai Disney Resort.	5.540	1.417	0.906	-1.017
My overall feelings/evaluations towards Shanghai Disney Resort are positive.	5.617	1.355	1.273	-1.104
I am satisfied with it.	5.562	1.407	1.036	-1.069
Brand Love: Attitude strength (AS)				
I am certain of my evaluations of it.	5.766	1.275	1.083	-1.07
I frequently find myself thinking about it.	5.272	1.560	0.169	-0.8
It pops into my mind.	5.096	1.657	-0.116	-0.701
Perceived Happiness				
In general, I consider myself a very happy person.	5.541	1.379	1.023	-1.035
Compared to most of my peers, I am a happy person.	5.611	1.348	1.052	-1.053
I am generally happy. I enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything.	5.747	1.312	1.012	-1.037
I am generally not very happy. Although I am not depressed, I seldom seem as happy as I might be.				
Family Togetherness				
My family gets along well with each other.	6.101	1.281	4.672	-2.041
I thought the entire family enjoyed the visiting experience at Shanghai Disney Resort.	5.759	1.348	0.969	-1.114
Our family kinship was increased.	5.724	1.354	0.664	-0.993
We enjoyed the time spent with my family together.	6.166	1.096	2.285	-1.479

<i>Evaluation of Experiential Attributes</i>				
The quality of merchandise is good.	5.267	1.374	-0.066	-0.5
The service is friendly.	3.623	1.568	-0.288	0.157
There is a variety of special events/festivals.	5.604	1.331	0.954	-0.976
The price for activities and events is reasonable.	5.384	1.356	0.257	-0.63
The local transportation is convenient.	5.361	1.391	0.217	-0.7
To access the resort is easy.	4.185	1.746	-0.753	-0.113
There is a variety of culture options.	5.335	1.552	0.793	-1.067
The price for sightseeing is reasonable.	5.101	1.581	0.066	-0.743
The atmosphere is restful.	5.363	1.376	0.367	-0.732
Safety and security are good.	5.267	1.374	-0.066	-0.5
The food quality is good.	3.623	1.568	-0.288	0.157
There is a variety of cuisine.	5.604	1.331	0.954	-0.976
<i>Cognitive Loyalty</i>				
It provided me superior service quality as compared to other places I have been to.	5.26	1.462	-0.009	-0.634
No other destination performed better than it.	5.300	1.425	-0.022	-0.638
The overall quality of Shanghai Disney Resort is the best as a tourism destination.	5.546	1.318	0.872	-0.9
It provided me with more good experiences than other places.	5.403	1.413	0.447	-0.823
<i>Attitudinal Loyalty</i>				
I loved visiting here.	5.387	1.413	0.635	-0.868
I like Shanghai Disney Resort more than other destinations.	4.899	1.611	-0.378	-0.442
I felt better when I stayed here.	5.314	1.449	0.033	-0.689
<i>Conative Loyalty</i>				
If I am given a chance, I intend to continue making my holiday at Shanghai Disney Resort.	5.009	1.683	-0.431	-0.591
I consider it to be my first holiday choice.	5.019	1.634	-0.224	-0.628

Note: The author used 7-point Likert Scales for all items. For all items listed out above, the min values are 1, and the max values are 7.

4.4 The Measurement Model

Formative and reflective constructs require different approaches in reporting measurement model results. The constructs in this dissertation's theoretical framework are all reflective. Therefore, the researcher tested relationships between manifest indicators (the measurement model) and those between latent constructs (the structural model) following the guidelines of reflective construct models. The researcher took Hair et al.'s (2014) suggestion and reported criteria such as outer loadings, composite reliability, Cronbach's alpha (α), average variance extracted (AVE), cross-loadings, and Rho_A for reflective constructs in this study. Rules of thumb for evaluating reflective measurement models includes both reliability and validity testing. The establishment of reliability

testing requires adequate indicator reliability and internal consistency reliability. Acceptable validity means convergent, discriminant and content validity are meeting their specific threshold (Hair et al., 2014). The measurement model testing validated a total of 18 destination brand love scales.

4.4.1 Indicator reliability.

The researcher checked outer loadings to examine indicator reliability (Hair et al., 2014). Indicator reliability is the squared value of an indicator's outer loading. For example, if an indicator's outer loading is 0.90; its indicator reliability is 0.81 (0.90^2). Statistically, if an indicator's outer loading is weak and below 0.40, it should be removed (Hair et al., 2014; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Table 9 shows that outer loadings of all indicators except three are well above the cut-off point of 0.708 (Hair et al., 2014). The two indicators that had an outer loading of lower than 0.70 are: 1) Disney is visible, and the price for activities and events is reasonable. Notably, their outer loadings are all above 0.55, higher than the minimum acceptable level of 0.40 (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2010). All manifest indicators were statistically significant at the 0.001 confidence interval level. Therefore, all indicators in this study showed satisfying factor loadings.

The researcher calculated indicator reliability based on outer loadings. Overall, indicator reliability ranged from 0.603 to 0.965. The indicator "the price for activities and events is reasonable" under the construct of Brand Awareness, generated the lowest indicator reliability of 0.603. The indicator "If I am given a chance, I intend to continue making my holiday at Shanghai Disney Resort" generated the highest indicator reliability of 0.925. The second column in Table 9 presents indicator reliability values.

Table 9: Reliability and AVE

<i>Constructs and Manifest Indicators</i>	<i>Factor loading</i>	<i>Indicator reliability</i>	<i>Composite reliability (pc)</i>	<i>Cronbach's α</i>	<i>AVE</i>	<i>Rho_A</i>
<i>Brand Awareness (BA)</i>			0.867	0.817	0.523	0.837
I am very familiar with the Disney brand.	0.738***	0.545				
This brand is well known.	0.806***	0.650				
I have heard of Disney before.	0.756***	0.572				
Disney is very famous.	0.802***	0.643				
Disney is visible.	0.652***	0.425				
<i>Brand Trust (BT)</i>			0.939	0.913	0.793	0.915
Disney is genuinely committed to my satisfaction.	0.842***	0.709				
When I see a Disney advertisement, I believe that the information in it is accurate.	0.918***	0.843				
Most of what Disney says about it is true.	0.893***	0.797				
<i>Evaluation of Experiential Attributes (Eval)</i>			0.936	0.925	0.549	0.928
The quality of merchandise is good.	0.719***	0.517				
The service is friendly.	0.771***	0.594				
There is a variety of special events/festivals.	0.767***	0.588				
The price for activities and events is reasonable.	0.603***	0.364				
The local transportation is convenient.	0.722***	0.521				
To access the resort is easy.	0.773***	0.598				
There is a variety of culture options.	0.755***	0.570				
The price for sightseeing is reasonable.	0.653***	0.426				
The atmosphere is restful.	0.756***	0.572				
Safety and security are good.	0.787***	0.619				
The food quality is good.	0.798***	0.637				
There is a variety of cuisine.	0.763***	0.582				
<i>Destination Brand Love (DBLove)</i>			0.972	0.969	0.658	0.971
Self-brand integration (SBI): It makes my life more meaningful.	0.819***	0.671				
Passion-driven behaviours (PDB): I felt myself desiring visiting it.	0.740***	0.548				
PDB: I have the feeling of desire toward visiting it.	0.716***	0.513				
PDB: I am willing to spend time visiting it.	0.709***	0.503				
Positive emotional connection (PEC): Shanghai Disney Resort meets my visiting expectations.	0.831***	0.691				
PEC: I'm emotionally connected to	0.783***	0.613				

it.						
PEC: Shanghai Disney Resort makes me relaxed.	0.802***	0.643				
PEC: It is fun.	0.849***	0.721				
PEC: It is exciting.	0.861***	0.741				
PEC: It is pleasurable.	0.842***	0.709				
Long-term relationship (LR): I feel a sense of long-time commitment to it.	0.747***	0.558				
LR: It will be part of my life.	0.829***	0.687				
Attitude valence (AV): I like Shanghai Disney Resort.	0.884***	0.781				
AV: My overall feelings/evaluations towards Shanghai Disney Resort are positive.	0.841***	0.707				
AV: I am satisfied with it.	0.886***	0.785				
Attitude strength (AS): I am certain of my evaluations of it.	0.739***	0.546				
AS: I frequently find myself thinking about it.	0.853***	0.728				
AS: It pops into my mind.	0.837***	0.701				
Cognitive Loyalty			0.955	0.937	0.842	0.939
Cognitive Loyalty: It provided me superior service quality as compared to other places I have been to.	0.911***	0.830				
No other destination performed better than it.	0.928***	0.861				
The overall quality of Shanghai Disney Resort is the best as a tourism destination.	0.912***	0.832				
It provided me with more good experiences than other places.	0.918***	0.843				
Attitudinal Loyalty			0.929	0.886	0.814	0.889
I loved visiting here.	0.914***	0.835				
I like Shanghai Disney Resort more than other destinations.	0.878***	0.771				
I felt better when I stayed here.	0.914***	0.835				
Conative Loyalty			0.961	0.919	0.925	0.919
If I am given a chance, I intend to continue making my holiday at Shanghai Disney Resort.	0.962***	0.925				
I consider it to be my first holiday choice.	0.961***	0.924				
Perceived Happiness (PH)			0.908	0.849	0.768	0.874
In general, I consider myself a very happy person.	0.917***	0.841				
Compared to most of my peers, I am a happy person.	0.902***	0.814				
I am generally happy. I enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything.	0.805***	0.648				
Family Togetherness (FT)			0.904	0.860	0.702	0.893
My family gets along well with each other.	0.730***	0.533				

I thought the entire family enjoyed the visiting experience at Shanghai Disney Resort.	0.869***	0.755
Our family kinship was increased.	0.888***	0.789
We enjoyed the time spent with my family together.	0.854***	0.729

Notes: 1. SRMR=0.054, NFI=0.757

2. * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$. ns: non-significant

4.4.2 Internal consistency reliability.

Internal consistency reliability is the second type of reliability that should test in research employing PLS-SEM. Cronbach's α is a traditional and conservative criterion for the test of internal consistency (Hair et al., 2014); it assumes that all manifest indicators are equally reliable and falls into the range of 0 to 1. Another measure to test internal consistency is composite reliability (p_c), which also varies between 0 and 1. For both two measures, the closer the value is to 1, the more reliable the indicators are. Hair et al. (2014) recommended the cut-off point of 0.708 for composite reliability. Table 3 demonstrates that the Cronbach's α of all latent constructs ranged from 0.817 (Brand Awareness) to 0.969 (Destination Brand Love), hence suggesting satisfactory internal consistency. The composite reliability (p_c) of constructs all surpassed 0.800, with the highest being 0.972 (Destination Brand Love) and the lowest being 0.867 (Brand Awareness), supporting satisfactory international consistency reliability.

4.4.3 Convergent validity.

The researcher tested various types of validity, including convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is known to estimate "the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternative measures of the same construct" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 102). For reflective construct models, indicators of a construct should converge or share a certain proportion of variance (Hair et al., 2014). Its establishment requires the examination of indicator outer loadings

and AVE. An AVE of 0.50 or higher suggests acceptable AVE and indicates that a construct explains over 50% of the variance of its manifest indicators (Fornell, 1992; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2010). The construct of brand awareness generated the lowest square root of AVE (its AVE is 0.523), while conative loyalty had the highest square root of AVE (its AVE is 0.925). All square root of AVEs supposed the rule of thumb of 0.50 (Table 10), confirming the convergent validity of all constructs in this study (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 10: Correlations of Constructs and the Square Root of AVE (Fornell-Larcker Criterion)

Constructs	AL	BA	BT	CogL	ConL	DBLove	FT	PH	Eval
AL	(0.902)								
BA	0.351	(0.723)							
BT	0.542	0.619	(0.891)						
CogL	0.830	0.341	0.550	(0.917)					
ConL	0.856	0.353	0.548	0.767	(0.962)				
DBLove	0.846	0.399	0.617	0.800	0.820	(0.811)			
FT	0.540	0.334	0.416	0.484	0.497	0.613	(0.838)		
PH	0.512	0.350	0.423	0.484	0.489	0.566	0.618	(0.876)	
Eval	0.712	0.470	0.613	0.725	0.684	0.815	0.532	0.540	(0.741)

Notes: 1. The square root of AVE values is shown in parenthesis and in bold.

2. AL=Attitudinal Loyalty; BA=Brand Awareness; BT=Brand Trust; CogL=Cognitive Loyalty; ConL=Conative Loyalty; DBLove=Destination Brand Love; FT=Family Togetherness; PH=Perceived Happiness; Eval=Evaluation of Experiential Attributes

4.4.4 Discriminant validity.

The next step in validity testing was the assessment of discriminant validity, a measure indicating the degree to which a construct is empirically different from other constructs (Hair et al., 2014). Three criteria were adopted: the Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion, cross-loadings, and the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT). The first criterion, the Fornell-Larcker (1981) method, asserts that constructs are discriminant if the square root of the AVE of each reflective construct surpasses

the correlations with all the other reflective constructs in a model. As shown in Table 8, all the square roots of AVEs (the bold numbers in parenthesis) far exceeded correlations, suggesting adequate discriminant validity. Another criterion for assessing discriminant validity, cross-loadings, is typically the first approach to examine discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2017). Specifically, a manifest indicator's outer loading on the construct it belongs to should exceed its outer loadings on other constructs (Hair et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2014).

Table 11 illustrates the loadings and cross-loadings for every indicator. Every indicator expressed the highest value with its corresponding construct, and all cross-loadings were considerably lower. For example, indicators 10_6, 10_7, 10_8 all the way to 10_20 are the indicators for the construct "evaluation of experiential attributes." All indicators under this construct showed the highest value for the loading with "evaluation of experiential attributes," while all cross-loadings with other constructs were far lower. For instance, the factor loading of indicator 10_6 (The quality of merchandise is good) with "evaluation of experiential attributes" was 0.719, which exceeded its cross-loadings with other constructs. The same finding was found for other indicators measuring the other constructs in the theoretical framework. Collectively, the Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion and cross-loadings provided enough evidence for the discriminant validity of constructs.

Table 11: Cross Loadings

Indicator/Construct Name	AL	BA	BT	CogL	ConL	DBLove	FT	PH	Eval
10_6: The quality of merchandise is good	0.541	0.436	0.553	0.565	0.547	0.609	0.438	0.394	0.719
10_7: The service is friendly	0.513	0.360	0.493	0.557	0.511	0.610	0.402	0.364	0.771
10_8: There is a variety of special events/festivals	0.533	0.371	0.439	0.536	0.487	0.611	0.400	0.375	0.767
10_9: The price for activities and events is reasonable	0.394	0.273	0.324	0.385	0.396	0.460	0.239	0.292	0.603
10_13: The local transportation is convenient	0.472	0.277	0.380	0.485	0.465	0.550	0.335	0.383	0.722
10_14: To access the resort is easy	0.553	0.355	0.450	0.547	0.524	0.603	0.422	0.413	0.773
10_15: There is a variety of culture options	0.523	0.356	0.433	0.518	0.488	0.583	0.360	0.397	0.755
10_16: The price for sightseeing is reasonable	0.438	0.307	0.383	0.428	0.433	0.524	0.293	0.334	0.653
10_17: The atmosphere is restful	0.593	0.367	0.481	0.605	0.532	0.663	0.435	0.417	0.756
10_18: Safety and security are good	0.592	0.375	0.493	0.626	0.528	0.654	0.457	0.445	0.787
10_19: The food quality is good	0.577	0.343	0.505	0.583	0.577	0.690	0.439	0.463	0.798
10_20: There is a variety of cuisine	0.554	0.337	0.474	0.554	0.556	0.644	0.449	0.486	0.763
11_1: In general, I consider myself a very happy person	0.507	0.337	0.421	0.487	0.488	0.562	0.570	0.917	0.533
11_2: Compared to most of my peers, I am a happy person	0.466	0.303	0.350	0.438	0.452	0.505	0.512	0.903	0.489
11_3: I am generally happy. I enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything	0.355	0.275	0.335	0.329	0.325	0.404	0.550	0.805	0.380

13_1: My family gets along well with each other	0.314	0.150	0.242	0.274	0.256	0.366	0.733	0.494	0.328
13_2: I thought the entire family enjoyed the visiting experience at Shanghai Disney Resort	0.565	0.369	0.442	0.515	0.537	0.628	0.867	0.525	0.549
13_3: Our family kinship was increased	0.484	0.294	0.358	0.437	0.460	0.535	0.888	0.512	0.461
13_4: We enjoyed the time spent with my family together	0.393	0.255	0.311	0.341	0.345	0.470	0.855	0.551	0.399
14_18: It pops into my mind	0.748	0.283	0.512	0.697	0.735	0.837	0.449	0.401	0.626
14_1: It makes my visit more meaningful	0.705	0.387	0.532	0.717	0.676	0.819	0.555	0.517	0.724
14_2: I felt myself desiring visiting it	0.590	0.303	0.484	0.576	0.563	0.740	0.468	0.412	0.616
14_3: I have the feeling of desire toward visiting it	0.574	0.246	0.373	0.574	0.523	0.716	0.465	0.381	0.584
14_4: I am willing to spend time visiting it	0.560	0.256	0.369	0.574	0.525	0.709	0.401	0.349	0.572
14_5: Shanghai Disney Resort meets my visiting expectations	0.688	0.302	0.531	0.634	0.709	0.831	0.468	0.444	0.687
14_6: I'm emotionally connected to it	0.659	0.328	0.537	0.630	0.656	0.783	0.429	0.455	0.646
14_7: Shanghai Disney Resort (thereafter "it") makes me relaxed	0.693	0.274	0.476	0.607	0.652	0.802	0.503	0.491	0.644
14_8: It is fun	0.696	0.340	0.533	0.625	0.652	0.849	0.549	0.507	0.699
14_9: It is exciting	0.716	0.373	0.557	0.665	0.687	0.861	0.513	0.490	0.705
14_10: It is pleasurable	0.703	0.334	0.517	0.600	0.675	0.842	0.570	0.495	0.677
14_11: I feel sense of long-time commitment to it	0.654	0.313	0.495	0.590	0.680	0.747	0.435	0.435	0.637

14_12: It will be part of my life	0.693	0.321	0.474	0.672	0.694	0.829	0.468	0.450	0.674
14_13: I like Shanghai Disney Resort	0.774	0.325	0.538	0.718	0.730	0.884	0.552	0.499	0.713
14_14: My overall feelings/evaluations towards Shanghai Disney Resort are positive	0.708	0.355	0.503	0.703	0.675	0.841	0.569	0.511	0.705
14_15: I am satisfied with it	0.778	0.351	0.551	0.751	0.740	0.886	0.546	0.495	0.721
14_16: I am certain of my evaluations of it	0.618	0.387	0.457	0.621	0.595	0.739	0.508	0.446	0.616
14_17: I frequently find myself thinking about it	0.740	0.335	0.535	0.687	0.750	0.853	0.474	0.455	0.629
15_1: It provided me superior service quality as compared to other places I have been to	0.744	0.288	0.513	0.911	0.705	0.719	0.464	0.455	0.653
15_2: No other destination performed better than it	0.754	0.306	0.489	0.928	0.715	0.719	0.428	0.463	0.640
15_3: The overall quality of Shanghai Disney Resort is the best as a tourism destination	0.708	0.309	0.484	0.912	0.649	0.710	0.428	0.389	0.659
15_4: It provided me with more good experiences than other places	0.834	0.345	0.531	0.918	0.743	0.782	0.454	0.468	0.704
15_5: I loved visiting here	0.914	0.305	0.480	0.802	0.733	0.755	0.515	0.456	0.633
15_6: I like Shanghai Disney Resort more than other destinations	0.878	0.336	0.495	0.678	0.765	0.720	0.442	0.449	0.612
15_7: I felt good when I stayed here	0.914	0.311	0.494	0.764	0.816	0.810	0.502	0.480	0.678
15_8: If I am given a chance, I intend to	0.823	0.342	0.541	0.736	0.962	0.795	0.492	0.479	0.644

continue making my holiday at Shanghai Disney Resort									
15_9: I consider it to be my first holiday choice	0.823	0.338	0.513	0.741	0.961	0.782	0.464	0.461	0.672
6_1: I am very familiar with the Disney brand	0.355	0.739	0.551	0.328	0.349	0.403	0.301	0.323	0.430
6_2: This brand is well known	0.193	0.800	0.460	0.243	0.212	0.254	0.238	0.237	0.350
6_3: I have heard of Disney before	0.185	0.751	0.397	0.213	0.164	0.219	0.233	0.256	0.285
6_4: Disney is very famous	0.230	0.799	0.425	0.241	0.219	0.267	0.235	0.257	0.330
6_5: Disney is visible	0.231	0.655	0.396	0.191	0.238	0.227	0.216	0.210	0.273
7_1: Disney is genuinely committed to my satisfaction	0.496	0.554	0.844	0.461	0.493	0.526	0.327	0.405	0.508
7_2: When I see a Disney advertisement, I believe that the information in it is accurate	0.489	0.559	0.917	0.495	0.496	0.552	0.346	0.389	0.567
7_3: Most of what Disney says about it is true	0.460	0.547	0.892	0.503	0.460	0.554	0.399	0.357	0.553

Note: AL=Attitudinal Loyalty; BA=Brand Awareness; BT=Brand Trust; CogL=Cognitive Loyalty; ConL=Conative Loyalty; DBLove=Destination Brand Love; FT=Family Togetherness; PH=Perceived Happiness; Eval=Evaluation of Experiential Attributes

Although both the Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion and cross-loadings have been dominant criteria for testing discriminant validity, recent studies that critically examined these two criteria have emphasized that neither the Fornell-Larcker (1981) nor cross-loadings detect the lack of discriminant validity in a reliable way (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). Henseler et al. (2015), for instance, recognized the deficiency of the Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion and cross-loadings and after that proposed a more liberal approach to testing discriminant validity: the HTMT criterion.

The HTMT was proposed especially for VB-SEM, such as PLS-SEM. The researcher tested HTMT values of latent constructs as the second approach to evaluate discriminant validity.

The researcher considered HTMT as an essential and reliable criterion to supplement the Fornell-Larcker (1981) and cross-loadings. HTMT refers to “the average of the heterotrait-heteromethod correlations (i.e., the correlations of indicators across constructs measuring different phenomena), relative to the average of the monotrait-heteromethod correlations (i.e., the correlations of indicators within the same construct)” (Henseler et al., 2015, p. 121). The complete bootstrapping function in SmartPLS generated the $HTMT_{inference}$ which is another important criterion for judging discriminant validity. To establish a satisfactory discriminant validity, the confidence interval of the HTMT statistic should not surpass 1 for all combinations of constructs (Hair et al., 2017). Table 12 illustrates that the upper levels of the confidence interval limits were all below 1. Thereby the data indicated that all $HTMT_{inference}$ values were significantly different from 1. Therefore, discriminant validity between latent constructs was established.

Table 12: Confidence Interval (95%) of the HTMT Statistic

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	2.5%	97.5%
Brand Awareness → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.393	0.394	0.267	0.495
Brand Trust → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.604	0.605	0.504	0.688
Brand Trust → Brand Awareness	0.697	0.697	0.616	0.779
Cognitive Loyalty → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.908	0.910	0.866	0.943
Cognitive Loyalty → Brand Awareness	0.373	0.375	0.256	0.490
Cognitive Loyalty → Brand Trust	0.594	0.595	0.502	0.680
Conative Loyalty → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.947	0.947	0.914	0.975
Conative Loyalty → Brand Awareness	0.387	0.385	0.273	0.485
Conative Loyalty → Brand Trust	0.598	0.597	0.509	0.680
Conative Loyalty → Cognitive Loyalty	0.826	0.826	0.777	0.871
Destination Brand Love → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.909	0.909	0.864	0.946
Destination Brand Love → Brand Awareness	0.426	0.426	0.313	0.532
Destination Brand Love → Brand Trust	0.655	0.655	0.563	0.735
Destination Brand Love → Cognitive Loyalty	0.837	0.836	0.782	0.876
Destination Brand Love → Conative Loyalty	0.866	0.866	0.822	0.897
Family Togetherness → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.598	0.597	0.497	0.681
Family Togetherness → Brand Awareness	0.370	0.372	0.259	0.489
Family Togetherness → Brand Trust	0.454	0.453	0.357	0.540
Family Togetherness → Cognitive Loyalty	0.520	0.523	0.431	0.615
Family Togetherness → Conative Loyalty	0.535	0.534	0.450	0.615
Family Togetherness → Destination Brand Love	0.652	0.654	0.578	0.729
Perceived Happiness → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.582	0.580	0.480	0.677
Perceived Happiness → Brand Awareness	0.405	0.415	0.281	0.531
Perceived Happiness → Brand Trust	0.479	0.482	0.369	0.580
Perceived Happiness → Cognitive Loyalty	0.534	0.533	0.428	0.629
Perceived Happiness → Conative Loyalty	0.544	0.539	0.432	0.637
Perceived Happiness → Destination Brand Love	0.616	0.613	0.499	0.717
Perceived Happiness → Family Togetherness	0.730	0.729	0.606	0.826
Evaluation of Experiential Attributes → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.781	0.779	0.715	0.832
Evaluation of Experiential Attributes → Brand Awareness	0.520	0.521	0.407	0.622
Evaluation of Experiential Attributes → Brand Trust	0.663	0.666	0.571	0.746

Evaluation of Experiential Attributes → Cognitive Loyalty	0.772	0.770	0.703	0.826
Evaluation of Experiential Attributes → Conative Loyalty	0.739	0.734	0.666	0.791
Evaluation of Experiential Attributes → Destination Brand Love	0.857	0.855	0.803	0.895
Evaluation of Experiential Attributes → Family Togetherness	0.574	0.573	0.480	0.650
Evaluation of Experiential Attributes → Perceived Happiness	0.598	0.600	0.496	0.701

4.4.5 Content validity.

Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2014) suggested researchers establish the content validity of indicators before empirically testing them. Checking content validity is of importance for indicators of formative constructs because doing this could maximize the chance of having formative indicators capture as many as major facets of a particular construct (Hair et al., 2014). To establish content validity of the indicators used in this dissertation, the researcher organized a panel of three leisure, sport, and tourism scholars (the author and her co-supervisors). They discussed and revised the content validity and face validity of each of the above items adapted from existing literature. In this revision process, the researchers modified indicators. A set of content-valid items is ready to be tested in the pilot study. The English and Chinese questionnaires are available in Appendix II and Appendix III.

4.4.6. Model fit indices

The development of PLS path modelling so far has only made an insufficient number of model fit criteria available. These criteria include the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (Henseler et al., 2016; Hu & Bentler, 1998; 1999) and normed fit index (NFI) (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Henseler et al., 2016). SRMR means “the square root of the sum of the squared differences between the model-implied and the empirical correlation matrix” (Henseler et al., 2016,

p. 9). It is a byproduct of the PLS algorithm (Hair et al., 2017). The smaller the value of SRMR, the better the model fit will be. Specifically, an SRMR value of infinite approaching 0 indicates perfect model fit. A widely adopted rule of thumb of determining a model fit using SRMR is an SRMR value less than 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), although Byrne (2008) suggested a more rigorous acceptable cut-off value of 0.05. Compared with SRMR, NFI has been relatively rarely used (Henseler et al., 2016). An NFI value bigger than 0.90 has been considered acceptable (Byrne, 2008) for factor models, but for composite models, the threshold for the NFI remains undetermined (Henseler et al., 2016).

SmartPLS, as a partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) program, is still developing its model fit indices, not as the covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) software which has a set of sophisticated model fit indices available and widely adopted. Although there have been some indices created to evaluate model fit in PLS-SEM, Hair et al. (2017, p. 5) noted that “literature casts doubt on whether measured fit—as understood in a factor-based SEM context—is a relevant concept for PLS.”

As suggested by Henseler et al. (2016, p.12) (Figure 6), in this dissertation, the researcher reports SRMR, NFI, d_{ULS} , and d_G as PLS fit indices for the measurement model. The SRMR value was 0.062 for the estimated model, indicating a satisfactory model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The NFI value was 0.742 for the estimated model, not meeting Byrne’s (2008) cut-off point of 0.90 or higher. The Chi-Square value was 6,998.103. However, the legitimacy of these indices are still to some extent questionable and awaits further academic validation; this study reports SRMR and NFI only as reference fit indices.

Assessment	Criterion
<i>Overall model</i>	
Test of model fit (estimated model)	SRMR < 95% bootstrap quantile (HI95 of SRMR) $d_{ULS} < 95\%$ bootstrap quantile (HI95 of d_{ULS}) $d_G < 95\%$ bootstrap quantile (HI95 of d_G) SRMR < 0.08
Approximate model fit (estimated model)	
<i>Measurement model</i>	
Confirmatory composite and/or factor analysis (saturated model)	SRMR < 95% bootstrap quantile (HI95 of SRMR) $d_{ULS} < 95\%$ bootstrap quantile (HI95 of d_{ULS}) $d_G < 95\%$ bootstrap quantile (HI95 of d_G)
Approximate model fit (saturated model)	SRMR < 0.08
Internal consistency reliability	Dijkstra-Henseler's $\rho_A > 0.7$ Dillon-Goldstein's $\rho_c > 0.7$ Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.7$
Convergent validity	AVE > 0.5
Discriminant validity	HTMT significantly smaller than 1 Fornell-Larcker criterion Loadings exceed cross-loadings
<i>Structural model</i>	
Endogenous variables	R^2 , adjusted R^2
Direct effects	Path coefficient (absolute size, sign) Significance (p -value, confidence interval) Effect size
Indirect effects	Coefficient (absolute size, sign) Significance (p -value, confidence interval)
Total effects	Coefficient (absolute size, sign) Significance (p -value, confidence interval)

Figure 6: Assessment of PLS Path Modelling Results in Explanatory Research Settings (Henseler et al., 2016, p.12)

4.5 The Structural Model

The researcher analyzed the structural model in SmartPLS 3.0 with a full information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimator to determine whether the survey data support the hypothesized relationships (Rogers, Courneya, Anton, Hopkins-Price, Verhulst, Robbs, Vicari, & McAuley, 2017). There was no missing data at this stage, thereby justifying the use of FIML estimation (Rogers et al., 2017). This sector examines relationships among latent constructs and the

predictive capabilities of each exogenous constructs following Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt's (2017) structural model evaluation guidelines. According to Hair et al. (2017, p. 191), specific steps involves:

- 1) Assess the structural model for collinearity issues;
- 2) Assess the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships
- 3) Assess the level of R^2 ;
- 4) Assess the f^2 effect size;
- 5) Assess the predictive relevance of Q^2 ;
- 6) Assess the q^2 effect size

4.5.1 Collinearity assessment.

Collinearity is not neglectable because path coefficients could be biased if high levels of collinearity exist in regression estimations (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). The variance inflation factors (VIF) among the latent constructs ranged from 1.000 to 2.978, far below the threshold of 5, suggesting that collinearity should not be a concern in this study (Hair et al., 2011).

4.5.2 Significance of path coefficients.

Path coefficients fall into the range of -1 to +1, with 0 or close to 0 meaning profoundly weak and usually statistically insignificant impact (Hair et al., 2017). Similarly, a path coefficient close to +1 indicates a strong and positive impact which is also usually statistically significant, and vice versa for coefficients close to -1 (Hair et al., 2017). To interpret the results of the structural model, the researcher used t values and p values to gauge whether a path coefficient is significant or not at either the .05, .01 or .001 confidence interval levels.

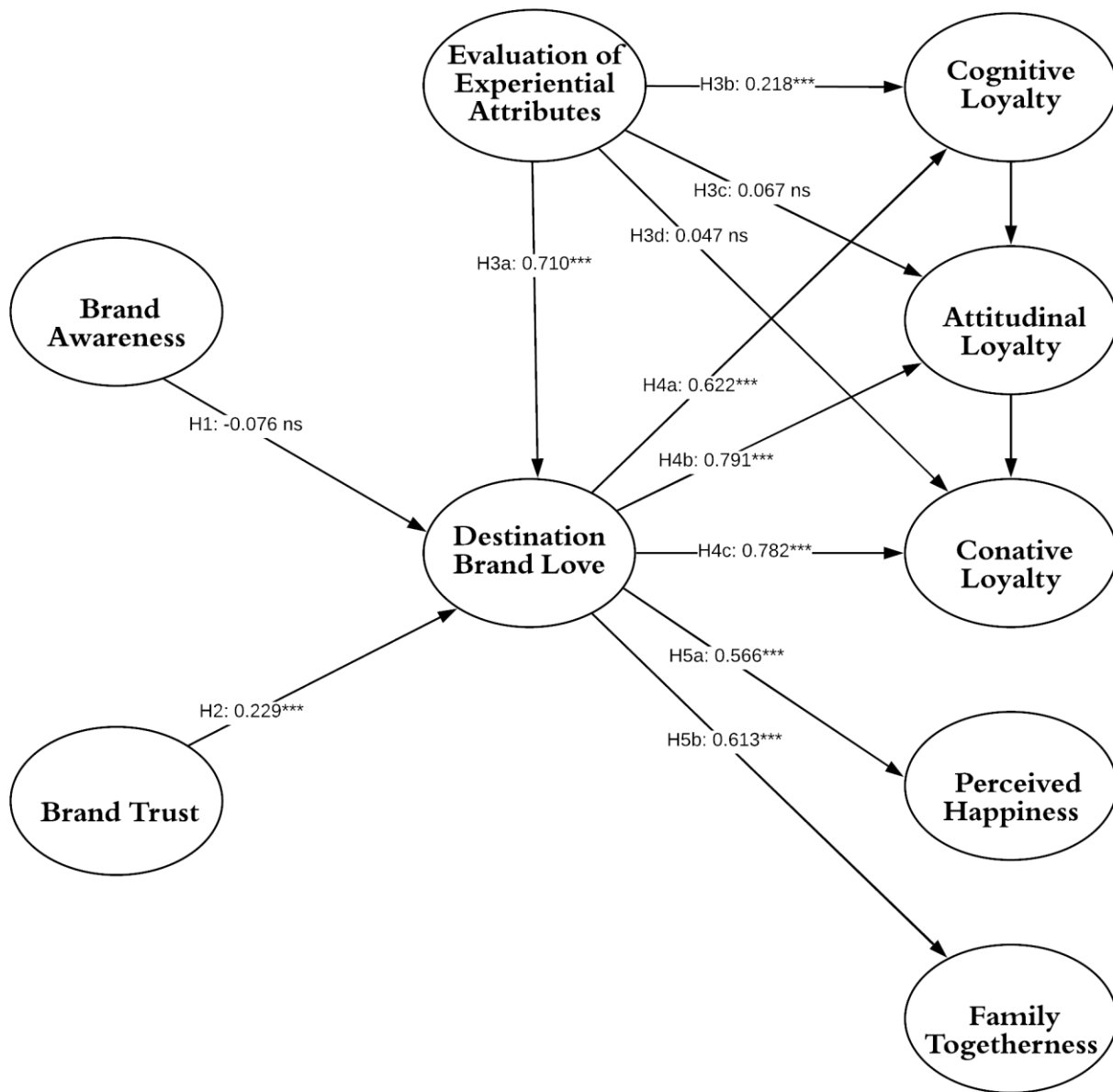
Table 13 shows that most hypothesis testing results were statistically significant. Thus, the data supported most of the proposed hypotheses. However, there are three exceptions. The construct brand awareness did not exert any meaningful and significant influence on the construct destination brand love. Therefore, the data rejected H1.

Similarly, the evaluation of experiential attributes as a construct did not show any significant influence on attitudinal loyalty. The results also rejected H3c. The data did not reveal any significant impact of the evaluation of experiential attributes on conative loyalty. Thus, the data rejected H3d. The data supported all the other hypotheses, either at the 0.001 or the 0.05 confidence interval level. Figure 7 displays the structural model results. The next few sections explain each hypothesis testing result one by one.

Table 13: Results of Path Relationships

	Relationship directionality	Standardized Regression Weights (<i>B</i>)	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	t Statistics	p-values	Accept/Reject
H1	Brand Awareness→ Destination Brand Love	-0.076 ^{ns}	0.041	1.872	0.062	<i>Reject</i>
H2	Brand Trust→ Destination Brand Love	0.229***	0.044	5.233	<0.001	Accept
H3a	Evaluation of Experiential Attributes → Destination Brand Love	0.710***	0.039	18.225	<0.001	Accept
H3b	Evaluation of Experiential Attributes → Cognitive Loyalty	0.218***	0.055	3.979	<0.001	Accept
H3c	Evaluation of Experiential Attributes→ Attitudinal Loyalty	0.067 ^{ns}	0.050	1.355	0.176	<i>Reject</i>
H3d	Evaluation of Experiential Attributes→ Conative Loyalty	0.047 ^{ns}	0.055	0.853	0.394	<i>Reject</i>
H4a	Destination brand love→ Cognitive Loyalty	0.622***	0.053	11.800	<0.001	Accept
H4b	Destination brand love→ Attitudinal Loyalty	0.791***	0.047	16.913	<0.001	Accept
H4c	Destination brand love→ Conative Loyalty	0.782***	0.048	16.225	<0.001	Accept
H5a	Destination brand love→ Perceived Happiness	0.566***	0.051	11.192	<0.001	Accept
H5b	Destination brand love→ Family Togetherness	0.613***	0.035	17.756	<0.001	Accept
Hloy1	Cognitive loyalty→ Attitudinal loyalty	0.434***	0.054	8.058	<0.001	Accept
Hloy2	Attitudinal loyalty→ Conative loyalty	0.569***	0.056	10.249	<0.001	Accept

Note: * p < 0.05. ** p < 0.01. *** p < 0.001. ns: non-significant



Note: * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$. ns: non-significant

Figure 7: The Structural Model

4.5.2.1 The influence of brand awareness on destination brand love (H1).

Brand awareness did not show any significant effect on destination brand love ($\beta=-0.076$, $p>.05$, $t=1.872$; $S.E=0.041$). For every unit increase in brand awareness, there was 0.076 unit decrease in destination brand love, but in an insignificant way ($p=0.062$). Therefore, *Hypothesis 1-Destination brand awareness will have a positive effect on destination brand love* was rejected by the data.

4.5.2.2 The influence of brand trust on destination brand love (H2).

If there is no trust in a brand, consumers may not even try or experience a brand, nonetheless like or love a brand. Results reaffirmed this argument. As shown in Table 12, the direct effect of brand trust on destination brand love was statistically significant at .001 level ($\beta= 0.229$, $p<.001$, $t=5.233$; $S.E=0.044$). For every unit increase in brand trust, there was 0.229 unit increase in destination brand love, which is statistically significant ($p<.001$). Therefore, the data supported *Hypothesis 2-Destination brand trust will have a positive effect on destination brand love*.

Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 both look at how pre-existing brand beliefs influence tourist destination brand love. In this study, brand awareness and brand trust have already been established before a tourist starts to obtain on-site visiting experiences at Shanghai Disneyland. Hypothesis 3a through 3e explores the influences of on-site tourist perception on destination brand love and sequential stages of brand loyalty.

4.5.2.3 The influence of the evaluation of experiential attributes on destination brand love (H3a).

According to Table 12, *H3a “evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on destination brand love”* was also accepted ($\beta=0.710$, $p<.001$, $t=18.225$; $S.E=0.039$). For every

unit increase in the evaluation of experiential attributes, destination brand love increases by 0.710 of a unit. The path coefficient β is highly robust, indicating an impact that is not only statistically significant but also strong. Tourists who reported a higher level of evaluation of experiential attributes had stronger brand love towards the Shanghai Disney Resort. Besides, all items under the construct of evaluation of experiential attributes were statistically significant at .001 level. Thus the following 12 items all play significant roles in enhancing destination brand love:

- 1) Quality of merchandise;
- 2) Service;
- 3) Special events/festivals;
- 4) Price for activities and events;
- 5) Local transportation;
- 6) Access to the resort;
- 7) Cultural elements;
- 8) Admission ticket price;
- 9) Atmosphere;
- 10) Safety and security;
- 11) Food quality; and
- 12) Cuisine choices

4.5.2.4 The influence of the evaluation of experiential attributes on cognitive loyalty (H3b).

Hypothesis 3b proposed that the evaluation of experiential attributes *will have a positive effect on cognitive loyalty*. The structural model results provided sufficient evidence to support this hypothesis ($\beta=0.218$, $p<.001$, $t=3.979$; $S.E=0.055$). For every unit increase in the evaluation of

experiential attributes, there was 0.218 of a unit statistically significant increase in cognitive loyalty. The path coefficient β ($\beta=0.218$) is significant at .001 level, indicating that the evaluation of experiential attributes does play a meaningful role in the first phase of loyalty formation.

4.5.2.5 The influence of the evaluation of experiential attributes on attitudinal loyalty (H3c).

After cognitive loyalty, the next phase of loyalty formation is the establishment of attitudinal loyalty (Oliver, 1999). Hypothesis 3c hypothesizes that the *evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty*. The data in the current study, however, rejected Hypothesis 3c ($\beta=0.067$, $p=0.176$, $t=1.355$, $S.E=0.050$). For every unit increase in the evaluation of experiential attributes, there was 0.067 unit increase in attitudinal loyalty, a statistically insignificant result though. Therefore, the evaluation of experiential attributes had no significant or meaningful effects on attitudinal loyalty.

4.5.2.6 The influence of the evaluation of experiential attributes on conative loyalty (H3d).

Hypothesis H3d posits that *evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on conative loyalty*. The data rejected this hypothesis ($\beta=0.047$, $p=0.394$, $t=0.853$, $S.E=0.055$), which means that the parameter estimate of the path was statistically insignificant ($p>0.05$) at the 0.05 confidence interval level. For every unit increase in the evaluation of experiential attributes, there was no significant increase in conative loyalty. In other words, the evaluation of experiential attributes did not exert any significant influences on conative loyalty.

4.5.2.8 The influence of destination brand love on cognitive loyalty (H4a).

Hypothesis 4a posits that *Destination Brand Love will have a positive effect on Cognitive Loyalty*. As predicted, the data supported this hypothesis. Destination Brand Love exerted a positive and highly significant impact on Cognitive Loyalty ($\beta=0.622$, $p<0.001$, $t=11.800$, $S.E=0.053$). The β coefficient was also strong. The result implies that as Destination Brand Love increases by 1-unit, cognitive dissonance decreases by 0.964 unit. Thus, the more visitors develop a strong sense of love towards a destination, the more cognitively loyal they become.

4.5.2.9 The influence of destination brand love on attitudinal loyalty (H4b).

The testing result of Hypothesis 4b (*Destination brand love will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty*) showed that Destination Brand Love has a meaningful and positive influence on Attitudinal Loyalty ($\beta=0.791$, $p<0.001$, $t=16.913$, $S.E=0.047$). Notably, the β coefficient for the regression path in H4b is the greatest among the results in the present study. As Destination Brand Love goes up by 1, Attitudinal Loyalty goes down by 0.791, a positive and significant result. The result implied that the more visitors experience a feeling of love towards branded destinations, the more attitudinally loyal they will be.

4.5.2.10 The influence of destination brand love on conative loyalty (H4c).

H4c *Destination brand love will have a positive effect on conative loyalty* was also supported by the data ($\beta=0.782$, $p<0.001$, $t=16.225$, $S.E=0.048$). The β coefficient for the regression path in H4c is the second highest among all path results, indicating that Destination Brand Love also exerted a strong influence on the third stage of brand loyalty: conative loyalty. For every unit increase in Destination Brand Love, there was 0.782 unit increase in Conative Loyalty, a statistically significant

finding. The result shows that Destination Brand Love has a meaningful and positive effect on conative loyalty.

4.5.2.12 The influence of destination brand love on perceived happiness (H5a).

The next set of hypotheses concerns with direct effects of destination brand love on a personal construct: perceived happiness. *H5a* predicts that destination brand love will have a positive effect on the perceived happiness of visitors. Path estimates supported this hypothesis ($\beta=0.566$, $p<0.001$, $t=11.192$, $S.E=0.051$). Thus, there was sufficient evidence of the statistically significant and positive influence of destination brand love on the perceived happiness of visitors. According to the results, destination brand love holds an important role in enhancing visitors' level of perceived happiness.

4.5.2.13 The influence of destination brand love on family togetherness (H5b).

The last path in the proposed model, *H5b*, postulates that *destination brand love will have a positive effect on family togetherness*. The results accepted this hypothesis as well at the 0.001 confidence interval level ($\beta=0.613$, $p<0.001$, $t=17.756$, $S.E=0.035$). Note that this path is also positive in direction, as hypothesized. For every unit increase in Destination Brand Love, there was 0.613 unit increase in Family Togetherness, a statistically significant result.

In general, most hypotheses in this dissertation were corroborated by empirical results (Table 12), in which very different outcome was evidenced for brand awareness. Although theoretically, establishing brand awareness is a fundamental step towards developing visitors' destination brand love, a high level of brand awareness does not necessarily bring about a high level of destination brand love. In other words, brand awareness by itself is insufficient to ensure brand love among

visitors at a particular destination. Some other factors contribute significantly to enhancing destination brand love. As evidenced in this dissertation, brand trust and evaluation of experiential attributes are two significant factors. They both significantly contributed to destination brand love, which in turn, contributed significantly to ideal business performance (i.e., brand loyalty), individual (perceived happiness), and family level (family togetherness) outcomes. Destination brand love functions as a link in the chain of effects associating brand trust with the business performance aspects of destination brand equity.

In summary, brand trust and evaluation of experiential attributes drive destination brand love to a great extent. It promotes not only ideal business outcomes, i.e., four sequential stages of destination brand loyalty, but also individual- and family-based benefits through an enhanced level of perceived happiness and family togetherness.

4.5.2.14 The influence of cognitive loyalty on attitudinal loyalty (Hloy1).

To unveil whether the development of destination brand loyalty follows four sequential stages, the researcher tested Hloy1 “*cognitive loyalty will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty.*” The path results suggested that cognitive loyalty generated positive and significant influences on attitudinal loyalty ($\beta=0.434$, $p<0.001$, $t= 8.058$, $S.E= 0.054$). For every unit increase in cognitive loyalty, there was 0.434 unit increase in attitudinal loyalty. Therefore, the first stage of loyalty development was confirmed.

4.5.2.15 The influence of attitudinal loyalty on conative loyalty (Hloy2).

Attitudinal and conative loyalty represent the second and third stages of loyalty development. Hloy2 posits that attitudinal loyalty will have a positive effect on conative loyalty. The model testing

results accepted this hypothesis ($\beta=0.569$, $p<0.001$, $t= 10.249$, $S.E= 0.056$). The higher attitudinal loyalty is, the higher conative loyalty will be. The path coefficient β is highly robust at the 99.9% confidence interval level, indicating a strong influence of attitudinal loyalty on conative loyalty.

4.5.3 Coefficient of determination (R^2).

The coefficient R^2 is a communally used measure to evaluate structural models in PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2017; Sarstedt, Ringle, Henseler, & Hair, 2014). It stands for exogenous latent variables' joint influences on endogenous latent variables. Specifically, it represents “the amount of variance in the endogenous constructs explained by all of the exogenous constructs linked to it” (Hair et al., 2017, p. 198). Like path loadings, R^2 also ranges from 0 to 1. Chin (1998, p. 323) suggested three cut-off points to determine the R^2 (degree of variance): 0.19 (weak), 0.33 (moderate), and 0.67 (substantial). Tourism researchers have widely used Chin’s (1998) cut-off points (e.g., Ayeh, Au, Law, 2013).

As shown in Table 14, the model in this study could explain 71.5% of the variance in attitudinal loyalty, 65.4% of the variance in cognitive loyalty, and 67.1% of the variance in conative loyalty. According to Chin (1998), the results indicate that exogenous latent constructs in the conceptual model explained four sequential stages of brand loyalty substantially.

Table 14: Values of R^2 of Endogenous Constructs

	Explained variance (R^2)	S.E.	p-values	Confidence Interval 95%
Attitudinal Loyalty	0.715	0.034	<.001	[0.643, 0.777]
Cognitive Loyalty	0.654	0.037	<.001	[0.575, 0.715]
Conative Loyalty	0.671	0.031	<.001	[0.601, 0.723]
Destination Brand Love	0.688	0.037	<.001	[0.601, 0.752]
Family Togetherness	0.374	0.042	<.001	[0.290, 0.455]
Perceived Happiness	0.319	0.057	<.001	[0.207, 0.420]

Note: R^2 is only applicable to endogenous constructs in the conceptual model.

Furthermore, the model explained 68.8% of the variance in the endogenous latent construct destination brand love, a substantial predictive power (Chin, 1998). The percentages of R^2 values in family togetherness and perceived happiness were 37.4% and 31.9% respectively. Therefore, the proposed model moderately reflects the influences of visitors' destination brand love on their happiness and family cohesion (Chin, 1998).

4.5.4 Effect size (f^2).

Following Hair et al.'s (2017) structural model testing steps, the researcher evaluated f^2 effect size, which measures the degree to which exogenous latent constructs contribute to endogenous constructs' R^2 values. Values of f^2 are calculated based on R^2 values. When an exogenous latent construct was deleted from a structural model, the R^2 values of endogenous latent constructs could change. Thus, researchers need to determine whether the omitted exogenous latent construct could have a significant impact on endogenous variables. Researchers should examine f^2 effect size to determine the significance of this influence.

In this dissertation, Hair et al.'s. (2017, p. 201) formula to calculate f^2 was adopted. Cohen (1988) and Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics (2009) suggested that f^2 effect size values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 indicate small, medium, and large effects. As displayed in Table 15, the omission of the construct destination brand love could influence the R^2 values of the four sequential stages of brand loyalty significantly. Excluding destination brand love from the path model could cause substantial changes in the R^2 values of attitudinal loyalty ($f^2=0.742$), and conative loyalty ($f^2=0.627$) (Cohen, 1988; Henseler et al. 2009). However, this exclusion will only yield medium changes in the R^2 value of cognitive loyalty ($f^2=0.377$) (Cohen, 1988; Henseler et al. 2009).

Table 15: Values of f^2 Effect Size

Construct	DBLove	CogL	AL	ConL	PH	FT
BA→	0.011					
BT→	0.082					
Eval→	0.994	0.046	0.005	0.002		
DBLove→		0.377	0.742	0.627	0.471	0.601

Note: AL=Attitudinal Loyalty; BA=Brand Awareness; BT=Brand Trust; CogL=Cognitive Loyalty; ConL=Conative Loyalty; DBLove=Destination Brand Love; FT=Family Togetherness; PH=Perceived Happiness; Eval= Evaluation of Experiential Attributes

Similarly, excluding the exogenous latent construct evaluation of experiential attributes will bring about fundamental changes in the R^2 values of destination brand love ($f^2=0.994$), but only small changes in those of cognitive loyalty ($f^2=0.046$), attitudinal loyalty ($f^2=0.005$), and conative loyalty ($f^2=0.002$). Besides, the omission of the construct brand awareness will produce only small changes in the R^2 value of destination brand love ($f^2=0.011$). The exclusion of the construct brand trust will also create small changes in the R^2 value of destination brand love ($f^2=0.082$).

4.5.5 Blindfolding and predictive relevance (Q^2)

Blindfolding is usually applied to reflective versus formative model specification as well as to single-item construct model specification (Hair et al., 2017). Latent constructs in this study are all reflective, thereby further validating the use of the blindfolding procedure as a supplement for predictive power testing. The researcher conducted the blindfolding procedure in SmartPLS M 3.0 to examine cross-validated redundancy. As shown in Table 16, all the Q^2 values of endogenous latent constructs significantly surpassed zero, evident of the model's predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 16: Predictive Relevance by Blindfolding (Q^2)

	SSO	SSE	Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)
Attitudinal Loyalty	1,281.000	565.265	0.559
Brand Awareness	2,562.000	2,562.000	
Brand Trust	1,708.000	1,708.000	
Cognitive Loyalty	1,708.000	812.262	0.524
Conative Loyalty	854.000	342.362	0.599
Destination Brand Love	7,686.000	4,393.468	0.428
Family Togetherness	1,708.000	1,292.818	0.243
Perceived Happiness	1,281.000	981.916	0.233
Evaluation of Experiential Attributes	5,124.000	5,124.000	

4.6 A Competing Model

As mentioned earlier in Chapter One, the researcher proposed a total of ten latent constructs in the conceptual framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love in a theme-park visitation context (Figure 2). Considering that, in the present study, measurement items were revised to reflect the theme park visitation context, it is helpful to conduct an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of all items in the measurement model. The purpose of conducting an EFA was two-fold. Firstly, it aimed to verify pre-specified dimensions and to identify underlying factors and possible competing model(s). Secondly, the researcher intended to get a better understanding of other potential path relationships between latent constructs studied.

The researcher selected Principal Axis Factoring as the extraction method and Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization as the rotation method. As Field (2013) noted, Principal Axis Factoring and Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization are preferred methods for EFA and are also the most commonly used (Field, 2013; Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). The result of Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 (1770) = 21192.24, p < .001$). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy far

surpassed Field's (2013) threshold of 0.5. To examine factor loadings, the researcher adopted Tabachnick and Fidell's (2013) rule of thumb that factor loadings should be above 0.32 in order to be retained. All items generated factor loadings larger than 0.32. Therefore, the researcher retained all items for subsequent analyses.

As Table 17 displays, the factor-analytic solution yielded six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. These six factors were labelled destination brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived happiness and family togetherness, evaluation of experiential attributes, brand trust, and destination brand love. The first factor, destination brand loyalty, explained a particularly large share of the variances (46.87%). The second to the sixth factor, brand awareness, explained smaller shares of variances (5.06%). In total, the six factors accounted for 62.18% of the variances in endogenous latent constructs.

Table 17: Factor Analysis of Measurement Items

Factors	1	2	3	4	5	6	Communalities
Destination brand loyalty							
15_1: It provided me superior service quality as compared to other places I have been to	.848						.826
15_2: No other destination performed better than it	.873						.842
15_3: The overall quality of Shanghai Disney Resort is the best as a tourism destination	.812						.842
15_4: It provided me with more good experiences than other places	.887						.887
15_5: I loved visiting here	.828						.804
15_6: I like Shanghai Disney Resort more than other destinations	.729						.732
15_7: I felt good when I stayed here	.363						.193
15_8: If I am given a chance, I intend to continue making my holiday at Shanghai Disney Resort	.826						.836
15_9: I consider it to be my first holiday choice	.819						.834
15_10: I will say positive things about it to other people	.854						.880
15_11: I will encourage my friends and relatives to visit it	.855						.897
15_12: I will recommend it to my friends	.847						.906
15_13: I intend to visit it again	.370						.177
15_14: If I hear something bad about Shanghai Disney Resort, I will question it in own mind first	.711						.632
Brand awareness							

6_1: I am very familiar with the Disney brand	.447	.528
6_2: This brand is well known	.714	.648
6_3: I have heard of Disney before	.833	.678
6_4: Disney is very famous	.895	.724
6_5: Disney is visible.	.538	.457
Perceived happiness and family togetherness		
11_1: In general, I consider myself a very happy person	.699	.745
11_2: Compared to most of my peers, I am a happy person	.645	.707
11_3: I am generally happy. I enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything.	.702	.590
13_1: My family gets along well with each other	.700	.570
13_2: I thought the entire family enjoyed the visiting experience at Shanghai Disney Resort	.741	.756
13_3: Our family kinship was increased	.743	.688
13_4: We enjoyed the time spent with my family together	.806	.714
Evaluation of Experiential Attributes		
10_6: The quality of merchandise is good	.597	.666
10_7: The service is friendly	.637	.692
10_8: There is a variety of special events/festivals	.629	.627
10_9: The price for activities and events is reasonable	.718	.585
10_13: The local transportation is convenient	.618	.621
10_14: To access the resort is easy	.706	.656
10_15: There is a variety of	.701	.653

culture options		
10_16: The price for sightseeing is reasonable	.730	.590
10_17: The atmosphere is restful	.591	.695
10_18: Safety and security are good	.595	.701
10_19: The food quality is good	.696	.778
10_20: There is a variety of cuisine	.690	.752
Brand trust		
7_1: Disney is genuinely committed to my satisfaction	.824	.730
7_2: When I see a Disney advertisement, I believe that the information in it is accurate	.907	.807
7_3: Most of what Disney says about it is true	.805	.772
Brand trust		
Destination brand love		
14_1: It makes my visit more meaningful	.647	.785
14_2: I felt myself desiring visiting it	.503	.802
14_3: I have the feeling of desire toward visiting it	.433	.831
14_4: I am willing to spend time visiting it	.449	.845
14_5: Shanghai Disney Resort meets my visiting expectations	.704	.791
14_6: I'm emotionally connected to it	.648	.731
14_7: Shanghai Disney Resort (thereafter "it") makes me relaxed	.787	.756
14_8: It is fun	.832	.835
14_9: It is exciting	.819	.838
14_10: It is pleasurable	.818	.800
14_11: I feel sense of long-time commitment to it	.628	.660

14_12: It will be part of my life						.711	.760
14_13: I like Shanghai Disney Resort						.773	.838
14_14: My overall feelings/evaluations towards Shanghai Disney Resort are positive						.675	.793
14_15: I am satisfied with it						.775	.863
14_16: I am certain of my evaluations of it						.596	.685
14_17: I frequently find myself thinking about it						.744	.833
14_18: It pops into my mind						.752	.832
Eigenvalues	28.435	3.375	2.556	1.84	1.567	1.535	
Variance explained (%)	46.871	5.061	3.626	2.46	2.104	2.056	
Cumulative variance explained (%)	46.871	51.932	55.558	58.017	60.122	62.178	
Cronbach's α	.817	.913	.883	.925	.969	.916	
Average of factor scores	5.961	5.249	5.824	4.191	5.421	5.294	

The factor loadings of measurement items ranged between 0.363 and 0.895, meeting the threshold suggested by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998). The Cronbach's alphas for the six factors were robust, ranging from 0.817 to 0.969. They all surpassed the generally adopted threshold of 0.60 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), indicating high internal consistency among the variables within each factor. Two items under the construct evaluation of experiential attributes (the atmosphere is restful; safety and security are good) cross-loaded. One item ("I felt good when I stayed here") under the attitudinal loyalty construct cross-loaded. The other measurement items under brand awareness, evaluation of experiential attributes brand trust, and destination brand love all loaded significantly on factors as the researcher conceptualized. Generally speaking, factor loadings of the 59 items presented a clean and highly interpretable solution of the six-factor competing model which comprises of destination brand love, destination brand loyalty, brand

awareness, perceived happiness and family togetherness, evaluation of experiential attributes, and brand trust.

It was no surprise that measurement items of family togetherness and perceived happiness loaded on one factor. The literature (e.g., Shaw et al., 2008) suggested that the meaning of family vacations and family excursions is that families get chances to get together to enjoy some quality time together, to create happy family memories, and to get rid of mundane daily life and working schedule. Disney's mantra is children and parents going together for a family vacation and family togetherness. Measurement items of family togetherness and perceived happiness differed regarding magnitude though. A closer look at the factor loadings revealed that the factor loadings of family togetherness were all above 0.70, and those of perceived happiness were 0.70 or below.

As a final approach to model assessment, comparing the proposed conceptual framework (Figure 2) with a competing model allows alternative explanations to the proposed model. All measurement items from the original proposed model were retained for use in the competing model to maintain the integrity of the original measurement items and to ensure that the competing model is exactly based on the variables identified in EFA. The differences between the competing model and the proposed model are that all four sequential stages of brand loyalty merged into one construct named "destination brand loyalty" and family togetherness and perceived happiness merged into one construct named "individual happiness and family togetherness." In the subsequent competing model path analysis, "destination brand loyalty" and "individual happiness and family togetherness" were used as latent constructs.

Figure 8 displays the results of the structural model testing of the competing model. Similar to the original structural model, brand awareness did not generate any significant influences on destination brand love ($\beta=-0.076$, $p>.05$, $t=1.906$; $S.E=0.040$). This result informs that the competing

model based on EFA results still suggested that knowing the Disney brand does not necessarily bring about destination brand love, partly because the Disney brand is too pervasive. Merely knowing Shanghai Disney Resort does not mean visitors have an intense emotional bond with it.

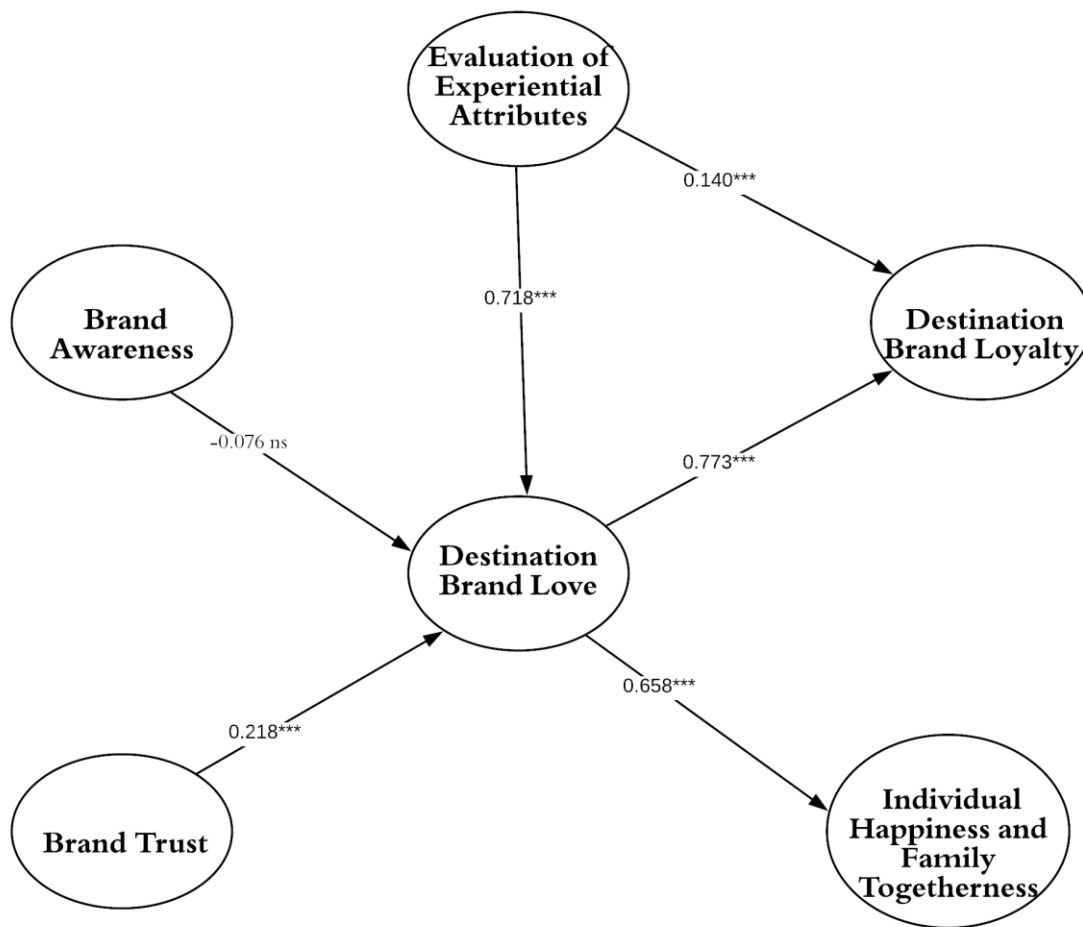


Figure 8: The Competing Model: Structural Model

Five of the six paths in the competing model were significant and indicated positive relationships between constructs. The most robust path existed in the link between destination brand

love and destination brand loyalty ($\beta=0.773, p<.001, t=19.886; S.E=0.039$). The impact of evaluation of experiential attributes on destination brand love was the second strongest ($\beta=0.718, p<.001, t=18.914; S.E=0.038$). Destination brand love influenced individual happiness and family togetherness in a positive and highly significant ($\beta=0.658, p<.001, t=20.417; S.E=0.032$). In a similar vein, brand trust impacted destination brand love in a significant way ($\beta=0.218, p<.001, t=5.001; S.E=0.044$). Evaluation of experiential attributes also exerted significant influences on destination brand loyalty ($\beta=0.140, p<.001, t=3.188; S.E=0.044$). From the perspective of path coefficients, the competing model generated path results that were highly similar to those in the original structural model generally, therefore suggesting that the original model is highly informative and competent.

The researcher then compared R^2 values in the original model with those in the competing model. The original model explained 68.8% (substantial), 37.4% (moderate) and 31.9% (moderate) of the variance in destination brand love, family togetherness, and perceived happiness respectively (Chin, 1998). It explained 65.4% (substantial), 71.5% (substantial), 67.1% (substantial), and 71.6% (substantial) of the variances in cognitive loyalty, attitudinal loyalty, and conative loyalty.

The competing model is more data-driven and less theory-driven. It, according to Chin (1998), explained 68.9% of the variances in destination brand love, showing a substantial predictive power. The percentages of R^2 values in the combined construct “individual happiness and family togetherness” was 43.3%, suggesting a moderate predictive power (Chin, 1998). Moreover, it explained 79.4% of the variances in the combined construct “destination brand loyalty,” also indicating a substantial predictive power (Chin, 1998). The competing model’s power to predict the combined construct loyalty construct appeared to be stronger than that in the original model. Moreover, the competing model explained more variance in predicting the combined “individual happiness and family togetherness” construct.

4.7 Mediation Analysis (*H6a*, *H6b*, and *H6c*)

This study examined not only direct effects between exogenous and endogenous variables but also evaluates indirect effects of evaluation of experiential attributes on sequential stages of destination brand loyalty (cognitive, attitudinal, and conative) via the mediating construct destination brand love. The researcher adopted the bootstrapping procedure in SmartPLS M 3.0 to test the mediating effects of the destination brand love construct. In Chapter Two, the researcher put forward four mediation hypotheses (*H6a*, *H6b*, *H6c*, and *H6d*). *H6a* postulates that “destination brand love mediates the direct relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty.” *H6b* posits that “destination brand love mediates the direct relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty.” *H6c* hypothesizes that “destination brand love mediates the direct relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty.”

Path analysis determined destination brand love’s mediation effects. According to Table 18, this study proposed four paths regarding the mediation effects of destination brand love in the evaluation of experiential attributes → loyalty relationships. There are direct paths (evaluation of experiential attributes → cognitive loyalty; evaluation of experiential attributes → attitudinal loyalty; evaluation of experiential attributes → conative loyalty) and indirect paths (evaluation of experiential attributes → destination brand love → cognitive loyalty; evaluation of experiential attributes → destination brand love → attitudinal loyalty; evaluation of experiential attributes → destination brand love → conative loyalty).

Table 18: Mediation Analysis

Paths	Direct effect		Indirect effect		Mediation
	95% CI		95% CI		
		<i>Confidence Interval 95%</i>		<i>Confidence Interval 95%</i>	
H6a: Eval → Cognitive Loyalty	0.218***	[0.113, 0.328]	0.442	[0.442, 0.439]	Partial
H6b: Eval → Attitudinal Loyalty	0.067 ns	[-0.052, 0.153]	0.562	[0.562, 0.559]	Full mediation
H6c: Eval → Conative Loyalty	0.047 ns	[-0.051, 0.165]	0.555	[0.555, 0.557]	Full mediation

Notes: 1. Eval= Evaluation of experiential attributes

2. * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$. ns: non-significant

The first step in interpreting mediation results is to explain direct effects and total effects (Hair et al., 2017). Evaluation of experiential attributes has a significant and positive total effect on cognitive loyalty ($\beta = 0.218$; $p < 0.001$, $CI = 0.113-0.328$). Therefore, the data supported *H6a*. In contrast, no significant or effects were observed in the *H6b* evaluation of experiential attributes → attitudinal loyalty ($\beta = 0.067$, $p > 0.05$, $CI = -0.052-0.153$) and *H6c* evaluation of experiential attributes → conative loyalty ($\beta = 0.047$, $p > 0.05$, $CI = -0.051-0.165$) relationships. Hence the data rejected *H6b* and *H6c*.

According to Zhao et al. (2010), in the evaluation of experiential attributes → cognitive loyalty (*H6a*) relationship, there might be complementary or competitive mediation happening. However, for the paths evaluation of experiential attributes → attitudinal loyalty (*H6b*) and evaluation of experiential attributes → conative loyalty (*H6c*), there might be no indirect only mediation happening or no mediation at all (Zhao et al., 2010). To determine whether mediation effects do exist requires a second step to test indirect effects.

The second step was to interpret indirect effects after adding the mediator destination brand love (Hair et al., 2017). As shown in the right half of Table 16, destination brand love either fully or

partially mediated the relationships between the evaluation of experiential attributes and sequential stages of destination brand loyalty (cognitive, attitudinal, and conative) positively. Even though the path testing results demonstrated that evaluation of experiential attributes did not express statistically significant effects on attitudinal loyalty and conative loyalty (*H3c* and *H3d*) at the .05 level, the influences of evaluation of experiential attributes on these two sequential stages of loyalty turned out to be highly significant after taking into account the indirect effect through destination brand love. Specifically, the mediation effect of destination brand love in the evaluation of experiential attributes → attitudinal loyalty relationship (*H6b*) was positive and statistically significant ($\beta = 0.562$, $p < 0.001$, $CI = 0.562 - 0.559$). Similarly, the mediation effect of destination brand love in the evaluation of experiential attributes → conative loyalty relationship (*H6c*) was also positive and statistically significant ($\beta = 0.555$, $p < 0.001$, $CI = 0.555 - 0.557$).

As for the relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty (*H6c*), it remains statistically significant after considering indirect effects of destination brand love ($\beta = 0.442$, $p < 0.001$, $CI = 0.442 - 0.439$). Both the direct and indirect effects of evaluation of experiential attributes on cognitive loyalty (*H6c*) were statistically significant at the .001 level. The addition of the indirect effect of destination brand love increased the path coefficient from 0.218 ($p < 0.001$) to 0.442 ($p < 0.001$), a remarkable over 0.2 jump. As suggested by Zhao et al. (2010), this type of mediation effect is complementary mediation, which refers to the situation where both indirect and direct effects are significant and point in the same direction. This result echoed previous findings that evaluation of experiential attributes is an important trigger of visitors' cognitive loyalty, and its triggering effect can be further strengthened when visitors develop a strong feeling of love towards branded destinations.

4.8 Moderating Analysis (*H7a, H7b_1, H7b_2, and H7b_3*)

In structural equation models, moderators could be either observable traits such as demographic information (e.g., age group, income) or unobservable or latent traits such as attitudes and perceptions (Hair et al., 2017). Moderators can also be categorical (e.g., gender) or continuous (e.g., income). To examine moderating effects in the conceptual model, the researcher conducted a series of moderating analyses in SmartPLS M 3.0 using the bootstrapping procedure.

In SmartPLS, there are three moderation approaches available: the indicator approach, the orthogonalizing approach, and the two-stage approach (Hair et al., 2017). The indicator approach is not generally recommended for use in SmartPLS because it unavoidably causes collinearity in the path model (Hair et al., 2017). The orthogonalizing approach is only suitable when the exogenous construct/variable and the moderator construct/variable are both reflective, instead of formative (Hair et al., 2017). If either the exogenous construct/variable or the moderator construct/variable is formative, researchers should adopt the two-stage approach (Hair et al., 2017). However, if both the exogenous construct/variable and the moderator construct/variable are reflective, and the goal of the moderation analysis is to reveal the significance of the moderating effect, researchers should also follow the two-stage approach (Hair et al., 2017). Considering that this study's theoretical framework is entirely reflective and the purpose of conducting moderation analyses is to test the significance of the moderating effect, this study implements the two-stage approach, as suggested by Hair et al. (2017).

4.8.1 The moderating effect of income.

The income variable in this study, question 19, is a categorical variable, with 1 representing a personal after-tax monthly income of lower than 3,000 Chinese Yuan and 10 representing a personal

after-tax monthly income of more than 27,001 Chinese Yuan. The mean of this variable is 4.00, and its standard deviation is 2.53.

H7a hypothesized that “*income moderates the link between destination brand love and family togetherness significantly; specifically, the relationship between destination brand love and family togetherness is weaker for high-income visitors and stronger for low-income visitors.*” The moderation results generated by bootstrapping indicated that income exerted a negative effect on the relationship between destination brand love and family togetherness ($\beta = -0.116$; $p < 0.05$; $t = 2.902$; $S.E = 0.040$), whereas the simple effect of destination brand love and family togetherness is 0.613 ($p < 0.05$). Jointly, these results suggested that the relationship between destination brand love and family togetherness is 0.613 for an average level of income. For higher levels of income, this relationship decreases by the size of the interaction term. (i.e., $0.613 - 0.116 = 0.497$).

In contrast, for lower levels of income, this relationship increases by the size of 0.729, which is equal to $0.613 + 0.116$. The analysis yielded a p -value of 0.004 for the path linking the interaction term income and the endogenous construct destination brand love. Similarly, the 95% confidence interval of the interaction term’s effect is $[-0.193, -0.045]$, which does not include 0. Hence, we can conclude that the moderation effect is statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval level. In other words, the data supported Hypothesis 7b.

The moderation results showed that higher income levels entail a weaker relationship between visitors’ Destination Brand Love and Family Togetherness, while lower levels of income lead to a stronger relationship between visitors’ destination brand love and family togetherness. The boosting effect of destination brand love on family togetherness is higher for low-income visitors than for their high-income counterparts (Figure 9).

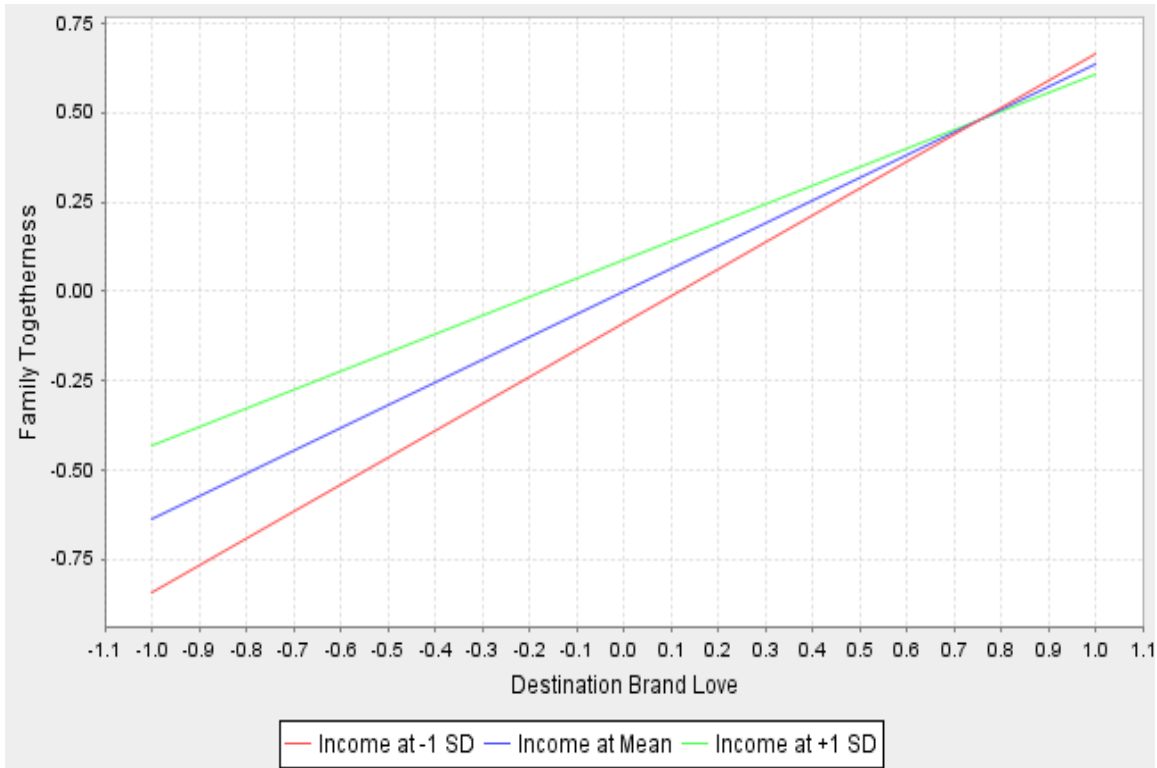


Figure 9: The Moderating Effect of Income on the Relationship between Destination Brand Love and Family Togetherness

4.8.2 The moderating effect of first-timers versus repeat visitors.

Question No.2 in the questionnaire asked respondents “is this your first time visiting Shanghai Disney Resort?” with one being “Yes” and two being “No.” This is also a categorical variable. The researcher dummy coded this variable to make one stand for “Yes” and 0 stands for “No.” The bootstrapping procedure in SmartPLS yielded the testing results of the moderating effect of this variable. Chapter Two proposes four hypotheses ($H7c_1$, $H7c_2$, $H7c_3$, and $H7c_4$) using this variable as a moderator; however, the data only supported one hypothesis ($H7c_3$).

$H7b_1$ postulates that “first-timers versus repeat visitors moderates the links between visitors’ evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty; specifically, the relationship between visitors’ evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty is weaker for first-timers

and stronger for repeat visitors.” The moderation results in the bootstrapping outputs revealed that the interaction term did not exert any significant effect of the relationship between evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty ($\beta= 0.033$; $p >0.05$; $t=0.852$; $S.E=0.039$) (Figure 10). The analysis yielded a p -value of 0.394 for the path linking the interaction term and the endogenous construct Cognitive Loyalty. Furthermore, the 95% confidence interval of the interaction term’s effect is [-0.041, 0.113], which includes 0. Thus, we can conclude that the moderation effect was statistically insignificant at the 95% confidence interval level. The data rejected Hypothesis 7c_1.

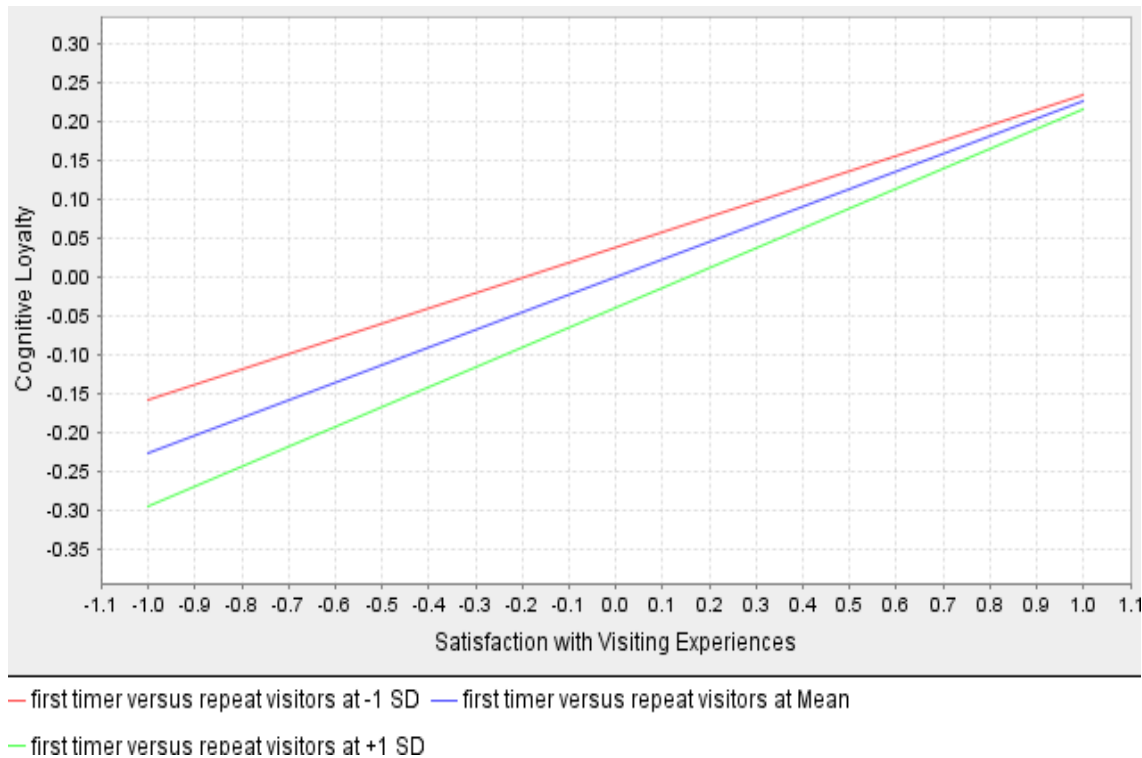


Figure 10: The Moderating Effect of First Timers versus Repeat Visitors on the Relationship between Evaluation of Experiential Attributes and Cognitive Loyalty

H7b_2 assumes that “*first-timers versus repeat visitors moderates the links between visitors’ evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty; specifically, the relationship between*

visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty is weaker for first-timers and stronger for repeat visitors.” The data also rejected this hypothesis. The moderation results in the bootstrapping outputs revealed that the interaction term did not exert any significant effect of the relationship between evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty ($\beta= 0.006$; $p >0.05$; $t= 0.198$; $S.E= 0.029$). The p -value for the path linking the interaction term and the endogenous construct attitudinal loyalty turned out to be 0.843, much bigger than 0.05, indicating a statistically insignificant moderation effect. Similarly, the 95% confidence interval of the interaction term's effect is [-0.047, 0.068], which spans 0, also implying an insignificant effect. Overall, the results provided explicit support that first-timers versus repeat visitors did not exert a significant effect on the relationship between visitors' evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal loyalty (Figure 11).

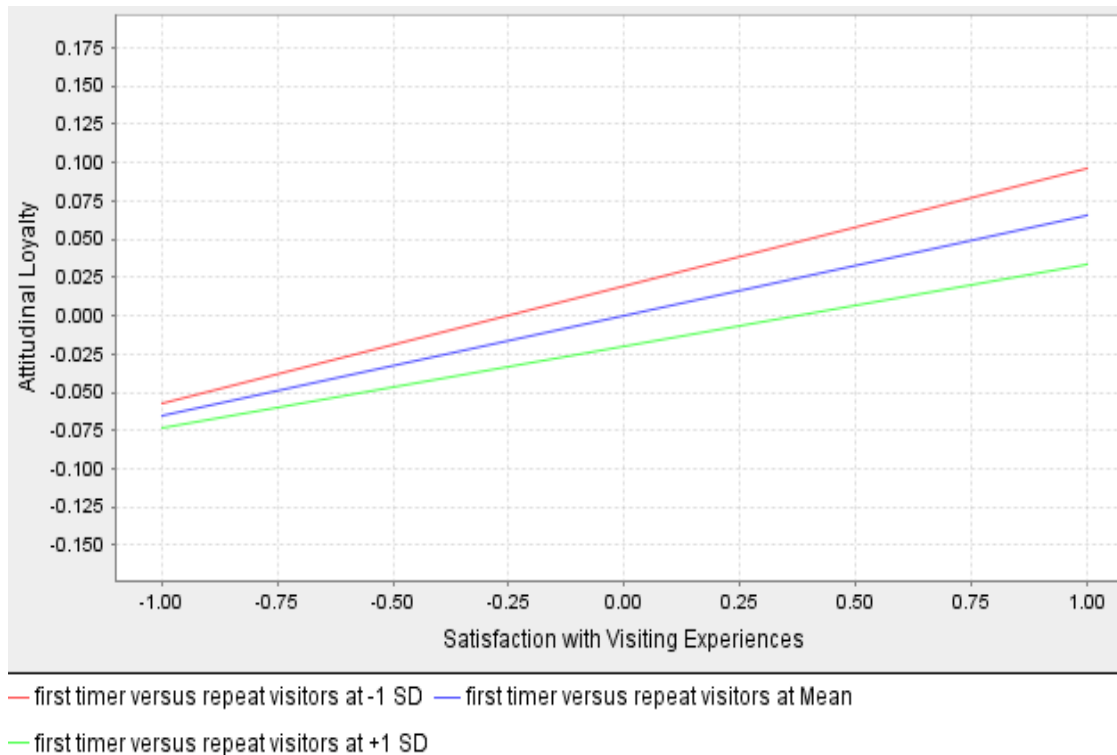


Figure 11: The Moderating Effect of First Timers versus Repeat Visitors on the Relationship between Evaluation of Experiential Attributes and Attitudinal Loyalty

H7b_3 conjectures that “*first-timers versus repeat visitors moderates the links between visitors’ evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty; specifically, the relationship between visitors’ evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty is weaker for first-timers and stronger for repeat visitors.*” The interaction term exerted a positive and significant effect on the endogenous construct conative loyalty ($\beta= 0.060$; $p <0.05$; $t= 2.154$; $S.E= 0.028$). The analysis yielded a significant p -value, 0.032, for the path linking the interaction term and the endogenous construct conative loyalty. The 95% confidence interval of the interaction term’s effect is [0.004, 0.115], including 0. Overall, these results fully supported this hypothesis by providing evidence that first-timers versus repeat visitors had a significant and positive impact on the relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty (Figure 12). In other words, the

influence of evaluation of experiential attributes on conative loyalty is stronger among repeat visitors.

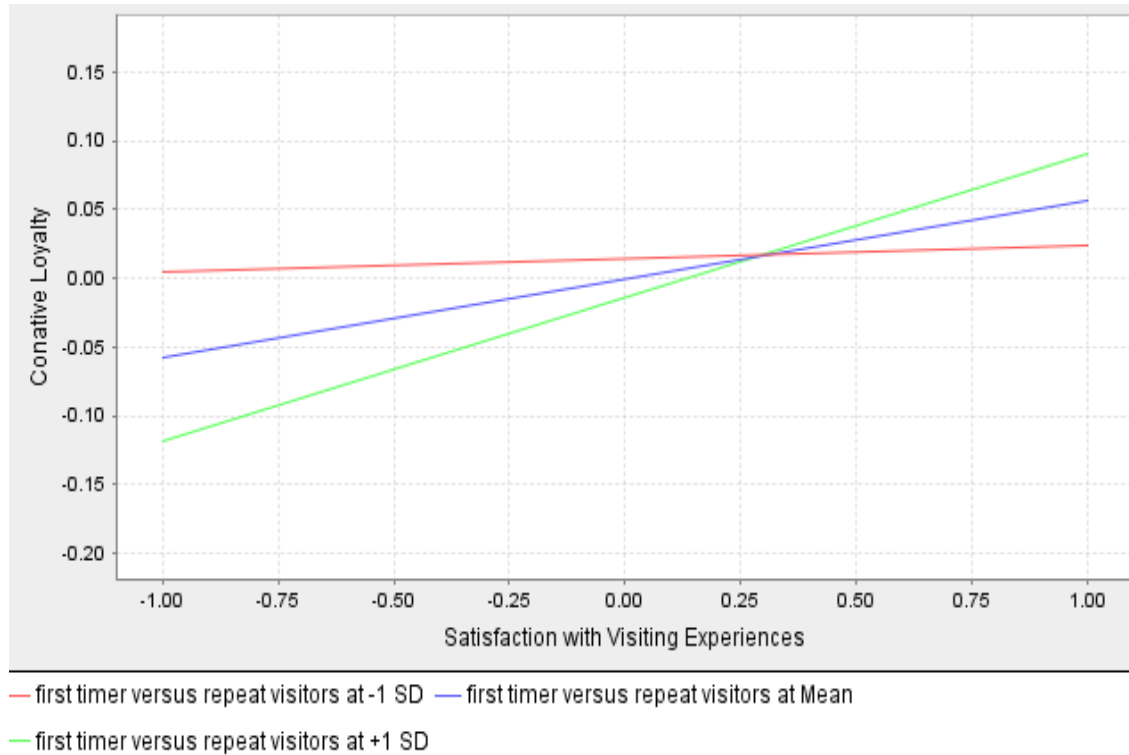


Figure 12: The Moderating Effect of First Timers versus Repeat Visitors on the Relationship between Evaluation of Experiential Attributes and Conative Loyalty

The simple effect of evaluation of experiential attributes on conative loyalty is 0.047 ($p>0.05$). For repeat visitors, the relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and conative loyalty increases by the size of the interaction term (i.e., $0.047+0.060=0.107$). On the contrary, for first-time visitors, this relationship becomes -0.013 ($0.047-0.060$). Therefore, the status of being a repeat visitor entail a stronger relationship between the evaluation of experiential

attributes and conative loyalty, while the status of being a first-time visitor lead to a weaker relationship.

Chapter Five: Discussion and Conclusion

As mentioned in the Introduction chapter, the first research objective was to validate and establish the marketing construct of destination brand love. Measurement items of each of sub-dimension showed satisfying reliability and validity and are ready to be adopted by future destination branding research. These items capture the following dimensions: self-brand integration (SBI), passion-driven behaviours (PDB), positive emotional connection (PEC), long-term relationship (LR), attitude valence (AV), and attitude strength (AS) (Batra et al., 2012).

This dissertation secondly aimed to propose, test, and establish a conceptual framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love in a theme-park tourism context. Data collected from 427 family visitors at Shanghai Disneytown suggested brand trust and evaluation of experiential attributes as two significant exogenous latent constructs leading to destination brand love, which, in turn, impacted sequential stages of destination brand loyalty (cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty), visitor perceived happiness and their family togetherness. Brand awareness turned out to have little influence on destination brand love.

The third objective of this dissertation was to test destination brand love's mediating role in the relationship between evaluation of experiential attributes and four sequential stages of destination brand loyalty (cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty). Bootstrapping results demonstrated that destination brand love functioned as a significant mediating construct in the relationship between the evaluation of experiential attributes and attitudinal brand loyalty and that between the evaluation of experiential attributes and conative brand loyalty. However, there was no significant mediating effect in the evaluation of experiential attributes → cognitive loyalty relationship.

Lastly, the fourth research objective was to examine the moderating role of income in the link between destination brand love and family togetherness and the moderating role of first-time versus repeat visitors in the link between the evaluation of experiential attributes and sequential stages of destination brand loyalty (cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty). Results indicated that for family visitors at branded destinations, the boosting effect of destination brand love on family togetherness was more significant for low-income families than for their high-income counterparts. Additionally, compared with first-time visitors, the influence of evaluation of experiential attributes on conative brand loyalty was stronger among repeat visitors. As a summary, the findings supported 15 out of the 20 hypotheses put forward in the Literature Review chapter.

This chapter discusses the results of a few hypotheses testing in the conceptual framework, as well as mediating assessments. This chapter comprises of ten sections. Section 5.1 provides a synopsis of the sub-dimensions of destination brand love. Section 5.2 discusses three drivers of destination brand love, namely, brand awareness, brand trust, and evaluation of experiential attributes. Section 5.3 discusses the evaluation of experiential attributes in relation to cognitive, attitudinal, and conative destination brand loyalty. After that, Section 5.4 focuses on destination brand love's outcomes from the business (four sequential stages of destination brand loyalty), familial (family togetherness) and individual (perceived happiness) perspectives. Section 5.5 discusses the mediating effects of destination brand love. The competing model is discussed in section 5.6. This chapter then presents theoretical and practical implications (Section 5.7), followed by limitations (Section 5.8), future research directions (Section 5.9), and a conclusion (Section 5.10).

5.1 Measurement items of Destination Brand Love

The measurement model testing identified the multi-dimensionality of the construct of destination brand love. Measurement items under the six sub-dimensions, which are self-brand integration (SBI), passion-driven behaviours (PDB), positive emotional connection (pec), long-term relationship (LR), attitude valence (AV), and attitude strength (Batra et al., 2012), all turned out to be statistically significant at the 99.9% confidence interval level. These measurement items capture both cognitive (i.e., SBI) and affective (i.e., PDB, PEC, LR, AV, and AS) facets. Therefore, brand love is multidimensional, an idea echoed by scholars such as Sarkar (2011) and Batra et al. (2012). The unidimensional brand love items proposed by Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) tend to be single-faceted and should be used with caution.

Besides, measurement items of destination brand love all turned out to be valid in the context of theme-park based tourism and thus can be utilized in future tourism-related research. Even though these sub-dimensions originated from product brand contexts, this study successfully adapted and applied them in a tourism context and confirmed their validity and reliability. Each sub-dimension of destination brand love also contains multiple measurements.

5.2 Drivers of Destination Brand Love

This section interprets the results associated with the influences of three drivers of destination brand love, namely, brand awareness, brand trust, and evaluation of experiential attributes. Specifically, section 5.2.1, 5.2.2, and 5.2.3 interpret testing results of Hypothesis 1 “*Destination brand awareness will have a positive effect on destination brand love*”, Hypothesis 2 “*Destination brand trust will have a positive effect on destination brand love*”, and Hypothesis 3a

“Evaluation of experiential attributes *will have a positive effect on destination brand love*”

respectively.

5.2.1 Brand awareness.

Academia has long recognized that consumer awareness functions as a driver of consumer perceptions and behaviours (e.g., Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008). Previous empirical studies have also indicated that brand awareness positively influences brand love (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010), brand purchase (Esch, Langner, Schmitt, & Geus, 2006), and brand image (Esch et al., 2006). For product brands, especially newly launched product brands, the higher consumers’ brand awareness is, the more probable that they will develop a sense of love towards this brand. Esch et al. (2006), for example, found that brand awareness significantly impacts consumers’ current purchases. However, this argument may only hold valid in product brand contexts. The lack of a statistically significant link between brand awareness and destination brand love is contrary to a range of existing theories and findings. The results of this dissertation rejected the prediction that brand awareness significantly affects destination brand love. Specifically, in the theme park visitation context, visitors’ awareness of a branded destination does not exert significant influences on their love towards the destination. In other words, brand awareness is not a determinant for destination brand love.

However, given the context of Disneyland, such results are both predictable and understandable. The insignificant influence of brand awareness on brand love may arise for at least three reasons. First, since the first Disneyland in the world opened on July 17, 1955, in Anaheim, California, Disneyland has been in business for more than 60 years, and its brand image has been pervasive. Due to China’s Reform and Opening up policy in 1979, a massive influx of western culture and commercials familiarized Chinese born in the 1980s and later with western brands.

Disney, a successful western brand, has immersed in everyday life of young Chinese. It is easy for these people to recognize Disney retailer products, see Disneyland advertisements, and watch Disney movies. For some Chinese, although the intense awareness of Disney brand may have existed in their minds for a long time, the awareness itself does not necessarily mean brand love.

Second, the Disney brand has multiple product and service lines such as cruises, movies, toys, and theme parks, making the brand even more omnipresent. Disney movies have almost dominated the cartoon and kid movie industry for many years. Numerous Chinese families with young kids have watched Disney movies. For some Chinese born in the 1980s, 1990s and later, classic Disney movies, such as Lion King, become their favourite childhood cartoons or movies. Shanghai Disneyland's Disney Theater has the musical Lion King on show all year round, making it possible for Chinese families to enjoy this famous musical at their home country so that they do not need to travel abroad to watch it. A famous song from the movie Lion King "*Can you feel my love tonight*" is also a popular song in China, which has a translated Chinese version. It is also notable that Disney is not only famous in mainland China, but also in Taiwan, Hong Kong Special Administration Region (SAR), and Macao SAR. The various product and service lines of Disney make the majority of urban Chinese aware of the brand; however, knowing the brand does not inherently mean a strong and positive emotional bond with the brand.

Third, Shanghai Disneyland is a unique context. Many respondents may have known Disneyland and may have visited Disneyland in Paris, Tokyo, California, Orlando, or Hong Kong SAR before visiting the Shanghai one. People could not bump into Disney like bumping into a stranger in downtown. It is easy for potential visitors to be exposed to Shanghai Disney advertisements or word of mouth. Before arrival at Shanghai Disney Resort, many visitors must have already watched Shanghai Disneyland's advertisements on TVs or video broadcasts, at subway

stations, or have heard other people talking about Shanghai Disney. Thus, merely knowing the brand does not suffice to mean that they will become emotionally connected with Disneyland. Such considerations provide a coherent and logical explanation for the lack of significant associations between brand awareness and destination brand love through demonstrating that such findings can be attributed to the market dynamics and the context of Shanghai Disneyland. Therefore, merely establishing visitor awareness of a branded designation is far from enough in the establishment of destination brand love among visitors. DMOs and attraction stakeholders must avoid negative brand awareness and identify other drivers of destination brand love to which they can direct marketing efforts.

5.2.2. Brand trust.

Delgado-Ballester et al. (2003) contended that it is crucial to evaluate consumers' trust in this brand if a company aims to understand its CBR. Trust functions as the most significant attribute that a brand might possess. A destination brand should establish its image as reliable, trustworthy, honest, and genuine (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Hess, 1995). This dissertation concluded brand trust's antecedent role of fostering destination brand love. The finding is consistent with previous research. For instance, Albert and Merunka (2013) conducted online research on consumers' relationship with a brand among 1,505 French survey participants and concluded that two of the three brand trust dimensions (reliability and honesty) impact people's brand love. Their data suggest it is imperative for DMOs to establish trust among visitors if they are to enhance relationships between visitors and a branded destination.

5.2.3. The evaluation of experiential attributes and destination brand love.

Positive evaluation of experiential attributes represents an outcome of relationship marketing (e.g., Sharifi & Esfidani, 2014). The formation of visitor satisfaction/dissatisfaction requires actual experiences with a branded destination. Therefore, the evaluation of experiential attributes plays meaningful roles in visitors' destination brand love. These experiences are a constellation of peer interactions, service encounters, weather conditions, accessibility, transportation, and so on, and are difficult to control. Distinct from products, the production and consumption of visiting experiences happen simultaneously, making destination brand love more complex than product brand love. Compared with some pre-existing brand beliefs and brand relationships, i.e., brand awareness and brand trust, tourists' satisfaction with actual on-site personal experiences matter most in the constitution of destination brand love. In other words, it is necessary for DMOs to ensure satisfying visitor experiences to establish and maintain destination brand love.

As mentioned in the literature review, the present study draws upon Oliver's (1993) attribute-level approach of satisfaction conceptualization, also called a cumulative evaluation of satisfaction by Ha and Perks (2005). Therefore, the construct evaluation of experiential attributes measures multiple facets, namely, shopping, activities and events, lodging, accessibility, attractions, environment, and dining (Chi & Qu, 2008). All of these facets are brand touchpoints, as mentioned in Chapter Two. Visitors' encounter and experiences with each brand touchpoint influence their evaluations of branded destinations.

It should also be noted that although customers' post-consumption satisfaction may produce emotional attachment with a brand over time through manifold interactions with brand touchpoints (Thomson et al., 2005), being satisfied with a branded destination does not mean that visitors will experience brand love (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Roy et al., 2013; Sarkar, 2011). Visitors'

satisfaction with a brand must be longstanding for it to be transformed into brand love (Sarkar, 2011). Short-termed customer satisfaction, for example, the satisfaction from short-term price discount, may not be sufficient to cause brand love (Sarkar, 2011). DMOs and other destination markers should ensure visitors' positive evaluation of experiential attributes at each brand touchpoint and provide visitors with experiences that are delighted, long-term, and unique. Enhancing visitor satisfaction also prevents visitors from switching to other alternative destinations.

5.3 The Evaluation of Experiential Attributes and Destination Brand Loyalty

This dissertation tested four hypotheses concerning the direct effects of evaluation of experiential attributes on cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty. It appeared that associations between the evaluation of experiential attributes and the four sequential stages of loyalty vary in magnitude. The findings supported the influences of evaluation of experiential attributes on cognitive loyalty. In other words, statistically strong and meaningful links exist between the evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty. The statistical insignificance of evaluation of experiential attributes in constituting attitudinal and conative brand loyalty calls our attention although it has emerged as a vital stage of the development of brand loyalty in a broad range of existing publications (e.g., Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Johnson et al., 2006; Keller, 2013; Park & Jang, 2014).

The findings that evaluation of experiential attributes did not generate significant influences on attitudinal and conative loyalty are consistent with existing literature (e.g., Oliver, 1999) concerning the fact that customer satisfaction does not necessarily translate into loyalty. Oliver (1999, p. 33) emphasized that "satisfaction is a necessary step in loyalty formation but becomes less significant as loyalty begins to set through other mechanisms." The researcher conducted a few

mediating tests to explore the mediating effects of destination brand love in the evaluation of experiential attributes → loyalty link, as discussed in Section 4.7.

Cognitive loyalty lies at the most fundamental and foremost level of loyalty development (Oliver, 1999) and therefore is vulnerable. It mainly depends on brand information that is available to consumers (Pedersen & Nysveen, 2001). The result of hypothesis 3b (*evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on cognitive loyalty*) showed that a statistically meaningful and robust link exists between the evaluation of experiential attributes and cognitive loyalty. In other words, visitor evaluation of on-site experiences holds a notable and significant part in building cognitive loyalty. As positive visitor evaluation increases, so do their cognitive loyalty levels. Satisfied visitors tend to be cognitively brand loyal. Promoting theme park visitors' cognitive loyalty requires ensuring positive visitor evaluation with multiple on-site experiences, such as service, products, atmosphere, and transportation. Therefore, Shanghai Disney Resort should ensure that it provides sufficient positive and attractive destination-related information to visitors to encourage visitors' cognitive loyalty. However, this finding is inconsistent with Yuksel et al. (2010), who found that customer satisfaction does not contribute to cognitive loyalty.

Hypothesis 3c hypothesizes that the *evaluation of experiential attributes will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty* and the data rejected it. This finding contradicted with previous findings (e.g., Härtel & Russell-Bennett, 2010; Johnson et al., 2006; Sharifi & Esfidani, 2014) which suggested that evaluation of experiential attributes is a precursor of attitudinal loyalty. For example, Sharifi and Esfidani's (2014) survey of cellphone consumers found that customer satisfaction positively and significantly impacted attitudinal loyalty. Due to these inconsistencies in the present findings, more endeavours are needed to identify visitor satisfaction's influences on attitudinal loyalty further.

In summary, this research confirmed that evaluation of experiential attributes is a necessary antecedent latent construct affecting cognitive loyalty. Visitors who thought their experiences satisfactory tend to be cognitively brand loyal. Nevertheless, they did not show a significant tendency to be attitudinally or cognitively brand loyal. Therefore, a valuable conclusion here is that not all four dimensions of loyalty play significant roles in every situation where brand loyalty prevails.

5.4 Business and Familial Outcomes of Destination Brand Love

5.4.1. Destination brand love's relative impacts on loyalty.

This dissertation found that destination brand love is a significant predictor of cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty. It, therefore, provides further evidence to the argument that brand loyalty is an outcome of brand love (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Dick & Basu, 1994; Sarkar, 2011; Whang et al., 2004). More importantly, the study results suggested that destination brand love and destination brand loyalty are two independent and different concepts and marketing constructs.

Results of Hypothesis 4b (*Destination brand love will have a positive effect on attitudinal loyalty*) showed that destination brand love positively affects attitudinal loyalty. This finding confirmed the importance of affect in strengthening visitor relationships with destinations. What is worthy of being noted is that destination brand love positively influenced all four sequential stages of brand loyalty, but it is attitudinal loyalty that was influenced most by destination brand love. The result echoed Albert and Merunka's (2013) conclusion that brand love has the most significant impact on affective brand loyalty and brand commitment.

5.4.2 Linkages between destination brand love and family togetherness.

Visiting experiences benefit not only individuals but also families as units. When people visit a branded destination with their family members, their brand love towards this destination fosters family togetherness in a significant way. Although very few previous studies have examined the association between destination brand love and family togetherness, there exists abundant research that indicates a strong connection between travel and family togetherness. Lehto, Fu, Li, and Zhou (2017), for instance, mentioned that travel experiences enable families to develop close relationships and promote a sense of togetherness. Fu, Cai, and Lehto's (2017) investigation into Chinese tourist motivations concluded that family togetherness stood out as the second crucial motivational factor in the nine-dimension motivation framework for Chinese tourists. Their study also stressed that Chinese tourists value "building a stronger family bond," "sharing quality time with my family," and "communicating better with my family" during travel (Fu et al., 2017, p. 158). In the case of visiting theme park destinations, this dissertation concluded that visitors' love towards the brand enhances their family togetherness.

5.5 Destination Brand Love as a Mediator

The mediation testing results supported all four mediation relationships hypothesized in this study (H6a, H6b, H6c, and H6d). They differ in magnitude though. Among the four relationships, two (H6b and H6c) were indirect-only mediation paths, and the other two were complementary mediation paths (H6a and H6d) (Zhao et al., 2010). The indirect effects of destination brand love (H6b: evaluation of experiential attributes → destination brand love → attitudinal loyalty; H6c: evaluation of experiential attributes → destination brand love → conative loyalty) in the research

model are significant. These two mediation effects are indirect-only mediation, which means that even though the direct effect is insignificant, the indirect effect is significant (Zhao et al., 2010).

Consequently, destination brand love mediated these two relationships fully. Destination brand love largely triggered the significant correlation between the evaluation of experiential attributes and these two phases of loyalty. It, therefore, is a crucial factor for visitors to develop certain levels of attitudinal loyalty and conative loyalty towards a branded destination.

5.6 Summary of the Competing Model

In the competing model, all four sequential stages of brand loyalty merged into one construct named “destination brand loyalty.” Family togetherness and perceived happiness merged into one construct which is “individual happiness and family togetherness.” Both of these two merges deserve consideration in future investigations. Theoretically, the four sequential stages of loyalty development should be distinct from each other (Oliver, 1997) and each latter stage builds upon the former one. Similarly, perceived happiness and family togetherness are also two different theoretical constructs (Lyubomirsky et al., 2015; Williams & Anthony, 2015). Part of the reasons that these constructs merged is that the study context is the Shanghai Disney Resort, a family-oriented vacation context (Shaw et al., 2008). The literature (e.g., Shaw et al., 2008) suggested that the meaning of family vacations and family excursions is that families get chances to get together to enjoy some quality time together, to create happy family memories, and to get rid of mundane daily life and working schedule. Whether the above constructs would merge again in other consumer behaviour contexts remains unknown. Future endeavours may collect data in other consumer behaviour settings to re-test how these factors would combine.

5.7 Implications

This dissertation initiated a pioneering empirical investigation of the destination brand love framework (Figure 2). The discovery of destination brand love's antecedents, benefits, and the linkages between antecedents, benefits, and visitor perceptions generated both theoretical and pragmatic ramifications. The initial design, examination, and establishment of the destination brand love framework illuminate the branding and destination literature by introducing a new conceptual model and a set of destination brand love measures. Moreover, the findings can assist academics, DMOs and other destination marketers and stakeholders in their understanding of the development of destination brand love in the theme-park based tourism context.

5.7.1 Theoretical contributions.

This dissertation generated several new implications from a theoretical perspective. The main contribution of the study is the establishment of a conceptual framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love in a theme-park travel context (Figure 2). The framework covers both business and non-business outcomes of destination brand love. It offers new insights for academics and practitioners alike in conceptualizing brand-related and experience-related antecedents and consequences of destination brand love in the context of theme-park based tourism. Additionally, much existing loyalty research has neglected the cognitive, attitudinal, and conative constituents of loyalty. This study narrowed this gap by clarifying destination brand love's impacts on these three sequential stages of loyalty.

5.7.1.1 The destination brand love framework and destination brand love scales.

This study successfully established the multi-dimensional and multi-indicator framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love in a theme-park travel context (Figure 2). In this conceptual framework, destination brand love functions as a significant mediating construct between visitors' pre-visit, visit, and post-visit experiences. This framework informs that destination brand love brings about ideal business (cognitive, attitudinal, and conative loyalty), individual (visitor perceived happiness), and familial (family togetherness) outcomes. Visitors' destination brand love originates from relational and experiential marketing constructs, i.e., brand trust and evaluation of experiential attributes. The two antecedent constructs of destination brand love are brand trust and evaluation of experiential attributes. Outcome constructs include cognitive loyalty, attitudinal loyalty, and conative loyalty, perceived happiness, and family togetherness. This framework provides the first quantitative, confirmative, and systematic way of examining destination brand love in a theme park based tourism context. More importantly, a total of 18 destination brand love measurement items were validated and established. This set of destination brand love items are ready to be adopted in future destination branding research.

5.7.1.2 Quantitative and confirmatory destination brand love research.

Brand love is a relatively new marketing construct. Existing brand love research is mostly conducted in product brand contexts (e.g., Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Destination brand love is also a newly introduced construct in tourism studies (e.g., Aro et al., 2018; Swanson et al., 2015a). Compared with CBR constructs such as emotional attachment, brand romance (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011), brand passion (Bauer, Heinrich, & Martin, 2007), and brand trust (Ball, Simões Coelho, & Machás, 2004; Javed, Roy, & Mansoor, 2015), brand love is a more inclusive and

powerful construct in terms of capturing the intense emotional bond between tourists and branded destinations. Despite its significance, only limited research has been conducted to understand tourists' brand love towards destinations. The measurement items of destination brand love have not yet been clarified quantitatively.

Current studies on brand love in tourism remain qualitative, exploratory, and theoretical (e.g., Aro et al., 2018; Swanson et al., 2015a). Swanson et al. (2015a) noted that brand love is new to destination research and had never been explored in the context of tourism. Swanson et al. (2015a) employed semi-structured interviews, volunteer-employed photography and consumer collage creation to explore tourist love in respect of the place they visited. Their findings suggested thirteen major themes that belong to four categories: “antecedents, relational themes (involving relationships between others, oneself and the place), experiential themes (relating to the experience of being at the place) and outcomes” (p. 144). Later, in a qualitative case study of an outdoor resort in Finnish Lapland, Aro et al. (2018) identified a set of destination brand love antecedents and consequences. Both of the two studies stayed at the qualitative and conceptual level. Aro et al. (2018) emphasized that “once destination brand love has been sufficiently explored qualitatively, further studies could develop quantitative measures” (p. 80).

This study initiated quantitative and confirmatory destination brand love research in tourism. The establishment of the destination brand love construct and its measurement items illuminate the literature regarding the multi-faceted tourist-destination relationships. This study provided an inclusive marketing construct to measure tourist relationship with branded destinations.

5.7.1.3 Keller's CBBE model in tourism research.

Keller's (2013) CBBE model suggests that brand development involves four primary stages, brand awareness, brand performance and brand imagery, brand judgement and feeling, and brand resonance (loyalty). The conceptual framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love in a theme-park visitation context (Figure 2) that was established in this study delineates the process in which visitors experience branded destinations in three stages: pre-visit, visit, and post-visit. Visitors' experience with branded destinations starts from knowing a destination brand to experiencing it on-site, evaluating it, and ultimately (for some) becoming loyal to it. In this process, destination brand love plays a key mediating role. The pre-visit, visit, and post-visit process coincides with the four primary stages in Keller's (2013) CBBE model, indicating that the CBBE model is highly applicable in destination research. The conceptual framework (Figure 2) itself serves as a variation of Keller's (2013) CBBE model in tourism research.

5.7.1.4 Chinese family visitors in destination branding research.

The market segment of Chinese family visitors is fast emerging. Its growing importance deserves more scholarly attention especially considering that many theme park brands' target market is mainly family visitors (Lehto et al., 2017). However, this market segment has not received as much scholarly investigation as it warrants (Lehto et al., 2017). Little is known as to Chinese families' experiences at theme-park destinations. This study confirmed destination brand love's boosting effects in enhancing family visitors' perceived happiness, family togetherness, and destination brand loyalty. Therefore, this dissertation bridges the gap that relatively scarce literature exists on Chinese family visitors' brand experiences at destinations.

5.7.2 Practical implications.

5.7.2.1 A driver of revenue and visitor loyalty.

The results have important implications for DMOs and other destination practitioners. By applying the multi-dimensional destination brand love scales in tourist surveys, DMOs and other destination stakeholders can get a better understanding of the constitution of tourist love towards a destination. The following six sub-dimensions all contribute significantly to tourists' destination brand love: self-brand integration, passion-driven behaviours, long-term relationship, positive emotional connection, attitude valence, and attitude strength (Batra et al., 2012; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010). Given the significant effect of destination brand love on retaining tourist loyalty, DMOs conduct regular destination brand love surveys to identify areas that need to be improved. For example, if tourists perceive a low level of integration between their self-identity and destination images, DMOs should highlight the destination's connection with tourists' current and desired self-images through marketing strategies such as social media promotions. If tourists lack passion-driven behaviours and are unwilling to spend money and time visiting the destination, it is beneficial to reshape destination attractiveness and uniqueness. The "fun," "interesting," "relaxing," and "exciting" images of destinations should be maintained to ensure a positive emotional connection between destinations and tourists or visitors.

5.7.2.2 Visitor psychological well-being and happiness.

Tourist well-being, happiness, and quality of life have been topics of increasing relevance to tourism studies (e.g., Filep, 2014). Tourism researchers have focused on understanding tourism or visitation experiences (e.g., Filep & Deery, 2010; McCabe & Johnson, 2013)) but paid relatively little attention on how they could extend their findings and methods to help visitors enhance

individual and familial well-being. This dissertation abandoned the “brand love only leads to loyalty or merely business outcomes” paradigm and examined the effects of destination brand love on enhancing visitor perceived happiness and family togetherness. The results demonstrated that destination brand love could produce optimal outcomes for individual well-being and family cohesion. For visitors who experience destination brand love on-site, it is more probable that they will feel happy regardless of what is going on in life (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). Compared to their peers, they tend to regard themselves as happier individuals who enjoy life and get the most out of everything (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). They will also feel that they enjoyed the time spent together as a family and their families get along well with each other (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). Therefore, family kinship can be enhanced, which eventually lead to enhanced well-being (Williams & Anthony, 2015). These findings can be used to help visitors gain a better understanding of the non-business and well-being-related benefits of travel.

5.7.2.3 Low-income families.

Leisure constraints traditionally are classified into structural, interpersonal, and intrapersonal (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). Income is a typical example of structural barriers which frequently exert influences on tourism behaviours. Generally, lower-income families are subject to more or stronger structural constraints which account for nonparticipation in leisure. This study tested “income” as a structural constraint, and the results suggested that destination brand love benefits individuals and families significantly through a positive connection with branded destinations. No matter what the level of visitor income is, destination brand love enhances visitors’ family bonding if they travelled with family members at a branded destination. For relatively low-

income families, the boosting impact of destination brand love on family togetherness is stronger than that for relatively high-income families.

Corporations are usually criticized for only focusing merely on business outcomes, such as revenue and customer loyalty. Positive experiences at branded destinations could lead to favourable non-business outcomes and are beneficial for low-income families, whether they are single-parent, single-earner, or less educated families. Improving access for low-income families to visit branded destinations could enhance their family cohesion in a significant way. What can branded destinations do to ensure that low-income families have good chances of visiting as high-income families? Strategies such as cutting the ticket price, bringing them there for free, providing coupons, free passes, or free public transportation to the park area will help negotiate structural constraints. Keep making low-income families happy is a worthwhile topic for DMOs to consider.

5.7.2.4 Brand awareness's lack of sufficiency.

In brand management practice, brand awareness is an essential component of brand equity and a key brand performance for assuring successful marketing campaigns (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 2013). Despite its importance, the findings suggested that only focusing on enhancing visitors' awareness of a branded destination is not sufficient to establish or increase visitors' destination brand love, especially when this particular branded destination is highly pervasive and comprehensive. DMOs and attraction stakeholders of theme-park destinations are advised to monitor and optimize other brand relationship factors such as visitors' brand trust and visitors' positive evaluation of experiential attributes to ensure long-term sustainable brand development. Both brand trust and evaluation of experiential attributes play meaningful roles in visitor loyalty, perceived happiness, and family togetherness. In other words, DMOs and attraction stakeholders should

develop tactical initiatives that to make sure that visitors are satisfied with the destination from multiple perspectives, such as product quality, atmosphere, accessibility, transportation, destination security, the variety of cuisine choices, and sanitation. Furthermore, they should also ensure that visitors trust the destination and feel attached to it.

5.8 Limitations

Several limitations exist in the present research. This section discusses two limitations concerning partial disclosure and feedback effects.

5.8.1 Partial disclosure.

This study involves partial disclosure. The researcher informed participants of the purposes of this study and notified that they would receive a thank-you gift for agreeing to participate in a follow-up study before completing the survey. Doing so might influence how participants respond to the visiting-experience-related questions posed in the study. For example, people may be much more motivated to complete the questionnaire if they knew about the possibility of receiving the voucher beforehand. Also, the wording of the disclosure statement and verbal script must limit the potential influence on people's decision to participate in the follow-up survey.

5.8.2 Feedback effects.

The present model did not include feedback effects among latent constructs in the conceptual framework. The researcher presented a model that in a one direction linear fashion proceeding from pre-existing brand beliefs (brand awareness and brand trust) to destination brand perception and

evaluation (evaluation of experiential attributes), and finally to business (four sequential stages of destination brand loyalty), individual (perceived happiness), and familial (family togetherness) outcomes. It is highly probable that some latent constructs also influence preceding constructs. Feedback effects might happen from outcome constructs to pre-existing brand belief constructs. The most salient example may be that strengthened brand loyalty may enhance brand awareness and brand trust, resulting in the fact that visitors experience a stronger level of destination brand love.

5.8.3 Inclusive family types.

This study examined destination brand love's influences on family togetherness and contributed to the branding literature by bringing familial concepts into destination branding studies. Considering that the focus of this dissertation is to propose and establish a destination brand love framework, the researcher did not purposefully differentiate between different family types during the survey. The scope of the study is limited to nuclear families, which mean units where two individuals live alone by themselves or with their children in the same household, and traditional extended families where another adult lives with the married couple (Senturk et al., 2011). However, the ways to define family have changed dramatically in recent years. For example, such untraditional family types as single-parent families and single person households are fast increasing. The word family no longer only means "two-parent-single-earner male-headed" households (Rothausen, 1999, p. 820). The ratio of adults who never marry, no matter with or without children, is also on the rise.

Family's visiting experiences at a destination may vary according to family types, therefore, differentiating family types may enable rich findings on the roles destination brand love plays in enhancing perceived family togetherness. A more inclusive way of examining family togetherness should look at not only traditional opposite-sex nuclear family but also diverse types of untraditional

family, for example, unmarried homosexual partners (and children), married homosexual partners (and children), unmarried co-habitants, same-sex family, single-parent families.

5.8.4 Non-response bias.

The study is limited due to the convenience sampling method. During the on-site survey, potential respondents refusing for reasons of inconvenient timing were asked to specify their preferred time to minimize non-response bias. For example, if a respondent said he or she was unavailable to participate in the survey because at that time he or she has a young kid to look after, the researcher asked if half an hour later would work in order to maximize the opportunity of recruiting this respondent. The researcher recruited visitors who visited Shanghai Disney Resort and stopped at Starbucks, Food Republic, and BreadTalk in Shanghai Disneytown in this study. Other visitors who visited Shanghai Disney Resort but did not stay at the above three locations were not approached. Therefore, a certain level of non-response bias or participation bias is unavoidable. A longitudinal study in the future can minimize sampling issues.

5.8.5 Behavioural loyalty.

As it relates to the stages of developing loyalty, conative loyalty finally leads to behavioural loyalty (Dick & Basu, 1994; Oliver, 1997). Behaviour or action loyalty is frequently simplified and treated as purchase loyalty, and according to Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), purchase loyalty means average consumers' willingness to repurchase a brand's products/services. A straightforward explanation of shopping loyalty of a product brand is the frequency that consumers buy a brand product and the amount they spend (Keller, 2013). Although behavioural loyalty is usually used to

replace (re)purchase loyalty (see Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001), recent research suggests that behavioural loyalty also means spreading positive WoM, recommending the brand to others (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010).

A few studies have suggested that customer satisfaction leads to behavioural loyalty (e.g., Baker & Crompton, 2000; Lee et al., 2007; Tsai & Huang, 2007; Yuksel et al., 2010). Thus, satisfied visitors tend to be behaviourally brand loyal. However, existing research results differ a lot regarding the relationship between customer evaluation, satisfaction and behavioural loyalty. Back and Parks (2003) reported an insignificant effect of customer satisfaction on behavioural brand loyalty. They also found that, although this direct relationship is insignificant, attitudinal brand loyalty mediates the relationship between customer satisfaction and behavioural brand loyalty significantly. Their findings are also in line with Oliver (1997) and Fishbein and Ajzen (1975).

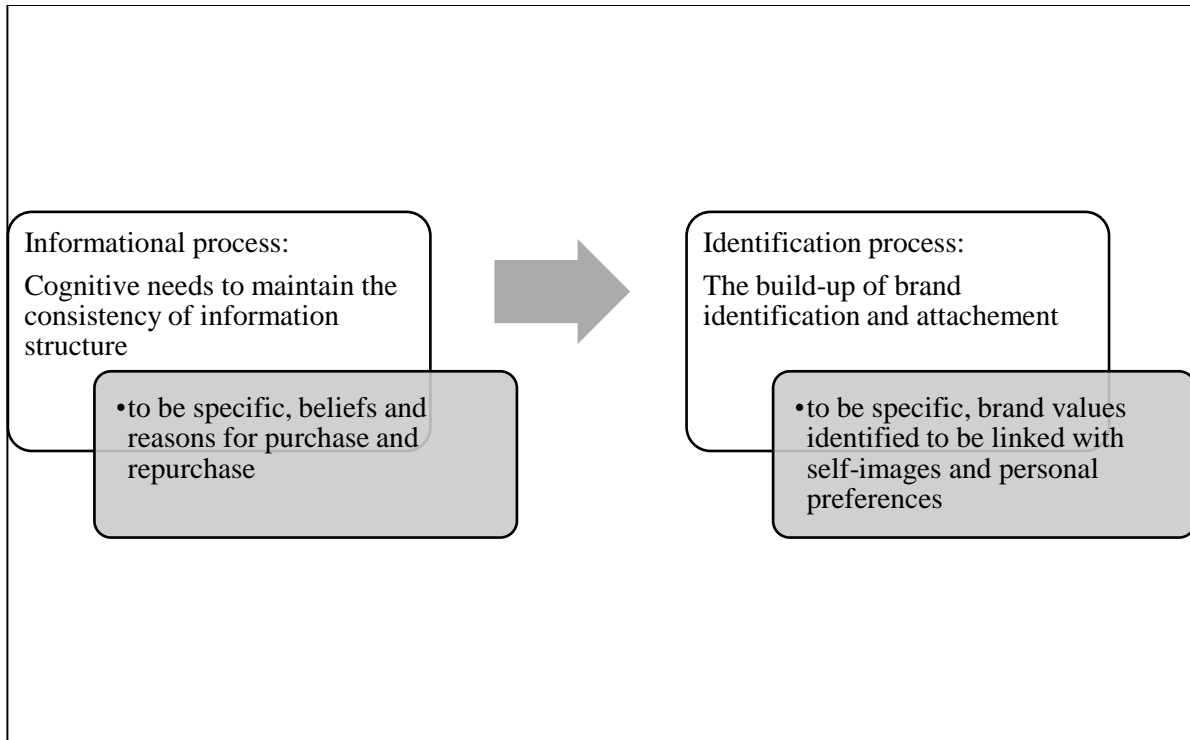
The relationship between attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty, their causal ordering, and their predictive capacity have attracted much debate in brand loyalty literature. For instance, from a time-sequence perspective, Oliver (1999) considered that attitudinal loyalty happens before consumers' intention to patronize a business. Attitudinal loyalty occurs at the early stage of the loyalty development process (Oliver, 1999). Similarly, Bandyopadhyay and Martell's (2007) study indicated that attitudinal loyalty influences behavioural loyalty. More recently, Liu-Thompkins and Tam (2013) demonstrated that both attitudinal loyalty and habitual factors could trigger purchase loyalty, although in different ways. However, Pedersen and Nysveen (2001) reported that attitudinal loyalty does not predict behavioural loyalty correctly, questioning the predictive power of attitudinal loyalty on behavioural loyalty.

This study did not test behavioural loyalty in the conceptual model. Future studies should include behavioural loyalty and compare destination brand love's influences on cognitive,

attitudinal, conative, and behavioural loyalty. Behavioural loyalty could be measured using several approaches to capturing its nuances across different service contexts. These methods include duration (participation over an extended time period); frequency (visits over a specified time period); intensity (e.g., hours per week devoted to participation); sequence (e.g., purchase patterns within or between brands); proportion of investment relative to other product or brand options, and probability of purchase or participation (Pritchard et al., 1999, p. 345).

5.8.5 Commitment.

Various perspectives of conceptualizing the construct “commitment” exist, while debate around this topic is always ongoing. A very early work by Salancik (1977) contended that commitment happens when the following three perceptual states exist: (1) revocability; (2) publicness; and (3) volition. Revocability deals with consumers’ psychological cost, specifically, the cognitive cost to re-consider and re-order other choices and possibilities (Salancik, 1977). Publicness involves “a willingness to be explicitly identified with the images and values of a (brand) preference by significant others (e.g., friends, family)” (Pritchard et al., 1999, p. 335). Volition means that people perceive their preferences as freely chosen, rather than dictated by others (Pritchard et al., 1999; Salancik, 1977). Characterized by people’s resistance to change, the commitment was believed to have two antecedent processes: the informational process and the identification process (Crosby & Taylor, 1983). The former features cognitive structure formation of people’s preferences; whereas the latter refers to the process during which people build up personal attachment to particular brands (Figure 13).



Source: Crosby & Taylor, 1983 (explained in Pritchard et al., 1999)

Figure 13: Two Processes of Commitment Formation

Given that information and publicness can reflect revocability and publicness (Pritchard et al., 1999), Pritchard et al. (1999) eventually synthesized active precursors of commitments into three categories: (1) informational, (2) identification (represented by position involvement), and (3) volitional processes. Pritchard et al. (1999) eventually established a set of formative (not reflexive) psychological commitment Instrument (PCI) constituted by 13 items under four dimensions—*Information Complexity, Resistance to Change, Position Involvement, and Volitional Choices*—were established and ready to be adopted in other empirical studies (see Figure 14).

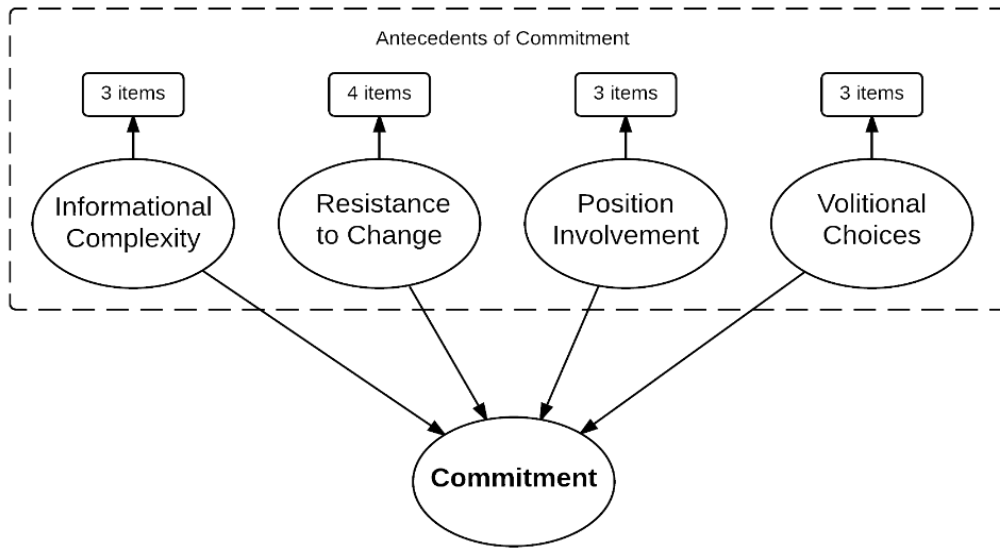


Figure 14: Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard's (1999) Four-factor PCI Framework

Pritchard et al.'s (1999) validated PCI provides marketing scholars and practitioners with a set of easy-to-execute measurement tools, not only for capturing and cultivating customer commitment but also for identifying and evaluating loyal customers. This PCI goes beyond the partial and traditional commitment measures that focus merely on purchase-related perspectives.

This study did not aim to test brand awareness' influences on constructs other than destination brand love. Brand awareness, however, as a proxy to brand identification, might have impacts on commitment and brand loyalty. In the conceptual framework of this study, commitment might function as a mediating construct between brand awareness, brand trust, and brand loyalty. The PCI items developed by Pritchard et al. (1999) may be useful measures to test the mediating role of commitment.

5.8.6 Experiential attributes

Scales under the construct “evaluation of experiential attributes” in this dissertation are called attribute satisfaction in Chi and Qu (2008). However, these items could also function as strategic diagnostic tools to evaluate service quality strengths and weaknesses and to facilitate decision-making. Marketing researchers can adopt them for diagnostic purposes. Specifically, tourism and hospitality industries, as well as the government tourism administrations, can utilize them to evaluate service performance from the customers’ perspective and identify weak points of the quality of service that need to be improved (Fernández & Bedia, 2005; Nadiri, Kandampully, & Hussain, 2009).

5.9 Future Research

5.9.1 More assessment of brand awareness

As a fundamental pre-existing belief that visitors have before arriving at a destination, the awareness of a branded destination influences visitors’ on-site experiences and post-visiting evaluations. This research concluded that brand awareness’s influences on destination brand love were insignificant in the Disney resort context. The results echoed some of the existing findings. For instance, Esch et al. (2006) concluded that brand awareness did not generate any significant impact on consumers’ future purchase, brand satisfaction, or brand trust. However, this dissertation did not examine brand awareness’s influences on other related perceptual and behavioural concepts. Future research efforts should examine brand awareness’ roles in destination brand loyalty and other behavioural outcomes such as brand switching behaviour, commitment, and WoM. In particular, more endeavours are also needed to identify brand awareness’s influences on visitors’ brand love of newly opened branded destinations.

5.9.2 Other tourism or leisure contexts.

While this study employed destination brand love as an independent multi-dimensional marketing construct to explain the intense emotional relationship between tourists and branded destinations, more research is required to explore this constructs' and its measurement items' applicability in other tourism contexts, such as agricultural tourism, film tourism, eco-tourism, mountain tourism, dark tourism, and religious tourism. For instance, what unique roles does destination brand love play in agricultural tourism? Different from highly commercial tourism destinations, farm-oriented vacation destinations, such as Hawaii, Tuscany in Italy, and the Yilan County in Taiwan, usually are branded as less commercial and bear strong natural attractiveness. Under less commercial situations, will the sub-dimensions and measurement items of destination brand love developed in this study still hold? Will destination brand love still significantly influence loyalty, perceived happiness, and family togetherness? Another important tourism context is national park visitation. National parks are usually strong destination brands. Yellow Stones, Grand Canyon, and Banff National Park attract a significant number of domestic and international visitors every year. Future studies on destination brand love could explore measures or dimensions that capture aesthetic, geographical, or scenic characteristics applicable to national parks. Research into these questions could provide new insights into the line of brand love studies.

5.9.3 Additional antecedents and outcomes of destining brand love.

Future studies may enrich the findings of this study by identifying other marketing constructs that contribute to and result from destination brand love. Candidate antecedent factors range from past brand experience, brand personality, and the self-concept of tourists. From the perspective of

the feedback effects from outcome constructs to antecedent constructs, candidate outcomes factors can include but are not limited to enhanced brand trust and brand awareness. Future consumer researchers should also continue to consider “non-business” outcomes of destination brand love, such as quality of life, family relationship, and well-being.

5.9.4 Human-interaction-related measures.

Considering that tourist experiences at destinations are a constellation of human interactions, future research on destination brand love may add some personal interaction measures. For example, in this dissertation, peer influences are not captured in the destination brand love construct. The brand love of the kids in a family might influence parents’ emotional responses. How substantial is this impact? Does it have a positive or a downgrading influence?

Additionally, how can tourists’ interaction with front-line hotel staff influence their destination brand love and satisfaction? Take Disneyland for example, the reliability, responsiveness, and empathy of the Disney hotel staff may influence tourists’ satisfaction and designation brand love (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). It is therefore also beneficial to explore service-related measures of destination brand love.

5.10 Conclusion

Tourists may develop a robust affective bond with branded destinations. This emotional bond originates from destinations’ representation of tourists’ self-beliefs, desired self-qualities, passion, attitudes, and long-term relationships. This emotional bond is different from interpersonal love or love towards commercial products. It involves emotions and cognitions toward a constellation of destination images, offerings, services, products, and atmosphere. This dissertation named this

prototype of love as destination brand love and defined it as the degree of intense affection a tourist holds for a branded destination (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Destination brand love stands out as a more inclusive concept than emotional attachment, place attachment, place bonding, brand romance, and brand passion, because, firstly, it features a more inclusive collection of sub-dimensions and measurement items; secondly, it has a more abundant variety of antecedents and consequences (Aro et al., 2018; Batra et al., 2012). The findings provided empirical evidence for the multi-dimensional structure of destination brand love (self-brand integration, passion-driven behaviours, positive emotional connection, long-term relationship, attitude strength, and attitude valence). The researcher established a set of destination brand love measurement items for future studies in other tourism contexts.

Brand love is a relatively new concept in consumer behaviour and marketing studies (Roy et al., 2013). Destination brand love is an even newer concept in destination branding research and deserves more academic attention. This dissertation combined existing literature on brand love with research on well-being, quality of life, family cohesion, and brand loyalty. Before this study, there has been no theoretical framework that explains destination brand love's brand-related and experience-related antecedents and outcomes at the business (loyalty-related), individual (happiness-related), and familial (family-cohesion-related) levels. The main contribution of this dissertation is the establishment of the multi-dimensional and multi-indicator conceptual framework of antecedents and consequences of destination brand love in a theme-park based tourism context. In this framework, destination brand love is achieved through visitors' trust of destination and positive evaluation of experiential attributes. Destination brand love, in turn, affects an individual's cognitive loyalty towards a branded destination and his/her perceived happiness and family togetherness.

The researcher abandoned the “brand love only leads to loyalty” paradigm and examined both business-related and non-business outcomes of destination brand love. The results demonstrated that, apart from favourable business-related outcomes (i.e., cognitive, attitudinal, and conative brand loyalty), destination brand love also produced optimal outcomes for individuals and their families. Identifying the antecedents and consequences of destination brand love can help DMOs, and other destination stakeholders understand factors that drive tourists’ love towards branded destinations. More importantly, it is meaningful for tourists and excursionists to be aware that brand love can also bring about benefits to their well-being and families.

Earlier studies on destination brand love have been conducted mostly in western cultural contexts, such as the USA (e.g., Swanson, 2015b) and Finland (Aro et al., 2018). This study initiated destination brand love research in China. It offered a Chinese perspective on the interplay of its antecedents and outcomes at the individual, familial, and business levels. Chinese tourists and excursionists tend to share a collective cultural perspective, different from the individualistic perspective popular in western countries. The social norms that value collectivism makes family togetherness an essential pursuit of Chinese families and individuals during travel. For that reason, it is beneficial to recognize non-business outcomes of destination brand love in this research, and in studies to come.

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Appendix

Appendix I: Brand Love scales (Bagozzi et al., 2014)

Construct	Constituent Items*	
Self-Brand Integration	<i>Current Self-Identity</i>	1. Says something true and deep about who you are as a person ^{26, 13, 6} 2. Important part of self how you see yourself ²⁶
	<i>Desired Self-Identity</i>	1. Makes you look like what you want to look ^{26, 13} 2. Makes you feel like how you want to feel ²⁶
	<i>Life Meaning and Intrinsic Rewards</i>	1. Does something that makes life more meaningful ^{26, 13} 2. Contributes something towards making your life worth living ²⁶
	<i>Attitude Strength I: Frequent Thoughts</i>	1. Frequently find myself thinking about it ^{26, 13} 2. Find that it keeps popping into my head ²⁶
	Passion-Driven Behaviors	<i>Willingness to Invest Resources</i>
<i>Passionate Desire to Use</i>		1. Feel myself desiring it ^{26, 13, 6} 2. Feel a sense of longing to use it ²⁶
<i>Things Done in Past (Involvement)</i>		1. Have interacted a lot with it or the company that makes it ^{26, 13} 2. Have been involved with it in past ²⁶
Positive Emotional Connection	<i>Intuitive Fit</i>	1. Feel a sense of natural fit ^{26, 13} 2. Fits tastes perfectly ²⁶
	<i>Emotional Attachment</i>	1. Emotionally connected ^{26, 13, 6} 2. Feel a bond ²⁶
	<i>Positive Affect</i>	1. Fun ^{26, 13} 2. Exciting ²⁶ 3. (If “fun” and “exciting” aren’t highly relevant to the brand in question, we recommend choosing more relevant emotion terms.)
Long-Term Relationship	1. Will be using for a long time ^{26, 13, 6} 2. Will be part of life for long time to come ²⁶	
Anticipated Separation Distress	Suppose (brand) were to go out of existence, to what extent would you feel ... 1. Anxiety ^{26, 13, 6} 2. Apprehension ²⁶	
Attitude Valence	Please express your overall feelings and evaluations towards (brand) 1. Positive/negative ^{26, 13, 6} 2. Favorable/unfavorable ²⁶	

* All scales ©2014 Aaron Ahuvia, Richard Bagozzi and Rajeev Batra.

²⁶ Multiple-factor 26 item scale.

¹³ Single-factor 13 item scale.

⁶ Short 6-item scale.

Theme Park Visitor Perception Survey

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this critical study measuring visitor experiences at Shanghai Disney Resort. This survey should take around 10 minutes to complete. Some of these questions will seem very similar because statistically, just asking one question is not reliable. We apologize for the redundancy. All the responses will be kept confidential and anonymous.

Section 1: Background information

1. When did you visit Shanghai Disney Resort? Year _____ Month _____
2. Is this your first time visiting Shanghai Disney Resort?
 Yes No If No, how many times have you visited here before this time? _____
3. Please indicate your identify when you were/are in Shanghai?
 I'm a tourist I work, study, or live in Shanghai but not originally from Shanghai I'm a Shanghai local resident
4. If you are not a local resident, how many nights have you stayed in Shanghai during this trip?
 0 (day trip) 1 night 2 nights 3 nights 4 nights
 5 nights 6 nights 7 nights or more

Section 2: Experiences with the Disney brand

5. Please answer before today's visit, have you
Watched a Disney movie over your lifetime? Yes No
Purchased Disney retail merchandises over your lifetime? Yes No
Visited Hong Kong Disneyland? Yes No
Travelled on a Disney cruise over your lifetime? Yes No

Collectively, all the above experiences relate to the overall Disney brand. Please answer the remaining questions in section 2 in relation to the overall Disney brand.

6. Below are the statements about your awareness of the overall Disney brand. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following items.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6_1: I am very familiar with the Disney brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6_2: This brand is well known.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6_3: I have heard of Disney before.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6_4: Disney is very famous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6_5: Disney is visible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. Below are statements about the trust you have towards the overall Disney brand. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following items.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7_1: Disney is genuinely committed to my satisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7_2: When I see a Disney advertisement, I believe that the information in it is accurate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7_3: Most of what Disney says about it is true.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3: Experiences with the Shanghai Disney Resort

Now we want to ask you some questions about your experiences at **the Shanghai Disney Resort**.

8. What three words would you use to describe your experiences at Shanghai Disney Resort? Please list the most important three. (you can list both positive and negative words)

Most important word: _____

Second most important word: _____

Third most important word: _____

9. In which year did you first hear of the Shanghai Disney Resort?

- before 2010
 2010
 2011
 2012
 2013
 2014
 2015
 2016

10. Please indicate the extent to which you are agree with the following statements about your experiences at Shanghai Disney Resort.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_1: I have heard of positive news about Shanghai Disney.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_2: I have heard of negative news about Shanghai Disney.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10_3: Shanghai Disney is famous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_4: I trust Shanghai Disney.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_5: Shanghai Disney's advertising accurately describes my true experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_6: The quality of merchandise is good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_7: The service is friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_8: There is a variety of special events/festivals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_9: The price for activities and events is reasonable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_10: The lodging is unique	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_11: The lodging facilities are of good quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_12: The lodging facilities are clean							
10_13: The local transportation is convenient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_14: To access the resort is easy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_15: There is a variety of culture options	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_16: The price for sightseeing is reasonable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_17: The atmosphere is restful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_18: Safety and security are good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_19: The food quality is good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10_20: There is a variety of cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. Below are statements about your perceived happiness. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following items. (1=Very unhappy; 7=Very happy)

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
11_1: In general, I consider myself a very happy person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
11_2: Compared to most of my peers, I am a happy person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
11_3: I am generally happy. I enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
11_4: I am generally not very happy. Although I am not depressed, I seldom seem as happy as I might be. <i>(Note: This indicator was removed from the main survey questionnaire due to very low factor loading found in the pilot study. Refer to the pilot study section for explanations.)</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

12. Are you travelling with family members?

- Yes (go to Question no.16) No (go to Question no. 17)

13. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following items.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13_1: My family gets along well with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13_2: I thought the entire family enjoyed the visiting experience at Shanghai Disney Resort.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13_3: Our family kinship was increased.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13_4: We enjoyed the time spent with my family together.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. Below are statements about your feelings towards Shanghai Disney Resort (thereafter called Shanghai Disney or it). Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following items.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_1: It makes my life more meaningful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_2: I felt myself desiring to go to Shanghai Disney Resort.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_3: I have the feeling of desire toward visiting it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_4: I am willing to spend time visiting it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_5: Shanghai Disney Resort meets my visiting expectations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_6: I'm emotionally connected to it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_7: Shanghai Disney Resort (thereafter "it") makes me relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_8: It is fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_9: It is exciting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_10: It is pleasurable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_11: I feel sense of long-time commitment to it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_12: It will be part of my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_13: I like Shanghai Disney Resort.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_14: My overall feelings/evaluations towards Shanghai Disney Resort are positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_15: I am satisfied with it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_16: I am certain of my evaluations of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_17: I frequently find myself thinking about it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14_18: It pops into my mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. Below are statements about your loyalty towards Shanghai Disney Resort (thereafter sometimes called it). Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following items.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_1: It provided me superior service quality as compared to other places I have been to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15_2: No other destination performed better than it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_3: The overall quality of Shanghai Disney Resort is good as a tourism destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_4: It provided me with more good experiences than other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_5: I loved visiting here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_6: I like Shanghai Disney Resort more than other destinations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_7: I felt better when I stayed here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_8: If I am given a chance, I intend to continue making my holiday at Shanghai Disney Resort.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_9: I consider it to be my first holiday choice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_10: I will say positive things about it to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_11: I will encourage my friends and relatives to visit it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_12: I will recommend it to my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_13: I intend to visit it again.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15_14: If I hear something bad about Shanghai Disney Resort, I will question it in own mind first.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Respondent information

16. Sex: Male Female Prefer not to say

17. Which age group do you belong to:

- 18-28 29-38 39-48 49-58
 59-68 69 or above

18. Please state your after-tax monthly income in Chinese Yuan:

- <3000 3001-6000 6001- 9000 9001-12000 12001-15000
 15001-18000 18001-21000 21001-24000 24001-27000 > 27001

19. Your highest education level:

- Junior high School or below Senior high school College University (Bachelor) Postgraduate or higher

20. Which country or region do you come from?

- Mainland China Hong Kong Taiwan Macao
 South Korea Japan the US Russia
 Malaysia India Mongolia the Philippines
 Singapore Canada Australia others_____

21. What is the place of your usual residence? (Country & city) _____

22. What is your marital status?

- Single, never married Married Widowed Divorced or separated Other

23. What was your occupation status prior to this trip?

- Employed Unemployed Retired Student Housewife Other

24. With how many people did you travel?

- alone 1 person 2 people 3 people
 4 people 5 people 6 or more people

25. How much RMB in total did you spend in the resort area? _____

26. You have done most of the survey, but would you be willing to be contacted to potentially participate in a follow-up study?

- No, I do not want to be contacted.
 Yes, you can contact me using my contact information provided

(please print clearly)

Name: _____

Valid email address: _____

Wechat or weibo account name: _____

Section to be completed by the research assistant (As respondent, you don't need to fill out the following part):

Interviewer's Name: _____ Interview Location: _____

Interview Date: _____ Time Used (mins): _____

Thank you for participating our survey. Your feedback is extremely valuable.

If you indicated on the survey that you would like a copy of the results, they will be sent to you by email at the address you provided.

We would like to assure you that this study has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through a University of Waterloo Research Ethics Committee. If you have any concerns regarding your participation in this study, please contact the Chief Ethics Officer, Office of Research Ethics, at 1-519-888-4567, Ext. 36005 or ore-ceo@uwaterloo.ca.

If you have any general comments or questions related to this study, please contact Kai Jiang, k7jiang@uwaterloo.ca, Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies.

主题公园参观者调查

感谢您同意参与本调查。问卷需时约 10 分钟。所有答案都为匿名且保密。由于统计分析的要求，部分问题可能略有重复。

第一部分: 以往参观经历

1. 您哪年哪月参观的上海迪士尼度假区? 201__年__月__日
2. 此次是您第一次参观上海迪士尼度假区吗?
是 否
3. 请选择您参观时在上海的身份:
旅游者(短期参观、旅游、商务活动、或其他) 在上海工作的外地人 上海本地人
4. 若您非本地居民, 您此次在上海共停留几晚?
0(当日返回) 1晚 2晚 3晚 4晚
5晚 6晚 7晚或更多

第二部分: 对迪士尼品牌的总体感知

5. 请回答在此次参观之前, 您是否:

- | | | |
|--------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 看过迪士尼出品的电影? | <input type="checkbox"/> 是 | <input type="checkbox"/> 否 |
| 购买过迪士尼的零售商品? | <input type="checkbox"/> 是 | <input type="checkbox"/> 否 |
| 参观过香港迪士尼乐园? | <input type="checkbox"/> 是 | <input type="checkbox"/> 否 |
| 坐过迪士尼的邮轮? | <input type="checkbox"/> 是 | <input type="checkbox"/> 否 |

总体而言, 迪士尼出品的电影、零售商品、迪士尼乐园等都属于迪士尼整体品牌的一部分。请回答如下关于迪士尼整体品牌感知的问题。

6. 以下问题是关于您对迪士尼整体品牌的了解。请圈出在何种程度上, 您同意以下选项。
(1= 强烈不同意; 7= 强烈同意)

	强烈不同意						强烈同意
我很熟悉迪士尼品牌	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
迪士尼是众所周知的牌子	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我听说过迪士尼	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

迪士尼很有名	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
很容易见到迪士尼	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. 以下问题是关于您对迪士尼整体品牌的信任。请选择在何种程度上，您同意以下选项。
(1= 强烈不同意; 7= 强烈同意)

	强烈不同意						强烈同意
迪士尼致力于提升我的满意度	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我相信迪士尼广告里的内容准确	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
如果迪士尼对其产品或服务做出承诺，我相信是真的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第三部分: 上海迪士尼度假区体验

8. 您会用哪三个形容词来描述您在上海迪士尼度假区的体验? 请列出最重要的三个形容词
(正面或负面的皆可)

最重要的形容词: _____

次重要的形容词: _____

第三重要的形容词: _____

9. 您第一次听说上海迪士尼度假区是哪一年?

2010年以前 2010 2011 2012 2013 2014 2015 2016

10. 请圈出在何种程度上，您同意以下描述您在上海迪士尼度假区体验的选项。若未住过上海迪士尼度假区内的官方酒店，无需回答关于酒店住宿的问题

	强烈不同意						强烈同意
我听说过上海迪士尼的正面新闻	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我听说过上海迪士尼的负面新闻	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼很有名	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我信任上海迪士尼	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

上海迪士尼的广告准确描述了我的参观体验	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的商品质量好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的服务友好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的活动多种多样	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
在上海迪士尼参与活动的价格合理	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的酒店住宿是独特的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的酒店住宿设施的质量好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的酒店住宿的卫生状况好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的交通方便	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的可进入性较好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的文化元素多种多样	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的观光价格合理	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的气氛令人感到轻松	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的安全和安保措施到位	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的食品品质优	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼的美食多种多样	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. 以下问题是关于您的幸福度。请圈出在何种程度上，您同意以下选项。

	强烈不同意							强烈同意						
总体而言，我比较幸福	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
与其他同伴相比，我认为自己是幸福的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我享受生活，不管生活中正在发生什么，总是能从事情中获得最多正能量	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
总体来说，我不幸福。虽然不觉得不沮丧，但不那么幸福	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. 您是否与家人共同参观的上海迪士尼度假区？

是(请回答 17 题)

否 (请回答 18 题)

13. 请圈出在何种程度上，您同意以下选项。

	强烈不同意						强烈同意	
我们家人之间很和睦	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我们家人喜欢此次在上海迪士尼度假区的参观经历	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
参观后，家人之间更亲近了	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我们享受与家人在一起的时光	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

14. 以下是关于您在上海迪士尼度假区（以下简称上海迪士尼或它）的体验，请圈出在何种程度上，您同意以下选项。

	强烈不同意						强烈同意	
上海迪士尼度假区让我的生活更有意思	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我感到想来参观	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我有来参观的欲望	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我愿意花时间参观	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
它达到了我的期待	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我与上海迪士尼有情感联系	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
它让我感到放松	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
它充满乐趣	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
它令人兴奋	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
它令人感到愉快	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我是上海迪士尼的长期忠诚顾客	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
它会是我生活的一部分	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我喜欢上海迪士尼	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我对它的总体感受和评价是正面的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我对它满意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
我很确定自己对它的评价	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

我经常想起上海迪士尼	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
它经常出现在我的脑海里	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. 以下问题是关于您对上海迪士尼度假区（以下简称上海迪士尼或它）的忠诚度，请圈出在何种程度上，您同意以下选项。

	强烈不同意						强烈同意
比起其他我去过的旅游目的地，上海迪士尼度假区提供给我更优质的服务	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
它比其他旅游目的地表现地更好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
作为一个旅游目的地，它整体的质量很好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
它给我更多好的体验	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我喜欢在这里参观	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我对上海迪士尼忠诚	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
在这里，我感觉更好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
如果机会允许的话，我打算继续在上海迪士尼度假	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
上海迪士尼度假区是我的旅游度假第一选择	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我会在其他人面前夸赞它	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我会鼓励朋友或家人来这里参观	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我会向朋友推荐上海迪士尼	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
有机会还会再来	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我会对关于它的负面消息持怀疑态度	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

被访者信息

16. 您的性别是： 男 女 不想回答

17. 您属于哪个年龄组：

- 不到 18 岁 18-28 29-38 39-48
 49-58 59-68 69 岁及以上

18. 您的税后个人月收入属于哪个区间（人民币）：

- <3000 3001-6000 6001- 9000 9001-12000 12001-15000
 15001-18000 18001-21000 21001-24000 24001-27000 > 27001

19. 您的最高学历为:

- 初中或以下 高中 专科 大学本科 研究生及以上

20. 您的国籍: _____

21. 您的常居地为: _____

22. 您的婚姻状况:

- 未婚 已婚 失去配偶 离异或分居 其他

23. 此次参观前, 您的就职状态是?

- 在职 失业 已退休 学生 家庭主妇 其他

24. 这次去上海迪士尼, 您与几个人一同参观?

- 独自参观 与另外 1 人 与另外 2 人 与另外 3 人
 与另外 4 人 与另外 5 人 与 6 人或以上

25. 您在上海迪士尼的园区内大约花费了多少人民币? _____

26. 您是否愿意留下您的微信号或邮箱地址以参加一个简短的后续调查?

- 愿意, 请通过如下方式联系我 不愿意

姓名: _____ 邮箱地址: _____ 微信号: _____

Appendix IV: Original and Modified Measures

Original Measures		Modified Measures
Brand Awareness (Oh, 2000) All were 7-point click-button scales	The brand name XYZ is very unfamiliar . . . very familiar	I am very familiar with the Disney brand
	The brand name XYZ is not known at all . . . very well known	This brand is well known.
	The brand name XYZ is not visible at all . . . very visible	Disney is visible.
	The brand name XYZ is never heard of . . . heard of a lot	I have heard of Disney before
	The brand name XYZ is not famous at all . . . very famous	Disney is very famous
Brand Trust (Hess, 1995) All were 5-point Likert scales; 1=totally disagree; 5=totally agree	_____ is genuinely committed to my satisfaction	Disney is genuinely committed to my satisfaction
	When I see a _____ advertisement I believe the information in it is accurate	When I see a Disney advertisement, I believe the information in it is accurate
	Most of what _____ says about its cars is true	Most of what Disney says about it is true
Evaluation of experiential attributes (Chi & Qu, 2008) All were 7-point Likert scales; 1 =very dissatisfied; 7 = very satisfied	Quality of merchandise	The quality of merchandise is good
	service in restaurants	The service is friendly
	variety of special events/festivals	There is a variety of special events/festivals
	reasonable price for activities and events	The price for activities and events is reasonable
	uniqueness of lodging	The lodging is unique
	quality of lodging facilities	The lodging facilities are of good quality
	cleanliness of lodging facilities	The lodging facilities are clean
	convenience of local transportation	The local transportation is convenient
	ease of access	To access the resort is easy
	variety of cultural options	There is a variety of culture options
	reasonable price for sightseeing	The price for sightseeing is reasonable
	restful atmosphere	The atmosphere is restful
	safety and security	Safety and security are good
quality of food	The food quality is good	
variety of cuisine	There is a variety of cuisine	
Brand Love (Batra et al., 2012) All items were 7-point Likert scales,	makes life more meaningful	It makes my life more meaningful
	Feel myself desiring it	I felt myself desiring visiting it
	feeling of desire toward it	I have the feeling of desire toward visiting it

with 1=not at all and 7=very much”	Willing to spend lot of time	I am willing to spend time visiting it.
	meets expectations	Shanghai Disney Resort meets my visiting expectations
	emotionally connected	I’m emotionally connected to it
	Relaxed	Shanghai Disney Resort makes me relaxed
	Fun	It is fun
	Exciting	It is exciting
	Pleasurable	It is pleasurable
	feel sense of long-term commitment	I feel a sense of long-time commitment to it
	will be part of life	It will be part of my life
	Like	I like Shanghai Disney Resort
	positive	My overall feelings/evaluations towards Shanghai Disney Resort are positive
	satisfaction	I am satisfied with it
	certainty of evaluations	I am certain of my evaluations of it
	frequently find myself thinking about it	I frequently find myself thinking about it
popping into my head	It pops into my mind	
Destination Brand Loyalty Yuksel et al. (2010) All items were 5-point Likert scales (1 means strongly disagree; 5 means strongly agree)	Didim provides me superior service quality as compared to other places I have been to	It provided me superior service quality as compared to other places I have been to
	No other destination performs better than Didim	No other destination performed better than it
	Overall quality of Didim is the best as a tourism destination	The overall quality of Shanghai Disney Resort is the best as a tourism destination
	Didim provides more benefits than other places	It provided me with more good experiences than other places
	I love staying in Didim	I loved visiting here
	I feel better when I stay in Didim	I felt better when I stayed here
	I like Didim more than other destinations	I like Shanghai Disney Resort more than other destinations
	If I am given a chance, I intend to continue making my holiday in Didim	If I am given a chance, I intend to continue making my holiday at Shanghai Disney Resort
	I consider Didim to be my first holiday choice	I consider it to be my first holiday choice
Family togetherness	I get along well with my friends	My family gets along well with each other

<p>Lee et al. (2004), Williams and Anthony (2015)</p> <p>All items were 5-point Likert scales: 1=strongly disagree, 3=neutral and 5=strongly agree</p>	I thought the entire family would enjoy it	I thought the entire family enjoyed the visiting experience at Shanghai Disney Resort
	To increase family kinship	Our family kinship was increased
	To spend time with my family together	We enjoyed the time spent with my family together
<p>Perceived Happiness</p> <p>Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1999)</p> <p>All items were 7-point Likert scales</p>	In general, I consider myself not a very happy person (1).....a very happy person (7)	In general, I consider myself a very happy person
	Compared to most of my peers, I consider myself less happy (1)....more happy (7)	Compared to most of my peers, I am a happy person
	Some people are generally very happy. They enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything. To what extent does this characterization describe you? Not at all (1).....a great deal (7)	I am generally happy. I enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything
	Some people are generally not very happy. Although they are not depressed, they never seem as happy as they might be. To what extent does this characterization describe you? Not at all (1).....a great deal (7)	I am generally not very happy. Although I am not depressed, I seldom seem as happy as I might be. <i>(Note: This indicator was removed from the main survey questionnaire due to very low factor loading found in the pilot study. Refer to the pilot study section for explanations.)</i>

Note: All modified measures are 7-point Likert scales, where 1 means “Strongly Disagree”, 4 means “Neither Disagree or Agree,” and 7 means “Strongly Agree”.