


IMPROVING RESIDENTS' QUALITY OF LIFE THROUGH SUSTAINABLE EXPERIENTIAL MEGA-EVENTS: HIGH-VERSUS LOW-CONTEXT CULTURES

Natalia Vila-Lopez 
Ines Kuster-Boluda
University of Valencia

Jose Trinidad Marin-Aguilar
University Autonoma de Aguascalientes (Centro de Ciencias
Económicas y Administrativas)

Public managers need to improve city residents' quality of life as a first step to boost its tourism development. Marketing strategies can play a useful role, as the city marketing theory states. The present article aims to compare the efficacy of two marketing strategies embedded in a public mega-event: (a) an experiential strategy, based on emotions encourage during the event and (b) a green strategy, based on green actions linked to this event. Furthermore, following Hall's theory of cultural determination, this article aims to compare these strategies' efficacy in two alternative cultures: a high-context (Mexico) and a low-context culture (Spain). We contacted 202 and 204 residents in Mexico and Spain during the event. In low-context cultures (Spain), an experiential marketing strategy achieves greater results than a green one; conversely, in high-context cultures (Mexico), a green marketing strategy is more effective.

KEYWORDS: *experiential marketing; marketing, sustainability; tourism, cross-cultural; marketing*

INTRODUCTION

“The roles and impacts of planned events within tourism are of increasing importance for destination competitiveness” (Novello & Fernández, 2016, p. 685). However, residents have often been the great forgotten in studies of determinants of touristic city development (Merrilees et al., 2009; Wang & Xu, 2015), overlooking that tourism depends, to a larger extent, on their residents' responses. Therefore, to stimulate tourism, public managers need to start by increasing the quality of life among residents (Wang & Xu, 2015). That's because “tourism activities and development may influence the host–guest relationship, which in

turn can have significant impact on the potential of the tourism industry” (Qiu et al., 2019, p. 227). According to Xu and Fox (2014, p. 142), there is a limited literature in this area.

To reach this point, city mega-events seem to be an interesting option. Two marketing strategies (experiential marketing and green marketing) can be applied jointly with success during the event, because when consumers are looking for entertainment in a city mega-event, there is a greater chance of generating environmental consciousness as well. In this vein, the term “green event” has been coined. For Merrilees and Miller (2015) a green event can include actions such as recycling (cans, bottles, etc.), energy-conserving transport (i.e., buses and carpooling), waste minimization, and energy saving (reduced electricity usage). So, place marketing emerges “as a key feature associated with events to develop a unique selling proposition that differentiates the destination from the competition” (Getz & Page, 2016, p. 593). From a residents’ perspective, events contribute to place marketing by making cities more livable and attractive. In spite of this, literature on green and sustainable events remains undeveloped (Getz & Page, 2016).

Even more, all cities are not the same. What works in one country may not be valid for another as Hall’s (1990) cultural determination theory has supported. Thus, when defining a city marketing plan, public managers should choose different marketing strategies depending on the cultural context in which they are applied (Mattila, 2000).

To solve this problem, two main objectives guide our article. First, to compare two public marketing strategies that could be used to change residents’ attitudes to further stimulate attraction: (a) an experiential marketing strategy based on the development of a public mega-event and (b) a green marketing strategy based on the promotion of green actions (such as recycling policies to preserve the environment and green sponsors for the mega-event). Second, to compare the efficacy of these two strategies in two alternative cultures.

To accomplish both the objectives, our article has chosen two cultural mega-events promoted by public governments that take place every year in two different cultures: the Fair of San Marcos (Aguascalientes, Mexico) and Fallas (Valencia, Spain). Both mega-events are designed each year using the two referred marketing strategies.

With this work we try to cover two main literature gaps. First, to date, and regarding experiential marketing strategies, research has focused on investigating the impact of mega sporting events, while few studies have focused on cultural and artistic mega-events (Dolles & Söderman, 2010; Getz & Page, 2016). Even fewer studies have examined the joint effect of experiential and green marketing strategies, neglecting the fact that their impact can be reinforced if they are applied together (Marín-Aguilar & Vila, 2014). As Getz and Page (2016) underline “the environmental impacts of events and tourism have remained a largely neglected area of academic research (. . .) the extant literature in event studies is still in its infancy” (p. 618). So, this article aims to investigate

the combined effect of both marketing strategies to better understand the efficacy of green mega-events from a residents' perspective (first objective). Second, little research has been undertaken to compare the impact of alternative marketing strategies in different cultures (Greenfield & Quiroz, 2013), overlooking the fact that what works in one culture may not be valid for another, although some studies have not found significant differences (Font et al., 2016). As Getz and Page (2016) have remarked "standards and practices for green events and venues are now widely implemented, but the literature does not provide any comparative evidence of results" (p. 618).

So, to cover this research gap, the impact of green-mega-events in two different cultures will be compared in this article (second objective).

In sum, as Novello and Fernández (2016, p. 686) remark, is a "key challenge to strategically incorporate the event into the host destination's overall mix of tourism products and services," and even more, a comparative study will add value because "the findings differ from one cluster to another" being interesting to "understand the behavior of people living in a different culture and identify the cultural dimensions or contextual factors that cause the differences" (Li, 2012, p. 41).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

City Marketing Strategies to Improve Citizens' Attitudes: The Power of Green Mega-Events

To change attitudes, several public marketing strategies can be used, as the information processing theory explains (Tybout et al., 1981). Uysal et al. (2016) work reviews a stream of research that demonstrates how residents' attitudes might change from positive to negative after implementing some governmental measures. Moreover, this will lastly affect residents' quality of life. That is because quality of life (or well-being) has been measured from a subjective approach using subjective indicators representing satisfaction. As the seminal work of Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) supports, attitudes precede satisfaction, so governmental strategies will not only affect residents' attitudes toward tourism development but also their overall quality of life. That is, attitudes could be considered a mediator concept between tourism strategies and residents' quality of life/satisfaction (Uysal et al., 2016).

More specifically, as the city marketing theory states (Barke, 1999), marketing strategies should be used to increase the added value of a place and to improve the quality of life among its residents (Stanton et al., 2004). Following the previous literature, touristic marketing strategies can be classified into two main groups (Stanton et al., 2004). On one side, strategies used to stimulate the "playful-festive orientation" of citizens, that is, those that lead residents to live pleasant experiences; for example, promoting a cultural or sporting event, or a music festival that takes place in the city. As Getz and Page (2016, p. 599) remark, this kind of events that appeal mostly to residents are "viewed as valued

traditions, and perform essential roles within the community . . . they cannot exist independently of their host community.” On another side, strategies used to develop the “environmental–ecological–solidarity orientation” of citizens, that is, those that lead residents’ to be environmentally concerned; for example, rewarding recycling or encouraging nonpollution measures with public marketing campaigns.

Mega-events have a limited duration and are developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination (Getz & Page, 2016). They can stimulate experiences among participants and, if they encourage green behaviors, they can stimulate residents’ ecological orientation too. So, the following lines explain the effects of both marketing strategies and how they work in different cultures when they are embedded in a public mega-event. Following Mattila (2000, p. 264), for the purposes of global marketing, the most useful models are those that distinguish dimensions of culture, been one basic dimensions of culture the one concerning communication context. For this reason, high-context communication cultures and low-context communications will be compared.

Experiential marketing strategy: Promoting mega-events to encourage experiences. On one side, the first route that a public government can follow to improve citizens’ attitudes is to encourage experiences, for example, by promoting mega-events, which is an experiential marketing strategy. As Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) remark, “personal experience and social interactions attach people to places and people who live in the same physical spaces do not necessarily perceive these environments in the same way” (p. 76), because emotional experiences lived in the place affect the evolution of their city brand attitude. Therefore, emotional experiences lived in mega-events can be used by public managers to improve city brand attitudes.

However, cultural differences must be observed. As Font et al. (2016) state, people’s responses depend on personal, environmental, and cultural influences. In this vein Wurtz (2006) remarks on the need to adapt each event to each culture, because its performance can vary according to the context. While, in a high-context culture, a mega-event says everything without needing to explain additional points, so being minimal is a recommended choice (emotive communication strategy), in a low-context culture, a mega-event needs a higher level of specification, for example, using texts to detail each event involved in the mega-event and/or people with clear scripts regarding its execution (informative communication strategy). This is because, in low-context individualistic cultures, emotions such as autonomy and anger are common. Conversely, in high-context collectivistic cultures, which value relational interdependence and harmony, the expression of emotions that reflect individual desires, such as anger, may be rather discouraged and perceived as immature and childish (Boiger & Mesquita, 2012).

In spite of this, based on the social cognitive theory, Font et al. (2016, p. 66) underline that “today’s world is far more complex than these dualities, and

owners/managers of tourism SMEs can resort to individualistic or collectivistic concepts according to the context; moreover, the two concepts can coexist and serve to reinforce a decision.”

However, in this article, we follow Hall's (1990) cultural determination theory, which supports the relevance of the context to the definition of the experiential strategies. Accordingly, we hypothesize that experiential strategies will be more appropriate in high-context cultures, in which partners construct their emotions in response to each other and the ongoing exchange between them (Boiger & Mesquita, 2012). Thus, it is expected that the impact of event marketing strategies that encourage emotional experiences through participation and immersion will be stronger in emotive cultures than in more individualistic ones. Thus, the following null and alternative hypotheses can be stated:

- H01:** (a) An experiential marketing strategy cannot improve city brand attitudes and (b) high-context cultures (Mexico) and low-context ones (Spain) will not differ.
- H1:** (a) An experiential marketing strategy can improve city brand attitudes and (b) this improvement will be stronger in high-context cultures (Mexico) than in low-context ones (Spain).

Furthermore, several studies have established a relationship between experiential events and sustainability attitudes based on the idea that, to gain sustainability, grateful experiences must be promoted in the city. As Lee and Kim (2015) state, ample empirical evidence supports the idea that positive experiences (i.e., those lived in urban parks) contribute to social, economic, and environmental sustainability within cities in multiple ways. Following this argument, it is expected that those experiential events that are designed to include environmental commitments (i.e., recycling policies to preserve the environment, green sponsors, etc.) will improve citizens' sustainability attitudes.

However, this positive link between experiential events and sustainability attitudes differs between cultures. In high-context cultures, the messages within and about the event should be implicit and indirect (Singh et al., 2005). Thus, if events emphasize arts, design, ecology, beautiful scenery, and so on, they will work better in high-context cultures, because emotions occur easily and pleasure attitudes are intensified. They will also encourage greater participation and immersion (Arndt & Janney, 1987), leading to sustainability attitudes, because interactions and common feelings gain value. Conversely, those mega-events that take place in low-context cultures (Spain) will trigger milder emotional experiences. They will promote fewer interactions and deliver fewer surprises, so the reported effects of the mega-event will be attenuated. As a result, the following null and alternative hypotheses can be proposed:

- H02:** (a) An experiential marketing strategy cannot improve sustainability attitudes and (b) high-context cultures (Mexico) and low-context ones (Spain) will not differ.

- H2:** (a) An experiential marketing strategy can improve sustainability attitudes and (b) this improvement will be stronger in high-context cultures (Mexico) than in low-context ones (Spain).

Green marketing strategy: Promoting green actions to encourage ecological orientation. At the other end of this spectrum, public governments can employ a second method to improve residents' attitudes: a green marketing strategy (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). This is a useful way to trigger residents' ecological orientation, which helps improve their city brand attitudes. In this vein Cheng and Wu (2015) demonstrate that the place attachment of Penghu is positively associated with stronger environmentally responsible behavior. That is, when public managers encourage a citizen to be green-orientated, they will continue to engage in ecological behaviors, because it is expected that they will love their city more. Therefore, green marketing strategies can be useful for reinforcing city brand attitudes.

A stream of literature supports the assertion that the ecological concern will be higher in high-context cultures (Mexico), amplifying the impacts of a green marketing strategy compared with low-context cultures (Spain; Wurtz, 2006). That is because the neighbour and the environment are seen as very important in high-context places (Anderson & He, 2015; Bello et al., 2006). However, Font et al. (2016) emphasize that low-context individualistic cultures can also be environmentally concerned, albeit for a different reason. As they explain, materialism, a typical expression of individualism, has a negative effect on environmental beliefs, but, in spite of this, self-centred individualists also tend to engage with sustainability for their own benefit.

However, and based on the conclusion that "self-interested individuals only act on environmental matters when they perceive the environmental threat is likely to affect them" (Font et al., 2016, p. 68), we recognize that a greater concern for environmental issues will exist among collectivist citizens. In this kind of place, green marketing strategies will have more impact. As these authors explain, collectivism has two dimensions: in-group collectivism (referring to the care of those close to oneself, such as family or close friends) and institutional collectivism (referring to the broader care of society). In-group collectivist people can be found in different cultures but institutional collectivism is prevalent in cultures that are highly dependent on the environment (high-context cultures). Consequently, it is expected that green marketing strategies will work better in high-context cultures, in which more institutional collectivist people can be found. In fact, as Font et al. (2016) report, "Latin America had the highest mean score for institutional collectivism value," and it also had "high in-group collectivism values" (p. 69). Thus,

- H03:** (a) A green marketing strategy cannot improve city brand attitudes and (b) high-context cultures (Mexico) and low-context ones (Spain) will not differ.

H3: (a) A green marketing strategy can improve city brand attitudes and (b) this improvement will be stronger in high-context cultures (Mexico) than in low-context ones (Spain).

A green marketing strategy, which leads citizens to be more ecologically oriented, can also help increase their sustainability attitudes. For example, Dodds and Joppe (2001) demonstrate for the case of Toronto (Canada) that sustainability increases after adopting different green measures to raise individuals' awareness of the importance of the environment (ecological orientation), which leads to the creation of eco-business (economic sustainability), parks (environmental sustainability), and some sustainable transport options (social sustainability).

Once again, the impact of green marketing strategies on sustainability attitudes differs cross-culturally. As Singh et al. (2005) underline, communication strategies in high-context cultures emphasize natural appeal, beauty, and oneness with nature. On the contrary, in low-context cultures (Spain), people are more focused on individualism, the short-term, and objective realism, so green messages and, consequently, an ecological orientation have comparatively less significance. What happens outside the own person is less important; therefore, ecological thinking will not be strong enough to change attitudes on a large scale.

From another stream of research, the context does not seem to affect sustainable attitudes (Schultz, 2001). In this approach sustainability attitudes are linked to egoistic values (stronger in low-individualistic cultures) and to biospheric and social-altruistic values (stronger in high-collectivistic cultures). Thus, cultural effects are counterbalanced in this approach.

In spite of this, and following the line of research that supports the assertion that green marketing strategies will work better in a high-context culture (Cho et al., 2013), we conclude the following:

H04: (a) A green marketing strategy cannot improve sustainability attitudes and (b) high-context cultures (Mexico) and low-context ones (Spain) will not differ.

H4: (a) A green marketing strategy can improve sustainability attitudes and (b) this improvement will be stronger in high-context cultures (Mexico) than in low-context ones (Spain).

Relationships Between the Two Strategies: Green Mega-Events

Both marketing strategies (experiential marketing and green marketing) can be applied jointly with success, because when consumers are looking for entertainment (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003), there is a greater chance of generating environmental consciousness as well. In this vein the term "green event" has been coined. As Merrilees and Miller (2015) state, a green event can include actions such as: recycling (cans, bottles, etc.), energy-conserving transport (i.e., buses and carpooling), waste minimization, and energy saving (reduced electricity usage).

Regarding the relationship between the two strategies (experiential marketing and green marketing), a stronger connection between them has been found in countries that are dependent on the environment (Mexico) than in countries that are less dependent on the environment (Spain), because people in low-context cultures are less concerned with outsourcing their emotions and feelings. Conversely, and as commented on previously, experiences become stronger in high-context cultures: great defenders of the power of feelings over reason (Callow, 2000). Thus, citizens in high-context cultures are more predisposed to pay attention to messages that emphasize natural appeals, beauty, and oneness with nature (Singh et al., 2005). Therefore, it is anticipated that those events that are defined from a “sustainability perspective,” following Getz (2009), will achieve more success when they are carried out in places in which the citizens are more inclined to live emotional experiences and to favor public ecological goals. Thus, the following null and alternative hypotheses can be put forward:

H05: (a) An experiential marketing strategy will not reinforce a green marketing strategy and (b) high-context cultures (Mexico) and low-context ones (Spain) will not differ.

H5: (a) An experiential marketing strategy will reinforce a green marketing strategy and (b) this reinforcement will be stronger in high-context cultures (Mexico) than in low-context ones (Spain).

City Brand Attitudes and Sustainability Attitudes: Interrelationships

As the City Brand Theory states the improvement of citizens' attitudes can be achieved through public marketing strategies (Stanton et al., 2004) that encourage emotional experiences and ecological orientation. This theory has evolved to investigate “city brand attitudes,” that is, brand attachment instead of brand image/perceptions (Marín-Aguilar, & Vila, 2014). The term city brand attitudes can be operationalized considering four aspects: (a) proud to live in this city, (b) the overall lifestyle is good, (c) would rather live here than any other place, and (d) a good reputation among residents (Merrilees et al., 2009).

Together with the concept of city brand attitudes, public managers need to bear in mind sustainability attitudes, the importance of which is also increasing. This is because a resident of a city who loves his/her city will feel increasingly committed to it and then he/she will adopt environmentally friendly measures (Ewing et al., 2009). Thus, sustainability attitudes are gaining weight, because, “although most people want to preserve the environment, changing old habits can be a formidable challenge, especially when those habits have been adaptive for many millennia” (Griskevicius et al., 2012).

Not surprisingly, the connection between the two attitudes (city brand attitudes and sustainability attitudes) is evident in the interest of public managers in building so-called “eco-cities,” which advocate the recognition of city brands from a sustainable perspective (Ewing et al., 2009). Indeed, the definition of a

city brand proposed by Askegaard and Kjeldgaard (2007) states that it can become a vehicle to build a sustainable culture among residents. In sum, better city brand attitudes will lead to better sustainability attitudes.

Following Hall's (1990) theory of cultural determination, it is expected that the link between city brand attitudes and sustainable attitudes will be different in different cultures, because the contextual influences affect consumers' attitudes. In the same vein, the review by Weaver and Jin (2016, p. 1) concludes that "context" factors associated with tourism settings influence "encounter" elements. Therefore, and as the previous literature has demonstrated, residents in a high-context culture are more collectivistic and therefore eco-centric (environmentally concerned; Xu & Fox, 2014). These citizens also love experiences and emotions. On the contrary, low-context societies are more individualistic, and although "they are more communal with out-group members" (Font et al., 2016, p. 77), they tend toward anthropocentrism, because they see nature as a resource to exploit and they appreciate the instrumental value that nature can offer to enhance their quality of life (Xu & Fox, 2014).

In another line of research, the work of Schultz (2001) leads us to a different conclusion. As this author reports, attitudes toward environmental issues are based on the relative importance that a person places on themselves, other people, or plants and animals. Thus, if low-context cultures are more individualistic, they will place greater importance on themselves. On the contrary, if high-context cultures are more collectivistic, they will place greater importance on other people, plants, and animals.

In spite of this, and based on the conclusions of authors such as Choi and Sirakaya (2005) and Weaver and Jin (2016, p. 1), this article recognizes the importance of context, so a positive link between city brand attitudes and sustainability attitudes will differ according to the context. From this approach, it is expected that the effect of one attitude (city brand attitude) on another attitude (attitude sustainability) will be enhanced in contexts in which feelings and experiences (nonverbal elements) are more important. That is, in a high-context culture, attitudes will be magnified in comparison with low-context cultures. Therefore,

H06: (a) City brand attitudes cannot improve sustainability attitudes and (b) high-context cultures (Mexico) and low-context ones (Spain) will not differ.

H6: (a) City brand attitudes can improve sustainability attitudes and (b) this link will be greater in high-context cultures (Mexico) than in low-context ones (Spain).

Residents' Quality of Life

As it has been stated, marketing strategies are useful for improving residents' attitudes, which finally can help improve their quality of life. The quality of life is a growing concern for individuals, communities, and governments, all of which attempt to find and maintain satisfaction, happiness, and belief in a better

future for everyone in a rapidly changing world. Therefore, this quality of life has been associated with the satisfaction with living in a particular place (Lloyd & Auld, 2002).

One way to improve the quality of life (satisfaction) is to improve city brand attitudes. To this end many local governments have managed their city brands to deliver leisure and recreation services ultimately to generate social welfare, thereby contributing positively to the quality of life (Godbey, 1999; Meyers & Brightbill, 1956). As Wang and Xu (2015) state, “place satisfaction is an aspect of sense of place and deals with how a place meets or fails to meet the preconceived expectations, needs or standards of quality of life that a person holds” (p. 242).

A second way to improve the quality of life (satisfaction) is improve sustainability attitudes. In this vein Welling and Chavan (2010) demonstrate that residents’ quality of life is achieved based not only on the quantity and quality of the products and services provided by the public governments but also on the quality of the environment in which they live.

Furthermore, although previous works (Merrilees et al., 2013) have demonstrated that city marketing is needed to improve residents’ attitudes, not all cities are the same. As Hofstede (1984) remarks, the quality-of-life concept is culturally dependent. In an individualistic, more innovative society (low-context culture), a high quality of life means “individual success, achievement, self-actualization and self-respect” (p. 394). This is because innovative cities are more demanding than traditional ones (Merrilees et al., 2013), so their quality of life will be more difficult to attain. However, in a collectivist, more traditional culture (high-context culture), a high quality of life is much more defined in “family and group terms” (Hofstede, 1984, p. 394).

This approach is not in line with Schultz’s (2001) proposal, which predicts that, although there may be country-level differences regarding environmental concerns, the basic structure would hold across countries, so that the cultural influence would be minimal. He conducted his research considering 10 countries in Latin America, which could explain the low relevance of the cultural variable in his results. For this reason, and based on the pioneering principles of Hofstede (1984), we hypothesize that in collectivist cultures city brand and sustainability attitudes will be stronger, so the quality of life will be easier to achieve. Therefore, it could be stated that,

H07: (a) Better city brand attitudes cannot improve the quality of life and (b) high-context cultures (Mexico) and low-context ones (Spain) will not differ.

H7: (a) Better city brand attitudes can improve the quality of life and (b) this improvement will be stronger in high-context cultures (Mexico) than in low-context ones (Spain).

H08: (a) Better sustainability attitudes cannot improve the quality of life and (b) high-context cultures (Mexico) and low-context ones (Spain) will not differ.

H8: (a) Better sustainability attitudes can improve the quality of life and (b) this improvement will be stronger in high-context cultures (Mexico) than in low-context ones (Spain).

METHOD

Sample Justification

For the present research, two countries, representing two levels of context influence, were chosen following Mattila (2000): Mexico and Spain. We have chosen these two countries to compare the suitability of our proposed marketing strategies in two different scenes. Mexico was chosen, because as Bello et al. (2006) explain, this country can be considered a high-context one. This consideration is also inferred in the studies by Greenfield and Quiroz (2013), Kim et al. (1998), and Takada and Jain (1991).

In both countries, two comparable mega-events applying our two proposed marketing strategies were selected (San Marcos Fair and Fallas): Both events are promoted and designed by public governments, respond to cultural traditions, and last for around 1 week.

More specifically: First, regarding experiential marketing strategy, both events encourage experiences. Specifically, the mega-events encourage participation in open-air activities (processions, flower offerings to the Virgin, dancing, etc.), live music spectacles, firework shows, and so on. They stimulate attendees' interaction in different events (social networks and public invitations to participate in several events of the mega-event). In addition, to reinforce the experiences, residents' cocreation and immersion in the event are encouraged (Kao et al., 2007).

Second, regarding the green marketing strategy, the two events try to stimulate an ecological orientation using similar measures: ecological sponsors, which are displayed during the celebration of some public events as part of the mega-event (e.g., Heineken and its "think in green" campaign), recycling measures to keep the city clean and tidy during the event, and the use of new, less polluting materials and nonplastic elements to manufacture the different monuments that are used for preparing the spectacles and consciousness measures to prevent acoustic pollution.

Measurement Scales

To analyze the several concepts proposed in the literature, multiple 5-point Likert-type scales were identified. The operationalization of each scale is shown in Table 1.

Data

Qualitative research was undertaken to pretest the questionnaire (Marín-Aguilar & Vila, 2014). Subsequently, quantitative research was carried out with

Table 1
Sample Profile

Variable	Answers	Total = 406 (%)	Mexico = 202 (%)	Spain = 204 (%)
Gender	Man	43.2	44.2	42.3
	Woman	56.8	55.8	57.7
Age (years)	<18	3.10	8.3	0.5
	19-29	55.9	48.5	60.1
	30-39 years	22.3	18.8	25.9
	40-49 years	10.8	12.1	9.7
	50-59 years	5.1	8.5	1.8
	≥60 years	2.6	3.8	1.5
Marital status	Single	49.6	51.3	47.9
	Married	29.8	36.2	23.6
	Living as couple	14.4	7.3	22.1
	Separated	2.0	1.3	2.7
	Widower	1.6	2.0	1.2
	Free union	2.2	2.0	2.5
Education	No studies	1.1	1.5	0.7
	Primary studies	1.7	3.0	0.5
	Secondary studies	5.7	9.5	2.0
	Preparatory	14.7	23.1	6.4
	Graduate	55.4	51.5	59.2
	Postgraduate	16.8	7.5	25.8
	Other	4.6	3.8	5.4
Job	Student	28.9	22.9	34.9
	Unemployed	5.2	4.3	5.7
	Active worker	60.6	66.1	55.8
	Housewife	3.9	5.5	2.2
	Retired	1.4	1.3	1.5
Income (\$ per month)	0-3,000		39.2	
	3,001-6,000		16.1	
	6,001-10,000		25.1	
	10,001-15,000		13.3	
	≥\$15,001		6.3	
Income (€ per month)	0-600			42.8
	601-1,200			27.5
	1,201-1,800			15.0
	1,801-2,400			4.9
	2,401-3,000			7.1

the help of 406 residents (202 in Mexico, attending the National Fair of San Marcos, and 204 in Spain, attending Fallas de Valencia; Table 2). Following Getz and Page (2016) suggestion, data were collected while residents were experiencing the mega-event.

Table 2
Scales

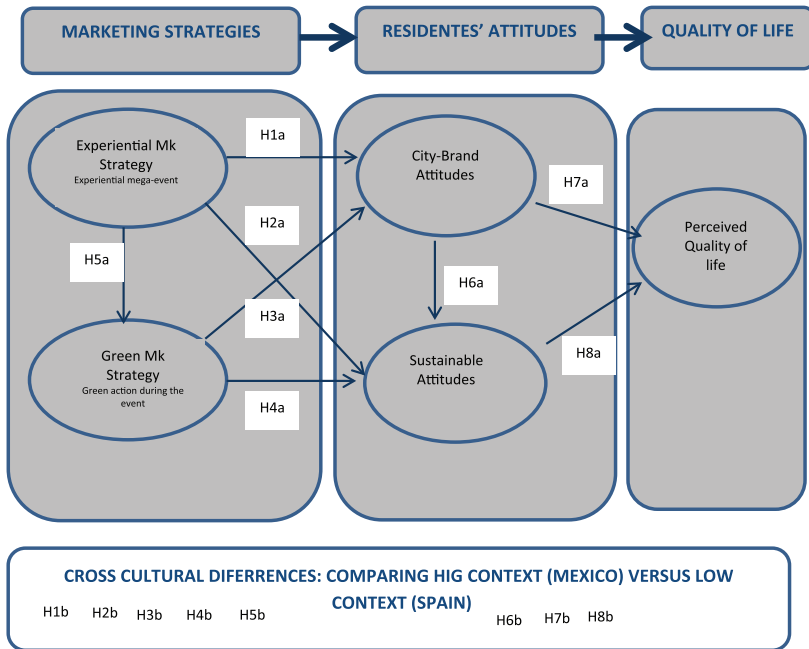
	Attitudes and Quality of Life Scales	Marketing Strategies Scales
	Indicator	
CBA. City brand attitudes	I am proud to live in X	
	Compared to the rest of the country, life in general is good in X	<i>EM</i> . Experiential marketing strategy (emotional experiences)
	I prefer living in X than elsewhere	Events provide entertainment
	The people of X has a good reputation at a national level	Events are fantastic
	In X, is common live pleasure experiences	I feel comfortable with the atmosphere created in the perimeter of the fair
	X has green areas and attractive parks	I felt excited during the playing process
	There are nice places to spend the free time	I can see some surprising attractions in different events
	Public transport is efficient	I can see shows that are not comparable to those seen on TV
	Public education has high quality	I can see some unexpected situations
	There are high quality and sufficient health care services	I have participated at least in one activity of the event Z
	I have interacted with lots of assistants to the event Z	
	When I am in X, time spends so fast that I do not realize	
	I feel comfortable in this edition of the X mega-event	
	I enjoy to the fullest my experience with Z	
SA. Sustainability attitude	I think that the event Z has to intensify environment commitment	
	Assistants to Z must protect the environment	
	Events must be developed in harmony with nature and promote a culture of environmental care	I am attending different events that take place in Z
	Assistants to Z must care wildlife and natural spaces	I feel bad when I think of the damage we do to Earth by pollution
	Z should promote environmental stewardship in all places where events take place	
	Rules regulating the environment are needed to reduce the negative effects of Z	I am frustrated and angry when I think of polluting industries
		I feel that people are not overly concerned about the pesticides used in food
		The pollution problem is not properly valued

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Attitudes and Quality of Life Scales	Marketing Strategies Scales
I think those attending Z should do something to improve the environment for future generations	I am willing to stop buying products from companies that pollute
Those attending Z disrupt my quality of life	In fact, I bought products that have less polluting effect
My quality of life is impaired in the exhibition period	I stopped buying products for ecological reasons
I often feel irritated at Z	I have kept some materials for recycling
I like Z because it brings new revenue to X	I have joined a cleanup campaign
I think Z is an economic promoter to society	I am interested in reading documents (leaflets, brochures, etc.) on organic products
The Z generates significant tax revenues (taxes) to local government	I always read the labels on organic products
I think Z is good for the economy of X	I'd be willing to pay a higher price for green products
Z creates new markets for products of X	It would intend to donate some money to a foundation that helps improve the environment
Z diversifies the local economy	
Z brings returns to other industries in the city	
Z returns to other industries in the city	
How satisfied are you with your quality of life?	
Are you satisfied with how you spend your free time?	
How satisfied are you with your fitness level?	
In general, how satisfied are you with your QOL to be a resident of X?	
QOL. Quality of life	

Figure 1
Proposed Model



First, the respondents were analyzed as a whole to achieve our first objective: to compare the strategies (H1a to H8a). Then, the sample was split into two groups (the Spanish subsample and the Mexican subsample) to attain our second objective: to analyze the cross-cultural differences (H1b to H8b).

Confirmatory Analysis: Validation of the Scales

Before testing the model (Figure 1), an exploratory factor analysis was performed with SPSS software to validate the suitability of the items for measuring each concept. This validation was carried out three times for three samples to augment the robustness of our results: (a) the global sample, (b) the Mexican sample, and (c) the Spanish sample. Then a confirmatory factor analysis was undertaken to test the reliability of the scales. The EQS software (Version 5.7b) was used to this end.

Testing the Hypothesis: Structural Equation Modeling With Multisample Analysis

First, to test our hypotheses for the global sample (H1a, H2a, H3a, H4a, H5a, H6a, H7a, and H8a) the EQS software (Version 5.7b) was used.

Second, to compare both subsamples (Spanish and Mexicans) we tested the same hypotheses in a comparative framework (H1b, H2b, H3b, H4b, H5b, H6b, H7b, and H8b) using a multigroup analysis with the EQS software (Version 5.7b). Two steps were performed. The first did not involve any formal analysis of the cultural differences, as for each group of interviewees the parameters and significance of each of the proposed causal hypotheses were estimated. The second step compared the possible existence of significant differences between the two subsamples. The suitability of this method based on structural equation modeling for comparing the same model in two different scenarios can be studied in greater depth in Satorra (2000).

RESULTS

First Objective: Comparing Marketing Strategies (Global Sample Analysis)

To analyze the efficacy of our two marketing strategies, we tested the first group of subhypotheses (H1a, H2a, H3, H4a, H5a, H6a, H7a, and H8a). To this end, the general model was analyzed with the information provided by the whole sample. Six hypotheses were found to be significant ($p < .05$), with the model showing a good fit (Table 3). The overall results show that the structural equations have high R^2 values. Table 3 shows our hypothesis testing.

First, regarding the effectiveness of our first marketing strategy (*the experiential marketing strategy*), our results confirm that experiences lived in a mega-event are useful for improving city brand attitudes (H1a) and sustainability attitudes (H2a) (Table 3). So, our null Hypotheses H01a and H02a should be rejected. That is, if public city managers are able to promote an experiential mega-event in a city (one that allows participants to feel excited during the playing process, enjoy, feel surprise, participate actively, etc.), the citizens will be more proud of their city (city brand attitudes) and will take more care of it (sustainability attitudes). The relevance of enhancing authentic city mega-events to stimulate consumers' responses has been demonstrated by Novello and Fernández (2016).

Second, regarding our second marketing strategy (*green marketing strategy*), our results cannot confirm its effects on city brand attitudes (H3a), although it contributes to improving sustainability attitudes (H4a) (Table 3). So, our null hypotheses H03a should be accepted, while H04a should be rejected. That is, if public city managers encourage green measures to improve citizens' ecological orientation (i.e., ecological sponsors, recycling measures to keep the city clean and tidy during the event, nonplastic elements, etc.), this does not mean that the citizens will be more proud of their city (city brand attitudes). They will be more worried about it and committed to its future (sustainability attitudes). The reason is because, as Qiu et al. (2019), citizens are more worried about sustainable mega-events because sustainable tourism is being a topic of major concern among population for the past years.

Table 3
Global Model Testing (N = 406)

Alternative Hypothesis	Structural Relationship	Standardized Charge (β)	T Robust*	Alternative Hypothesis	Null Hypothesis
	<i>Experiential marketing strategy to improve attitudes</i>	Yes			
H1 _a	Experiential marketing strategy → City brand attitudes	0.81***	17.317	✓	H01a: No
H2 _a	Experiential strategy → Sustainability attitudes	0.30***	3.357	✓	H02a: No
	<i>Green marketing strategy to improve attitudes</i>	Partially			
H3 _a	Green marketing strategy → City brand attitudes	0.03	1.117	No	H03a: ✓
H4 _a	Green marketing strategy → Sustainability attitudes	0.19***	4.856	✓	H04a: No
	<i>Relationship between both strategies</i>	No			
H5 _a	Experiential marketing strategy → Green marketing strategy	-0.01	-0.473	No	H05a: ✓
	<i>Residents' attitudes relationship</i>	Yes			
H6 _a	City brand attitudes → Sustainability attitudes	0.24**	2.519	✓	H06a: No
	<i>Attitudes to improve quality of life</i>	Yes			
H7 _a	City brand attitudes → Quality of life	0.57***	10.150	✓	H07a: No
H8 _a	Sustainability attitudes → Quality of life	0.16*	1.882	✓	H08a: No

Note: $\chi^2 = 317.954$ (0.0000); comparative fit index (CFI) = .912; incremental fit index (IFI) = .912; goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = .915; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .070.
* $p < .1$. ** $p < .05$. *** $p < .01$.

Furthermore, the *relationship between the two strategies* cannot be confirmed, so our null hypotheses H05a can be accepted and conversely H5a should be rejected (Table 3). This means that, in our global sample, experiential emotions do not contribute to reinforcing residents' ecological orientation, so a green marketing strategy does not work better in an experiential mega-event. This means that public managers can promote experiential mega-events omitting green measures, because the ecological orientation does not augment when experiential mega-events are developed.

Regarding the relationship between *city brand attitudes and sustainability attitudes*, our research confirms a positive relationship. That is, our null H06a cannot be accepted while, conversely H6a should be accepted, which means that as a city builds a strong brand, residents come to feel that it is more sustainable (Table 3). This result corroborates Askegaard and Kjeldgaard's (2007) proposal, which states that the definition of a city brand includes the commitment to sustainability, because a city needs to be sustainable to achieve a strong brand. Thus, if a citizen is proud of their city (city brand attitudes), they will intensify their environmental commitment (sustainability attitudes).

Finally, our results confirm that city brand attitudes and sustainability attitudes lead to an improved *quality of life*. Thus, the null hypotheses H07a and H08a should be rejected, therefore accepting H7a and H8a, respectively (Table 3). That is, residents will feel happier and more satisfied with their city (higher quality of life) after falling in love with it (attitude improvements). Equally, when citizens are proud of their city, value its virtues (city brand attitudes), and feel committed to their care (sustainability attitudes), their satisfaction with the place will be higher (quality of life). As Deng et al. (2015) detail "events are known to play more and more important roles in destination marketing . . . fostering a feeling of community pride" (p. 245). Therefore, events and quality of life seem to be strongly connected terms.






Second Objective: Comparing the Two Cultures (Subsample Analysis and Comparison)

To achieve our second objective, we tested the second group of subhypotheses (H1b, H2b, H3b, H4b, H5b, H6b, H7b, and H8b). For this purpose, we conducted two independent estimations: one for the 202 Mexican residents attending the Fair of San Marcos and one for the 205 Spanish residents attending Fallas in Valencia. We did an intergroup analysis with structural equation modeling (multisample analysis).

Table 4 shows the results for each subsample in the first step:

First, regarding the *experiential marketing strategy*, an experiential mega-event increases city brand attitudes (H1) in both cultures. Additionally, in the low-context environment (Spain), our results confirm the stronger efficacy of the experiential marketing strategy, because the mega-event also improves sus-

Table 4
Cross-Cultural Differences (N = 406)

Null Hypothesis	SEM χ^2 Significant Differences	Alternative Hypothesis	Structural Relationship	High Context Mexico		Low Context Spain	
				Standardized Change (β)	T Robust*	Standardized Change (β)	T Robust*
<i>Experiential marketing strategy to improve attitudes</i>							
H01b: ✓	2.005	H1 _b : No	Experiential marketing strategy → City brand attitudes 	Partially	9.94	Yes	12.70
H02b: ✓	0.234	H2 _b : No	Experiential marketing strategy → Sustainable attitudes	-0.12	-1.14	0.50***	4.06
<i>Green marketing strategy to improve attitudes</i>							
No	4.339**	H3 _b : ✓	Green marketing strategy → City brand attitudes 	Yes	1.99	Partially	0.99
H04b: ✓	0.047	H4 _b : No	Green marketing strategy → Sustainability attitudes	0.44***	4.93	0.53***	4.89
<i>Relationships between both strategies</i>							
No	6.765**	H5 _b : ✓	Experiential marketing strategies → Green marketing strategy 	Yes	3.20	No	-2.35
<i>Residents' attitudes relationship</i>							
H06b: ✓	0.413	H6 _b : No	City brand attitudes → Sustainability attitudes 	Yes	3.86	Yes	2.29
<i>Attitudes to improve quality of life</i>							
H07b: ✓	0.717	H7 _b : No	City brand attitudes → Quality of life 	Partially	3.82	Yes	7.72
H08b: ✓	0.073	H8 _b : No	Sustainability attitudes → Quality of life	-0.07	-0.74	0.15*	1.93

Note: SEM = structural equation modeling, $\chi^2 = 417.4$, Bentler-Bonett nonnormed fit index (BBNNFI) = .912; comparative fit index (CFI) = .922; incremental fit index (IFI) = .922; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .055.

* $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$.

ns (nonsignificant) χ^2 statistic differences among groups is non significant (ns).

tainability attitudes (H2). So, experiential marketing strategies based on mega-events work better in Spain.

Second, regarding the *green marketing strategy*, in both samples this strategy helps increase sustainable-brand attitudes (H4). Additionally, in a high-context environment (Mexico), our results confirm the greater efficacy this strategy, as it also increases city-brand attitudes (H3). Furthermore, in this high-context environment, the two strategies seem to be related (H5). So, green marketing strategies work better in México.

Thirdly, regarding the relationship between *city brand attitudes and sustainability attitudes*, our results show that when city brand attitudes improve, sustainability attitudes improve too (H6). Therefore, these two attitudes are related in both cultures.

Finally, our results that to improve the *quality of life*, city brand attitudes must be improved first in both samples (H7). In a low-context environment (Spain), the quality of life can also be augmented by improving the sustainability attitudes among the citizens (H8). So, in Spain, the power of attitudes to improve quality of life is stronger.

In the second step, and to test the significant differences between the parameters in the two subgroups, the Lagrange multiplier test (Lmtest) was performed with structural equation modeling after including the restrictions in our model. In our study, two hypotheses out of eight differ significantly between Mexico and Spain (Table 4).

On one side, the green marketing strategy's impact on city brand attitudes is significantly stronger in Mexico than in Spain. Thus, we should reject our null H03b, therefore accepting H3b. On another side, the positive effect of an experiential marketing strategy on a green marketing strategy is also stronger in Mexico than in Spain, which means that green events are more useful in countries that are dependent on the environment, because event experiences contribute to reinforcing green concerns. Therefore, we should also reject the null hypotheses H05b, accepting H5b. In sum, both alternative hypotheses, H3b and H5b, can be accepted because, as Mattila (2000) anticipated, the cultural communication context determines the efficacy of the marketing strategy.

Conversely, the rest of the null hypotheses can be accepted. That is, we must reject the rest of alternative hypotheses: H1_b, H2_b, H4_b, H6_b, H7_b, and H8_b. That is, as Table 4 shows, the two cultures do not differ significantly regarding these relationships. Only some cultural differences could be demonstrated. These results are in line with the work of Schultz (2001), for whom the context does not influence individuals' attitudes toward sustainability. In low-context (more individualistic) cultures, greater importance will be placed on themselves, while in high-context (more collectivistic) cultures, greater importance will be placed on other people, plants, and animals. In both cases the environment and sustainability attitudes are important but for different reasons (to preserve one's own future or to preserve collective goods). In sum, the differences among citizens

attributable to context have not been identified in those hypotheses in which sustainable attitudes are considered.

Limitations and Future Research

This article has some feebleness that could represent future research lines. First, only two countries were compared, so more research is needed to consider additional countries from different cultures. Second, only two marketing strategies were tested.

Additional papers could incorporate some new marketing strategies to improve our results, for example, the gamification strategy of marketing experiences, to determine whether this tool is useful for reinforcing the effects of an experiential event. Third, only quantitative data were used in our article, incurring some self-selection bias and social desirability bias. Therefore, some new techniques based on neuromarketing methods could be applied to measure emotions better.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

First, our results in the global sample confirm that both strategies (the experiential marketing strategy and the green marketing strategy) help improve sustainability attitudes among residents. That is, green events can improve sustainability attitudes. In addition, the first strategy (experiential marketing) is useful for improving city brand attitudes. Thus, based on our global results, an experiential marketing strategy works better than a green marketing strategy, because its impact on citizens' attitudes is stronger. Consequently, the quality of life (residents' satisfaction) will improve more when experiential strategies are applied (experiential mega-events) than when green strategies are used.

Second, having compared two different cultures, our results confirm that in low-context cultures (i.e. *Spain*), an *experiential marketing strategy* works better than a green marketing strategy, because experiences contribute to improving both city brand attitudes and sustainability attitudes. Conversely, in high-context cultures (i.e., *Mexico*), this strategy only contributes to improving city brand attitudes. On the contrary, in high-context cultures (*Mexico*), a *green marketing strategy* that contributes to developing an ecological orientation will be more effective in improving attitudes.

Conversely, in low-context cultures (*Spain*), this strategy and its effects lose their impact. The two strategies are connected only in high-context cultures (*Mexico*), which means that green events will work better among residents in high-context places. This is because their higher levels of collectivism, emotionality, and sensory appreciation lead to the experiential marketing strategy enhancing the green marketing strategy. On the other hand, the ecological orientation of low-context citizens does not improve after experiencing a mega-event. This is because residents in low-context cultures tend more toward individualism and

anthropocentrism (Xu & Fox, 2014), which explains their lower interest in environmental concerns. Wong et al. (2015) remark in a recent study that special attention is given to the comparative advantages attained by events with green policies and practices, such as the Macau Food Festival, developed in another high-context culture: China.

In sum, when considering cultural differences, six out of eight hypotheses were rejected. Therefore, we can conclude that, as in the work of Schultz (2001), other variables, such as gender, age, or religious beliefs, may have stronger relevance to the explanation of citizens' differences.

Theoretical Implications

First, in line with the city marketing theory (Barke, 1999), this article remarks on the helpfulness of mega-events using marketing strategies (Deng et al., 2015) in enhancing destination competitiveness and improving residents' attitudes (Pike & Page, 2014). After the improvement of attitudes, residents' quality of life augments. Thus, deeper research is needed in the field of the city marketing theory as far as its relevance to the understanding of residents' attitudes has been demonstrated through this work.

Second, this article has demonstrated some limitations of the contextual influences on consumers' attitudes. When sustainability attitudes are involved, Hall's (1990) theory of cultural determination does not work. In this case the social cognitive theory (Font et al., 2016, p. 66) can help researchers to understand that "today's world is far more complex than these dualities," and other variables (such as age, gender, etc.) can probably explain better the efficacy of marketing strategies in improving sustainability attitudes and, last, the quality of life.

Managerial Implications

In this regard we recommend to public city managers the following lines of action to encourage successful mega-events (Deng et al., 2015) taking into consideration cultural differences.

First, these mega-events should start by triggering residents' experiential emotions. Our results corroborate, in line with Ruzzier and Chernatony (2013, p. 45), that "the focus of place marketing has shifted to promoting emotional and experiential attractions."

Second, for high-context cities we recommend the use of green mega-events, that is, events that also promote an individual ecological orientation among the participants. This kind of event is highly recommended in high-context environments. The same conclusion follows from the work of Wong et al. (2015), who remark that, to obtain the maximum comparative advantage in a high-context culture (China), the marketing efforts must focus on promoting green initiatives, because attendees who take an interest in and feel connected to environmental

issues in their life will spend significantly more. Consequently, to encourage individual commitment to the environment, we recommend that businesses and public authorities should use experiential strategies that lead to care for the environment while enjoying it and thus are easier to remember (i.e., to develop an effective program of waste collection in the mega-event). In spite of these, we must not forget that some other variables (such as gender, age, or religious beliefs; Schultz, 2001) should be considered to gain a better understanding of residents' acceptance of public marketing strategies.

Therefore, and as Mattila (2000) has suggested based on Hall (1990), the concept of high versus low context culture might need to be considered when developing marketing strategies in the tourism industry, for example, when designing employee training programs for customer-contact personnel participating in mega-events.


Third, public governments should not forget city brand attitudes if they want to achieve happy residents, which finally will enhance tourism activity. In words of Qiu et al. (2019): "a resident is likely to be supportive of tourism development as long as the perceived benefits exceed the perceived costs" (p. 230). Therefore, it is the responsibility of each government to provide citizens with quality events, infrastructure, utilities, outstanding health and education providers, and so on.

In sum, as in the work of Qiu et al. (2019),

the finding of this study can also be useful when government and industries prepare future development plans and to make policy decisions . . . the government should . . . allocate more resources to improve the welfare of all residents. (p. 244)

or, what is the same, their quality of life.

ORCID iD

Natalia Vila-Lopez  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9438-3337>

REFERENCES

- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. *Psychological Bulletin*, *84*(5), 888-918. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.84.5.888>
- Anderson, P. M., & He, X. (2015). Consumer behavior in East/West cultures: Implications for marketing a consumer durable. In *Proceedings of the 1996 Multicultural Marketing Conference* (pp. 3-8). Springer International.
- Arndt, H., & Janney, R. W. (1987). *Inter grammar: Toward an integrative model of verbal, prosodic and kinesic choices in speech* (Vol. 2). Walter de Gruyter. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110872910>
- Arnold, M. J., & Reynolds, K. (2003). Hedonic shopping motivations. *Journal of Retailing*, *70*(2), 77-95. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359\(03\)00007-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359(03)00007-1)

- Askegaard, S., & Kjeldgaard, D. (2007). Here, there and everywhere: Place branding and gastronomical globalization in a macromarketing perspective. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 27(2), 138-147. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146707300068>
- Barke, M. (1999). City marketing as a planning tool. In M. Pacione (Ed.), *Applied geography: Principles and practice* (pp. 486-496). Routledge.
- Bello, R., Ragsdale, J. D., Brandeau-Brown, F. E., & Thibodeaux, T. (2006). Cultural perceptions of equivocation and directness: Dimensional or unique? *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 15(3), 180.
- Boiger, M., & Mesquita, B. (2012). The construction of emotion in interactions, relationships, and cultures. *Emotion Review*, 4(3), 221-229. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073912439765>
- Callow, M. A. (2000). Do you see what I see? A cross-cultural analysis of the social identity metaphor in visual print advertisements. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 61(4), 1-12.
- Cheng, T. M., & Wu, H. C. (2015). How do environmental knowledge, environmental sensitivity, and place attachment affect environmentally responsible behavior? An integrated approach for sustainable island tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(4), 557-576. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2014.965177>
- Cho, Y. N., Thyroff, A., Rapert, M. I., Park, S. Y., & Lee, H. J. (2013). To be or not to be green: Exploring individualism and collectivism as antecedents of environmental behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(8), 1052-1059. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2012.08.020>
- Choi, H. S. C., & Sirakaya, E. (2005). Measuring residents' attitude toward sustainable tourism: Development of Sustainable Tourism Attitude Scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(4), 380-394. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287505274651>
- Deng, C. Q., Li, M., & Shen, H. (2015). Developing a measurement scale for event image. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 39(2), 245-270. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348012471378>
- Dodds, R., & Joppe, M. (2001). Promoting urban green tourism: The development of the other map of Toronto. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 7(3), 261-267. <https://doi.org/10.1177/135676670100700306>
- Dolles, H., & Söderman, S. (2010). Addressing ecology and sustainability in mega-sporting events: The 2006 football World Cup in Germany. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 16(4), 587-600. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1833367200001954>
- Ewing, R., Bartholomew, K., Winkelman, S., Walters, J., & Chen, D. (2009). Growing cooler: The evidence on urban development and climate change. *Renewable Resources Journal*, 25(4), 6-13.
- Font, X., Garay, L., & Jones, S. (2016). A social cognitive theory of sustainability empathy. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 58(6), 5-80. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2016.02.004>
- Getz, D. (2009). Policy for sustainable and responsible festivals and events: Institutionalization of a new paradigm. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 1(1), 61-78. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19407960802703524>
- Getz, D., & Page, S. J. (2016). Progress and prospects for event tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 52(February), 593-631. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.03.007>
- Godbey, G. (1999). *Leisure in your life: An exploration*. Venture.

- Greenfield, P. M., & Quiroz, B. (2013). Context and culture in the socialization and development of personal achievement values: Comparing Latino immigrant families, European American families, and elementary school teachers. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 34*(2), 108-118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appdev.2012.11.002>
- Griskevicius, V., Cantú, S. M., & Vugt, M. V. (2012). The evolutionary bases for sustainable behavior: Implications for marketing, policy, and social entrepreneurship. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 31*(1), 115-128. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jppm.11.040>
- Hall, E. T. (1990). *Understanding of cultural differences: Germans, French and Americans*. Intercultural Press.
- Hofstede, G. (1984). The cultural relativity of the quality of life concept. *Academy of Management Review, 9*(3), 389-398. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1984.4279653>
- Kao, Y., Huang, L., & Yang, M. (2007). Effects of experiential elements on experiential satisfaction a loyalty intentions: A case study of the super basketball league in Taiwan. *International Journal of Revenue Management, 1*(1), 79-96. <https://doi.org/10.1504/IJRM.2007.011195>
- Kavaratzis, M., & Hatch, M. J. (2013). The dynamics of place brands an identity-based approach to place branding theory. *Marketing Theory, 13*(1), 69-86. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1470593112467268>
- Kim, D., Pan, Y., & Park, H. S. (1998). High- versus low-context culture: A comparison of Chinese, Korean, and American cultures. *Psychology & Marketing, 15*(6), 507. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1520-6793\(199809\)15:6<507::AID-MAR2>3.0.CO;2-A](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1520-6793(199809)15:6<507::AID-MAR2>3.0.CO;2-A)
- Lee, Y. C., & Kim, K. H. (2015). Attitudes of citizens towards urban parks and green spaces for urban sustainability: The case of Gyeongsan City, Republic of Korea. *Sustainability, 7*(7), 8240-8254. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su7078240>
- Li, M. (2014). Cross-cultural tourist research: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 38*(1), 40-77. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348012442542>
- Lloyd, K. M., & Auld, C. J. (2002). The role of leisure in determining quality of life: Issues of content and measurement. *Social Indicators Research, 57*(1), 43-71. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1013879518210>
- Marín-Aguilar, J. T., & Vila, N. (2014). How can mega events and ecological orientation improve city brand attitudes? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 26*(4), 629-652. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-03-2013-0117>
- Mattila, A. S. (2000). The impact of culture and gender on customer evaluations of service encounters. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 24*(2), 263-273. <https://doi.org/10.1177/109634800002400209>
- Merrilees, B., & Miller, D. (2015). The role of green events in a green economy. In M. V. Reddy & K. Wilkes (Eds.), *Tourism in the Green Economy* (pp. 277-290). Routledge.
- Merrilees, B., Miller, D., & Herington, C. (2009). Antecedents of residents' city brand attitudes. *Journal of Business Research, 62*(3), 362-367. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.05.011>
- Merrilees, B., Miller, D., & Herington, C. (2013). City branding: A facilitating framework for stressed satellite cities. *Journal of Business Research, 66*(1), 37-44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.07.021>
- Meyers, H. D., & Brightbill, C. K. (1956). *Recreation administration: A guide to its practices*. Prentice Hall.

- Novello, S., & Fernández, P. M. (2016). The influence of event authenticity and quality attributes on behavioral intentions. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *40*(6), 685-714. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348013515914>
- Pike, S., & Page, S. J. (2014). Destination marketing organizations and destination marketing: A narrative analysis of the literature. *Tourism Management*, *41*(1), 202-227. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.09.009>
- Qiu, H., Fan, D. X. F., Lyu, J., Lin, P. M. C., & Jenkins, C. L. (2019). Analyzing the economic sustainability of tourism development: Evidence from Hong Kong. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *43*(2), 226-248. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348018777046>
- Ruzzier, M. K., & De Chernatony, L. (2013). Developing and applying a place brand identity model: The case of Slovenia. *Journal of Business Research*, *66*(1), 45-52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2012.05.023>
- Satorra, A. (2000). *Scaled and adjusted restricted tests in multi-sample analysis of moment structures*. Springer.
- Stanton, W., Etzel, M., & Walker, B. (2004). *Fundamentos de marketing* [Fundamentals of marketing] (13th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Singh, N., Zhao, H., & Hu, X. (2005). Cultural adaptation on the web: A study of American companies. *Advanced Topics in Global Information Management*, *203*, 15-35. <https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-59140-468-2.ch012>
- Schultz, P. W. (2001). The structure of environmental concern: Concern for self, other people, and the biosphere. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *21*(4), 327-339. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jevps.2001.0227>
- Takada, H., & Jain, D. (1991). Cross-national analysis of diffusion of consumer durable goods in pacific rim countries. *Journal of Marketing*, *55*(2), 48. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1252237>
- Tybout, A. M., Calder, B. J., & Sternthal, B. (1981). Using information processing theory to design marketing strategies. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(1), 73-79. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378101800107>
- Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., Woo, E., & Kim, H. L. (2016). Quality of life (QOL) and well-being research in tourism. *Tourism Management*, *53*(April), 244-261. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.07.013>
- Wang, S., & Xu, H. (2015). Influence of place-based senses of distinctiveness, continuity, self-esteem and self-efficacy on residents' attitudes toward tourism. *Tourism Management*, *47*, 241-250. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.10.007>
- Weaver, D. B., & Jin, X. (2016). Compassion as a neglected motivator for sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *24*(5), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2015.1101130>
- Welling, M. N., & Chavan, A. S. (2010). Analysing the feasibility of green marketing in small and medium scale manufacturers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Research in Business Management*, *1*(2), 1-15. <http://skirec.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/2.8-ANU-PAMA-ANALYSING-THE-FEASIBILITY-OF-GREEN-MARKETING..-1.pdf>
- Wong, I. A., Wan, Y. K. P., & Qi, S. (2015). Green events, value perceptions, and the role of consumer involvement in festival design and performance. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *32*(3), 294-315. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2014.953542>
- Wurtz, E. (2006). Intercultural communication on web sites: A cross-cultural analysis of web sites from high-context cultures and low-context culture. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, *11*, 274-299.

Xu, F., & Fox, D. (2014). Modelling attitudes to nature, tourism and sustainable development in national parks: A survey of visitors in China and the UK. *Tourism Management, 45*, 42-158. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.03.005>

Submitted April 3, 2018

Accepted August 10, 2019

Refereed Anonymously

Natalia Vila-Lopez, PhD (e-mail: natalia.vila@uv.es), is a professor in marketing in the Department of Marketing in the Economics School at the University of Valencia, Spain.

Ines Kuster-Boluda, PhD (e-mail: ines.kuster@uv.es), is professor in marketing in the Department of Marketing in the in the Economics School at the University of Valencia, Spain.

Jose Trinidad Marin-Aguilar (e-mail: trinidad.marin@edu.uaa.mx) is a lecturer in marketing in the Department of Marketing, Faculty of Economics University of Aguas Calientes Aguascalientes, Mexico and a PhD student at University of Valencia, Spain.