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RESEARCH NOTE

How Affective Evaluation and Tourist Type Impact Event Marketing Outcomes: Field Studies in Experiential Marketing

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ABSTRACT

Events and experiential marketing are a standard for many brands in practice, but they remain relatively underaddressed in the academic literature. While advertising and marketing scholarship has examined some experiential marketing and branded events, it is not typically done from a tourist consumer perspective. Thus, through the theoretical lens of the Mehrabian–Russell (M-R) model and the concept of perceived value, the current research examines event marketing and branded experiences using two field studies conducted in a leading U.S. tourist destination city (an aquarium experience, $n = 340$, and a retail brand–sponsored fashion show, $n = 396$). Study 1, with a tourist sample, takes a pre-event perspective. Findings demonstrate that prior to experiencing the event, consumers' affective evaluation of the event environment impacts both expected event entertainment (EEE) and perceived event quality (PEQ). However, only PEQ enhances tourists purchase intentions (PI) toward the event sponsor. Study 2 adopts a post-event perspective and demonstrates a boundary condition of tourist type (locals, domestic tourists, and international tourists). Findings suggest that the relationship between actual event entertainment (ACEE) and PI is stronger for international tourists, but the effect of product knowledge on PI is stronger for domestic tourists and locals (versus international tourists).

KEYWORDS

Experiential marketing; event marketing; entertainment marketing; consumer behavior

Events and experiential marketing are prominent forms of advertising campaigns and integrated brand promotion (O'Guinn et al. 2019) which are emerging in practice and naturally link with tourism but which are underaddressed in the advertising literature. Scholars in advertising and marketing have defined event marketing as "the practice of promoting the interests of an organization and its brands by associating the organization with a specific activity" (Shimp 1993, p. 8). As suggested by Zarantonello and Schmitt (2013), such an association can be built in two ways: brands own and launch an event (e.g., experiential marketing) or brands offer monetary or in-kind assistance to a property in return for the establishment of brand objectives (i.e., sponsorship). The advertising literature has embraced a sponsorship focus (e.g., Cornwell 2019; Cornwell and Maignan 1998; Wakefield, Wakefield, and Keller 2020), but there is an opportunity for more of a focus on related aspects of integrated brand promotion in branded entertainment (events) or experiential marketing. Thus, here we focus more on the event or experience, which is complementary to the rich sponsorship scholarship. We add the tourism consumer perspective, which is more unique.

The increasing use of experiential marketing in practice by advertisers and marketers again clearly demonstrates the need for experience-based research. In fact, based on the latest available data, experiential marketing spending in the United States via events

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was in excess of $62 billion in 2018, which represented an increase of 7.9% (PPAI Research 2019). Despite this prominence in practice, a paucity of advertising scholarship focuses on the role of branded experiences and entertainment events; furthermore, the gap is in examining this approach from a tourist lens. In this research, we highlight why advertising scholars and marketing managers should pay attention to perceptions of experiences and entertainment events and how they may drive purchase intentions (PI) for associated entities.

Thus, this research aims to contribute to the advertising literature by filling this gap while illuminating an industry practice that warrants more theory-based scholarship in advertising. The objective here is to provide and empirically test a framework to explain the effectiveness of (in terms of PI) tourist-oriented marketing events from both a pre-event and post-event perspective. Study 1 examines the impact of tourists' affective evaluation of the event environment before experiencing it on expected event entertainment, perceived event quality, and PI among product knowledge of the sponsor, post-event entertainment, and PI for the event sponsors. A boundary condition of tourist type (i.e., international, domestic, and local) is examined to identify the different evaluations on marketing events across these distinct consumer groups.

Intended contributions are threefold. First, we provide work on a topic or issue (experiential marketing) which emerges in advertising practice but which is relatively understudied in the advertising literature, especially from a tourist perspective. Second, we use a creative and innovative field research approaches by partnering with practitioners and conducting intensive, in-person data collection with tourists at live entertainment experiences in two different industries. Third, our framework provides a theoretical insight in extending the Mehrabian–Russell (M-R) model (Mehrabian and Russell 1974) by adding functional value and emotional value as mediators between the affective responses elicited by the environment and behavioral intentions for tourists. This is done with field research in two aspects of the entertainment sector that may set forth research streams blending experiential marketing, environmental psychology, tourism studies, and advertising/integrated brand promotion. While each of these areas is independently well developed, advertising scholars are in an advantageous place to develop fundamental theory to explain ways these areas intersect due to their natural synergies.

Theoretical Background and Conceptual Model

The M-R Model and Affective Evaluation of Event Environment (AEE)

The M-R model is a theoretical framework explaining and/or predicting the role of a consumer's environment through the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) mechanism. According to this theory, environmental stimuli evoke emotional responses that lead to corresponding (consumer) behaviors (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). Here, environmental stimuli at an event may include sound, light, space allocation, and design. Consumer behavior in a marketing setting is determined in part by the degree to which an environment makes people feel pleasure (such as happiness and joy) or arousal (such as feeling excited and active) (Donovan and Rossiter 1982; Liu and Jang 2009).

In the event marketing context, PI can be heightened as a result of the environment-induced positive affective experiences (Donovan and Rossiter 1982; Liu and Jang 2009). Affect entails a wide variety of consumer feelings, which are experienced via specific emotions (Bagozzi et al. 2016). Here, based on research in affective evaluations, we focus on the emotions of contentment, happiness, cheerfulness, and relaxation generated by the event environment. Therefore, the first hypothesis states that event attendees' affective evaluation of the event environment has a direct positive effect on PI toward the event sponsor.

H1: Affective evaluation of the event environment has a positive effect on PI for the event shops.

Perceived Value: Expected Event Entertainment (EEE) and Perceived Event Quality (PEQ)

Perceived value is the "overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given" (Zeithaml 1988, p. 14). It involves a trade-off between benefits (e.g., quality) and sacrifices (e.g., price) associated with a product (Patterson and Spreng 1997) or, here, experience. Perceived value is multidimensional and a variety of subdimensions exist, such as social value, emotional value, and conditional value (Grönroos 1997; Sheth, Newman, and Gross 1991; Sweeney and Soutar 2001). Specifically, the hedonic (emotional) and utilitarian (functional) value system (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982) is particularly influential and especially relevant here due to the entertaining nature of tourist experiences. Emotional value entails the symbolic meaning and affective experiences that an offering elicits. Functional value encapsulates the economic, efficient, and task-specific components, such as quality and price (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982). The study here conceptualizes that experiences can primarily

provide two types of value: emotional value (which derives from being entertained by an event) and functional value (which originates from the quality judgment of an event).

Scholars suggest that perceived value can be formed at any stage of the consumer purchase decision, including the prepurchase stage that precedes product use (Sánchez et al. 2006; Sweeney and Soutar 2001; Woodruff 1997) or experience. Likewise, for marketing events, perceived value derived from event entertainment (from an emotional dimension) and perceived event quality (from a functional dimension) can be formed prior to the event (Krishen et al. 2020). In this study, we examine consumer expectations of how entertaining an event will be and perceived event quality, constructs which are overviewed next.

Expected event entertainment (EEE) is defined as how entertaining, fun, and enjoyable the event experience should be (Chandon, Wansink, and Laurent 2000; Close, Krishen, and LaTour 2009). It measures consumer assessment immediately prior to a marketplace experience. Perceived event quality (PEQ) is defined as the extent to which a consumer believes that the event experience is (or will be) better, higher quality, and superior to most other experiences (Taylor and Bearden 2002). Because expected entertainment and perceived quality are formed prior to the branded experience, both should be shaped by the event environment. This suggestion is supported by the M-R model (Mehrabian and Russell 1974).

As mentioned, affective evaluation of the event environment should also have a positive effect on consumers' value judgments (i.e., EEE and PEQ). As Schwarz (1990) suggests, consumers generally see their own emotional states as an affective response toward whatever the consumer is evaluating. Thus, event attendees may attribute their positive emotions, evoked by their environment, to expectations of the event itself and perceive more value from it by deeming it higher quality. Furthermore, Wegener, Petty, and Smith (1995) show that uplifting emotions motivate people to process positive information and curtail negative information processing. Therefore, increased perceptions of value, including EEE (emotional value) and PEQ (functional value) should incur from the event environment. Event attendees are likely to receive and process more positive information because of the preexisting positive emotional state generated by the event environment.

H2: Affective evaluation of the event environment has a positive effect on EEE.

H3: Affective evaluation of the event environment has a positive effect on PEQ.

In addition, both functional value and emotional value are presumed to be positively related to PI, which is the stated intention to purchase from the shops in the venue that hosts the experience. Functional value signals the efficient, task-based, and economic advantages of a good or service (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982) and is a leading motivation for purchasing (Sheth, Newman, and Gross 1991). Emotional value also drives purchase decisions because positive emotions elicit approach behaviors as stated in the M-R model (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). Such can explain a positive transfer from the attendees' EEE and PEQ to their intentions to purchase at the various shops in the venue.

H4: EEE has a positive effect on PI for the shops in the venue that hosts the experience.

H5: PEQ has a positive effect on PI for the shops in the venue that hosts the experience.

The mediating effects, supported by the literature synthesized, are formalized here as hypotheses 6 and 7.

H6: EEE mediates the effect of affective evaluation of the event environment on PI.

H7: PEQ mediates the effect of affective evaluation of the event environment on PI.

The conceptual model overviews these predicted relationships and is depicted in Figure 1. Next, we overview Study 1.

Study 1

Methods

Procedure

A field study was conducted over a span of five days using pen-and-paper surveys in spring 2018 (see Krishen et al. 2020). The questionnaires were distributed to tourists who were waiting in line to take part in an experience (an aquarium and reef exhibit) held by a casino/hotel in the middle of the city center of a major tourist destination city in the United States. The experience allows consumers to feel as if they are diving among sharks, sea turtles, and more than 2,000 marine animals and costs approximately $20. The venue includes a hotel, casino, conference area, and about 20 event shops, including restaurants and retail. Thus, this field study accounts for consumer assessment immediately preceding the experience.

Sample

A total of 479 tourists participated in the study. After removing responses with ample missing data, the sample size became 353. We then removed outliers, and

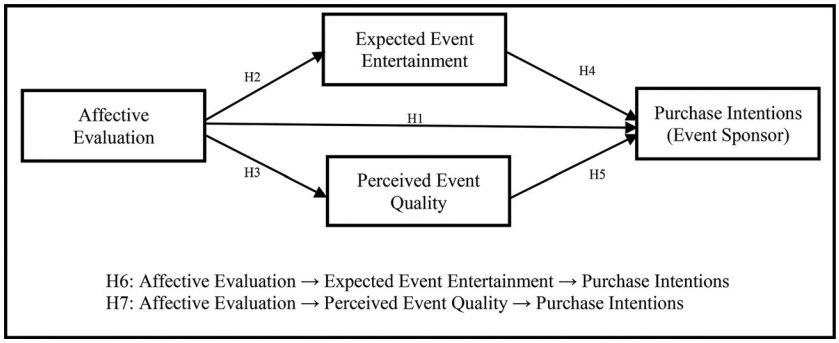

Figure 1. Study 1 conceptual model.

Table 1. Study 1 results.

	Expected Event Entertainment			Perceived Event Quality			Purchase Intentions		
Predictor	Value	*b*	SE	Value	*b*	SE	Value	*b*	SE
Affective evaluation		.70***	.03		.70***	.04		.51***	.08
Expected event entertainment								−.10	.08
Perceived event quality								.33***	.07
Overall *F*	457.45***			303.45***			74.60***		
Overall R^2	.58			.47			.40		

Note. Affective evaluation → Expected event entertainment → Purchase intentions, 95% bootstrap confidence interval = [−.19, .04]; Affective evaluation → Perceived event quality → Purchase intentions, 95% bootstrap confidence interval = [.13, .33].
*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

the final adjusted sample size was $n = 340$. Of the 340 participants, 59.4% were female and the average age was 36.86 ($SD = 12.00$). Tourists who traveled from other U.S. states consisted of 79.1% of the sample, 19.7% were international tourists, and 1.2% were in-state visitors.

Measures

All variables were measured using 7-point Likert-type scales. All scales showed appropriate internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha values greater than the .70 threshold (Table A1 in Web Appendix A). The correlation analyses showed that EEE and PEQ were at first highly correlated ($b = .82$). Based on exploratory factor analysis (EFA), we removed PEQ3 from the scale due to cross-loading. The discriminant validity of the revised perceived quality scale was acceptable (Table A2 in Web Appendix A).

All items from the scales demonstrated appropriate standard factor loadings (SFL = .70−.91 > .50), average variance extracted (AVE = .56−.75 > .50), and composite reliability (CR = .79−.91 > .70). Thus, SFL, AVE, and CR values demonstrated sound convergent validity for the scales (Table A3 in Web Appendix A). Furthermore, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) revealed that the measurement model had an acceptable fit. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = .07 < .10), the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR = .04 < .08), the comparative fit index (CFI = .97 > .90), and the Tucker–Lewis index (TLI = .96 > .90) all demonstrated acceptable model fit (Table A3 in Web Appendix A).

Analysis and Results

Before testing the hypotheses, we conducted a collinearity test on SPSS, and the variance inflation factor (VIF) values for the three predictors (AEE, EEE, and PEQ) were 2.66, 2.83, and 2.32. As all these values were less than 5, no collinearity issues existed.

Conditional Process Analysis (Model 4) was performed using PROCESS Version 3.4 (Hayes 2013). Results are shown in Table 1 (also in Figure B1 in Web Appendix B).

Mediating Effect/Model Fit

As shown in Table 1, there was a good overall fit for the model ($R^2 = .40$, MSE = 1.28, F (3, 335) = 74.60, $p < .000$). The independent variable (AEE) as well as the mediators (EEE and PEQ) together explained 40% of the variance in the dependent variable (PI). The direct effect of AEE on PI was significant, supporting hypothesis 1 ($b = .51$, standard error [SE] = .08, t (335) = 6.69, $p < .000$). EEE (58% of its variance) and PEQ (47% of its variance) were significantly predicted by AEE. Thus, hypothesis 2 ($b = .70$, SE = .03, t (337) = 21.39, $p < .000$) and hypothesis 3 ($b = .70$, SE = .04, t (337) = 17.42, $p < .000$) were supported.

The relationship between EEE and PI ($b = -.10$, SE = .08, t (335) = −1.22, $p = .22$) was not significant; therefore, hypothesis 4 was not supported. As predicated in hypothesis 5, the effect of PEQ on PI was significant ($b = .33$, SE = .07, t (335) = 4.72, $p < .000$).

Hypotheses 6 and 7 describe the mediating effects. The predicted mediating effect through event entertainment (hypothesis 6) was not significant (AEE → EEE → PI). However, a significant mediating effect through PEQ was observed (AEE → PEQ → PI) with 95% bootstrap confidence interval [CI] = [.13, .33], supporting hypothesis 7 (see Table 1).

Overall, Study 1 results yielded a significant direct effect (AEE → PI) and a significant mediating effect on PI (AEE → PEQ → PI) for tourists preceding an entertainment experience.

Study 2

Objectives

The aims of Study 2 are threefold. First, this study can enhance generalizability by examining another type of branded experience in a different industry of interest to advertisers and event marketers. Second, it considers a post-event circumstance so that actual entertainment perceptions are measured. The analysis on both pre-event and post-event entertainment allows us to note the dynamic role of event entertainment at two stages of marketing events (immediately before the experience and immediately after). Third, we introduce a boundary condition and examine potential differences between tourists and locals or between various types of tourists.

Hypotheses

Actual Event Entertainment (ACEE) and Product Knowledge of the Sponsor (PKS)

Actual event entertainment (ACEE) is defined as the consumer's evaluation that an event is entertaining, fun, and enjoyable (Chandon, Wansink, and Laurent 2000). Based in the literature, we posit that after experiencing a marketing event, the impact of the event environment and the effect of the expected value become less salient while the evaluation on ACEE will be more influential in persuasive outcomes. Before examining the effect of ACEE, product knowledge is introduced in Study 2 as an antecedent to ACEE based on existing literature (e.g., Close, Krishen, and LaTour 2009; Close and Lacey 2013; Roy and Cornwell 2004).

Product knowledge (of the sponsor) (PKS) refers to the extent to which consumers have experienced the sponsor, regularly use their products/services, and have expertise about the sponsor (Close, Krishen, and LaTour 2009; Close and Lacey 2013). PKS represents the familiarity between consumers and the brand. Having a high level of product knowledge about the sponsoring brand would help consumers identify the sponsor, associate the sponsored event with the brand, and experience more comfort with the event environment (Roy and Cornwell 2004). Because knowledgeable consumers exhibit more mental comfort and show more readiness for identifying and building association with the brand, we predict the following:

H8: PKS has a positive effect on ACEE.

H9: PKS has a positive effect on PI for the event sponsor.

Consistent with Study 1, ACEE represents the emotional value provided by the event, and the relationships predicted in Study 1 should still hold here:

H10: ACEE has a positive effect on PI for the event sponsor.

The mediating effect is also formalized in hypothesis 11.

H11: ACEE mediates the effect of PKS on PI for the event sponsor.

Tourist Type: International Tourists versus Domestic Tourists versus Locals

Tourist type refers to whether the consumer is from local, domestic, or international origin. Note that, in this study, consumers who live within the county are considered locals. Among these three groups, international tourists are thought to be a more special group.

Explained by tourist culture theory, a tourist's behaviors are influenced by the trade-off between tourist cultures and residual cultures (Jafari 1987). Tourist culture comprises an animated lifestyle that is associated with a new identity (as a tourist) developed while traveling (Carr 2002b). Meanwhile, residual culture refers to values and norms that derive from one's home (or local) culture (Jafari 1987). Yuksel (2004) suggests that international tourists are more likely to accept a tourist culture/identity compared to locals and domestic visitors. Adopting this view, we predict that tourist type (as a local, domestic, or international tourist) will moderate the aforementioned predicted paths (hypotheses 8, 9, and 10). The effect of product knowledge on ACEE and PI will be stronger for locals

and domestic tourists than for international tourists, whereas the effect of ACEE on PI will be stronger for international tourists than for the other two groups.

Embracing tourist culture and marginalizing residual culture, international tourists tend to engage in more hedonic and pleasure-seeking behavior (Carr 2002a, 2002b). This should lead them to be affected more by activities offering emotional and experiential value; thus, the effect of event entertainment should be stronger for international tourists. The product knowledge effect is thought to be attenuated for international tourists, as prior knowledge represents a high familiarity, which reduces novelty and creates a condition that is not conducive to the development of tourist culture. Formally hypothesized, the tourist status is a proposed boundary condition for the aforementioned relationships.

H12: PKS has a positive effect on ACEE especially for locals and domestic tourists (versus international tourists).

H13: PKS has a positive effect on PI for the event sponsor especially for locals and domestic tourists (versus international tourists).

H14: ACEE has a positive effect on PI for the event sponsor especially for international tourists (versus locals and domestic tourists).

See Figure 2 for the conceptual model.

Methods

Procedure

The sample was formed from a set of field studies sponsored by a retailer at a mall in the same city and part of town as Study 1. On most weekends 20-minute free fashion shows took place, during which models wore the retail sponsor merchandise and performed on a fashion runway that rises up in the center of the mall. Throughout the shows, the sponsor's logo was displayed on the stage and on a big screen. Two authors and multiple research assistants collected data after 21 sponsored fashion shows in a top tourist destination city over a weekend in fall 2007 (see Close, Krishen, and LaTour 2009).

This study, being a post-event inquiry, is designed to be Study 2 in the present framework. Immediately after each show (approximately 20 minutes), the researchers approached audience members and asked them to complete a survey. The incentive was a promotional coupon book and/or pen.

Sample

In total, 583 adults started the two-page survey, whereas 532 completed both sides. The data were cleaned following the same procedure as in Study 1: removing outliers and using the responses that reported tourist type information and variables of interest. The usable sample size was $n = 396$, with an average age of 36.78 ($SD = 13.40$). In terms of gender, 63.9% of our participants were female. In terms of tourist type, 23.2% were international, 38.4% were domestic, and 38.4% were local.

Measures

All variables were measured using 7-point Likert-type scales. See Table A1 in Web Appendix A for the items and sources; see Table 2 for reliability values and the correlation matrix of the scales/variables.

Tourist type was determined by zip code and country of origin. Participants were categorized as international tourists if their country of origin was outside the United States. Participants who provided zip codes that were within the county were identified as locals. Others were categorized as domestic tourists.

Results

Models 4 and 59 of Conditional Process Analysis were performed to test hypotheses 8 through 11 and 12 through 14 using PROCESS Version 3.3 (Hayes 2013). Results are shown in Table 3 (also in Figure B2 in Web Appendix B).

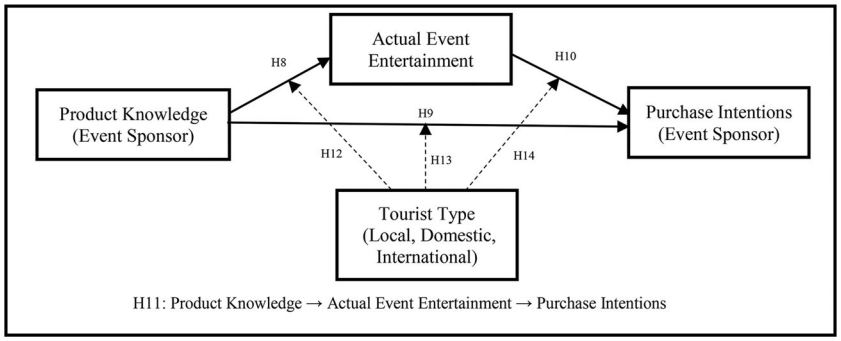

Figure 2. Study 2 conceptual model.

Table 2. Study 2 descriptive statistics, reliability, and correlations.

Scale ($n = 396$)	*M* (*SD*)	α	Product Knowledge of Sponsor	Actual Event Entertainment	Purchase Intentions
Product knowledge of sponsor	5.07 (1.65)	.84	1		
Actual event entertainment	5.69 (1.36)	.89	.53**	1	
Purchase intentions	5.07 (1.40)	.74	.68**	.64**	1

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Table 3. Study 2 results (direct and mediating effect).

	Actual Event Entertainment			Purchase Intentions		
Predictor	Value	*b*	SE	Value	*b*	SE
Product knowledge of sponsor		.44***	.04		.41***	.03
Actual event entertainment					.40***	.04
Overall *F*	153.65***			265.66***		
Overall R^2	.28			.57		

Note. Product knowledge of sponsor → Actual event entertainment → Purchase intentions, 95% bootstrap confidence interval = [.12, .23].
*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Table 4. Study 2 results (moderated mediation effect).

	Actual Event Entertainment			Purchase Intentions		
Predictor	Value	*b*	SE	Value	*b*	SE
Product knowledge of sponsor		.44***	.06		.42***	.06
Actual event entertainment					.58***	.08
Domestic tourists versus International tourists		−.25	.45		−.03	.51
Locals versus International tourists		−.49	.46		−.59	.51
Interaction 1		.01	.09		.25**	.08
Interaction 2		.05	.09		.33***	.08
Interaction 3					−.28**	.11
Interaction 4					−.24**	.10
Overall *F*	31.30***			74.75***		
Overall R^2	.29			.61		

Note. Interaction 1 = Product knowledge of sponsor × D1 (Domestic tourists versus International tourists); Interaction 2 = Product knowledge of sponsor × D2 (Locals versus International tourists); Interaction 3 = Actual event entertainment × D1 (Domestic tourists versus International tourists); Interaction 4 = Actual event entertainment × D2 (Locals versus International tourists).
*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Mediating Effect/Model Fit

As shown in Table 3, the overall mediation model displayed an acceptable fit ($R^2 = .57$, MSE = .84, F (2, 393) = 265.66, $p < .000$); 57% of the variance in PI was explained by the mediating model. Hypothesis 8 ($b = .44$, SE = .04, t (393) = 12.36, $p < .000$), hypothesis 9 ($b = .41$, SE = .03, t (393) = 12.36, $p < .000$), and hypothesis 10 ($b = .40$, SE = .04, t (393) = 9.96, $p < .000$) were all supported. The direct effect (PKS → PI) was significant with 95% CI = [.34, .47]. The indirect effect (PKS→ ACEE → PI) was also significant with 95% bootstrap CI = [.12, .23], supporting hypothesis 11.

Moderating Effect and Moderated Mediation Effect

Table 4 shows the results of moderating effects. After adding the moderator, the model displayed a better fit ($R^2 = .61$, MSE = .79, F (8, 387) = 74.75, $p < .000$). An insignificant moderating effect was found for tourist type on the relationship between PKS and ACEE ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, F (2, 390) = .14, $p = .87$); thus, hypothesis 12 was not supported (Table 4).

A significant moderating effect was found for tourist type on the relationship between PKS and PI ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, F (2, 387) = 8.73, $p < .000$). Although PKS significantly predicted PI for all three groups—namely, locals ($b = 0.56$, t (387) = 9.63, $p < .000$), domestic tourists ($b = .49$, t (387) = 8.98; $p < .000$), and international tourists ($b = .23$, t (387) = 3.96; $p < .000$)—the strength of this effect differed across groups, and the effect was stronger for locals ($b = .33$, t (387) = 3.98; $p < .000$) and domestic tourists ($b = .25$, t (387) = 3.17; $p < .05$) than for international tourists. Hypothesis 13 was supported (Figure 3).

A significant moderating effect was also found for tourist type on the relationship between ACEE and PI ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, F (2, 387) = 3.89; $p < .05$). Although ACEE significantly predicted PI for all three groups—namely, international tourists ($b = 0.58$, t (387) = 7.12, $p < .000$), locals ($b = .34$, t (387) = 5.69; $p < .000$), and

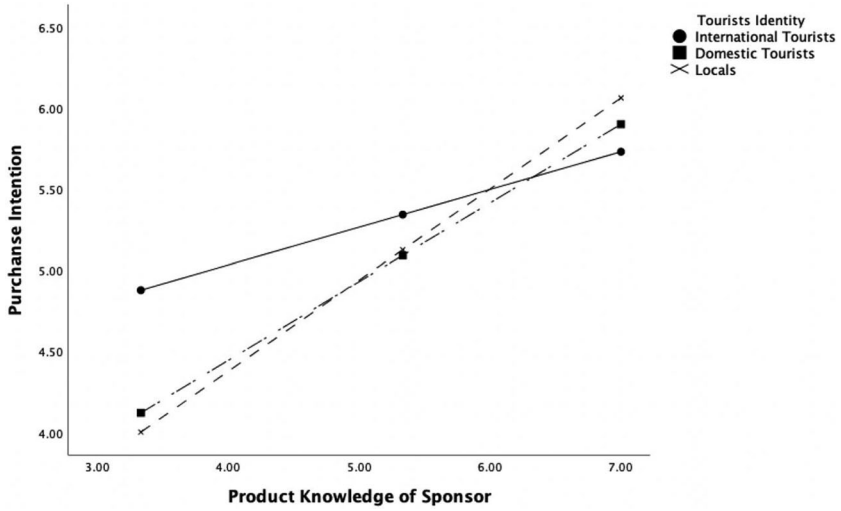

Figure 3. Study 2: The relationship of product knowledge of sponsor and purchase intentions within three tourist groups (hypothesis 13).

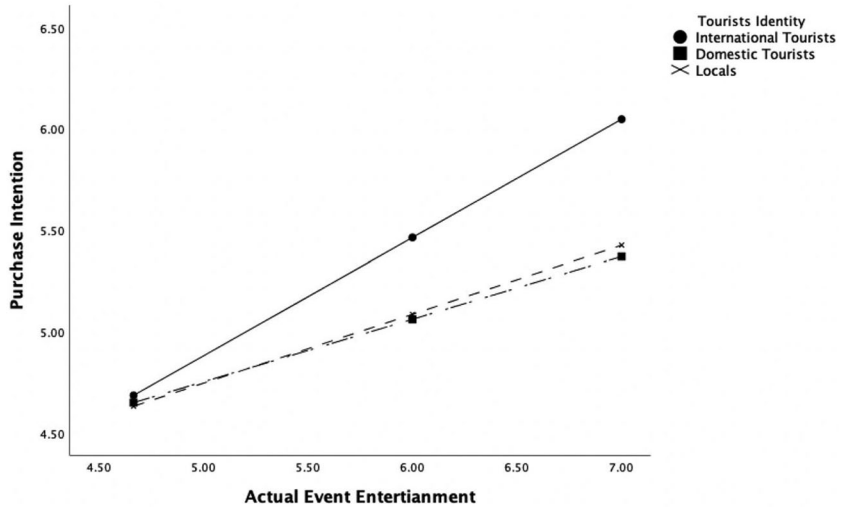

Figure 4. Study 2: The relationship of actual event entertainment and purchase intentions within three tourist groups (hypothesis 14).

domestic tourists ($b = .31$, $t\ (387) = 4.67$; $p < .000$)—the strength of this effect differed across groups, and the effect was stronger for international tourists than for domestic tourists ($b = -.28$, $t\ (387) = -2.61$; $p = .009$) or locals ($b = -.24$, $t\ (387) = -2.40$; $p = .017$). Hypothesis 14 was supported (Figure 4).

Recall that the results regarding hypotheses 12, 13, and 14 were based on the fact that international tourists were dummy-coded as a reference group. To examine whether any differences exist between locals and domestic tourists, we then repeated dummy-coding, with locals being the reference group. The result showed that the effect of PKS on PI was not significantly different between these two groups ($b = -.08$, $t\ (387) = -.96$, $p = .34$) and this insignificant difference was also observed in the effect of ACEE on PI ($b = -.03$, $t\ (387) = -.35$, $p = .72$). The absence of differences between locals and domestic tourists demonstrated the similarities between these two groups and the uniqueness of international tourists. Overall, with the exception of hypothesis 12, hypotheses 8 through 14 were all supported.

Discussion

Theoretical Implications

Our studies contribute to the advertising literature by examining the effects of event marketing through the lens of the M-R model and perceived value. Understanding the origins of effects in the event marketing literature is less explored. Twenty years ago,

Cornwell and Maignan (1998) called for more research to explain event marketing and sponsorship effects. However, to date, minimal conceptual frameworks have been applied to explain the mechanisms underlying the effects of event marketing as experiential marketing relative to the amount this form of integrated brand promotion is used in practice. In fact, an understanding of the ways in which marketing events affect consumers' behaviors is still lacking (Zarantonello and Schmitt 2013).

In this article, Study 1 applies the M-R model into a new event marketing context and demonstrates that, prior to actually experiencing an event, the environment is crucial in shaping one's affective experience and its subsequent persuasive outcomes. Meanwhile, our studies extend the M-R model by adding two types of perceived value—emotional value (represented by expected event entertainment) and functional value (represented by perceived event quality)—as mediators between the affective responses elicited by the environment and behavioral intentions for tourists.

A critique of the M-R model is that it focuses on emotional states generated via the environment and thus tends to underestimate cognitive aspects (Liu and Jang 2009). By including individual cognitive evaluations of perceived value obtained from an event, the study here proposes a more complete explanation of the mechanism of the event environment effects. This extended M-R model is developed based on Liu and Jang (2009), wherein perceived value is suggested to be included in the M-R model. However, in their work, perceived value of a restaurant is generally assessed from a functional perspective and values in other dimensions (such as emotional value) are less explored. Hence, we adopted Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) functional-emotional dichotomy and evaluated the value perceived of a marketing event from two dimensions.

We also advance advertising research by differentiating locals, domestic tourists, and international tourists from one another and providing empirical support of the uniqueness of international tourists in experiential marketing contexts. Whereas event entertainment is important for all three groups, it has a more pronounced effect for international tourists than it does for local or domestic ones. Our findings indicate that international tourists are different from local and domestic ones—which ultimately did not show differences among themselves. The significant differences between international visitors and locals also demonstrate the need for advertising scholars to investigate how marketing events perform among tourists, especially international ones.

Finally, for advertising scholarship, this article illuminates a lesser examined yet important research area that is prevalent in practice. As stated, the advertising literature is rich with a sponsorship focus (e.g., Cornwell 2019; Cornwell and Maignan 1998; Wakefield, Wakefield, and Keller 2020) but has more opportunities for studying entertainment or experiential marketing for brands—especially from a tourist perspective. The underrepresentation of research attention may be partly due to the fact that, by nature, consumers' live experiences are better understood using field study methods. However, as reported by Chang (2017), very few of the survey studies published in the top five advertising journals from 2001 to 2015 use an in-person field data collection methodology; instead, most of them conduct lab studies, through which it can be difficult to capture the live/experiential nature, and use online samples. We call for more research attention for the purpose of examining the perceptions of entertainment event experiences and their relationship with subsequent purchase intentions for associated entities.

Implications for Practice

Although practitioners at times apply consumer segmentation geographically, our findings suggest more specific insights for this form of segmentation for advertising purposes. Our findings show that international tourists are more likely to purchase sponsored brands as a function of actual event entertainment (versus locals or domestic tourists). Thus, for clients or brands with international tourist target markets, providing entertaining marketing events (here, a sponsored fashion show) is a way to spark purchase intentions for the sponsoring brand and serve as entertaining sales promotions alike. For brand campaigns, emphasizing the entertainment aspect for the international tourist segment in related advertising may prove to be beneficial, when fitting.

Second, we find that positive affective evaluation (specifically being content, happy, cheerful, relaxed) of the event environment has positive downstream effects for associated brands in terms of stronger purchase intentions. Thus, practitioners who have the objective of enhancing consumer purchase intentions for their clients or brands can continue to focus on any aspect of the marketing environment that can reinforce these positive states. For instance, the fashion show branded experience features novel lighting

displays, music, and merchandise that coordinates with the image of the show sponsor.

Third, the mediating effect of perceived event quality between affective evaluation and purchase intention has important implications for event managers. This finding suggests that the feelings developed by consumers prior to an event can trigger quality expectations, which can ultimately lead to intentions to purchase products or services. As such, advertising and event managers can carefully monitor the affective state of consumers, focusing on mood-enhancing marketing methods such as culinary offerings and atmospherics (e.g., peaceful sounds, aromatherapy). Prior to events, marketers should make an effort to enhance the consumer experience in other creative ways, for example, by setting up photo booths. These types of marketing offerings can ultimately lead to higher purchasing intention for the event sponsor and affiliated retailers, as was demonstrated empirically here.

Finally, expectations surrounding event entertainment are not as powerful in driving purchase intentions as positive consumer assessments of *actual* entertainment. The actual entertainment level, as well as how the event environment makes consumers feel (explained by the role of the environment per the MR model), is important as a focal point for practitioners. The actual entertainment level and event environment are perhaps more important than the customer expectations for the entertainment. Such is based in the finding that there is not a significant relationship between expected event entertainment and purchase intentions, but there is a significant relationship for actual event entertainment (post-event) and purchase intentions.

Limitations and Future Research

This work has limitations that illuminate avenues for future research for advertising and integrated brand promotion scholarship. First, while field studies are very realistic, some researcher control is sacrificed during field study data collection. There are potential confounding variables that were not controlled for nor measured due to the need for parsimony when surveying consumers in person at events. Relatedly, there are likely other potential spurious correlations. For example, in Study 2, a hidden variable may impact both knowledge of the sponsor and purchase intentions. Future research is encouraged to examine our models with additional covariates and blocking factors. Further, advertising scholars are encouraged to adopt complementary approaches to examine our findings in more controlled experimental settings and to show boundary conditions. Scholars are also encouraged to adopt creative and innovative ways to examine experiential marketing in the field, because experiential and event marketing research by nature is distinct and especially ripe for fieldwork.

In addition, the findings here are limited in generalizability, as two different contexts of experiential marketing were investigated. While both of our studies took place in the same tourist area for consistency, there was a substantial time lapse across studies due to building relationships with practitioners and securing managerial partnerships. Advertising scholars are encouraged to examine how the findings obtained in these studies apply to other event contexts, such as sports, music, and charity events, while continuing to develop insights based on the experiential environment and the M-R model. It is hoped that this research sparks an interdisciplinary stream of research in advertising that blends advertising and integrated brand promotion perspectives of hotel/tourism/travel (HTT), environmental psychology, and entertainment marketing.

Finally, we call for future research on perceived value of events or branded experiences as novel and unique settings that are distinct from the more commonly studied perceived value of products or services. Note that perceived value has been used to explain consumer purchase decisions on tangible products first and then intangible services later. Scholars have extensively discussed the different values offered by services as opposed to actual products. However, not many studies have examined the potential value provided by branded experiences or events. For instance, deep qualitative inquiry is encouraged to discover what values consumers search for and obtain from marketing events, such as sport events, and how these values differ from values perceived from products or services. We suggest this area could be a fruitful research stream which will not only further develop the literature on perceived value but also offer a new perspective to understand the effects of event marketing for advertisers to consider integrating into their campaigns in sports marketing and other industries that rely heavily on experiential marketing.

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Notes on Contributors

Drs. Close Scheinbaum and Krishen developed the study questions and did the data collections. Ms. Li carried out the statistical analyses. Mr. Wang and Dr. Scheinbaum wrote the first draft of the paper, and all authors provided critical revisions. All authors contributed to and approved the final manuscript.

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