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The Memorable Souvenir-Shopping Experience: Antecedents and Outcomes

Erose Sthapit, Dafnis N. Coudounaris, Peter Björk

Abstract

This study examines the relationship among authenticity, satisfaction, co-creation, memorable souvenir-shopping experiences, and place attachment. A post-holiday web-based survey was conducted among tourists to Rovaniemi, Finland, and a valid sample of 301 tourists was used for data analysis. The survey results show that satisfaction and co-creation during onsite souvenir shopping at a tourism destination create memorable souvenir shopping experiences, and that such memories enhance tourists’ feelings of attachment to the destination. The implications for retail management are that souvenir vendors should offer a large assortment of souvenirs to suit tourists’ individual tastes. Souvenir retailers can enhance customer satisfaction through taking such steps as training personnel on customer shopping satisfaction, extending operating hours, broadening the accepted means of payment, and improving the quality and display of products as well as the external appearance of their shops. Additionally, souvenir retailers should interact with customers and engage in onsite co-creation to arouse interest and attention.

Keywords: memories, memorable souvenir-shopping experience, satisfaction, co-creation, place attachment

Introduction

The concept of souvenir is an important part of the leisure experience for many tourists (Murphy, Moscardo, Benckendorff & Pearce, 2011); however, the subject has not been studied as extensively as other concepts in tourism (Kong & Chang, 2016). On the one hand, some studies indicate that souvenirs as objects function not only as reminders of the destination visited but may also symbolise the tourists’ travelling experience (Morgan & Pritchard, 2005). In fact, souvenirs are central to the tourism experience (Brennan and Savage 2012), and many tourists feel that their trips would be incomplete if they failed to purchase souvenirs (Swanson & Horridge, 2006). As a result, tourists bring back mementos and souvenirs as evidence of the special moments they experienced (Wilkins, 2011). In this vein, several studies have identified the key product attributes of souvenirs and souvenir shopping. For example, according to Graburn (1989), the product attributes preferred by travellers when buying souvenirs include portability, inexpensiveness, cleanness and usability at home. In addition, Li and Cai (2008) identified five attributes of souvenir shopping, namely: value, store, collectability, display and functionality. Moreover, shopping literature often indicates that uniqueness and authenticity are key attributes for souvenir shopping (Littrell, Anderson & Brown, 1993).

On the other hand, in today’s experiential marketplace, experience memorability is a primary goal of tourism for tourists, suppliers and destination managers (Campos, Mendes, Oom do Valle & Scott, 2016). Therefore, the focus of tourism must be on offering memorable experiences to customers (Kim, Ritchie & McCormick, 2012; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2017).
Memorable experiences not only represent a new benchmark that destination managers and tourism businesses must seek to offer (Kim et al., 2012) but are also pivotal to gaining a sustainable competitive advantage (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009). Such memories enhance tourists’ identification with a place and strengthen their attachment to it (Loureiro, 2014; Tsai, 2016); they also serve to strengthen tourists’ revisit intention (Coudounaris & Sthapit, 2017) and subjective sense of well-being (Sthapit and Coudounaris 2017). Therefore, modelling the antecedents and outcomes of a memorable on-destination shopping experience remains an important goal in tourism. However, although souvenirs are a signifier of memory (Timothy, 2005), few studies have focused on tourists’ souvenir-shopping experiences (Oviedo-Garcia, Vega-Vazquez, Verdugo, & Reyes-Guizar, 2014) and their impact on the memorability of the trip (Swanson & Timothy, 2012). In other words, despite a wealth of knowledge about the souvenir-shopping experience and its relation to memory, researchers know little about the interplay between specific facets of an experience and the formation of memories.

Littrell (1990) argued that many tourists perceive souvenir purchasing as a search for an authentic tourism experience. Several authors have maintained that authenticity is one of the most important characteristics of souvenirs is authenticity (Littrell, Anderson & Brown, 1993; Turner & Reisinger, 2001; Trinh, Ryan & Cave, 2014). Authenticity is perceived by vacationers as the difference between souvenirs that are unique to a specific area and souvenirs that are mass-produced (Grayson, 2002). Sthapit and Björk (2017) showed authenticity contributes to the memorability of a souvenir-shopping experience for tourists. Additionally, some studies have identified satisfaction as an important component of the tourist experience (Oh, Fiore & Jeoung, 2007; Quinlan-Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). Tung and Ritchie (2011) suggested a positive relationship between satisfaction and memorable experiences. Furthermore, the co-creation of experience has recently received a significant amount of attention in tourism research (Shaw, Bailey & Williams, 2011). Tourism literature has characterised co-creation as the tourist’s active participation in and interaction with a tourism experience (Campos et al., 2016; Tan, Luh & Kung, 2014); the literature has demonstrated that co-creation contributes positively to memorability (Chun &Turk-Browne, 2007; Kim, 2010). Mathis, Kim, Uysal, Sirgy, and Prebensen (2016) argued for the importance of ensuring memorable experiences for customers by supporting the co-creation of experiences. Overall, tourism research has suggested that co-creation enhances the memorability of the tourism experience (Campos et al., 2016; Hung, Lee & Hunag, 2014). However, studies on co-creation have been conducted in the context of nature-based or sport tourism (Ihamäki, 2012), cultural and heritage tourism (Minkiewicz, Evans & Bridson, 2013), resort tourism (Prebensen & Foss, 2011), adventure tourism, and events and festivals (Morgan, 2007). This insight raises interesting, and hitherto largely unexplored, questions.

The present study positions objective authenticity, souvenir shopping satisfaction, and the co-creation of a souvenir shopping experience as the antecedents of a memorable souvenir-shopping experience and place attachment (place identity and place dependence) as the outcome. Specifically, this study investigates the link between objective authenticity, satisfaction, co-creation, memorable souvenir-shopping experiences, and place attachment.

Theoretical framework and hypothesis development
The theoretical framework used in this study provides definitions of five key concepts—authenticity and objective authenticity, satisfaction, co-creation, memorable souvenir-shopping experiences, and place attachment—as well as their interconnections (Figure 1).
Figure 1 The conceptual model

Authenticity and objective authenticity
Authenticity is often defined in terms of a set of characteristics: real, reliable, trustworthy, original, first-hand, true in substance, and prototypical, as opposed to copied, reproduced, or carried out in the same way as the original (Kolar & Zabkar, 2010). In the context of physical objects such as souvenirs, the term ‘authentic’ characterises something that is genuine and not counterfeit (Cohen, 1988) and can be linked to objective authenticity. In keeping with the objectivist approach, Theobald (1998) defined authenticity a ‘genuine, unadulterated or the real thing’ (p. 411). Kolar and Zabkar (2010) found authenticity is based on the originality and genuineness of objects and sites. In the context of souvenir purchases, the perception of authenticity has been defined as the beliefs, ideas, and impressions held by individuals regarding the genuineness, uniqueness, workmanship, aesthetics, utility, and cultural and historical integrity of souvenir products and their attributes (Littrell et al., 1993).

In the literature on souvenir-purchasing behaviour, some authors have found that the perception of authenticity is an important determinant of souvenir choice (Asplet & Cooper, 2000; Swanson & Horridge, 2006). The authenticity of a product has been described as an antecedent of the value that consumers place on marketing offerings (Grayson, 2002). Trinh et al. (2014) found that the authenticity of a product is an important factor in tourists’ souvenir purchases. Moreover, the shopping literature has frequently indicated that authenticity is a key consideration of souvenir shoppers (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). Authenticity has also been identified as one of the components that contributes to the memorability of a souvenir-shopping experience for tourists (Sthapit & Björk, 2017). Based on the literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Objective authenticity directly and positively affects memories of the souvenir-shopping experience.

Souvenir shopping satisfaction
Souvenir shopping satisfaction can be defined as a tourist’s subjective evaluation of a shopping experience at a retail store and of merchandise purchased during his or her stay at a travel destination (Wong & Wan, 2013). Satisfaction is the consequence of a post-purchase experience that equals or exceeds pre-purchase expectations (Vega-Vázquez, Castellanos-Verdugo & Oviedo Garcia, 2017). Therefore, tourist satisfaction is a subjective post consumption evaluation of the service and experience encountered while travelling. Satisfaction has also been described as a post-purchase construct related to how much a consumer likes or dislikes a service or product after experiencing it (Woodside, Frey & Daly, 1989). Although many other conceptualisations exist, scholars agree that satisfaction is a judgment made by a customer following an encounter in which goods or services are exchanged (Yi, 1990). In the tourism context, satisfaction is defined as the outcome of the difference between what is expected and what has been experienced (Chen & Chen, 2010). Specifically, a tourist is satisfied if a feeling of pleasure—a positive, memorable feeling—
results from the comparison of his or her expectations and experiences upon leaving a
destination (Su, Cheng & Huang, 2011). However, when the experience fails to meet or exceed
the level of expectation, a tourist is dissatisfied and is left with a feeling of displeasure
(Reisinger & Turner, 2003).

Tourist satisfaction is a strong antecedent of tourists’ destination choice, the decision to
revisit, and the recommendation of a destination to others (Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Tung and
Ritchie (2011) suggested a positive relationship exists between satisfaction and memorable
experiences. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is presented:

H2: Souvenir-shopping satisfaction directly and positively affects memories of the souvenir-
shopping experience.

Co-creation of the souvenir shopping experience
Co-creation is defined as ‘the joint, collaborative, concurrent, peer-like process of producing
value, both materially and symbolically’ (Galvagno & Dalli, 2014, p. 644) and comprises
dimensions such as physical or psychological participation (Prebensen, Kim & Uysal, 2016).
Additionally, co-creation is a consumer experience of a particular kind, specifically, it is an
actively participated in and interactive experience (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). According
to the concept of the co-creation of experience, the customer and the organisation interact to
‘co-create’ value (Prebensen, Vittersø & Dahl, 2013). The framework of service-dominant
logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) contrasts the co-creation of value with the co-production of value.
The co-production perspective regards the consumer as a passive agent and focuses on how a
firm may benefit from consumer involvement in the production of a service; the co-creation
perspective, however, regards the consumer as an active agent and addresses value creation in
consumer–firm relationships (Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

Caru and Cova (2007, p. 7) observed that it is ‘widely accepted within an experiential
perspective that consumers are not passive agents reacting to stimuli, but, instead, the actors
and producers of their own consuming experiences’. Involving tourists in activities that capture
their interests and attention is very important for co-creation (Andrades & Dimanche, 2014).
In the same vein, participative experiences contribute to meaningful personal narratives
(Gretzel, Fesenmaier & O’Leary, 2006) and long-lasting memories (Larsen, 2007). Some
studies have identified the souvenir shopping experience as an interactive experience between
the seller and the buyer involving customer engagement (Spena, Caridà, Colurcio, & Melia,
2012). Others have found that co-creation affects the memorability of an experience (Campos
et al., 2016; Hung et al., 2014). This leads to the following hypothesis:

H3: The co-creation of a souvenir shopping experience directly and positively affects memories
of such experiences.

Memory and the memorable tourism experience
Tourism experiences involve complex psychological processes with a special focus on memory
(Larsen, 2007). Memory is ‘an alliance of systems that work together, allowing us to learn from
the past and predict the future’ (Baddeley, 1999, p. 1). Memory is an active, constructive
process through which information is acquired and stored; it is then retrieved for use in
decision-making (Braun, 1999). Episodic memory, which involves individuals’ long-term
storage of factual memories concerning personal experiences (Schwartz, 2011), is considered
the type of long-term memory most relevant to the study of tourist experiences (Larsen, 2007)
because ‘lived experiences gather significance as we reflect on and give memory to them’
(Curtin, 2005, p. 3).

Kim et al. (2012) suggested that a memorable tourism experience (MTE) ‘is selectively
constructed from tourism experiences based on the individual’s assessment of the experience’
Accordingly, the authors defined MTEs as tourism experiences that are positively remembered and recalled after the events have occurred. The complexity of MTEs becomes evident in light of the holistic and multifaceted nature of the tourism experience, which encompasses a broad range of interconnected processes and dynamics involving anticipation, travelling to the site, the onsite experience, returning home, and post-travel recollections (Braun-LaTour, Grinley & Loftus, 2006). Anticipation and expectations, which are largely constructed prior to travelling, strongly influence onsite experiences (Hospers, 2009), and memories are derived from these onsite experiences (Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

**Place attachment (place identity and place dependence)**

As objects, souvenirs represent experiences and recollections that are strongly connected with a visited place (Love & Sheldon, 1998). Place attachment has been used to investigate tourists’ emotional, functional, affective, and social attachments to certain tourist destinations and/or tourism products (Yuksel, Yuksel & Bilim, 2010). Place attachment represents the bonds that people develop with places (Gross & Brown, 2008). Such bonds produce “the sense of physically being and feeling “in place” or “at home”” (Yuksel et al., 2010, p. 275). Place attachment considers the human–place bond in terms of two dimensions: place identity and place dependence (Yuksel et al., 2010).

Place identity is a symbolic and emotional attachment to a place developed over time (Stedman, 2002). It is defined as the feelings and memories a person has about a place that evoke a strong sense of connection with the place (Kyle, Bricker, Graefe & Wickham, 2004). Although individuals often identify with places that reflect their identities (Brocato, 2006), only some environments are strongly linked with a person’s self-identification process. The second dimension, place dependence, is a functional attachment to a particular place (Gross & Brown, 2008); this dimension highlights the importance of having the social and physical resources necessary for the desired activities (Kyle et al., 2004). Place dependence is derived from a transactional view that suggests people evaluate places against alternatives. From this perspective, individuals evaluate places according to how well those places meet their functional needs (Brocato, 2006). Others have defined place dependence as how well a specific place meets tourists’ needs (Gross & Brown, 2008; Tsai, 2016; Yuksel et al., 2010).

Studies have indicated that memories are an important component of place attachment and that place attachment depends on positive memorable experiences (Hammitt, Becklund & Bixler, 2006). Among the studies that have demonstrated a positive relationship between memories of a trip experience and place attachment (Louieiro, 2014; Tsai, 2016) is Tsai’s (2016) study of tourists in Taiwan. This study showed that MTEs exert a direct, positive influence on place attachment (place identity and place dependence). The study found that when tourists consume local cuisine, their MTEs positively, significantly influence their cognitive place attachment, and their MTEs had the greatest effect on place dependence. Accordingly, the following is hypothesised:

**H4:** Memories of the souvenir-shopping experience are directly and positively related to place identity.

**H5:** Memories of the souvenir-shopping experience are directly and positively related to place dependence.

**Method**

*Pilot test, data collection, and data analysis tools*
To reduce the potential for errors in the current study, the authors pre-tested the questionnaire with four academic researchers at the University of Vaasa, Finland. Pilot testing of the questionnaire was further conducted among 15 students at the University of Vaasa in August 2017 to confirm the relevance, clarity, flow, and phrasing of the questions. It was estimated that each questionnaire could be completed within 10 minutes. Consequently, the survey participants had no complaints about its length. Because the questionnaire was available online, the respondents were able to complete it very quickly.

For this study, a quantitative research approach was chosen. An empirical study was conducted using a self-administered questionnaire. The target population comprised tourists who had visited Rovaniemi, Finland. From this population, a sample of tourists who had visited Rovaniemi in the past year and purchased souvenirs during their trip was identified by convenience sampling. With the help of local tour operators in Rovaniemi, an invitation containing a link to the survey was sent in September 2017 to 500 tourists asking them to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was available online for four months (September–December 2017). The study used Rovaniemi as the study site since Rovaniemi is an international travel destination located in Finland’s northernmost province, Lapland. The range of current souvenir offerings that are unique to Rovaniemi includes traditional handicrafts, jewellery, art objects with Northern and Artic themes, Arctic leather and fur, handmade and everyday products including hunting knives (Rovaniemi Tourist Information, 2018).

Respondents were first instructed to recollect their recent visit to Rovaniemi and their positive souvenir-shopping experiences. The study instrument was a self-administered questionnaire with two sections. The first section included demographic variables (i.e. age, gender and nationality) and travel characteristics (i.e. the number of trips to Rovaniemi and number of people in the travel party). The second section included multi-item scales that measured five constructs: authenticity, satisfaction, co-creation, memorable souvenir-shopping experience, and place attachment (place identity and place dependence). Authenticity was measured using four items adapted from Xie, Wu, and Hsieh’s (2012) study. Satisfaction comprised of three items adapted from Oh et al. (2007). Co-creation was measured using five items adapted from Cova, Dalli, and Zwick (2011), Mathis, Kim, Uysal, Sirgy, and Prebensen (2016), and Vargo, Lusch, Akaka, and He (2010). The memorable shopping experience construct was measured using three scale items adapted from Oh et al. (2007). The present study implemented a two-dimensional conceptualisation of place attachment: place dependence and place identity. The scale items measuring place dependence and place identity were adapted from previous studies (Gross & Brown, 2008; Yuksel et al., 2010). In total, the survey comprised 35 items. Respondents were asked to respond to each item using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (Table 1).
Table 1 Operationalization of constructs used in this study (variables sources and measurement items)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Measurement Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Authenticity (Xie, Wu & Hsieh, 2012) | X1 The souvenir reflects traditional Finnish culture  
X2 The souvenir presents the aesthetic beauty of Finnish culture  
X3 The souvenir shows the uniqueness of Finnish culture  
X4 The souvenirs reflect the work and art from local Finnish people in Rovaniemi |
| Satisfaction (Oh, Fiore & Jeong, 2007) | The overall experience of shopping for locally produced souvenirs in Rovaniemi made me feel  
X5 Very Satisfied  
X6 Very Pleased  
X7 Delighted |
| Co-creation of experience (Cova et al., 2011; Mathis, Kim, Uysal, Sirgy & Prebensen, 2016; Vargo, Lusch, Akaka & He, 2010) | X8 Working alongside of a souvenir shop owner, seller or staff allowed me to have a greater social interaction, which I enjoyed  
X9 I felt comfortable working with a souvenir shop owner, seller or staff during this activity  
X10 The setting of the souvenir shop allowed me to effectively collaborate with the shop owner, seller or staff  
X11 My vacation experience was enhanced because of my participation in souvenir shopping  
X12 I felt confident in my ability to collaborate with the souvenir shop owner, seller or staff |
| Memorable shopping experience (Oh et al. 2007) | X13 I have wonderful memories of souvenir shopping experience in Rovaniemi  
X14 I won’t forget my souvenir shopping memories in Rovaniemi  
X15 I will remember my souvenir shopping memories in Rovaniemi |
| Place Attachment (Gross & Brown, 2008; Yuksel et al., 2010) | Place Identity  
X16 Rovaniemi is a very special destination to me  
X17 I identify strongly with Rovaniemi  
X18 Holidaying in Rovaniemi means a lot to me  
X19 I am very attached to Rovaniemi  
Place Dependence  
X20 Holidaying in Rovaniemi is more important to me than holidaying in other places  
X21 Rovaniemi is the best place for what I like to do on holidays  
X22 I will not substitute Rovaniemi with any other place for the experience I had there  
X23 I get more satisfaction out of holidaying in Rovaniemi than from visiting similar destinations |

Findings

Profile of the respondents
A total of 301 survey responses were used in the data analysis (response rate: 60.2%). The respondents were mostly female (76.3%). The respondents ranged in age from 19 to 62 years. The largest group of survey participants (55.9%) was between 35 and 44 years of age. Most of the respondents were married (94.7%). In terms of nationality, 36.8% of the respondents were
either German (22.0%), British (20.9%) or Spanish (11.9%). Additionally, most of the respondents had visited Rovaniemi either twice (36.7%) or three times (22.0%). Finally, most of the respondents had travelled in groups of three to four persons (36.5% and 41.1% respectively).

**Estimation of the model**

For the estimation of the model, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was implemented using the maximum likelihood module of Amos 24. The CFA results, shown in Table 2, suggested an acceptable fit, as demonstrated by the goodness-of-fit diagnostics. The estimation of the default model, which was performed by implementing a CFA and using the 301 cases, indicated a good fit. CMIN/DF \( (\chi^2/df) \) was 2.885, which is below the threshold of 5 with 194 degrees of freedom; the value of the confirmatory fit index (CFI) was good (0.928, well above the threshold of 0.700). Furthermore, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was 0.079 (with LO 90 = 0.072 and HI 90 = 0.087); this was lower than the critical value of 0.08, which is the worldwide minimum limit (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010), with an expected cross-validation index as high as 2.259. In addition, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), normed fit index (NFI), relative fit index (RFI), incremental fit index (IFI), Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) and parsimonious normed fit index values were .856, .895, .875, .929, .914 and .751, respectively.

The above estimation of the model is satisfactory. According to Kenny (2005), when N > 200 (in our case, N = 301), Hoelter’s critical N statistic is greater than 75, and the chi-square is statistically significant (Hoelter = 122 at the 0.05 significance level and Hoelter = 131 at the 0.01 significance level; see Table 3); the model fit is not poor. Therefore, the CFI value (in our case, 0.928) is not the only measurement that can be used to determine whether the model fit is poor or satisfactory. In this case, the model fit was satisfactory. Furthermore, the value of the parsimony comparative-of-fit index (PCFI) of 0.779 was greater than 0.750; this satisfied one of the two assumptions of a well-fitting, parsimonious model (Rigdon, 1996, p. 376). However, the second assumption of Rigdon (1996) was not satisfied because the CFI value was less than 0.95.

This study followed Hair et al. (2010) and initially unidimensionalised (i.e., constrained) the largest estimated variable of each construct. Next, we correlated the errors of the variables for their modification indices (MI) in the findings that had high covariance (greater than MI = 16.000; i.e., e10 to e11 = 270.121, e3 to e4 = 137.603, e3 to e3 = 130.647, and e2 to e4 = 100.893). Finally, we extracted one variable from the model that had lower standardised regression weights over 1.0 (i.e., X12 = 3.240). The deduction of this variable improved the important statistics (i.e. chi-square by degrees of freedom, RMSEA, and CFI).

As Table 2 shows, the CFA results suggested an acceptable fit, as demonstrated by the goodness-of-fit diagnostics. The hypothesised associations between the constructs were tested by estimating the structural equation modelling (SEM) using the maximum likelihood technique. The results showed that the NFI, CFI, RFI, IFI, and TLI had high values, as expected.

**Table 2 Model fit summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Parameters</th>
<th>Fit Estimates of Parameters of Default Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CMIN NPAR 59</td>
<td>CMIN 559.708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR, GFI RMR .067</td>
<td>GFI .856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseline Comparisons NFI, Delta1 .895</td>
<td>RFI, rho1 .875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRATIO P NFI PGFI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3 shows the correlation matrix of the six constructs provided by the output of Amos 24. This matrix revealed that there is no multicollinearity problem since the correlations are below 0.7.

Table 3 Pearson correlations of sample (N=301)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>f1</th>
<th>f2</th>
<th>f3</th>
<th>f4</th>
<th>f5</th>
<th>f6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity f1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction f2</td>
<td>.698</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-creation f3</td>
<td>.680</td>
<td>.652</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memorable shopping experience f4</td>
<td>.616</td>
<td>.611</td>
<td>.643</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place identity f5</td>
<td>.356</td>
<td>.335</td>
<td>.353</td>
<td>.296</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place dependence f6</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 presents the results of using a regression analysis on the 301 cases. According to this table, three out of five relationships were supported. The two unsupported relationships were authenticity to memorable shopping experience and memorable shopping experience to place identity.

Table 4 Testing of Hypotheses Based on Regression Analysis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Hypothesized Relationship</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficient B</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient estimate B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>P value</th>
<th>Status of hypotheses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>Authenticity to Memorable Shopping Experience Satisfaction</td>
<td>-.134</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>1.490</td>
<td>.137</td>
<td>Non-supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>Memorable Shopping Experience to Co-creation</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>.441</td>
<td>7.072</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>Memorable Shopping Experience</td>
<td>.355</td>
<td>.120</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>2.952</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>Memorable Shopping</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>1.098</td>
<td>.273</td>
<td>Non-supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Experience to Place Identity Memorable Shopping Experience to Place Dependence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Impact of variables**</th>
<th>Beta estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R. or t-value</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Status of Mediation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before mediator F4 enters into the model F5 to F1</td>
<td>F5 to F1</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>1.336</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td>No mediation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After mediator F4 enters into the model F5 to F4 to F1</td>
<td>F5 to F1</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>1.585</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F4 to F1</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>1.585</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F5 to F4</td>
<td>.799</td>
<td>.211</td>
<td>3.783</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before mediator F4 enters into the model F5 to F2</td>
<td>F5 to F2</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>2.823</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F5 to F4</td>
<td>-.230</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>-1.376</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After mediator F4 enters into the model F5 to F4 to F2</td>
<td>F5 to F2</td>
<td>.264</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>7.098</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F4 to F2</td>
<td>.264</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>7.098</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F5 to F4</td>
<td>-.292</td>
<td>.207</td>
<td>7.320</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before mediator F4 enters into the model F5 to F3</td>
<td>F5 to F3</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>1.268</td>
<td>.205</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F5 to F4</td>
<td>.227</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>2.302</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F4 to F3</td>
<td>.227</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>9.975</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F5 to F4</td>
<td>-.292</td>
<td>.207</td>
<td>7.320</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After mediator F4 enters into the model F4 to F1</td>
<td>F6 to F4</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.535</td>
<td>.593</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F6 to F1</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.975</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F4 to F1</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.975</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The tests of hypotheses are based on the final dataset (301 cases) with very few (30) missing data. Missing data is replaced by the means of variables.

Table 5 presents the unstandardised coefficients of the latent variables and their standard errors, t-values, and p-values. The standardised path coefficients, particularly for the following three relationships, were positive and statistically significant: satisfaction to memorable shopping experience (99% confidence level), co-creation to memorable shopping experience (95% confidence level) and memorable shopping experience to place identity (95% confidence level).

**Mediation analysis**

Table 5 shows the results of the statistical analysis that was conducted to test whether memorable shopping moderates the path between authenticity/satisfaction/co-creation and place identity/place dependence. In all six cases, we used SEM to tackle the mediation issue.
Before mediator F4 enters into the model F6 to F2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F6 to F2</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.494</td>
<td>.621</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After mediator F4 enters into the model F6 to F4 to F2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>F6 to F2</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.555</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>9.965</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.555</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>9.965</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.629</td>
<td>.199</td>
<td>-8.189</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before mediator F4 enters into the model F6 to F3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F6 to F3</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>1.175</td>
<td>.240</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After mediator F4 enters into the model F6 to F4 to F3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F6 to F3</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20.806</td>
<td>7.494</td>
<td>2.776</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20.806</td>
<td>7.494</td>
<td>2.776</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.013</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>-54.712</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *Estimates are found by AMOS 24. ** F1=Authenticity, F2=Satisfaction, F3=Co-creation, F4=Memorable Shopping, F5=Place Identity, F6=Place Dependence.

The findings show that memorable shopping experience was a significant mediator in four of the six relationships (satisfaction and place identity, co-creation and place identity, satisfaction and place dependence, and co-creation and place dependence). Memorable shopping experience, however, was not a significant mediator in two relationships (authenticity and place identity, and authenticity and place dependence).

Table 5 shows that memorable shopping experience was a partial mediator (MacKinnon, Fairchild & Fritz, 2007) in one relationship: satisfaction and place identity. Memorable shopping experience was a complete mediator in three relationships: co-creation and place identity, satisfaction and place dependence, and co-creation and place dependence. Additionally, the indirect impacts of satisfaction and co-creation on place identity and place dependence were significant after memorable shopping experience entered the model as a mediator. Finally, the indirect impacts of authenticity on place identity and place dependence were not significant after memorable shopping experience entered the model as a mediator.

**Reliability and validity**

The construct reliability and variance extracted (VE) for all six constructs were calculated using CFA via Amos 24. The calculations revealed that all constructs had a construct reliability that exceeded 0.7. The mean construct reliability estimate was 0.771, which is above the critical value of 0.7. Therefore, this estimate suggests a satisfactory degree of reliability.

To assess convergent validity, we did the following: first, the loading estimates (standardised regression weights) of the 23 variables were examined; they were found to be within the range of .564 to .914, well above 0.5, thus exhibiting satisfactory convergent validity. Because 87% of the values of the loadings were above 0.700, we concluded that there was convergent validity. Second, the calculation of the VE from each construct exceeded 70%; thus, the model exhibited convergent validity. Specifically, the VE for the six constructs was above 50% (authenticity = 0.763, satisfaction = 0.714, co-creation = 0.775, memorable shopping experience = 0.895, place identity = 0.679, and place dependence = 0.758) and the average VE (AVE) was 0.76. Because each construct had a VE > 0.5 and the AVE = 0.76 (> 0.5), the discriminant-validity criterion of AVE > 0.5, introduced by Fornell and Larcker (1981), was satisfied. The statistics of the fit of the model were very good (i.e., GFI = 0.856, CFI = 0.928), and the RMSEA value (0.079) was below the internationally recognised threshold of 0.08. In addition, the estimation of Cronbach’s α of the constructs revealed high reliability: Authenticity = .726, Satisfaction = .760, Co-creation of experience = .763, Memorable shopping experience = .917, Place identity = .705, and Place dependence = .753.
Conclusion

This study makes five notable contributions to the tourism literature. First, the findings indicated that purchasing authentic souvenirs while at a tourism destination did not positively or significantly contribute to tourists’ memories of souvenir-shopping experiences. The findings are contrary to some studies indicating that authenticity is one of the most important characteristics of souvenirs (Littrell et al., 1993; Turner & Reisinger, 2001; Trinh et al., 2014), and authenticity contributes to tourists’ memories of the trip experience (Sthapit & Björk, 2017). One reason for the nonsignificant relationship between authenticity and memorable souvenir-shopping experience is that authenticity is subjectively assessed (Asplet & Cooper, 2000; Swanson & Horridge, 2006), and individuals’ perspectives on authenticity differ; they may evaluate it in dissimilar ways (Littrell et al., 1993).

Second, satisfaction with the souvenir shopping experience contributed to memories of such an experience. In other words, the standardised path coefficient value between satisfaction with a souvenir shopping experience and a memorable souvenir-shopping experience was 0.079 (P = 0.000), indicating that satisfaction with souvenir shopping experience has a positive and significant direct impact on the memories of the experience. The findings support Tung and Ritchie (2012), which showed a positive relationship between satisfaction and memorable experiences. Although Kim (2009) indicated that satisfactory tourism experiences may not be recalled in the post-consumption phase and are unlikely to provide a sustainable competitive advantage to businesses in destination areas, the findings indicate that higher levels of tourist satisfaction with souvenir shopping are associated with stronger memories of souvenir-shopping experiences. In contrast to studies indicating that memorable experiences have higher value for tourists than merely satisfactory ones (Kim et al., 2012; Morgan & Xu, 2009), the findings of this study support research indicating that satisfaction is one of the key constructs in tourist behaviour studies (Lee, Kyle & Scott, 2012; Lee, Lee & Choi, 2011).

Third, the relationship between co-creation of souvenir shopping experience and memorable souvenir-shopping experience was significant, with a standardised path coefficient value of 0.120 (P = 0.003). This shows that a greater degree of co-creation during souvenir purchase is associated with higher memorability of souvenir-shopping experiences. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was supported. This finding supports some previous studies indicating that co-creation positively affects the memorability of the experience (Campos et al., 2016; Hung et al., 2014).

Fourth, there was a nonsignificant relationship between memorable souvenir-shopping experience and place identity (Hypothesis 4). The study found that tourists’ memories of the souvenir-shopping experience positively and significantly influenced their cognitive place attachment and that their memorable souvenir-shopping experiences had an effect on place dependence. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was supported. Specifically, when tourists have a memorable shopping experience, they are more likely to evaluate the destination as a place that meets their functional needs, represented in this context by the purchase of souvenirs; however, this is not linked to personal identification with the destination. Overall, a satisfactory and co-creative souvenir-shopping experience supports the creation of positive and long-lasting memories, and such positive memories enhance tourists’ attachment to the destination.

Given the short tourist seasons, undifferentiated product lines, and highly concentrated direct competition, souvenir retailers face significant challenges (Swanson & Timothy, 2012). The results of our empirical tests might give rise to useful insights that may be shared with souvenir retailers. Tourists have highly differentiated tastes and needs, so more souvenir choices might enhance their sense of autonomy and cater to diverse preferences, consequently contributing to their increased satisfaction. Souvenir retailers should offer a large assortment of souvenirs; doing so may give them an advantage over outlets offering smaller assortments because it increases the chances that tourists will satisfy their own particular wants. Furthermore, retailers should encourage employees to focus on offering memorable souvenir
shopping experiences through satisfactory service delivery, which further influences tourists’
place dependence. For example, souvenir retailers can enhance customer satisfaction by
improving service provision, for example, through retailer training on customer shopping
satisfaction, extending operating hours, broadening the accepted means of payment, expanding
the variety of products, improving the quality and the display of products, and improving the
external appearance of their shops. Moreover, social interaction is an important dimension of
coopera tion (Yi & Gong, 2012) and is of major significance in the context of tourism (Andrades
& Dimanche, 2014). The management of attention, that is, focused mental engagement with a
particular item among all those vying for attention in the environment, whether external or
internal (Ingram, 1990), is pivotal to engaging tourists in co-creation (Andrades & Dimanche,
2014). Therefore, souvenir retailers should involve themselves in active interaction with
customers and engage in onsite co-creation to arouse interest and attention. In addition, during
on-site co-creation, the customer should be at its centre.

Regarding the study’s limitations, its findings are highly destination-specific because the
data were collected only from visitors to Rovaniemi; the use of a single destination limits the
findings’ generalisability to other destinations. Moreover, the study was limited to authenticity,
satisfaction and co-creation in predicting memories of souvenir-shopping experiences. The
present study adopted a web-based survey questionnaire. Adopting a greater array of research
methods might overcome this research limitation by using, for example, focus groups, surveys,
in-depth interviews, observations, and diaries obtained from sampled individuals who record
their choice overload onsite. The questionnaire was developed in English, thus excluding non-
English speakers; the questionnaire should be translated into different languages if data is to
be collected from several nationalities. Another limitation is that the data was collected in the
post-visit stage. The potential time lapse was one year, which might have had a possible impact
on survey responses. The memory reconstruction framework indicates that when a past
experience is recalled, memory is not merely a reproduction of past experience, but rather a
complex process in which correlated information from what consumers knew before an actual
experience and what they learned afterwards becomes integrated to create an alternate memory
of product experience (Bartlett, 1932). This ‘reconstructive memory’ and creation of false post-
experience ‘information’ has been further identified as a process that alters how consumers
remember their previous experiences (Schacter, 1995). Braun-Latour et al. (2006) indicated
that post-experience information, that is, advertising and word-of-mouth, contributes to
tourists’ memory distortion. To avoid this incongruence between remembered and onsite
experiences, future studies should gather data immediately after the visit. Moreover, the focus
of the study was on positive memorable souvenir shopping experiences; however, this study
acknowledges that while the term ‘memorable’ tends to have a positive connotation, tourists’
recollections of their holiday experiences may also evoke some less-positive emotions (Locher,
Yoels, Maurer, & Van Ells, 2005). In addition, Pine and Gilmore (1998) showed that poor
service can easily be converted into a negative memorable experience.

Memories of holidays have been shown to contribute to individuals’ subjective well-being
(Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2017). Thus, a discussion of how pleasant memories of a travel
experience spurred by souvenirs are related to tourists’ subjective well-being represents a
significant contribution to research. Future research could examine whether souvenirs help
travellers savour positive emotions and investigate the influence of positive emotions on the
memorability of the trip. The rationale is that positive emotional activation contributes to the
creation of memories (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Finally, studies have indicated that souvenirs
can evoke sensory memories and act as channels for recalling tourism (Morgan & Pritchard,
2005). Future studies could explore the different senses evoked by souvenirs and the senses
that predominantly influence trip memorability.
References


