Empirical Research Article

Tourists’ Destination Loyalty through Emotional Solidarity with Residents: An Integrative Moderated Mediation Model

Manuel Alector Ribeiro1,3, Kyle M. Woosnam2, Patricia Pinto3, and João Albino Silva3

Abstract
This study proposes a theoretical model integrating two lines of tourism research: emotional solidarity and destination loyalty. In order to test the proposed model, a survey of visitors to Cape Verde islands was undertaken. Structural equation modeling and moderated mediation analysis were implemented to assess the relationships involving visitors’ emotional solidarity with residents, satisfaction, and destination loyalty. The three dimensions of emotional solidarity were considered in the study: feeling welcomed, sympathetic understanding, and emotional closeness. Results indicate that visitors’ feeling welcomed and sympathetic understanding directly influence loyalty. In particular, the relationships involving visitors’ feeling welcomed by residents, emotional closeness with residents, and sympathetic understanding with residents and loyalty were all mediated by satisfaction. Additionally, gender was found to moderate the conditional indirect effects of emotional closeness and feeling welcomed on loyalty (via satisfaction). Such relationships were stronger among male visitors. Implications as well as future research opportunities are offered.

Keywords
emotional solidarity, feeling welcomed, emotional closeness, sympathetic understanding, satisfaction, loyalty

Introduction
Customer satisfaction is one of the most significant components of evaluating trip experience and also a challenge for destination management organizations (DMOs), as it acts as an integral driver of customer loyalty (Um, Chon, and Ro 2006). With growing competition among destinations, DMOs and government officials are dedicating more attention and resources to enhance tourist satisfaction and loyalty. In recent years, tourist loyalty has become one of the most ubiquitous topics examined within the tourism and hospitality literatures (e.g., see Gursoy, Chen, and Chi 2014; Meleddu, Paci, and Pulina 2015; Prayag et al. 2017; Sun, Chi, and Xu 2013). As pointed out by some scholars (e.g., Chi 2012; Gursoy, Chen, and Chi 2014), antecedents of loyalty have been extensively researched, with tourist satisfaction appearing as one of the most important (Chi and Qu 2008; Prayag et al. 2017). Other antecedents include customers’ perceived value at the destination (Gallarza and Saura 2006; Prebensen et al. 2013), perceived destination services (Chen and Tsai 2007; Chi 2012), image of the destination (Chen and Gursoy 2001; Chen and Tsai 2007; Chi and Qu 2008), travel motivations (Jang and Wu 2006; Prebensen et al. 2013; Prayag and Ryan 2012), level of involvement with the destination (Havitz and Dimanche 1999; Prayag and Ryan 2012), previous experience within the destination (Chi 2012; Gursoy and McCleary 2004), attachment to the destination (Prayag and Ryan 2012; Yuksel, Yuksel, and Bilim 2010), emotional experience with the destination (del Bosque and San Martin 2008; Prayag, Hosany, and Odeh 2013; Prayag et al. 2017), and visit intensity with the destination (Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2017).

Satisfaction has an explicit influence on tourists’ behaviors contingent upon how satisfied an individual is with the tourism product (Tudoran, Olsen, and Duplico 2012). Given that satisfying individuals’ experiences predict further intention (Lee, Kyle, and Scott 2012; Oliver 2010), it is vital to comprehend the degree to which tourist satisfaction is enhanced by the relationship with other people in the destination (e.g., host community) to encourage future visitations. This relationship translated through an emotional feeling can

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be analyzed through the construct of emotional solidarity (Woosnam, Norman, and Ying 2009). Research within disciplines such as anthropology, sociology, and social psychology (Bahr et al. 2004; Clements 2013; Ferring et al. 2009; Merz, Schuengel, and Schulze 2007) has acknowledged the importance of the concept of emotional solidarity in explaining other constructs. Notwithstanding the plethora of work examining antecedents of tourist satisfaction and loyalty, an integrative model that combines tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents, tourist satisfaction, and destination loyalty remains absent from the tourism literature. As pointed out by Woosnam and Aleshinloye (2013), an examination of the relationship between tourists’ emotional solidarity and visitors’ satisfaction and destination loyalty has the potential to explain intentions to revisit. Such research has the potential for managerial implications to ensure DMO officials remain attentive to the perceived relationship between visitors and residents as it may translate to individuals returning.

One means by which to examine the role emotional solidarity plays in explaining visitors’ satisfaction and loyalty with the destination is through developing and testing integrative models. Such an approach has been called for most recently in the works of Chen and Phou (2013) and Zhang et al. (2014). To date, however, works focusing on tourists’ emotional solidarity have only considered satisfaction and loyalty tangentially (see Woosnam 2012; Woosnam et al. 2015), calling for further work to examine the potential relationship. Nevertheless, such work has been somewhat elementary in its efforts to test the theoretical model of solidarity as forged through Durkheim’s ([1915] 1995) work. The current work seeks to extend the initial Durkheim model of emotional solidarity in developing a more advanced integrative model to explain satisfaction and loyalty.

In developing this integrative model however, attention must be given to extraneous factors which could potentially serve to confound the relationship between solidarity, satisfaction, and loyalty. Gender is one such variable. In the tourism and hospitality literature, gender has been considered an important determinant (contrary to many other sociodemographic factors) of tourist satisfaction and behavior (Ramkissoon and Mavondo 2015; Um and Crompton 1992) although as pointed out, it explains only a limited amount of variance relative to other constructs (Fischer and Arnold 1994). To date, no research has examined whether gender moderates the indirect relationships between the three factors of emotional solidarity and loyalty (through satisfaction) in an integrative model. In this sense, from the theoretical and methodological points of view, this study provides an integrative model by testing gender as a moderating factor between emotional solidarity and loyalty through satisfaction. In doing so, developing and testing a moderated mediation model will permit the improvement of theoretical correlation among variables and ultimately contribute to further theory development. The purpose of this study is therefore to establish and test a theoretical destination loyalty model that combines two streams of research by integrating the influences of tourists’ emotional solidarity within the tourist behavior model.

**Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development**

**Destination Loyalty**

Nearly 100 years have passed since Copeland’s (1923) seminal work on “consumer buying habits,” which has given rise to loyalty research in numerous disciplines and fields. Despite the consolidation of tourism as a field of research, destination loyalty is conceptually embedded within the wider product and service literature (McKercher and Guillett 2011; Oppermann 2000; Pritchard and Howard 1997). Loyalty is often viewed as customers’ repeat purchase behavior influenced by their emotional commitment or favorable attitude (Haywood-Farmer 1988). As Sun, Chi, and Xu (2013) and Yoon and Uysal (2005) have pointed out, destination loyalty is a powerful indicator of success in the hospitality and tourism literature. Within the tourism literature, destination loyalty is defined as the degree of a tourist’s willingness to recommend a destination (Chen and Gursoy 2001), or the level of a tourist’s repeat visitation (Oppermann 2000).

In the hospitality and tourism literature, tourist loyalty has been examined as an extension of customer loyalty in a tourism context (Backman and Crompton 1991; Baloglu 2001). Researchers to date have conceived of loyalty from a behavioral standpoint, an attitudinal approach, or as a composite of the two (Jacoby and Chestnut 1978; Zhang et al. 2014). The behavioral approach focuses on tourists’ consumptive behavior such as the frequency of repeat visitation (Oppermann 2000; Yoon and Uysal 2005). However, this approach usually fails to disclose the antecedent factors that affect customer loyalty (Yoon and Uysal 2005). The attitudinal approach is related with tourists’ psychological commitments such as revisit intention and willingness to recommend the destination to others (Pritchard and Howard 1997; Yoon and Uysal 2005; Zhang et al. 2014). A composite approach entails that neither attitudinal nor the behavioral loyalty approach alone entirely captures loyalty (Backman and Crompton 1991; Zhang et al. 2014). As argued by Zhang et al. (2014) tourists who show behavioral loyalty toward particular destinations or attractions are likely to perceive those destinations or attractions positively. Others scholars (Correia and Kozak 2012; Wang, Kirillova, and Lehto 2017) have found that tourists may show negative attitude toward a destination and be loyal to it through willingness to revisit and by spreading positive word of mouth. Specifically, this might be related to visitors’ personal benefits such as prestige and status or an increase in self-esteem, connection with others and enhancement of social standing.
Chen and Gursoy (2001) claimed that the combination of both attitudinal and behavioral loyalties reflects a more robust representation of loyalty. It is evident that loyal customers will repeatedly purchase the same product. However, repeated purchase may not happen for tourism destinations even if the tourist had an outstanding experience at one particular tourism destination (Chen and Gursoy 2001; Gursoy, Chen, and Chi 2014). Although, revisit intention and recommendations made from others are the most commonly-used measures for tourist loyalty (Oppermann 2000; Sun, Chi, and Xu 2013), destination loyalty may not require an individual to visit the same destination repeatedly. However, attitudes have been shown to relate to behavior, although it is important to emphasize that one tourist may show a favorable attitude toward a destination but not revisit it over multiple occasions because of comparable or greater attitudinal extremity toward other destinations (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Gursoy et al. 2014). Thus, as recommended by several scholars (e.g., Backman and Crompton 1991; Gursoy, Chen, and Chi 2014; Yoon and Uysal 2005; Zhang et al. 2014) destination loyalty should be simultaneously considered from both behavioral and attitudinal approaches.

**Emotional Solidarity**

With historical roots in classical sociology, Emile Durkheim is noted as the creator of the concept of emotional solidarity. As a structural functionalist, Durkheim ([1995] 1995) considered the social fact of solidarity as the cohesion of individuals within a group demonstrated through ritualistic behavior and deeply held beliefs. It was in the classic texts of *The Division of Labor in Society* (Durkheim [1893]1997) and *The Elementary Forms of the Religious Life* (1912) where Durkheim laid the theoretical foundation for solidarity among individuals from a macro-sociological perspective. Birthed in *The Elementary Forms*, and amended by the work of Collins (1975), the theoretical framework posits that emotional solidarity is forged through individuals’ interaction with each other as well as their shared beliefs and behaviors.

Research involving the concept of emotional solidarity from a microsociological perspective steadily increasing in fields and disciplines such as intergenerational studies, anthropology, social psychology, and sociology (Bahr et al. 2004; Clements 2013; Ferriget al. 2009; Merz, Schuengel, and Schulze 2007); most recently, the concept has been examined extensively within the travel and tourism literature (see Hasani, Moghavvemi, and Hamzah 2016; Simpson and Simpson 2016; Woosnam et al. 2015; Woosnam, Dudensing, and Walker 2015). This line of research (from the perspective of destination residents solidarity with tourists) began with the development of measures for each of Durkheim’s key constructs (i.e., interaction, shared beliefs, and shared behavior) (Woosnam, Norman, and Ying 2009), followed by the creation of the 10-item Emotional Solidarity Scale (ESS) composed of three dimensions: Feeling Welcomed, Emotional Closeness, and Sympathetic Understanding (Woosnam and Norman 2010). Psychometric properties (i.e., reliabilities and validities) for each dimension have been strong despite research contexts being limited to the United States.

In addition to the ESS being utilized in work to support Durkheim’s initial framework, where the construct was significantly predicted from residents’ interaction, shared beliefs, and shared behavior with tourists (Woosnam 2011a, 2011b), the construct (and its corresponding dimensions) has been considered an outcome of length of residence (Woosnam et al. 2014). Woosnam and Aleshinloye (2013), in building on the work of Woosnam (2012), tested Durkheim’s model from a tourist’s perspective, showed how interaction, shared beliefs, and shared behavior each significantly predicted levels of emotional solidarity. To date, a limited focus has been placed on considering emotional solidarity as an antecedent of other measures. Exceptions to this include the work by Woosnam (2011b) which found each of the three ESS dimensions significantly predicted residents’ perceived impacts of tourism development (i.e., the two resulting dimensions of Lankford and Howard’s [1994] Tourism Impact Attitude Scale). Hasani, Moghavvemi, and Hamzah (2016) also found that emotional solidarity significantly predicted residents’ attitudes about tourism development.

Examining two Mexico–U.S. border destinations, Woosnam et al. (2015) revealed that emotional solidarity with residents did explain tourists’ perceived safety in each region. However, only one ESS dimension—Feeling Welcomed—was significant in each examined model. Similar findings resulted in a study by Woosnam, Dudensing, and Walker (2015) whereby Feeling Welcomed explained a significant degree of variance in nature tourists’ expenditures within the Lower Rio Grande Valley of Texas. Most recently, Simpson and Simpson (2016) extended the model put forth by Woosnam et al. (2015a) and found that emotional solidarity did significantly predict degree of safety, which ultimately served to explain individuals’ likelihood of recommending a destination.

Even though the two most recent studies involving emotional solidarity within the travel and tourism literature concerned tourists’ perceptions of the construct, a preponderance of the work prior to those two focused primarily on residents. Additionally, all of the existing research concerning emotional solidarity has taken place in the United States. Future research would serve to potentially demonstrate the usability of the ESS in diverse contexts. Furthermore, with the exception of perceived tourism impacts, perceived safety, and actual expenditures, emotional solidarity has been minimally used to explain other constructs. Given these numerous gaps within the literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**Hypothesis 1**: Tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents (as measured through the three ESS factors: (a)
feeling welcomed; (b) emotional closeness with residents; and (c) sympathetic understanding with residents) is positively related to tourists’ loyalty to the destination.

**The Mediating Role of Tourist Satisfaction**

Research concerning satisfaction has been central to the marketing literature for some time (e.g., Cronin, Brad, and Hult 2000; Lam et al. 2004) and tourism studies (Baker and Crompton 2000; Chen and Chen 2010; Chen and Tsai 2007; Engeset and Elvekrok 2015; Gursoy, Chen, and Chi 2014; Hutchinson, Lai, and Wang 2009; Prayag et al. 2017; Su, Swanson, and Chen 2016; Yoon and Uysal 2005) reveal a strong relationship between tourists’ satisfaction and destination loyalty. In spite of the importance of satisfaction in tourism, ambiguities still exist about its nature and its definition (Baker and Crompton 2000; del Bosque and San Martin 2008). In this sense, measuring and managing tourists’ satisfaction is vital for the survival, development, and success of tourism destinations (Prayag et al. 2017; Song et al. 2012). Empirical studies in the literature (see Chen and Chen 2010; Chi and Qu 2008; Gursoy, Chen, and Chi 2014; Hutchinson, Lai, and Wang 2009; Prayag et al. 2017; Su, Swanson, and Chen 2016; Yoon and Uysal 2005) reveal a strong relationship between tourists’ satisfaction and destination loyalty. In spite of the importance of satisfaction in tourism, ambiguities still exist about its nature and its definition (Baker and Crompton 2000; del Bosque and San Martin 2008). Oliver (2010, 8) conceptualizes tourists’ satisfaction as “the consumer’s fulfillment response” and “a judgment that a product/service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfillment.” Other researchers, however, consider satisfaction as an emotional reaction derived from a consumptive experience (Prayag et al. 2017; Huang, Weiler, and Assaker 2015) and the extent of the social relationship with the host community (Fan et al. 2017; Pizam, Uriely, and Reichel 2000). To various extents, the relationship between visitors and residents cannot be ignored and the resulting contact have the power to influence visitors travel satisfaction as well as future intentions to revisit (Cohen 1972; Fan et al. 2017). In this sense, satisfaction is often used as a mediating factor in the relationship between independent factors (e.g., emotional solidarity and loyalty (Bigne, Andreu, and Gnot 2005; Hosany, Prayag, Van Der Veen, Huang and Deesilatham 2016). The relationship between visitors and local residents influences tourists’ satisfaction, which enhances opportunities for empathy in order to develop emotional solidarity relations (Allport 1979; Woosnam and Aleshinloye 2013).

Satisfaction is one of the most important driving forces of loyalty because of its major influence on the choice of a destination that motivates tourists to revisit the destination and recommend it to potential tourists (Alegre and Cladera 2006; Chi and Qu 2008; Gursoy, Chen, and Chi 2014; Kozak 2001; Meleddu, Paci, and Pulina 2015; Petrick 2004; Prayag and Ryan 2012; Prayag et al. 2017; Su, Swanson, and Chen 2016; Um, Chon, and Ro 2006). Satisfied tourists are more prone to return and recommend the destination to friends and relatives (Bigne, Sanchez, and Sanchez 2001; Chen and Tsai 2007; Chi and Qu 2008; Prayag and Ryan 2012) compared to unsatisfied ones who are unlikely to revisit and will engage in spreading negative word of mouth (Alegre and Garau 2010; Chen and Chen 2010). In this case, the most satisfied tourists are the most likely to visit the destination in the future and encourage others to do so.

Yoon and Uysal (2005) offer a comprehensive outline of multidimensional satisfaction within a tourism destination. According to the work, tourists develop expectations about their visit and are satisfied if the performance of the actual visit is equal to or exceeds their expectations. Furthermore, tourists tend to associate the performance of their actual visit with other destinations with similar characteristics and perceived economic value. Not only is satisfaction a key variable in the success (or failure) of a destination (Alegre and Cladera 2006; Oppermann 2000), it can measure customer experiences (Ramkissoon and Mavondo 2015; Tudoran, Olsen, and Dopico 2012) and be assessed after each purchase or consumptive experience (Um, Chon, and Ro 2006). As such, satisfaction has been measured as a multiitem scale (Chi and Qu 2008; del Bosque and San Martin 2008; Gallarza and Saura 2006; Wang and Hsu 2010). Consistent with this research, the current study will measure satisfaction using a multiitem scale. Based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

**Hypothesis 2**: Tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents ([a] feeling welcomed, [b] emotional closeness, and [c] sympathetic understanding) is positively related to tourists’ satisfaction with a destination.

**Hypothesis 3**: Tourists’ satisfaction with a destination positively influences their loyalty to the destination.

**Hypothesis 4**: Tourists’ satisfaction mediates the relationship between tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents ([a] feeling welcomed, [b] emotional closeness, and [c] sympathetic understanding) and destination loyalty.

**The Effect of Gender on Satisfaction and Loyalty**

Gender is among the most significant determining factors in selecting a destination and future purchase behavior (Han and Ryu 2007; Han, Meng, and Kim 2017; Wang, Qu, and Hsu 2016). However, work focusing on gender differences in the context of customers’ satisfaction and loyalty formation is limited in the literature. Rather than other sociodemographic variables (i.e., income, level of education, marital status, or religion), gender tends to be an easier variable to identify for destination marketers as it can be quickly judged given tourists’ appearance in most situations (Han, Meng, and Kim 2017). Scholars studying consumer behavior in marketing and hospitality have acknowledged and examined the gender differences related to loyalty formation and future behavior (Kolyesnikova, Dodd, and Wilcox 2009; Riquelme and Rios 2010). Gender as a sociodemographic variable is involved with almost all aspects of human decision making.
and undertaken behavior (Han, Meng, and Kim 2017; Riquelme and Rios 2010). Put differently, female and male customers often differ significantly in terms of behavior, and consequently developing different strategies based on gender is paramount (Han, Meng, and Kim 2017; Sanchez-Franco, Ramos, and Velicia 2009).

In this study, gender may moderate the indirect effect between tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents (i.e., feeling welcomed, emotional closeness, and sympathetic understanding) and loyalty through satisfaction. Some evidence supports a relationship between gender satisfaction and loyalty. In this sense, gender may play a significant role in customer satisfaction and future behavior (Homburg and Giering 2001; Ramkissoon and Mavondo 2015; Slama and Tashechian 1985). Homburg and Giering (2001) concluded that women revealed a higher level of satisfaction with sales processes and their intention to repurchase was significantly higher than their male counterparts. Tourism scholars (Han, Meng, and Kim 2017; Han and Ryu 2007; Ramkissoon and Mavondo 2015) have most recently sought to evaluate the differences in consumptive behaviors across gender, producing mixed findings. For instance, Han and Ryu (2007) pointed out that females were more likely than males to revisit a particular restaurant, implying that gender contributes to differing dining experiences. Ramkissoon and Mavondo (2015) studied the influence of gender on four dimensions of place attachment and found that the conditional indirect effect between place satisfaction and attachment (via pro-environmental behavior) was significant only for male tourists. Findings from Jin, Line, and Goh’s (2013) work indicate that gender moderates the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty, and this relationship is stronger for males than for females.

In a study developed by Han, Meng, and Kim (2017) to investigate bicycle travel loyalty generation process, the authors found significant gender differences. The findings imply that at similar levels of satisfaction, men are more likely to form a desire for traveling by bike. The findings further show that when having similar levels of desire, women travelers build a stronger loyalty for bicycle tourism than men travelers. Therefore, it is likely that women are more emotional (Yelkur and Chakrabarty 2006), more socially oriented (Eagly 2013), more expressive (Hwang, Han, and Kim 2015), more interactive (Han, Meng, and Kim 2017; Fournier 1998), and more sensitive to social interdependence (Kolyesnikova, Dodd, and Wilcox 2009) and, consequently, women customers are more likely to show a more cooperative attitude toward servers than men (Hwang, Han, and Kim 2015). Moreover, it is believed that men are more task oriented (Eagly 2013), more easily irritated (Han, Meng, and Kim 2017; Ottes and McGrath 2001), more supportive (Milman and Pizam 1988), more utilitarian in their shopping orientation (Diep and Sweeney 2008), and more willing than women to take risks, especially with money (Areni and Kiecker 1993; Bakewell and Mitchell 2006).

As evidenced through the literature and according to Ramkissoon and Mavondo (2015), research concerning the influence of gender on tourists’ satisfaction and loyalty formation is limited, yet necessary. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed to examine the above discussion:

**Hypothesis 5:** Gender moderates the indirect relationship between tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents ([a] feeling welcomed, [b] emotional closeness, and [c] sympathetic understanding) and destination loyalty.

Specifically, we propose that the indirect effect of the three ESS factors on loyalty (through satisfaction) is moderated by gender, such that the effect would be stronger for male visitors.

**Proposed Framework**

Based on the literature review and above discussion, 13 hypotheses were developed and used to construct an integrative model (Figure 1). The model proposes that tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents is likely to have significant impacts on tourists’ satisfaction with the destination, which in turn acts as an antecedent of destination loyalty. The model also suggests that satisfaction is likely to play a significant role as an antecedent and mediator in tourists’ loyalty with the destination. The model further suggests that tourists’ gender is likely to strengthen the conditional indirect effect between tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents and loyalty via satisfaction and that this effect would be stronger for male visitors.

**Research Methodology**

**Study Site and Context**

Cape Verde, a small island developing state (SIDS) located 550 km off the western Coast of Africa, with its roughly 500,000 residents, is welcoming an increasing number of guests in search of sun-and-sea, culture, and ecotourism (Ribeiro 2016). The archipelago is well known for the hospitality of its residents (named morabeza), cultural diversity, and political stability—all aiding in the facilitation of tourism development (Ribeiro, Valle, and Silva 2013). Tourism is
the leading industry in Cape Verde, contributing to approximately 21% of the GDP, while employing 20.1% of the workforce (NIS 2015). The island-state has experienced steady growth in international tourism, growing from 145,000 arrivals in 2000 to 519,722 in 2015 (NIS 2016). Traditionally, Cape Verde has relied heavily on European tourists, with United Kingdom (22.2% of arrivals in 2015) being the main tourist market, followed by Germany (13.4%), Portugal (10.9%), Netherlands/Belgium (10.6%), and France (9.9%) (NIS 2016). Tourism in Cape Verde is heavily concentrated on the islands of Sal and Boa Vista, which welcomed 75.1% of the international tourists to the country in 2015 (NIS 2016).

Sample and Data Collection

In order to test the proposed model (Figure 1), a survey of international tourists was conducted in two international airports on the islands of Boa Vista and Sal. Tourists were intercepted in the international departure hall before leaving Cape Verde, following their check-in procedures with each airline. Questionnaires were administered over a four-week period during August and September 2013. Through a systematic sampling strategy with a random start, respondents were identified (i.e., every third person that walked past the researcher) and asked to complete a self-administered questionnaire. A preliminary question served to exclude Cape Verdean citizens and those who were not visiting Cape Verde for leisure purposes. A total of 576 international tourists were approached, with 509 completing the questionnaire. However, of these, 45 questionnaires had to be discarded as a result of missing data. The remaining 464 were used in statistical analysis, satisfying the minimum sample size requirement for structural equation modeling (Hair et al. 2014).

Survey Instrument

Survey data were collected using existing measures within the extant literature. Given such measures appear in English text, the survey instrument was initially developed in English. With knowledge of the primary countries of origin for Cape Verde tourists, the instrument was translated into French, Italian, Portuguese, and German. The method of back-translation (Brislin 1970) by native speakers of the four languages, who were also proficient in English, was used to guarantee that the translated versions reflected the meanings and intent of the original instrument. A group of tourism experts proficient in English and in one of these other languages were then invited to assess the content validity of the instrument and requested to edit and improve those items to increase their clarity and readability. Following this, these individuals were also requested to detect any redundant items and propose recommendations for improving the proposed measures. After confirmation of content validity of the questionnaire, each version of the instrument was pilot-tested among international tourists on the island of Boa Vista. Based on the results of the pretests, the questionnaire was concluded with minor changes.

The survey instrument comprised four sections to investigate (1) emotional solidarity, (2) tourist satisfaction, (3) destination loyalty, and (4) sociodemographic characteristics. Part one comprised the 10-item ESS from Woosnam and Norman (2010) to measure the three factors of emotional solidarity (i.e., Feeling Welcomed, Emotional Closeness, and Sympathetic Understanding) on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). Part two included six items to measure tourists’ satisfaction with the destination adapted from previous studies on satisfaction (Oliver 2010; del Bosque and San Martin 2008; Chen and Chen 2010). Tourists were asked to evaluate their satisfaction with the destination on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = very dissatisfied; 5 = very satisfied). Part three was made up of four items that gauged the destination loyalty construct, which was operationalized as revisit intention and likelihood of recommending to others. These items were adapted from extant literature (Bigne, Sanchez, and Sanchez 2001; Hernández-Lobato et al. 2006; Prayag 2008) and individuals were asked to rate their responses on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = very unlikely; 5 = very likely). The last part of the instrument included questions concerning sociodemographic information about respondents, including gender, age, marital status, education level, occupation, country of residence, type of travel, and monthly income.

Data Analysis and Procedures

Data were analyzed in several steps using IBM SPSS 23.0 for descriptive and inferential analyses as well as IBM SPSS AMOS 22.0 to determine overall fit of the measurement and structural models. To test whether the indirect path is mediated by satisfaction (hypothesis 4) and whether this mediated relationship is contingent upon tourists’ gender (hypothesis 5), PROCESS Model 4 and 14 (a macro for mediation, moderation, and conditional process modeling for SPSS and SAS) (Hayes 2013) was utilized. This macro uses bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs) to estimate the moderated mediation in which the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, through the mediating variable, is contingent on the value of the moderator. However, as noted by several scholars (e.g., Liu, Pennington-Gray, and Krieger 2016; Ramkissoon and Mavondo 2015; Ro 2012; Tyagi, Dhar, and Sharma 2016), moderated mediation analysis is lacking in tourism research, so further clarifications are provided.

Recent developments have provided researchers with innovative tools and systematic procedures where “mediation and moderation can be analytically integrated into a unified statistical model” (Hayes 2015, 1). According to Wang and Preacher (2015, 251), “Moderated mediation occurs
when the mediation effect differs across different values of a moderator such that the moderator variable affects the strength or direction of the mediation effect of $X$ on $Y$ via $M$.” Hayes (2013, 2015) refers to conditional indirect effects when the moderating variable has influence on the indirect impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable (through the mediation variable). Several authors (e.g., Edwards and Lambert 2007; Hayes 2013, 2015; Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes 2007) advocate that simultaneous analysis of these different effects are needed to produce reliable and robust results. Bootstrapping is a widely used technique for assessing the significance of indirect effects (Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes 2007). Montoya and Hayes (2016, 21) claim that “bootstrapping is a computationally-intensive procedure that involves sampling of the rows of the data with replacement to build a new sample of size $n$ from the original sample.” In the new “resample,” the standard error and indirect effect ($ab$) are estimated (Preacher and Hayes 2008). This process is repeated $B$ times (ideally, $B$ is thousands) to build a bootstrap distribution of the indirect effects. In the current analysis, the bootstrap resamples for moderated mediation were done with 10,000 resamples and a bias-corrected 95% CI at each level of the moderator (Hayes 2013). Indirect effects are significant when the obtained CI does not straddle zero (Hayes 2013, 2015; Montoya and Hayes 2016).

Results

Sample Characteristics

The sample was split across gender, with the largest proportion falling between the ages of 20 and 30 (31.5%) and 41 and 50 (24.6%) (Table 1). There was a preponderance of individuals who were either married or living with a partner (61.9%), had at least a university degree (50.9%), were either employed or self-employed (78.7%), and earned at least €2,001 per month (64.1%). Countries of origin were similar to NIS (2015) figures whereby the largest percentage of visitors hailed from the UK, followed closely by the other four European countries. In terms of travel behavior, most visitors were visiting Cape Verde for the first time (70.9%) and the average length of stay was 10.6 days.

Table 1. Descriptive Summary of Sample.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
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<tr>
<td>Gender ($n = 464$)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>51.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>48.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Country of residence ($n = 464$)</td>
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<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<td>27.2</td>
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<td>Italy</td>
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<td>France</td>
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<td>Portugal</td>
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<tr>
<td>German</td>
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<td>Age ($n = 464$, mean = 36.4 years)</td>
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<td>&lt;20</td>
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<td>Marital status ($n = 460$)</td>
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<td>Married/living with a partner</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/separated</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education ($n = 457$, median = high/secondary school)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High/secondary school</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>45.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University degree</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>39.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate degree</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation ($n = 463$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>58.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average monthly individual income$^a$ ($n = 439$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≤€1,000</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>€1,001–€2,000</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>€2,001–€3,000</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>39.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;€3,000</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visitation status ($n = 461$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First timer</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>70.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeater</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average length of stay (days)</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ Income level was measured in euros. At the time of data collection, €1.00 was equal to US$1.35.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Hypotheses Testing

In order to measure the soundness of the ESS, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. Despite the ESS demonstrating sound psychometric properties in previous work (see Woosnam et al. 2015 for greater discussion), a measurement model through CFA is always necessary prior to undertaking a structural model analysis. As such, several fit indices (in addition to the $\chi^2$ test, which is heavily influenced by sample size)—absolute (i.e., the standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] and the root means squared error of approximation [RMSEA]) and incremental model fit (i.e., comparative fit index [CFI] and Tucker–Lewis index [TLI])—were considered. Acceptable fit of the data for absolute fit indices is indicative of
coefficients less than 0.80 (Hu and Bentler 1999), whereas for incremental fit indices, coefficients should be in excess of 0.90 (Hair et al. 2014; Hu and Bentler 1999). Results of the CFA for the 10-item ESS indicate a three-factor structure with adequate fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 47.30; df = 31; \chi^2/df = 1.52; p = 0.031; TLI = 0.99; CFI = 0.99; RMSEA = 0.034; SRMR = 0.029$).

In order to assess ESS construct validity, average variance extracted (AVE) was calculated using the procedures recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Table 2 shows the composite reliability (CR), AVE, maximum shared squared variance (MSV) and average shared squared variance (ASV) for each factor. For each ESS factor, the CR was greater than 0.7 and greater than the AVE, which exceeded the 0.50 threshold. These values, combined with the significance of the associated corresponding factor loadings ($p < 0.05$), offer strong support for convergent validity for all ESS factors (Hair et al. 2014). In addition, for all ESS factors, AVE was greater than both the corresponding ASV and MSV meeting the criteria for discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981; Hair et al. 2014). Moreover, the squared root of the AVE of each construct exceeded the correlations between that construct and the others. Reliability for each factor was acceptable, with Cronbach’s alpha values ranged from 0.79 to 0.92.

Upon establishing the psychometric properties of the ESS, to test the proposed hypotheses, structural equation modeling (SEM) using AMOS software was then conducted (see Figure 1). The results of the structural model, addressing hypothesis 1(a, b, and c), hypothesis 2(a, b, and c), and hypothesis 3, demonstrated good model fit ($\chi^2 = 193.39; df = 135; \chi^2/df = 1.43; p = 0.001; TLI = 0.99; CFI = 0.99; RMSEA = 0.031; SRMR = 0.036$), and explained a substantial portion of variance in the outcome variables (i.e., satisfaction 46% and loyalty 62%).

As depicted in Table 3, nine hypotheses were supported, whereas hypothesis 1b was not supported. Regarding the relationship between the three ESS factors and destination loyalty, only Feeling Welcomed and Sympathetic Understanding had a direct influence on destination loyalty. Therefore, hypothesis 1a ($\beta = 0.26, t = 3.05; p < 0.01$) and hypothesis 1c ($\beta = 0.44, t = 8.71; p < 0.001$) were each supported. In contrast, hypothesis 1b was the exception as it was not supported ($\beta = -0.4, t = -0.51; p > 0.05$). The second hypothesis (i.e., hypothesis 2) and the three corresponding subhypotheses proposed that tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents would positively influence tourists’ satisfaction with the destination. Hypothesis 2a ($\beta = 0.24, t = 2.45; p < 0.05$), hypothesis 2b ($\beta = 0.20, t = 2.29; p < 0.05$), and hypothesis 2c ($\beta = 0.50, t = 9.54; p < 0.001$) were each supported. Findings also supported hypothesis 3, confirming that tourists’ satisfaction with the destination is positively related to destination loyalty ($\beta = 0.20, t = 4.37; p < 0.001$).

In examining the indirect effects of ESS factors (hypothesis 4) (i.e., Feeling Welcomed, Emotional Closeness, and Sympathetic Understanding) on loyalty via Tourists’ Satisfaction, the bootstrapping method using a 95% CI and 10,000 resamples was used (Shrout and Bolger 2002). Indirect effects are significant when the 95% CI does not include zero. According to Montoya and Hayes (2016), this bootstrapping method is considered superior to the Sobel test given its robust nature in testing mediation effects (Hayes 2015). In order to assess the indirect effect with bootstrapping, the PROCESS macro (Model 4) (Hayes 2013) was utilized and interpreted for each model and not in terms of full or partial mediation.

First, while the direct effects of Feeling Welcomed and Sympathetic Understanding on loyalty were all significant, the direct effect of Emotional Closeness on loyalty was not (see Table 4). Having established the direct effects (hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c), the indirect effects were then verified and the results are presented in Table 3. The indirect effects of Feeling Welcomed on Loyalty ($\beta = 0.17, SE_{boot} = 0.05, 95\% \text{ CI} = 0.09 to 0.27$), Emotional Closeness on Loyalty ($\beta = 0.19, SE_{boot} = 0.03, 95\% \text{ CI} = 0.13 to 0.26$), and Sympathetic Understanding on Loyalty ($\beta = 0.03, SE_{boot} = 0.02, 95\% \text{ CI} = 0.15 to 0.25$) via Tourists’ Satisfaction were all significant, since the 95% CI did not straddle zero, providing support for hypotheses 4a, 4b, and 4c, respectively. These findings indicate that satisfaction not only has a direct positive effect on loyalty but also mediates the relationship between ESS factors and loyalty.

### Modeling Conditional Effects

The next stage of data analysis focused on the effect of gender as a moderator in the mediational pathway between ESS factors and tourists’ loyalty through satisfaction (hypothesis 5). The conditional process was initially estimated, where gender moderated both the direct and indirect relationship between ESS factors and loyalty. Nevertheless, results revealed that gender did not moderate the direct relationship between ESS factors and loyalty. Consequently, the nonsignificant interactions were removed (Hayes 2013) and data were reanalyzed using a new model where gender moderated...
only the second half of indirect relationship (see Tables 4 to 6). To test the conditional indirect effects of ESS factors on loyalty via satisfaction, the present study estimated parameters for three regression models using PROCESS macro (model 14) and the index of moderated mediation (Hayes 2013, 2015) to interpret the results. For the present study, the influence of the three ESS factors on loyalty was determined by the interaction between the mediating (satisfaction) and moderating (gender) variables.

Results for hypothesis 5a are found in Table 4. The overall model was significant, $F(4, 459) = 571.724, p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.832$, along with one significant interaction between ($b_3$) satisfaction and gender ($b_3 = -0.070, SE = 0.027, p < 0.05$, 95% CI = −0.123 to −0.016). Given the moderation in the path of the mediation model, evidence exists to support the conclusion that the indirect effect of Feeling Welcomed on loyalty depends on gender. The conditional indirect effect was calculated based on tourists’ gender groups, using 10,000 bootstrap resamples. Results revealed that the indirect effect between Feeling Welcomed and loyalty through satisfaction was significant for both male and female visitors. Moreover, results show that this indirect effect was
Table 5. Unstandardized OLS Regression Coefficients Testing for Conditional Indirect Effect of Emotional Closeness on Loyalty by Tourist Gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antecedent</th>
<th>M (Tourists’ Satisfaction)</th>
<th>Y (Destination Loyalty)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coeff. (SE)</td>
<td>95% CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMOCLOSE (X)</td>
<td>( a_1 \rightarrow 0.311*** (0.053) 0.207, 0.415 )</td>
<td>( c' \rightarrow -0.017 (0.017) -0.050, 0.016 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATISF (M)</td>
<td>( b_1 \rightarrow 0.704*** (0.044) 0.618, 0.790 )</td>
<td>( b_2 \rightarrow 0.301** (0.105) 0.094, 0.507 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER (V)</td>
<td>( b_3 \rightarrow -0.064* (0.029) -0.121, -0.007 )</td>
<td>( i \rightarrow 2.604*** (0.163) 2.284, 2.925 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M*V (Inter_1)</td>
<td>( i_M \rightarrow 2.604*** (0.163) 2.284, 2.925 )</td>
<td>( i_y \rightarrow 0.562*** (0.153) 0.262, 0.862 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ R^2 = 0.085 \]
\[ (F[1, 462] = 34.593, p < 0.001) \]

One final moderated mediation analysis procedure was carried out concerning Sympathetic Understanding in examining hypothesis 5c (Table 6). The overall model was statistically significant, \( (F[4, 459] = 1008.261, p < 0.001, R^2 = 0.895) \). However, the interaction between Satisfaction and Sympathetic Understanding was not significant, \( (b_3 = -0.041, SE = 0.023, p > 0.05, 95\% CI = -0.087 to 0.005) \) was not significant, as the CI contained zero. As before, the conditional indirect effect was calculated based on different tourists’ gender groups, using 10,000 bootstrap resamples. Results revealed that the conditional indirect effect between Sympathetic Understanding and loyalty through satisfaction was stronger for male visitors (\( \beta = 0.204, SE_{\text{boot.}} = 0.027, 95\% CI = 0.152 to 0.258 \)) than female visitors (\( \beta = 0.189, SE_{\text{boot.}} = 0.025, 95\% CI = 0.141 to 0.237 \)). However, the CI for the index of moderated mediation concerning the conditional indirect effect through satisfaction alone included zero (\( \beta = -0.015, SE_{\text{boot.}} = 0.009, 95\% CI = -0.035 to 0.001 \)). Although the majority of the interval was below zero, it cannot be said with 95% confidence that the indirect effect depends on gender, ultimately rejecting hypothesis 5c.

Discussions and Conclusions

This study was undertaken to develop a theoretical and integrative model in support of the advancement of tourism planning and management. As such, the current research is the first of its kind linking emotional solidarity to multiple outcome measures involving tourist behaviors. To date, emotional stronger for male visitors (\( \beta = 0.177, SE_{\text{boot.}} = 0.047, 95\% CI = 0.091 to 0.277 \)) than female visitors (\( \beta = 0.157, SE_{\text{boot.}} = 0.043, 95\% CI = 0.080 to 0.246 \)). The index of moderated mediation was negative with 95% confidence (\(-0.046 to -0.005\)). As this confidence interval does not include zero, the conclusion is that the indirect effects (via satisfaction) of Feeling Welcomed on loyalty is negatively moderated by gender, validating the moderated mediation for hypothesis 5a.

An identical moderated mediation analysis procedure was undertaken for hypothesis 5b, involving Emotional Closeness. Once more, the overall model was significant (Table 5) \( (F[4, 459] = 524.115, p < 0.001, R^2 = 0.812) \). The interaction between \( b_3 \) satisfaction and gender \( (b_3 = -0.064, SE = 0.029, p < 0.05, 95\% CI = -0.121 to -0.007) \) was significant as the CI does not include zero. Conditional indirect effects were calculated based on tourists’ gender groups, using 10,000 bootstrap resamples. The follow-up examination of conditional indirect effects indicated Emotional Closeness had a significant effect on Loyalty (through satisfaction), with the effect being stronger for male visitors (\( \beta = 0.199, SE_{\text{boot.}} = 0.035, 95\% CI = 0.132 to 0.269 \)) than female visitors (\( \beta = 0.179, SE_{\text{boot.}} = 0.032, 95\% CI = 0.118 to 0.243 \)). Finally, the index of moderated mediation did straddle zero \( (\beta = -0.020, SE_{\text{boot.}} = 0.010, 95\% CI = -0.042 to -0.003\) \). This index indicates that the strength of the indirect effect from Emotional Closeness to loyalty through satisfaction was significant and dependent on gender, supporting the moderated mediation for hypothesis 5b.
solidarity has been considered minimally (see Lai and Hitchcock 2016; Woosnam 2012; Woosnam et al. 2015; Woosnam, Dudensing, and Walker 2015) as an antecedent of other measures within the tourism literature. Results of the current study demonstrate the predictive power of emotional solidarity within a tourist behavior model. In particular, the proposed integrative framework allows for the identification of direct relationships between (1) tourists’ emotional solidarity and loyalty; (2) emotional solidarity and satisfaction; (3) satisfaction and loyalty; (4) mediating effect of satisfaction between emotional solidarity and loyalty and the conditional indirect relationships between (5) emotional solidarity and loyalty intention via satisfaction, moderated by gender. The findings confirm that tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents is a significant predictor of attitudinal and behavior outcomes either directly or indirectly through satisfaction (i.e., mediation) as moderated by gender.

Several insights can be drawn from the present study. Through structural equation modeling, tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents, in particular Feeling Welcomed and Sympathetic Understanding, positively influenced loyalty (hypotheses 1a and 1c). Despite being an important element in understanding tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents (see Woosnam and Aleshinloye 2013; Woosnam et al. 2015; Woosnam, Dudensing, and Walker 2015), Emotional Closeness was not a significant direct predictor of destination loyalty (hypothesis 1b). A plausible explanation, according to Woosnam and Aleshinloye (2015), may be related to the cultural acceptance of particular concepts within the emotional closeness factor (i.e., fairness). For instance, fairness may very well be considered a form of closeness in one culture but not another. Overall, sociocultural interaction between international tourists and local residents will not only foster potential changes in attitudes toward the local culture and community but also aid in providing unique tourist experiences (Yu and Lee 2014). Moreover, destinations with residents that show pro-tourism attitudes and experience emotional solidarity with tourists will do much to contribute to the enhancement of satisfaction, which has the potential to translate into positive word of mouth and potentially increase the likelihood of revisiting (Chandrashekaran, Rotte, Tax, and Grewal 2007; Sheldon and Abenoja 2001; Woosnam and Aleshinloye 2013, 2015; Zhang, Inbakaran, and Jackson 2006).

Results also confirm the direct positive relationship between tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents and satisfaction with the destination. Both Woosnam and Aleshinloye (2015) and Valle et al. (2011) emphasize that intercultural relationships between tourists and residents directly affects tourist satisfaction (Yu and Lee 2014). Such findings support the contact theory (see Amir and Ben-Ari 1985), whereby tourism attitudes are modified through interactive experiences with residents. Milman, Reichel, and Pizam (1990) found that Jewish–Israeli tourists’ attitudes toward Egypt and its residents were modestly impacted from interacting. Somewhat contrary to this, Anastasopoulos (1992) found that Greek visitors’ exposure to Turkish residents actually had a negative impact on perceptions of

### Table 6. Unstandardized OLS Regression Coefficients Testing for Conditional Direct and Indirect Effect of Sympathetic Understanding on Loyalty by Tourist Gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antecedent</th>
<th>Coeff. (SE) 95% CI</th>
<th>Consequent</th>
<th>Coeff. (SE) 95% CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SYMPUNDE (X)</td>
<td>γ₁ → 0.376*** (0.049) 0.280, 0.472</td>
<td>M (Tourists’ Satisfaction)</td>
<td>c’ → 0.217*** (0.013) 0.191, 0.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATISF (M)</td>
<td>– β₁ → 0.584*** (0.035) 0.516, 0.653</td>
<td>Y (Destination Loyalty)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER (V)</td>
<td>– β₂ → 0.240*** (0.085) 0.073, 0.408</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M*V (Inter_1)</td>
<td>– β₃ → -0.041 (0.023) -0.087, 0.005</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>iₘ → 2.260*** (0.173) 1.911, 2.609</td>
<td>iₙ → 0.167 (0.122) -0.071, 0.406</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R²=0.138 (F[1, 462] = 59.428, p < 0.001) R²=0.895 (F[4, 459] = 1008.261, p < 0.001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moderator</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>SE_boot.</th>
<th>Boot. 95% CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.204</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.152, 0.258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.141, 0.237</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Index of moderated mediation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index</th>
<th>SE_boot.</th>
<th>Boot. 95% CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-0.015</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>-0.035, 0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 95% CI for conditional direct and indirect effect using bootstrap (bias corrected). Coeff. = coefficient, SE = standard error; boot. = bootstrap; CI = confidence interval.

*p <0.05; **p <0.01; ***p <0.001.
Turkey. Previous research, albeit somewhat rare, demonstrates that destinations where residents possess positive attitudes toward tourists (and tourism development), where interaction is positive, would serve to foster greater tourist satisfaction and enhance experiences overall (e.g., Pizam, Uriely, and Reichel 2000; Um, Chon, and Ro 2006; Valle et al. 2011; Yoon and Uysal 2005). Valle et al. (2011) in their study in Algarve concluded that tourists experienced higher satisfaction with the destination when they stayed in municipalities where residents were supportive of tourism, engaging in pleasant interactions with tourists, providing competent tourist services, and being courteous. Such interaction is a precondition of emotional solidarity (Woosnam 2011a, 2011b).

As hypothesized, a positive direct relationship was found between tourists’ satisfaction and loyalty to the destination. Such a finding indicates that satisfied tourists are more likely to spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination to potential tourists and to revisit, as has been shown in previous research (Baker and Crompton 2000; Bigne, Sanchez, and Sanchez 2001; Chen and Tsai 2007; Chi and Qu 2008; Engeset and Elvekrok 2015; Prayag et al. 2017).

The conditional process (moderated mediation) model in which gender was specified as strengthening the indirect effects of emotional solidarity on loyalty (through its effects on satisfaction) was supported considering Feeling Welcomed and Emotional Closeness. Conversely, the effect of Sympathetic Understanding on loyalty (when mediated by satisfaction and moderated by gender) was not supported. However, all these relationships were stronger for male tourists. In the structural equation model, Emotional Closeness was the only ESS factor that did not have a significant direct effect on Loyalty. This result may be related to the cultural interpretation of the complex nature of the ESS items, which could potentially fit within numerous factors (Woosnam and Aleshinloye 2013). Significant conditional indirect effects of ESS on Loyalty (i.e., satisfaction mediated the relationship) could also aid in the explanation, as satisfaction mediated this relationship.

The findings offered support for the theoretical premise that satisfaction and gender may interact in complex ways (as evidenced in the structural equation model and moderated mediation analysis) in assessing the relationship between emotional solidarity and loyalty. As such, gender moderated the relationship between tourist satisfaction and loyalty, which is in line with previous research (Chi 2012; Jin, Line, and Goh 2013). Additionally, this relationship was found to be stronger among male visitors, supporting the results found by Jin, Line, and Goh (2013). Furthermore, our findings point out that at similar levels of visitors’ relationship with residents and satisfaction with destination, males are more likely to form a stronger loyalty with the destination than females are. However, this finding is contrary to those of other scholars (Eagly 2013; Fournier 1998; Yelkur and Chakraborty 2006), who concluded that females are more emotional and more socially oriented, and they prefer to interact with others, leading to close personal connections.

**Theoretical Implications**

Since no study has investigated the relationship between tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents and loyalty, our primary contribution lies in identifying the role of tourists’ satisfaction in the relationship between tourists’ emotional solidarity and loyalty. We determined that emotional solidarity positively influences tourists’ satisfaction, and that tourists’ satisfaction positively influences loyalty, which is in line with the results of recent studies (e.g., Engeset and Elvekrok 2015; Hosany et al. 2016; Prayag and Ryan 2012; Prayag et al. 2017; Su, Swanson, and Chen 2016). Also, satisfaction mediates the relationship between emotional solidarity and loyalty.

However, as advanced by Huang and Hsu (2009, 42) “the complex nature of tourist behavior entangles more than just linear relations between a variety of behavioral determinants and the final behavior.” The relationship between or among behavioral antecedents could have an indirect influence on the final behavior (loyalty) through a mediating variable. Furthermore, this study is the first attempt to develop a model integrating emotional solidarity as an antecedent of tourists’ satisfaction and loyalty to the destination. Also, the use of emotional solidarity outside the USA, especially in a specific small island developing state within the Global South, is largely nonexistent in the literature. So, our study is the first step forward to fill this gap in the tourism literature.

Expanding on the existing work of Woosnam and colleagues, this study provides continued support for an amended Durkheimian ([1915] 1995) model of emotional solidarity. In addition to explaining tourists’ expenditures (Woosnam et al. 2015) and sense of safety (Woosnam, Dudensing, and Walker 2015) within the destination, the current study highlights that emotional solidarity can serve to explain the variance in the degree of satisfaction with and loyalty to a particular destination. To date, no work has considered how tourists’ emotional connections with local residents contributes to such key variables within the tourism literature. Additionally, the current work serves to provide support (through the use of PROCESS macro) for the continued utilization of moderated mediation models within the tourism literature, for which little other research exists to date.

**Managerial and Practical Implications**

Along with advancing the existing research on loyalty formation, our study also offers insights for DMOs, practitioners, and marketers. Therefore, identifying the factors that boost visitors’ intention to revisit a destination is important in serving to help DMOs and public authorities to attain
sustainable tourist development and success of tourist destination mainly in developing island countries.

For practitioners, it seems logical to focus on maximizing visitors’ satisfaction level that effectively boost their loyalty, which will have a significant impact on destination economic growth and competitiveness. The findings of this study suggested that the contact between tourists and residents influence their satisfaction and loyalty through the development of emotional solidarity. For developing island destinations such as Cape Verde, managing visitors’ experience with the destination (i.e., interaction with local residents) is fundamental if DMOs, practitioners, and marketers want visitors to return and recommend the destination to potential visitors. The welcoming nature of residents and sympathetic understanding developed with residents help to maintain visitors satisfied with the destination and promote visitors’ loyalty with the destination. Findings show that the positive relationship between ESS factors and satisfaction determine tourism loyalty both directly and indirectly. As residents provide a welcoming environment, the potential exists for tourists to be satisfied and spend more money during their stay. Policy makers and planners should consider marketing planning approaches that help visitors build emotional solidarity with host communities. In addition, they should educate host communities on the importance of tourism and encourage them to be welcoming of visitors (in efforts to develop sympathetic understanding). However, to develop effective marketing planning and strategies, policy makers and planners should include local residents in their policy to raise awareness of the importance of receiving tourists in an affable manner. Also, planners should develop promotional activities with residents in these two touristic islands in Cape Verde in order to elucidate them for the importance of welcoming tourists and make them feel happy at the destination. Tourists’ emotional solidarity developed with residents can be perceived as a more sustainable way to encourage repeat visitation and aid in making recommendations to friends and relatives.

Finally, the present study is the first to notify tourism industry practitioners and marketers that gender differences in the relationship between tourists and residents in destinations should not be ignored. As a result, recognizing this difference between women and men, planners and marketers need to develop differential strategies to effectively boost women and men visitors’ satisfaction and loyalty with the destination.

Limitations and directions for further research. Similar to other researches, the present study is not free of limitations. Results of this study should be cautiously interpreted for numerous reasons. This is the first study that uses emotional solidarity as an antecedent of satisfaction and loyalty. In addition, the ESS was applied for the first time in a case study context within the Global South. Results do not primarily permit the generality of the model outside the context of small islands developing states. Future research should replicate this model in other destination contexts that may help cross-validate the current findings.

Data for the proposed model was cross-sectional and correlational, prohibiting the inference of causal relationships within the model. Concomitantly, all the predictor and outcome variables were obtained from the same population and the interpretations are offered tentatively. Further researches should address these limitations by using longitudinal analysis to capture and control disparities and the causal direction among variables. Because of limited funding, this study used the same instrument to collect data and did not separate the source for the predictor and outcome variables to produce samples with equally large proportions for both independent and dependent variables. Accordingly, common method bias could be a limitation of this study (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Further research should obtain measures of predictor and outcome variables from separate samples, which could potentially provide more robust outcomes.

Expanding on the model proposed in this research, future study should include other variables such as perceptions of destination image (Chen and Gursoy 2001; Chen and Tsai 2007; Chi 2012; Prayag and Ryan 2012), services offered at the destination (Chen and Tsai 2007; Chi 2012), tourists’ emotional experiences (Hosany and Gilbert 2010), travel motivations (Yoon and Uysal 2005), etc., to improve the predictive power of an amended model and potentially explain even more about the relationship between emotional solidarity and loyalty. As Woosnam and Aleshinloye (2013, 503) proposed, “Examining outcome variables such as residents’ quality of life and community attachment as well as tourists’ likelihood of returning to the destination or the economic impact on the community can begin to answer the ‘so what’ questions, providing greater practical implications for managers.” Thus, the findings of this study show that gender moderates the conditional indirect effects of Feeling Welcomed and Emotional Closeness on loyalty (via satisfaction) and such relationships were stronger among male visitors. So, future research should deepen our proposed model by integrating other sociodemographic variables (e.g., age, education level, income, country of residence, and previous experience with the destination) as moderators and test whether they moderate the conditional direct and indirect effect (via satisfaction) of the three dimensions of ESS on loyalty. Finally, future research might go beyond the use of cross-sectional and self-reported data and consider interview or triangulated observational methods (along with self-reported measures) as well as real-time methods to capture tourists’ emotional solidarity with residents (Kim and Fesenmaier 2015).

Declaration of Conflicting Interests
The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.
Funding
The author(s) received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

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