



ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at [ScienceDirect](https://www.sciencedirect.com)

Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jhlste

What drives green experiential outcomes in tourism higher education?

Hung-Che Wu^a, Xiaolian Chen^{b,*}, Ya-Yuan Chang^c

^a Business School, Nanfang College of Sun Yat-Sen University, No. 882 Wenquan Avenue, Conghua District, Guangzhou, Guangdong Province, 510970, China

^b School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, 17 Science Museum Road, TST East, Kowloon, Hong Kong

^c Department of Hospitality Management, Ming Chuan University, No. 5 De Ming Rd, Gui Shan District, Taoyuan City, Taiwan

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Green experiential learning
Green experiential motivation
Green experiential value
Green experiential benefits
Green experiential satisfaction
Green experiential outcomes

ABSTRACT

This paper aims to explore the structural relationships between the dimensions of green experiential outcomes and their four drivers – green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value and green experiential benefits. A convenience sample of 410 undergraduate students who took the courses in sustainable tourism management in one university located in Gland of Switzerland was surveyed. The results will assist green tourism educators in developing and implementing sustainability degree programs to increase green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value, and green experiential benefits in order to promote students' perceptions of green experiential outcomes.

1. Introduction

Alinaghian and Karamipour (2015) define green education as organized efforts to teach how natural environments function, and particularly, how humans can manage behavior and ecosystems to live sustainably. The aim of green education is to provide “sustainability education” and empower students to learn and adopt lifelong habits of environmental stewardship (Wu, 2011). Education for sustainable development has been considered as a powerful tool of change, enabling students to take the actions and decisions needed to build a fair and economically viable society respectful of both cultural and environmental diversity. In response, green education has been placed at the center of the 2030 UNISCO agenda along with its 17 sustainable development goals (UNESCO, 2015). The role of higher education in sustainable development is to facilitate the fundamental moral and cultural changes necessary for creating a sustainable society (Bowers, 1995, 1997, 2001). To promote a sustainable society, higher education has a duty to engage with social and political issues and foster environmental justice. Through this process, universities not only bring about cultural change, but also reflect certain existing cultural characteristics that may limit the scope for change (Zou, Zhao, Mason, & Li, 2015). Kangas (2010) proposes that a nature-related facility, such as a garden, could be one of the most important components of power learning environments; its function would aid the transfer of knowledge and enhance students' informal learning experiences. Without green experiences, any well-designed educational tools would not be able to achieve educational value (Cheang, So, Zhan, & Tsui, 2017). The increasing importance of sustainability worldwide reveals the need for more corporate responsibility regarding sustainability within the tourism industry as it continues to grow. Since students will become the leaders of the future, it becomes progressively more significant to prepare them to cope with challenges that the industry faces in the 21st century (Mansour, El-Kafy, &

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: wuhungche66@gmail.com (H.-C. Wu), xiaolian.chen@connect.polyu.hk (X. Chen), yychang@mail.mcu.edu.tw (Y.-Y. Chang).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhlste.2020.100294>

Received 10 February 2020; Received in revised form 8 July 2020; Accepted 6 November 2020
1473-8376/© 2020 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Hussein, 2018). Accordingly, integrating sustainability into the tourism program is a worthy topic of discussion (Barber, Deale, & Goodman, 2011; Boley, 2011). Despite the close relationship between sustainability and tourism industries, none of the studies focuses on integrating sustainability into the tourism program from students' experiential perspectives in higher education.

Bitner and Hubbert (1994) propose that experiential outcomes explain how well the total experience in an organization meets the consumer's expectation. According to Fassnacht and Koese (2006), experiential outcomes are the results of a transaction and refer to those with which a consumer might be left at the end of a transaction encounter. Wu, Ai, and Cheng (2019) propose that experiential satisfaction, experiential loyalty and experiential switching intentions consist of experiential outcomes. According to Jenkins and Schröder (2013), tourists generally want the experiential outcomes from the product they have purchased and are not really engaged in the green practice. Mody, Suess, and Lehto (2019) consider that being green is a key variable that influences customers' desirable experiential outcomes, such as emotions, memorability, and brand loyalty. To the best of our knowledge, none of the studies focuses on experiential outcomes from green perspectives and examines whether green experiential satisfaction, experiential loyalty and experiential switching intentions consist of green experiential outcomes in higher education.

Zhai, Gu, Liu, Liang, and Tsai (2017) indicate that experiential learning has a positive influence on student satisfaction. Wu, Chang, and Wu (2019) find that experiential satisfaction is positively influenced by experiential motivation. Wu, Cheng, and Ai (2018a) and Wu, Li, and Li (2018d) present that experiential value has a positive influence on experiential satisfaction. According to Foster (2014), the experiential benefits of tourism have been considered as important factors in tourist satisfaction. Several studies (Wu, 2017; Wu & Ai, 2016; Wu & Cheng, 2018, 2019) propose that experiential satisfaction positively influences experiential loyalty. Wu, Ai, and Cheng (2019) find that experiential switching intentions are negatively influenced by experiential satisfaction and experiential loyalty. Because more and more consumers are embracing green initiatives and their perceptions of environmental, ethical and social stewardship are continually growing, the sales of green products have increased and more consumers have been willing to pay higher prices for green products over the past decade (Chen, Lai, & Wen, 2006; Wu & Cheng, 2017, 2019). There are five reasons for education to adopt green experiential marketing: compliance with environmental pressures, obtaining competitive advantages, improving organizational images, seeking new markets or opportunities and enhancing product experiential value (Chen, 2008; Wu & Cheng, 2017, 2019). Also, there are incentives for education to undertake green experiential marketing. However, green experiential marketing has not been fully explored in the academic community. Although previous studies have paid great attention to exploring the relevant issues of experiential learning, experiential motivation, experiential value, experiential benefits, the dimensions of experiential outcomes (experiential satisfaction, experiential loyalty and experiential switching intentions), none explores them about green or environmental issues. This study focuses on finding the correct standpoint and evaluation for new and novel concepts of green tourism education and experiential marketing in compliance with the environmental trends to increase the dimensions of green experiential outcomes from their drivers: green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value and green experiential benefits. Accordingly, the purpose of this paper is to test the relationships between green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value, green experiential benefits and the dimensions of green experiential outcomes (green experiential satisfaction, green experiential loyalty and green experiential switching intentions) perceived by students in tourism higher education.

This study contributes to the theoretical advancement of the field of green tourism educators by empirically testing the relationships between green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value, green experiential benefits, green experiential satisfaction, green experiential loyalty and green experiential switching intentions. From a practical perspective, this study can help green tourism educators to better understand green experiential outcomes using the proposed model and provides useful information to marketing managers who are designing green programs for tourism higher education. The study findings will provide green tourism educators with a clear understanding of how to increase perceptions of green experiential outcomes via their drivers: green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value and green experiential benefits. This will help green tourism educators to know exactly where and how to allocate their money to do the most good, considering the scarcity of resources.

2. Related concepts and hypotheses

2.1. Green experiential learning

Experiential learning is becoming one of the most important topics in educational research (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). In the last few decades, many studies have been performed in the field of experiential learning in order to develop a theoretical framework of experiential learning, or explore what elements are influencing the outcome of experiential learning (Yang & Wong, 2018). In Kolb's study (Kolb, 1984), experiential learning is defined as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience; and knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience (p. 38)." According to Kolb and Kolb (2005, p. 205), "the enhancement of experiential learning in higher education can be achieved through the creation of learning spaces that promote growth-producing experiences for learners." In essence, experiential learning focuses on learners reflecting on their experience of doing something, so as to gain conceptual insight as well as practical expertise (Bates, 2020). Experiential learning not only presents the educator with a tool that can engage the learner with complicated material, but also helps to illustrate the complexity of real world ecological and human systems (Ritchie, 2013). Also, it is a stimulus to the natural environment because it leads to greater appreciation of nature, thus promoting environmentally responsible behavior (Beaumont, 2001; Green & Farazmand, 2012; Mittelstaedt, Sanker, & VanderVeer, 1999). Several studies (De Groot & Steg, 2007; Higham & Carr, 2002; Stern, 2000) argue that experiential learning can invoke students' negative feelings of regret and their moral correctness or incorrectness, which serve as a positive

catalyst for their conservation behavior. Based on the definitions above, this study proposes a novel construct, green experiential learning, and refers to Kolb (2014) in defining it as a particular form of learning that is in contrast with traditional classroom learning, with an emphasis on bona fide in-context eco-friendly curricula and experience as the primary learning source. Goralnik and Nelson (2014) propose that green experiential learning is a robust and effective pedagogy relevant to developing the complex worldviews necessary for approaching environmental problems that have a mix of causes and effects with uncertain solutions. To make eco-friendly environments, experiential learning is a basic and important part of the curricula both in the school, and for providing students the opportunity to learn outside of the classroom (Parrott, 2016).

2.2. Green experiential motivation

Bloch, Ridgway, and Dawson (1994) present that experiential motivation is strongly associated with experiential consumption itself for recreational and social activities. Wu and Chang (2019) describe experiential motivation as motivation associated with experiential consumption itself for tourism activities. Experiential motivation is a critical factor and a driving force behind tourist behavior; however, understanding tourists' experiential motivations is becoming increasingly important in the tourism industry (Huang & Hsu, 2009). Since experiential motivation has a hedonic or recreational orientation, the store or mall visit is made for the pleasure inherent in the visit itself (Suryanarayana, 2013). Kabadayi and Gupta (2011) indicate that experiential motivation is relatively unstructured and recreational in nature while goal-directed motivation focuses on the end goal. Consumers with experiential motivation are focused on the process where he or she allocates effort to activities where the process rather than the end state is the reward (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In general, the self affects the selection and construction of an individual's environment (Bandura, 1986) and impact on his/her experiential motivation (Bandura, 1993; Wu & Chang, 2019) through self-efficacy. Green motivation describes the tendency of people to be enthusiastic or encouraged to pursue experiential practice and behavior which promote environmental conservation, by reducing the negative impacts which human activities have on the environment. In the context of green motivation, the intention to conserve the environment is not a one-time activity; rather, it forms a part of the lifestyle of the individual and industries who favor green products (Haider & Kakakhel, 2017). Experiential motivation programs are an effective tool for increasing student participation in pro-environmental initiatives (Forman & Jørgensen, 2001; Wu & Chang, 2019). It seems that the area of experiential motivation should be treated as principal from the point of view of the effectiveness of pro-environmental human resource practice and the input of the human resource function into the sustainable development of organizations (Bombiak & Marciniuk-Kluska, 2018). Referring to Muduli and Barve (2013) and Wu, Chang, and Wu (2019), this study proposes a novel construct, green experiential motivation, and defines it as the experiential efforts made to shift the student attitudes from negative to positive towards environmental curricula provided by the school. Stimulating students' green experiential motivation is considered to play a key role in developing eco-friendly curricula provided by the school.

2.3. Green experiential value

Experiential value is defined as the psychological benefits that are obtained by a consumer after his or her interaction with the environment related to consumption other than the functional benefits (Chan, 2009). On the basis of past psychology literature on daily life experience (Hektner, Schmidt, & Csikszentmihaly, 2007) and the stimulus-organism-response framework (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), the aforementioned interaction between the individual and the environment would result in both an emotive and a cognitive aspect. Therefore, experiential value would have both emotive and cognitive outcomes, which are referred to as emotional and intellectual value (Chan, 2009). Fiore and Kim (2007) present a conceptual framework for the influences on the consumption experience exerted by the inputs of environmental variables, individual variables, and person-environment interaction variables or situations. The experiential value increases when service encounters (including interactions with service employees or other consumers) are perceived as positive. Keng, Huang, Zheng, and Hsu (2007) find that personal interaction encounters and physical environmental interaction encounters positively influence experiential value. With respect to experiential value and environmental behavior, Russell and Russell (2010) state that if tourists could gain beneficial experiences in areas requiring payment, they would be more motivated to protect the environment. Moeller, Dolnicar, and Leisch (2011) describe that the higher the travel expenditure the stronger the environmental awareness. Chiu, Lee, and Chen (2014) and Wu et al. (2018a, 2018d) argue that the tourists with higher emotional cognition of the destination and higher experiential value during the trip, would increase their concern with the eco-environment of the destination which would therefore, enhance their environmentally responsible behavior. Referring to several studies (Gupta, Dash, & Mishra, 2019; Lin, 2018; Wu et al., 2018a, 2018d), this study proposes a new concept, green experiential value, and defines it as the students' perceptions of curricula provided by the school based on interactions involving either direct use or indirect observation of its eco-friendly aspects. Although previous research has strongly confirmed that experiential value improves consumers' perceptions and behaviors towards products/services (e.g. Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009; Chang & Chieng, 2006; Shobeiri, Laroche, & Mazaheri, 2013), the effect of experiential value on the relationship between students and eco-friendly curricula remains sparse in tourism higher education.

2.4. Green experiential benefits

Experiential benefits are defined as desires for products/services that provide sensory pleasure, variety and/or cognitive stimulation (Adams, 2016). They relate to what it feels like to use the product and also usually correspond to product attributes. These benefits satisfy experiential needs such as sensory pleasure and cognitive stimulation (Orth & De Marchi, 2007). According to

Mathwick, Malhotra, and Rigdon (2001), experiential benefits refer to a new and different source of shopping value that goes beyond the traditional values of price and quality. Those benefits mainly aim to enrich the 'consumption experience itself' (Mathwick et al., 2001) and leave customers with unique, lasting and pleasant memories of their interactions with products/services (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, 1999). Experiential benefits derived by the green consumers, influence their need for satisfaction in terms of environmental care and contribution to the social well-being (Ahmad & Thyagaraj, 2015). Environmental innovation products have experiential benefits for consumers, which satisfy experiential needs such as sensory pleasure, variety and cognitive stimulation (Keller, 1993). The green experiential benefits of attaining corporate social responsibility are an outcome of implementation of information and communication technology in higher education (Suryawanshi & Narkhede, 2015). Referring to Keller (1993), this study proposes a novel construct, green experiential benefits, and defines them as the satisfaction that the students experience in taking eco-friendly curricula provided by the school, linked to the related attributes (i.e., sensory pleasure, variety and cognitive stimulation). However, the concept of green experiential benefits remains scarce in tourism higher education.

2.5. Experiential outcomes

Experiential outcomes are those mental states of well-being that people perceive they derive from their activity engagement. More precisely, these outcomes—which include exercising, relaxing mentally and physically, developing skills, and being with family or friends—are the source of that feeling of pleasure or satisfaction that is the immediately experienced benefit of engaging in activities (Brown, 2017). According to Zuieback (2013), experiential outcomes are more intangible but no less critical. Experiential outcomes relate to the kinds of experiences and dynamics that need to be created for a team to be more effective and functional in achieving their rational outcomes. Wu (2017) argues that experiential outcomes can be described as those which a consumer actually receives from a transaction or are delivered by the provider. Wu, Ai, and Cheng (2019) propose that experiential outcomes consist of experiential satisfaction, experiential loyalty and experiential switching intentions.

According to Kao, Huang, and Yang (2007), experiential satisfaction is extended from the concept of service satisfaction, which explores service satisfaction and consumers' affects in specific situation. Although experiential satisfaction is extended from the concept of service satisfaction, it focuses on consumers' overall evaluation of experiences after consumption. Therefore, from an experiential perspective, experiential satisfaction reflects the satisfaction experienced from the service content associated with a specific transaction. Consumers compare their experiences with their prior expectations, which cause positive or negative disconfirmation. The emotional responses resulting from positive and negative disconfirmation form the basis for consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Accordingly, experiential satisfaction is based on an experiential perspective and it is defined as the result of consumers' evaluation of the contents presented by service providers.

Obiegbu, Larsen, and Ellis (2020) describe that experiential loyalty is interpretive in spirit and focuses on the consumer as an active subject negotiating and transforming market-mediated meanings across the whole consumption process. Experiential loyalty can be viewed through the eyes of the consumer, approaching product/service loyalty from the diverse social and cultural contexts within which they reside. In addition, it is activated by its subjectivity, by locating meaningful expression in the lived experiences of particular consumers (Obiegbu et al., 2020). Wu and Ai (2016) define experiential loyalty as that of the consumer who experiences an organization involving concerns for the relationship between consumers and itself and commits to repurchasing or repatronizing preferred products/services consistently. Experiential loyalty is the intention to repurchase, the desire to recommend, show tolerance for a higher price, and purchase other products from an organization (Wu & Cheng, 2018).

Bansal, Taylor, and St. James (2005) find that switching intentions in service provider have a positive link to consumers' experiences. This is in line with Ganesh, Arnold, and Reynolds (2000), who argue that consumers' prior experiences will influence their subsequent behavioral intentions. Since prior experiences become one of the issues in switching activities (Bansal, Taylor, & St. James, 2005), particularly in the internal search by which all experiences that are stored in memory will be recalled when consumers need to obtain information about certain services providers (Sadat, 2019). When they fail to find a suitable solution, they will refer to external sources even if they are likely to reduce external search activities since they are quite expensive and costly (Lindquist & Sirgy, 2009; Trantopoulos, von Krogh, Wallin, & Woerter, 2017). Wu, Chang, and Wu (2019) define experiential switching intentions as an experience pattern that is characterized by a change or switch from one provider to another. According to Saeed, Hussain, and Riaz (2011), experiential switching intentions may result in future switching intentions by consumers if they have bad experiences with service providers.

2.6. Green experiential outcomes

Kyttä, Broberg, Haybatollahi, and Schmidt-Thomé (2016) propose that experiential outcomes are measured as perceived environmental quality that includes four dimensions: social and functional quality, atmosphere and appearance. According to Darchen and Searle (2018), the experiential outcomes vary while urban density promotes easy access to daily services in both urban and suburban contexts. In the urban context, easy access to services contributes to higher perceived environmental quality, whereas in the suburban setting, the closeness of services as well as the increasing density decreases perceived environmental quality. Kyttä, Broberg, Tzoulas, and Snabb (2013) present that people generally have strong affection towards green settings in positive experiential outcomes of urban density. Borin and Metcalf (2010) and Karlsen and Westerlund (2010) propose that understanding the experiential outcomes of students is becoming increasingly important for facilitating sustainable marketing practice. According to the Centre for Sustainability Development (2019), the school should develop and implement curricula based on students' experiential outcomes, for university-wide courses in sustainable development. Singh (2018) finds that experiential outcomes may be the phenomena that occur

as a result of green interrelations and transitions. Referring to [Liu, Santhanam, and Webster \(2017\)](#), this study proposes a novel construct, green experiential outcomes, and defines them as the outcomes in the eco-friendly form of flow, cognitive absorption, enjoyment, cognitive effort and other similar outcomes. In this study, the green experiential outcomes adapted from [Wu, Ai, and Cheng \(2019\)](#) focus on green experiential satisfaction, green experiential loyalty and green experiential switching intentions.

With the rise of the environmental movement, not only are consumers willing to purchase products/services that generate minimum impact, but also society is concerned about the environment ([Chang & Fong, 2010](#); [Park, Kwon, & Kim, 2016](#)). From an environmental or green perspective, green experiential satisfaction refers to the satisfaction experienced from the green attributes (e.g. high energy-efficiency) after usage of a product/service ([Wu & Cheng, 2019](#)). Following the definitions of several studies ([Wu & Ai, 2016](#); [Wu & Cheng, 2019](#); [Wu, Cheng, & Ai, 2018b](#); [Wu, Cheng, Ai, & Wu, 2020b](#); [Wu, Cheng, Chen, & Hong, 2018c](#); [Wu, Wei, Tseng, & Cheng, 2018e](#)), this study refers to green experiential satisfaction as students' overall evaluation of environmentally-friendly content based on their experiences in a program provided by the school. However, very few studies focus on green experiential satisfaction in tourism higher education.

[Clarus Commerce \(2019\)](#) and [Wu and Ai \(2016\)](#) describe that experiential loyalty elevates the tourists' experience and creates sustainable emotional connections between products/services and tourists. [Obiegbu et al. \(2020\)](#) present that experiential loyalty is an important concept as it taps into the eco-friendly resources which activities or classes constitute. [Wu and Ai \(2016\)](#) propose that green experiential loyalty is related to environmental decisions and concerns and has an impact on them. According to this study, green experiential loyalty is the student's desire to maintain his or her relationship with a school which has environmental or green concerns and re-purchase or be the patron of its preferred classes or activities regularly in the future based on his or her learning experience ([Wu & Ai, 2016](#); [Wu & Cheng, 2019](#)). [Wu and Ai \(2016\)](#) and [Wu and Cheng \(2019\)](#) indicate that green experiential loyalty is measured by positive green word-of-mouth, recommendations of eco-friendly products given to others, and eco-friendly product repurchase intention.

Several researchers ([Wu, Cheng, & Hong, 2017](#); [Wu et al., 2018a, 2018e, 2019a](#)) propose that experiential switching intentions are related to environmental commitments and concerns. Several studies ([Han, Yu, & Hyun, 2020](#); [Hartono & Widayanti, 2016](#); [Wu, Ai, & Cheng, 2019](#)) propose that utilizing experiential switching intentions are important to clearly understand the intention formation for eco-friendly classes or activities. Under the perception of high switching intentions, student satisfaction with overall eco-friendly class or activity experiences is more likely to lead to experiential intention to attend classes or activities. Because environmental consciousness is now more prevalent, this study proposes a novel construct, green experiential switching intentions, and refers to [Wu et al. \(2018e, 2019a\)](#) to define it as students' experiential intentions to change from one eco-friendly program to another in pursuing a degree. [Ganesh et al. \(2000\)](#) and [Hartono and Widayanti \(2016\)](#) argue that students with high perceptions of intentions to experiential switching have a higher set of available alternatives, as well as a higher likelihood that they know what outcomes can be expected in other relationships.

[Orús et al. \(2016\)](#) and [Piercy \(2013\)](#) indicate that experiential learning helps improve student satisfaction. [Schneier and Beatty \(1977\)](#) propose that a concrete experience learning style is a useful predictor of satisfaction. [Demaris and Kritsonis \(2008\)](#) suggest that collaborative learning (one form of experiential learning) contributes to student satisfaction. [Kong and Yan \(2014\)](#) present that experiential learning has a positive effect on learning satisfaction. [Hu and Hui \(2012\)](#) argue that a student's learning satisfaction can be explained by his or her perceived learning effectiveness. [Qiao, Chen, Guan, and Kim \(2008\)](#) show that motivation has a positive effect on satisfaction. [Devesa, Laguna, and Palacios \(2010\)](#) reveal that travel motivation has a positive influence on the level of satisfaction. [McDowall \(2010\)](#) finds that motivation has a direct impact on festival audience members' satisfaction. [Yuan and Wu \(2008\)](#) propose that experiential value positively influences satisfaction. [Wu and Li \(2017\)](#) present that experiential satisfaction is positively influenced by perceived value. [Wu et al. \(2018d\)](#) propose that experiential value has a positive effect on experiential satisfaction. According to [Chegg Inc. \(2019\)](#), experiential benefits enhance the satisfaction level by making the shopping experience memorable for the customer. [Baharun, Hashim, and Sulong \(2013\)](#) and [Nair \(2014\)](#) propose that experiential benefits have a major influence on satisfaction. [Lada et al. \(2018\)](#) present that experiential benefits are a predictor of satisfaction. [Wu and Cheng \(2020a\)](#) find that experiential satisfaction is positively influenced by experiential benefits. According to the argument above, the greater the green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value and green experiential benefits, the greater the experiential satisfaction with a decision to take the courses in sustainable degree programs. Therefore, this study implies the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1. Green experiential learning has a positive influence on green experiential satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2. Green experiential motivation has a positive influence on green experiential satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3. Green experiential value has a positive influence on green experiential satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4. Green experiential benefits have a positive influence on green experiential satisfaction.

[Bitner \(1990\)](#) believes that satisfaction is a positive contributing factor to loyalty. [Dagger and David \(2012\)](#) propose that enhancing satisfaction will generate greater loyalty. [Kuo and Ye \(2009\)](#) show that a high level of satisfaction will result in increased student loyalty. [Ng and Priyono \(2018\)](#) reveal that student satisfaction has a positive influence on student loyalty. [Calvo-Porrall and Lévy-Mangin \(2015\)](#) find that satisfaction has a negative influence on switching intentions. According to [Martins, Hor-Meyll, and Ferreira \(2013\)](#), satisfaction has an inverse influence on switching intentions, suggesting that satisfied customers are less likely to switch than unhappy ones. When a customer is dissatisfied with a service provider, he or she will be much more likely to change to another one ([Deng, Lu, Wei, & Zhang, 2010](#)). [Kordnaei, Bagherzadeh, Mombeini, and Bakhshizadeh \(2015\)](#) find that loyalty negatively affects switching intentions. [Jung and Yoon \(2012\)](#) present that loyalty is an effective dimension that must be realized to prevent the customer's switching intentions. [Haque, Osman, and Ismail \(2009\)](#) argue that loyalty can be a controller of switching intentions

and will be able to guarantee that an organization has a competitive advantage in maintaining its existence. [Martins et al. \(2013\)](#) indicate that a low level of switching intentions would be an indicator of loyalty. Namely, if the customer does not intend to switch, his or her loyalty towards providers may be inferred. [Wangenheim and Bayon \(2004\)](#) state that the occurrence of a positive image of the organization as a manifestation of customer loyalty will have an important influence on preventing the customer's switching intentions to other organizations. According to the argument above, the greater the green experiential satisfaction, the greater the level of green experiential loyalty. In addition, the greater the green experiential satisfaction and experiential loyalty, the lesser the level of green experiential switching intentions. Hence, this study implies the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5. Green experiential satisfaction has a positive influence on green experiential loyalty.

Hypothesis 6. Green experiential satisfaction has a negative influence on green experiential switching intentions.

Hypothesis 7. Green experiential loyalty has a negative influence on green experiential switching intentions.

[Fig. 1](#) illustrates the proposed theoretical framework.

3. Research methodology

3.1. Questionnaire and pre-test

Based on previous research, we select measurement items that are deemed appropriate to the context of this study. Measurement items used in the existing literature provided a basis for the specification of each construct and were taken either directly or modified to measure the latent constructs. The green experiential learning was measured by three items developed by [Hamilton and Tee \(2013\)](#). Based on [Wu, Chang, and Wu \(2019\)](#), three questions were used to measure green experiential motivation. Three questions were developed to assess green experiential value based on [Sung and Lee \(2015\)](#). The six measurement items of green experiential benefits were adopted from [Chen and Petrick \(2016\)](#) and [Wu and Cheng \(2020a\)](#). Green experiential satisfaction was measured using four items from the studies by [Wu and Li \(2017\)](#) and [Wu et al. \(2018e\)](#). Three questions from the study of [Wu and Cheng \(2017\)](#) were applied to measure green experiential loyalty. Green experiential switching intentions were measured using three items from the study of [Wu, Ai, and Cheng \(2019\)](#).

This study initially developed a 24-item questionnaire. To confirm the content validity of the questionnaire, a discussion was held with seven sustainable tourism managers and nine assistant and associate professors from the department of tourism management, all of whom specialized in green tourism marketing. They were asked whether the items were appropriate for the questionnaire. The items were rated on the scale of extremely unimportant (1), very unimportant (2), neither important nor unimportant (3), very important (4), to extremely important (5) by these professionals and professors. Only one item was removed from the questionnaire because 90% of the commentators did not rate this item as (3) neither important nor unimportant or higher. Items receiving a (4) or higher (very important, extremely important) were retained in this study. As a result, 23 items constituted the complete set for this study. The survey also included some demographic questions that were consistent with previous studies on social and human behavior. Likert scales with anchors ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree,' 1–7, respectively, were used for all construct items. The original question items were written in English; multilingual experts were invited to translate them into German, French, Italian and Romansh to ensure the validity of the questionnaire.

3.2. Data collection and procedure

The survey was carried out during March and April of 2019. The sample was taken from the undergraduate students who took the courses in sustainable tourism management in a unique and private business university located in Gland of Switzerland. This surveyed university provides students with innovative business programs integrating with state of the art sustainability knowledge and combines high level academic education with projects in partnership with global companies ([Sustainability Management School, 2020](#)).

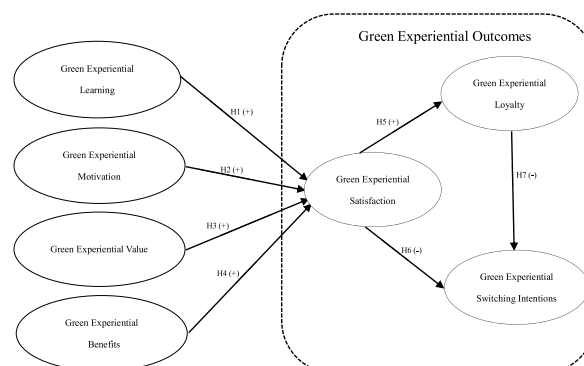


Fig. 1. The proposed conceptual model.

Tourism is one of the world's largest industries and has an impact on the environment and on local communities. The aim of sustainable tourism management programs is to provide students with a theoretical and practical degree that integrates ecotourism and nature conservation with economic and social factors. The students will be exposed to real business operations through regular interaction with the business community and international organizations, providing a framework to understand responsible tourism and governance of protected areas. They will develop leadership and intercultural skills and be exposed to practical experience during experiential camps, field trips and visits to international organizations under the careful guidance of experts (Sustainability Management School, 2020). Each respondent was selected based on a convenience sampling approach. Convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling technique. Non-probability sampling focuses on sampling techniques that are based on the judgment of the researchers. A convenience sample is simply one where the units that are selected for inclusion in the sample are the easiest to access (Jalilvand, Salimipour, Elyasi, & Mohammadi, 2017). Adopting convenience sampling is less expensive, consumes less time than interviewing and can reach a large number of individuals at the same time (Sekaran, 2003). Trained research assistants approached the students pursuing a Bachelor of Business Administration degree in sustainable tourism management. Respondents were invited to participate in the study and if they agreed, self-completed the questionnaire on site. To ensure confidentiality, the names of study participants were not required and the surveyors ensured that all survey respondents' responses would remain completely confidential and anonymous. Coupons for the quick service restaurant were given to encourage participation. A total of 470 questionnaires were distributed and 438 questionnaires were collected back, representing a response rate of 93.19%. During the data refinement process, 28 questionnaires were eliminated from the study and 410 questionnaires were coded for the purpose of data analysis. Table 1 provides the demographic profile of the respondents who participated in this study. The majority of respondents were male (58.05%), single (90.73%), and aged between 21 and 30 years (44.63%). In addition, most of them were in their first year (35.12%).

3.3. Data analysis and results

To test the postulated hypotheses of the proposed model, this study conducted a two-step procedure (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988) using the software, Amos 18.0. The first step examined the measurement model and the second step evaluated the structural model. The measurement model involved item-to-total correlation, Cronbach's alpha and confirmatory factor analysis. The structural model involved verifying the goodness of fit of the model.

3.4. Convergent and discriminant validity of the measures

A confirmatory factor analysis was used to confirm the factor loadings of the seven constructs in this study and assess the model fit (see Table 2). Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients were calculated in this study. Cronbach's alpha for these eight constructs ranged from 0.71 to 0.76, i.e., beyond the common threshold value of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). The construct reliability estimates varied from 0.78 to 0.87, exceeding the acceptable cutoff value of 0.70 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Hair et al. (2010) demonstrate that discriminant validity is satisfied when the average variance extracted (AVE) value for each construct is higher than the squared correlations between the construct and the remaining constructs in the model. Fornell and Larcker (1981) identify that discriminant validity occurs when the AVE value for each construct is greater than the shared variances. The AVEs for all constructs ranged between 0.53 and 0.65, exceeding the suggested value of 0.50 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The inter-construct correlations of the diagonal of the matrix are displayed in Table 3. The results display adequate discriminant validity by comparing all the correlations and square roots of the AVEs shown on the diagonal of the matrix, indicating that the measurement model had good convergent validity. Accordingly, the hypothesized measurement model is reliable for testing the structural relationships among the constructs.

The overall fit of the measurement models was found to be adequate (see Table 4). The Chi-square/*df* ratios (2.94) were lower than the suggested threshold value of 5.0 (Carmines & McIver, 1981; Kline, 1998). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value (0.07) was lower than 0.08, indicating adequate fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999). In addition, all other indices (e.g. CFI, GFI, IFI, NFI, and AGFI estimates) were beyond the recommended value of 0.90 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Kline, 1998).

Table 4 shows the results of the structural model in this study. The overall fit measures of the full model in the SEM indicated that

Table 1
Survey respondents' demographic profiles.

Demographic profiles	Statistics	Frequency (N = 410)	Percent
Gender	Male	238	58.05
	Female	172	41.95
Marital status	Single	372	90.73
	Married	38	9.27
Age	18–20	121	29.51
	21–30	183	44.63
	31–40	73	17.80
	41 and over	33	8.05
Year of study	Year one	144	35.12
	Year two	128	31.22
	Year three	138	33.66

Table 2
Measurement model and confirmatory factor analysis.

Factor (Cronbach's alpha)	Items	Standardized factor loadings	AVE	CR	Mean	SD
Green experiential learning (= 0.72)	GEL1. There is a wide range of direct and indirect communications with my lecturers through sustainability degree programs.	0.76*	0.55	0.79	3.92	0.90
	GEL2. There is a wide range of direct and indirect communications with my fellow students through sustainability degree programs.	0.75*			3.79	0.85
	GEL3. My lecturers are readily accessible online or face-to-face through sustainability degree programs.	0.72*			3.76	0.87
Green experiential motivation (= 0.73)	GEM1. I feel motivated to take the courses in sustainability degree programs.	0.79*	0.59	0.81	3.23	0.89
	GEM2. I take a greater interest in taking the courses in sustainability degree programs provided by this school compared to other sustainability degree programs.	0.75*			3.54	0.92
	GEM3. Taking the courses in sustainability degree programs can increase my green knowledge.	0.76*			3.82	0.85
Green experiential value (= 0.72)	GEV1. The curriculum design of sustainability degree programs makes an impression on me.	0.75*	0.55	0.78	3.33	0.94
	GEV2. The sustainability degree programs appeals to my sense.	0.75*			3.56	0.86
	GEV3. I feel that the lecturers in sustainability degree programs are nice.	0.73*			3.44	0.98
Green experiential benefits (= 0.76)	GEB1. Taking the courses in sustainable degree programs is important for me.	0.73*	0.53	0.87	3.69	0.86
	GEB2. The quality of sustainability degree programs is important.	0.74*			3.44	0.79
	GEB3. I can do something green that I normally would not do through sustainability degree programs.	0.74*			3.59	0.87
	GEB4. I have fun in taking the courses in sustainability degree programs.	0.72*			3.51	0.84
	GEB5. I can experience something eco-friendly through sustainability degree programs.	0.75*			3.82	0.82
	GEB6. I can develop my green knowledge and learn new things through sustainability degree programs.	0.70*			3.48	0.90
Green experiential satisfaction (= 0.75)	GES1. I am satisfied with my decision to take the courses in sustainable degree programs.	0.80*	0.65	0.85	3.35	0.85
	GES2. I think I did the right thing when I took the courses in sustainable degree programs.	0.81*			3.57	0.84
	GES3. I feel that taking the courses in sustainable degree programs can contribute to environmental protection and sustainable development.	0.80*			3.59	0.82
Green experiential loyalty (= 0.71)	GEL01. I will spread positive word-of-mouth about sustainability degree programs.	0.73*	0.54	0.78	3.91	0.92
	GEL02. I will keep taking the courses in sustainable degree programs in the near future if possible.	0.72*			3.85	0.84
	GEL03. Even if close friends recommended another sustainable degree program, my preference for the sustainable degree programs provided by this school would not change.	0.75*			3.48	0.90
Green experiential switching intentions (= 0.74)	GESI1. I will never ever switch from the sustainable degree programs provided by this school under any conditions after taking the courses.	0.77*	0.60	0.82	2.53	0.93
	GESI2. I have considered changing sustainable degree programs after taking the courses.	0.76*			2.49	0.92
	GESI3. I have no experiential intention to switch to another sustainable degree program.	0.79*			2.42	0.97

Note: a. Items with factor loadings of less than 0.50 were deleted based on the measurement scale refinement procedure.
* 0.001.

Table 3
Descriptive statistics and correlation of study variables.

Constructs	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Restaurant dependence	3.45	0.57	1.00						
1. Green experiential learning	3.83	0.69	1.00						
2. Green experiential motivation	3.53	0.67	0.33	1.00					
3. Green experiential value	3.44	0.70	0.31	0.42	1.00				
4. Green experiential benefits	3.57	0.67	0.47	0.34	0.40	1.00			
5. Green experiential satisfaction	3.51	0.71	0.36	0.11	0.42	0.22	1.00		
6. Green experiential loyalty	3.75	0.63	0.44	0.38	0.42	0.44	0.71	1.00	
7. Green experiential switching intentions	2.48	0.71	-0.24	-0.24	-0.29	-0.27	-0.29	-0.57	1.00

Note: Squared correlations of paired constructs are on the off-diagonal.

Table 4

Results of the measurement and structural model tests.

Model	χ^2/df	<i>P</i>	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	GFI	IFI	NFI	AGFI
Measurement model	2.94	0.00	0.07	0.06	0.97	0.91	0.96	0.97	0.93
Structural model - Overall model	2.88	0.00	0.07	0.06	0.97	0.92	0.96	0.97	0.94
Recommended value	<5.00	–	0.08	0.08	0.90	0.90	0.90	0.90	0.90

Note: *P*, *p*-value; RMSEA, root mean square of approximation; SRMR, standardized root mean residual; CFI, comparative fit index; GFI, goodness-of-fit index; IFI, incremental fit index; NFI, normed fit index; AGFI, adjusted goodness-of-fit index.

the fit of the model was acceptable ($\chi^2/df=2.88$, RMSEA = 0.07, SRMR = 0.06, CFI = 0.97, GFI = 0.92, IFI = 0.96, NFI = 0.97, AGFI = 0.94).

3.5. Hypothesis testing

The details about the results of the structural equation modeling (SEM) are displayed in Table 5 and Fig. 2.

Hypotheses 1, 2, 3 and 4 posit that green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value and green experiential benefits positively influenced green experiential satisfaction. The results of hypothesis testing display that green experiential satisfaction is significantly positively influenced by green experiential learning ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$), green experiential value ($\beta = 0.52$, $p < 0.001$) and green experiential benefits ($\beta = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$). Accordingly, hypotheses 1, 3 and 4 are supported. However, the result shows that the positive effect of green experiential motivation ($\beta = 0.05$, $p > 0.05$) on green experiential satisfaction is insignificant, thereby rejecting Hypothesis 2. These four variables explain 55.92 percent of the variance in green experiential satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5 assumes that green experiential satisfaction positively influences green experiential loyalty. The results indicate that green experiential loyalty is significantly positively influenced by green experiential satisfaction ($\beta = 0.57$, $p < 0.001$), thereby supporting Hypothesis 5. This variable explains 32.58 percent of the variance in green experiential loyalty.

Hypotheses 6 and 7 postulate that green experiential satisfaction and green experiential loyalty negatively influence green experiential switching intentions. The results show that the negative effects of green experiential satisfaction ($\beta = -0.29$, $p < 0.001$) and green experiential loyalty ($\beta = -0.50$, $p < 0.001$) on green experiential switching intentions are significant, thus supporting hypotheses 6 and 7. Both of the variables explain 33.69 percent of the variance in green experiential switching intentions.

4. Discussion and conclusions

Because sustainability issues have become mainstream in the world, many higher education institutions integrate the notion of sustainability into business strategies and marketing practice which have become vital for higher education institutions to achieve competitive advantage. During the last decade, thousands of people, at all levels, in higher education institutions around the world began to consider sustainability as a key element in education for sustainable development. However, the process of becoming a sustainable university is still in its infancy. As the paper describes, there are many underlying challenges for green tourism education institutions as well as inadequate conditions for the successful implementation of sustainability issues. We may easily conclude that green tourism education institutions need to work hard and must be dedicated in thinking about the direction of sustainability studies for the future. There are many obstacles preventing the success of sustainability initiatives on campuses around the world, but green tourism education institutions need to understand that they play a vital role in creating sustainable environments through favorable economic activities that will facilitate other components of sustainability. As outlined in this study, adequate conditions for the successful implementation of sustainability in tourism programs do not exist. Some of the possible factors listed here have contributed to slow the progress towards the goals established in Agenda 21 and it is very likely they would affect the success of the United Nations Decade for Education for Sustainable Development. Even impacting in a different way, it seems that there are not strong differences in

Table 5

Hypothesis test results.

	Hypothesized path	Standardized estimate	<i>t</i> -value	Hypothesis supported
H1:	Green experiential learning → Green experiential satisfaction	0.20**	2.89	Yes
H2:	Green experiential motivation → Green experiential satisfaction	0.05	0.96	No
H3:	Green experiential value → Green experiential satisfaction	0.52***	12.15	Yes
H4:	Green experiential benefits → Green experiential satisfaction	0.16*	2.07	Yes
H5:	Green experiential satisfaction → Green experiential loyalty	0.57***	14.13	Yes
H6:	Green experiential satisfaction → Green experiential switching intentions	-0.29***	-5.69	Yes
H7:	Green experiential loyalty → Green experiential switching intentions	-0.50***	-10.23	Yes

Note.

* 0.05.

** 0.01.

*** 0.001.

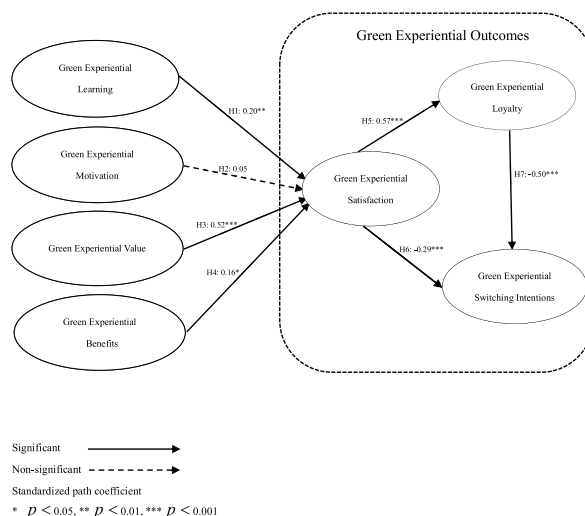


Fig. 2. A path model. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

the obstacles to be overcome by sustainability leaders around the world when trying to promote sustainability in tourism programs in higher education institutions. Yet, a university's conservative organizational structure and the lack of awareness of the university community seem to be the greatest obstacles to be overcome by people who are responsible for sustainability initiatives. To increase students' perceptions of green experiences, this study proposes several new and novel constructs (green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value and green experiential benefits) to activate the building process of the dimensions of green experiential outcomes (green experiential satisfaction, green experiential loyalty and green experiential switching intentions) in tourism higher education. This study develops a research framework of the dimensions of green experiential outcomes to further discuss their relationships with green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value and green experiential benefits. The model was tested using the data from the undergraduate students who took the courses in sustainable tourism management in one university of Switzerland. The related literature was reviewed to generate a theoretical model of the factors above.

The objective of this study is partially supported. First, the statistical results show that green experiential value is the most influential factor of green experiential satisfaction ($\beta = 0.52$, $p < 0.001$), followed by green experiential learning ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$) and green experiential benefits ($\beta = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$). This finding agrees with the propositions of [Temizer and Turkyilmaz \(2012\)](#) and [Wu et al. \(2018d\)](#) that experiential value is expected to have a positive impact on student satisfaction in higher education. Also, this result concurs with the contention of [Wingfield and Black \(2005\)](#) that experiential learning leads to higher levels of student satisfaction in higher education. In addition, this finding is consistent with the propositions of [Liu and Jung \(1980\)](#) and [Wu and Cheng \(2020a\)](#) that students' experiential satisfaction is influenced by experiential educational benefits. However, the statistical result displays that the positive effect of green experiential motivation on green experiential satisfaction is insignificant ($\beta = 0.05$, $p > 0.05$). This finding does not concur with the propositions of [Siddique, Aslam, Khan, and Fatima \(2011\)](#) and [Wu, Chang, and Wu \(2019\)](#) that students' experiential satisfaction is an indicator of effectiveness if the students' learning is well motivated in higher education. There are two reasons for this discrepancy. One is attributed to the fact that green experiential motivation is a necessary but not sufficient condition for forming green experiential satisfaction. The other is attributed to the fact that some students might have strong green experiential motivations, but they are not satisfied with the sustainability degree programs provided by tourism higher education institutions. In contrast, some students may not feel motivated to take the courses in sustainability degree programs even though they enjoy their learning in tourism higher education institutions and their environments more than any other higher education institutions. Second, the empirical results show that the positive effect of green experiential satisfaction on green experiential loyalty is significant ($\beta = 0.57$, $p < 0.001$). This result agrees with the contention of [Brown and Mazzarol \(2009\)](#) that satisfaction is a driver of student loyalty in higher education settings. Finally, the statistical results display that green experiential loyalty ($\beta = -0.50$, $p < 0.001$) has a more negative effect on green experiential switching intentions than green experiential satisfaction ($\beta = -0.29$, $p < 0.001$). This result concurs with the contentions of [Wong and Wong \(2011\)](#) and [Wu, Ai, and Cheng \(2019\)](#) that students will not have experiential intentions to switch to another education institution when they have high perceptions of experiential loyalty towards sustainability degree programs. In addition, this finding agrees with the propositions of [Khoo, Ha, and McGregor \(2017\)](#) and [Wu, Ai, and Cheng \(2019\)](#) that students' high degree of experiential satisfaction often leads to low perceptions of switching intentions in higher education.

5. Implications

5.1. Implications for theory

This study proposes seven new and novel constructs – green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential

value, green experiential benefits, green experiential satisfaction, green experiential loyalty and green experiential switching intentions – and discusses their implications in the environmental field. Moreover, this paper develops a research framework which can decrease green experiential switching intentions from green experiential satisfaction, green experiential loyalty, green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value and green experiential benefits. This paper attempts to create new concepts of green marketing in compliance with the environmental trends to help programs of tourism sustainable management in higher education institutions enhance students' perceptions of green experiential outcomes. First, the study finding indicates that green experiential satisfaction is positively influenced by green experiential learning, green experiential value and green experiential benefits. The positive relationships identified between green experiential learning, green experiential value, green experiential benefits and green experiential satisfaction may be interpreted as green experiential satisfaction being increased as a result of experiencing a high quality of the courses in sustainable degree programs when undergraduate students have high perceptions of green experiential learning, green experiential value and green experiential benefits. Second, the empirical results show that green experiential loyalty is positively influenced by green experiential satisfaction. The positive relationship identified between green experiential satisfaction and green experiential loyalty may be interpreted as the higher the green experiential satisfaction perceived by undergraduate students, the greater they will spread positive word of mouth about sustainability degree programs. Third, the study findings indicate that green experiential switching intentions are negatively influenced by green experiential satisfaction and green experiential loyalty. The negative relationships identified between green experiential satisfaction, green experiential loyalty and green experiential switching intentions may be interpreted as the higher the green experiential satisfaction and green experiential loyalty perceived by undergraduate students, the less they will consider changing sustainable degree programs after taking the courses. Accordingly, as suggested in this study, green experiential satisfaction and green experiential loyalty should be included when assessing green experiential switching intentions within tourism higher education. The analysis of the relationships between the proposed hypotheses enhances the establishment of generalizations across the relevant streams of research and includes existing gaps in the literature on tourism education. We hope that the research results are helpful for managers, researchers and practitioners, in addition to providing a useful contribution to relevant studies and future researches as a reference.

5.2. Practical implications

From a practical perspective, this study can provide further insights to better understand the dimensions of green experiential outcomes (green experiential satisfaction, green experiential loyalty and green experiential switching intentions) using the proposed model and offering useful information for green tourism educators who are designing the curriculum in the sustainability degree program. For example, the measurement of green experiential value and green experiential benefits indicates that more comprehensive approaches are required to incorporate green themes into various subjects to help students form the value for sustainability in the program. Based on the measurement of green experiential learning, green tourism educators could encourage students to loan, share and reuse items, as well as favor recyclable products in their daily lives along with the learning content of various sustainability subjects to help students learn how to identify external factors that influence their consumption and lifestyles.

This paper assesses the relationship between the dimensions of green experiential outcomes and their drivers (green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value and green experiential benefits). First, the findings of this study indicate that green experiential learning positively influences green experiential satisfaction, implying that green tourism educators should provide students with more green experiential learning courses and opportunities to increase their experiential satisfaction with sustainability degree programs. Specifically, some teaching methods (e.g. hands-on laboratory experiments of recycling, field exercises of green practices, and green industrial internships and projects, etc.) relating to green experiential learning should be incorporated into the program to promote sustainable experiences. Additionally, green tourism educators should encourage and increase students' engagement in green experiential learning course design and evaluation by providing more sustainable environments. Second, the study result identifies that both green experiential value and green experiential benefits have positive impacts on green experiential satisfaction. In viewing this, green tourism educators should increase perceptions of experiential value and experiential benefits of the courses in the sustainability degree program through the eyes of students. However, the positive effect of green experiential motivation on green experiential satisfaction is insignificant. There are two reasons to explain this result. One possible reason is attributed to the fact that most of the students may not be motivated to take part in green experiential learning which is an important predictor of perceived experiential satisfaction with all the courses in the sustainable degree program. The other reason is that most of them may not know what to expect while taking part in the courses in the sustainability degree program. To increase perceptions of green experiential satisfaction, green tourism educators should adopt the measures (e.g. improve the curriculum design of sustainability degree programs) to motivate students to take the courses in sustainability degree programs. Third, the study finding confirms that green experiential satisfaction has a positive effect on green experiential loyalty. To this end, green tourism educators should make efforts to provide a consistently pleasurable and reliable green experiential learning experience to meet students' needs and increase their favorable perceptions of loyalty towards green experiential learning courses in the sustainability degree program. Fourth, the study result indicates that green experiential satisfaction has a negative effect on the green experiential switching intentions, implying that students with high levels of green experiential satisfaction will be less likely to switch to another green experiential learning program. Accordingly, to enable students to realize that they are making the right decision to participate in the green experiential learning program, green tourism educators should decrease the likelihood of students' switching to other learning programs. Last but not least, the study result reveals that green experiential loyalty negatively impacts green experiential switching intentions. As such, there is a need to seek continual and relational efforts for green tourism educators in gaining students' loyalty towards green tourism experiential learning program, and subsequently reducing students' experiential intentions to switch to other experiential learning

programs.

6. Limitations and future research suggestions

This study has several limitations. First of all, the empirical research in this study targets one university in Gland of Switzerland only, so the result may not be applicable to other regions or countries. Future research may examine the conceptual research model developed in this study and use it in different schools of other regions or countries. Secondly, this study does not focus on examining the effects of demographic factors on green experiential learning, green experiential motivation, green experiential value and green experiential benefits and the dimensions of green experiential outcomes. Future studies should consider perceptions of these variables using demographic factors such as gender, marital status, ages and years of study. Moreover, given the insignificant relationship between green experiential motivation and green experiential satisfaction, some qualitative studies are needed to specifically explore the reasons behind it. Finally, the cross-sectional design used in this study limits the ability of observing changing patterns of subjects across time, which may have caused misidentification of the relationships between independent and dependent variables. This limits strong assertions about the ordered structure of the model even if we strictly follow the literature in developing such a structure. Future research will benefit from the collection of longitudinal and experimental data to measure the direction of causality among relationships more precisely.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by Department of Education of Guangdong Province (Grant Number 2018WTSCX214).

References

- Adams, A. (2016). *The impact of utilitarian and hedonic needs satisfaction on brand trust, brand affect and brand loyalty for selected fast moving consumer goods in South Africa (Unpublished master's thesis)*. Cape Town, South Africa: The University of Western Cape.
- Ahmad, A. N. E. S., & Thyagaraj, K. S. (2015). Consumer's intention to purchase green brands: The roles of environmental concern, environmental knowledge and self expressive benefits. *Current World Environment*, 10(3), 879–889.
- Alinaghian, M., & Karamipour, M. (2015). Ranking green producers of livestock and poultry feed by using a hybrid fuzzy MADM method. *Universal Journal of Engineering Science*, 3(4), 64–78.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411–423.
- Baharun, R., Hashim, N. H., & Sulong, N. Z. (2013). Benefit segmentation for unit trust products in Malaysian financial service industry. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, 11(1/2), 1–18.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Halls.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28(2), 117–148.
- Bansal, H. S., Taylor, S. F., & St James, Y. (2005). "Migrating" to new service providers: Toward a unifying framework of consumers' switching behaviors. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 33(1), 96–115.
- Barber, N., Deale, C., & Goodman, R. (2011). Environmental sustainability in the hospitality management curriculum: Perspectives from three groups of stakeholders. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, 23(1), 6–17.
- Bates, A. W. T. (2020). *3.6 Experiential learning: Learning by doing (2)*. Retrieved from <https://opentextbc.ca/teachinginadigitalage/chapter/4-4-models-for-teaching-by-doing/>.
- Beaumont, N. (2001). Ecotourism and the conservation ethic: Recruiting the uninitiated or preaching to the converted? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 9(4), 317–341.
- Bitner, M. J. (1990). Evaluating service encounters: The effects of physical surroundings and employee responses. *Journal of Marketing*, 54(2), 69–82.
- Bitner, M. J., & Hubbert, A. R. (1994). Encounter satisfaction versus overall satisfaction versus quality. In R. T. Rust, & R. L. Oliver (Eds.), *Service quality: New directions in theory and practice* (pp. 72–94). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bloch, P. H., Ridgway, N. M., & Dawson, S. A. (1994). The shopping mall as consumer habitat. *Journal of Retailing*, 70(1), 23–42.
- Boley, B. B. (2011). Sustainability in hospitality and tourism education: Towards an integrated curriculum. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, 23(4), 22–31.
- Bombiak, E., & Marciniuk-Kluska, A. (2018). Green human resource management as a tool for the sustainable development of enterprises: Polish young company experience. *Sustainability*, 10(6), 1–22.
- Borin, N., & Metcalf, L. (2010). Integrating sustainability into the marketing curriculum: Learning activities that facilitate sustainable marketing practices. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 32(2), 140–154.
- Bowers, C. A. (1995). *Educating for an ecologically sustainable culture: Rethinking moral education, creativity, intelligence, and other modern orthodoxies*. New York, NY: Suny Press.
- Bowers, C. A. (1997). *The culture of denial: Why the environmental movement needs a strategy for reforming universities and public schools*. New York, NY: Suny Press.
- Bowers, C. A. (2001). Challenges in educating for ecologically sustainable communities. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 33(2), 257–265.
- Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., & Zarantonello, L. (2009). Brand experience: What is it? How is it measured? Does it affect loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 73(3), 52–68.
- Brown, P. J. (2017). *Social benefits of outdoor recreation*. Miami, FL: Hard Press.
- Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen, & J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 136–162). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Brown, R. M., & Mazzarol, T. W. (2009). The importance of institutional image to student satisfaction and loyalty within higher education. *Higher Education*, 58(1), 81–95.
- Calvo-Porrá, C., & Lévy-Mangin, J. P. (2015). Smooth operators? Drivers of customer satisfaction and switching behavior in virtual and traditional mobile services. *Revista Española de Investigación de Marketing ESIC*, 19(2), 124–138.
- Carmines, E. G., & McIver, J. P. (1981). Analyzing models with observable variables. In G. W. Bohnstedt, & E. F. Borgatta (Eds.), *Social measurement: Current issues* (pp. 65–115). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Centre for Sustainability Development. (2019). *Nnamdi azikiwe university, Centre for sustainability development*. Retrieved from <https://csd.unizik.edu.ng/csd-objectives/>.
- Chan, K. Y. E. (2009). *Experiential value in consumption: Scale development and validation (Unpublished doctoral dissertation)*. Hong Kong: The Chinese University of Hong Kong.
- Chang, P. L., & Chieng, M. H. (2006). Building consumer–brand relationship: A cross-cultural experiential view. *Psychology and Marketing*, 23(11), 927–959.
- Chang, N. J., & Fong, C. M. (2010). Green product quality, green corporate image, green customer satisfaction, and green customer loyalty. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(13), 2836–2844.

- Cheang, C. C., So, W. M. W., Zhan, Y., & Tsoi, K. H. (2017). Education for sustainability using a campus eco-garden as a learning environment. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 18(2), 242–262.
- Chegg Inc. (2019). *We have solutions for your book*. Retrieved December 26, 2019, from <https://www.chegg.com/homework-help/marketing-2016-18th-edition-chapter-11-solutions-9781285858340>.
- Chen, Y. S. (2008). The positive effect of green intellectual capital on competitive advantages of firms. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 77(3), 271–286.
- Chen, Y. S., Lai, S. B., & Wen, C. T. (2006). The influence of green innovation performance on corporate advantage in Taiwan. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 67(4), 331–339.
- Chen, C. C., & Petrick, J. F. (2016). The roles of perceived travel benefits, importance, and constraints in predicting travel behavior. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(4), 509–522.
- Chiu, Y. T. H., Lee, W. I., & Chen, T. H. (2014). Environmentally responsible behavior in ecotourism: Exploring the role of destination image and value perception. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 19(8), 876–889.
- Commerce, C. (2019). *What happens to your loyalty program when transactional and experiential benefits work together*. Retrieved from <https://www.claruscommerce.com/blog/what-happens-to-your-loyalty-program-when-transactional-and-experiential-benefits-work-together/>.
- Dagger, T. S., & David, M. E. (2012). Uncovering the real effect of switching costs on the satisfaction-loyalty association: The critical role of involvement and relationship benefits. *European Journal of Marketing*, 46(3/4), 447–468.
- Darchen, S., & Searle, G. (2018). *Global Planning innovations for urban sustainability*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- De Groot, J., & Steg, L. (2007). General beliefs and the theory of planned behavior: The role of environmental concerns in the TPB. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 37(8), 1817–1836.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York, NY: Plenum.
- Demaris, M. C., & Kritsonis, W. A. (2008). The classroom: Exploring its effects on student persistence and satisfaction. *Online Submission*, 2(1), 1–9.
- Deng, Z., Lu, Y., Wei, K. K., & Zhang, J. (2010). Understanding customer satisfaction and loyalty: An empirical study of mobile instant messages in China. *International Journal of Information Management*, 30(4), 289–300.
- Devesa, M., Laguna, M., & Palacios, A. (2010). The role of motivation in visitor satisfaction: Empirical evidence in rural tourism. *Tourism Management*, 31(4), 547–552.
- Fassnacht, M., & Koese, I. (2006). Quality of electronic services: Conceptualising and testing a hierarchical model. *Journal of Service Research*, 9(1), 19–37.
- Fiore, A. M., & Kim, J. (2007). An integrative framework capturing experiential and utilitarian shopping experience. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 35(6), 421–442.
- Forman, M., & Jørgensen, M. S. G. (2001). The social shaping of the participation of employees in environmental work within enterprises-experiences from a Danish context. *Technology Analysis & Strategic Management*, 13(1), 71–90.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39–50.
- Foster, C. (2014). Customer satisfaction in tourism: The search for the holy Grail. In S. McCabe (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of tourism marketing*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Ganesh, J., Arnold, M. J., & Reynolds, K. E. (2000). Understanding the customer base of service providers: An examination of the differences between switchers and stayers. *Journal of Marketing*, 64(3), 65–87.
- Gerbing, D. W., & Anderson, J. C. (1988). An updated paradigm for scale development incorporating unidimensionality and its assessment. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 25(2), 186–192.
- Goralnik, L., & Nelson, M. P. (2014). Field philosophy: Dualism to complexity through the borderland. *Dialectical Anthropology*, 38(4), 447–463.
- Green, R. D., & Farazmand, F. A. (2012). Experiential learning: The internship and live-case study relationship. *Business Education & Accreditation*, 4(1), 13–23.
- Gupta, A., Dash, S., & Mishra, A. (2019). Self/other oriented green experiential values: Measurement and impact on hotel-consumer relationship. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 83, 159–168.
- Haider, M., & Kakakhel, S. (2017). Factors affecting green buying behavior. *Abasyn University Journal of Social Sciences*, 10(2), 311–328.
- Hair, J. F. J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Hamilton, J., & Tee, S. (2013). Blended teaching and learning: A two-way systems approach. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 32(5), 748–764.
- Han, H., Yu, J., & Hyun, S. S. (2020). Effects of nature-based solutions (NBS) on eco-friendly hotel guests' mental health perceptions, satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intentions. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 29(5), 592–611.
- Haque, A., Osman, J., & Ismail, A. Z. (2009). Factor influences selection of Islamic banking: A study on Malaysian customer preferences. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 6(5), 922–928.
- Hartono, S., & Widayanti, R. (2016). The study of switching intention behavior in private university (case study in Islamic bank university of Surakarta). In *Paper presented at the 3rd international conference on entrepreneurship, surabaya, Indonesia*.
- Hektner, J. M., Schmidt, J. A., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2007). *Experience sampling method: Measuring the quality of everyday life*. California, CA: Sage.
- Higham, J., & Carr, A. (2002). Ecotourism visitor experiences in Aotearoa/New Zealand: Challenging the environmental values of visitors in pursuit of pro-environmental behaviour. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 10(4), 277–294.
- Huang, S., & Hsu, C. H. (2009). Travel motivation: Linking theory to practice. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3(4), 287–295.
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), 1–55.
- Hu, P. J. H., & Hui, W. (2012). Examining the role of learning engagement in technology-mediated learning and its effects on learning effectiveness and satisfaction. *Decision Support Systems*, 53(4), 782–792.
- Jalilvand, M. R., Salimpour, S., Elyasi, M., & Mohammadi, M. (2017). Factors influencing word of mouth behaviour in the restaurant industry. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 35(1), 81–110.
- Jenkins, I., & Schröder, R. (2013). *Sustainability in tourism: A multidisciplinary approach*. Wiesbaden, Germany: Springer Science & Business Media.
- Jung, H. S., & Yoon, H. H. (2012). Why do satisfied customers switch? Focus on the restaurant patron variety-seeking orientation and purchase decision involvement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 875–884.
- Kabadayi, S., & Gupta, R. (2011). Managing motives and design to influence web site revisits. *The Journal of Research in Indian Medicine*, 5(2/3), 153–169.
- Kangas, M. (2010). Finnish children's views on the ideal school and learning environment. *Learning Environments Research*, 13(3), 205–223.
- Kao, Y. F., Huang, L. S., & Yang, M. H. (2007). Effects of experiential elements on experiential satisfaction and loyalty intentions: A case study of the super basketball league in Taiwan. *International Journal of Revenue Management*, 1(1), 79–96.
- Karlsen, S., & Westerlund, H. (2010). Immigrant students' development of musical agency—exploring democracy in music education. *British Journal of Music Education*, 27(3), 225–239.
- Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(1), 1–22.
- Keng, C. J., Huang, T. L., Zheng, L. J., & Hsu, M. K. (2007). Modeling service encounters and customer experiential value in retailing: An empirical investigation of shopping mall customers in Taiwan. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 18(4), 349–367.
- Khoo, S., Ha, H., & McGregor, S. L. (2017). Service quality and student/customer satisfaction in the private tertiary education sector in Singapore. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 31(4), 430–444.
- Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kolb, D. A. (2014). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Learning styles and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education. *The Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 4(2), 193–212.
- Kong, H., & Yan, Q. (2014). The relationship between learning satisfaction and career competencies. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 41, 133–139.

- Kordnaeij, A., Bagherzadeh, G., Mombeini, H., & Bakhshizadeh, A. (2015). Customer switching behavior in Iran banking services industry. *The International Journal of Humanities*, 22(4), 1–20.
- Kuo, Y. K., & Ye, K. D. (2009). The causal relationship between service quality, corporate image and adults' learning satisfaction and loyalty: A study of professional training programmes in a Taiwanese vocational institute. *Total Quality Management and Business Excellence*, 20(7), 749–762.
- Kyttä, M., Broberg, A., Haybatollahi, M., & Schmidt-Thomé, K. (2016). Urban happiness: Context-sensitive study of the social sustainability of urban settings. *Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design*, 43(1), 34–57.
- Kyttä, M., Broberg, A., Tzoulas, T., & Snabb, K. (2013). Towards contextually sensitive urban densification: Location-based softGIS knowledge revealing perceived residential environmental quality. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 113, 30–46.
- Lada, S., Rizal, H., William, J. J., Suki, N. M., Rahman, R. A., & Tanakinjal, G. H. (2018). Brand image benefit and satisfaction: Roles of symbolic, functional, social, and experiential benefits. *Labuan e-Journal of Muamalat and Society*, 12, 178–188.
- Lin, J. S. S. (2018). The moderating role of intercultural service encounters in the relationship among tourist's destination image, perceived value and environmentally responsible behaviors. *American Journal of Tourism Management*, 7(1), 1–9.
- Lindquist, J. D., & Sirgy, M. J. (2009). *Shopper, buyer, and consumer behavior: Theory, marketing applications and public policy implications*. Cincinnati, OH: Atomic Dog/Cengage Learning.
- Liu, R., & Jung, L. (1980). The commuter student and student satisfaction. *Research in Higher Education*, 12(3), 215–226.
- Liu, D., Santhanam, R., & Webster, J. (2017). Toward meaningful engagement: A framework for design and research of gamified information systems. *MIS Quarterly*, 41(4), 1011–1034.
- Mansour, N. M., El-Kafy, A., & Hussein, J. (2018). Integrating sustainability into education: At Egyptian tourism and hotel faculties. *Journal of Association of Arab Universities for Tourism and Hospitality*, 15(3), 97–104.
- Martins, R. C., Hor-Meyll, L. F., & Ferreira, J. B. (2013). Factors affecting mobile users' switching intentions: A comparative study between the Brazilian and German markets. *BAR-Brazilian Administration Review*, 10(3), 239–262.
- Mathwick, C., Malhotra, N., & Rigdon, E. (2001). Experiential value: Conceptualization, measurement and application in the catalog and Internet shopping environment. *Journal of Retailing*, 77(1), 39–56.
- McDowall, S. (2010). A comparison between Thai residents and non-residents in their motivations, performance evaluations, and overall satisfaction with a domestic festival. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 16(3), 217–233.
- Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). *An approach to environmental psychology*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Mittelstaedt, R., Sanker, L., & VanderVeer, B. (1999). Impact of a week-long experiential education program on environmental attitude and awareness. *Journal of Experiential Education*, 22(3), 138–148.
- Mody, M., Suess, C., & Lehto, X. (2019). Going back to its roots: Can hospitableness provide hotels competitive advantage over the sharing economy? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 76, 286–298.
- Moeller, T., Dolnicar, S., & Leisch, F. (2011). The sustainability–profitability trade-off in tourism: Can it be overcome? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(2), 155–169.
- Muduli, K., & Barve, A. (2013). Modelling the behavioural factors of green supply chain management implementation in mining industries in Indian scenario. *Asian Journal of Management Science and Applications*, 1(1), 26–49.
- Nair, G. K. (2014). The influence of customer perceptions on financial performance in hospitality organizations: An empirical study. *Journal of Hospitality Financial Management*, 22(2), 63–74.
- Ng, M. M., & Priyono, I. (2018). The effect of service quality on student satisfaction and student loyalty: An empirical study. *Journal of Social Studies Education Research*, 9(3), 109–131.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Obiegbu, C. J., Larsen, G., & Ellis, N. (2020). Experiential brand loyalty: Towards an extended conceptualisation of consumer allegiance to brands. *Marketing Theory*, 20(3), 251–271.
- Orth, U. R., & De Marchi, R. (2007). Understanding the relationships between functional, symbolic, and experiential brand beliefs, product experiential attributes, and product schema: Advertising-trial interactions revisited. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 15(3), 219–233.
- Ortús, C., Barlés, M. J., Belanche, D., Casaló, L., Fraj, E., & Gurrea, R. (2016). The effects of learner-generated videos for YouTube on learning outcomes and satisfaction. *Computers & Education*, 95, 254–269.
- Park, E., Kwon, S. J., & Kim, K. J. (2016). Assessing the effects of corporate sustainable management on customer satisfaction. *Sustainable Development*, 24(1), 41–52.
- Parrott, C. (2016). *Neighborhood nonprofit spotlight: World salmon council*. Retrieved from <https://patch.com/oregon/portland/neighborhood-nonprofit-spotlight-world-salmon-council>.
- Piercy, N. (2013). Evaluating experiential learning in the business context: Contributions to group-based and cross-functional working. *Innovations in Education & Teaching International*, 50(2), 202–213.
- Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review*, 76(4), 97–105.
- Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1999). *The experience economy*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Qiao, G. H., Chen, N., Guan, Y. Y., & Kim, S. C. (2008). Study on Chinese tourists' motivation and satisfaction to visit South Korea. *International Journal of Tourism Sciences*, 8(1), 17–38.
- Ritchie, M. (2013). Sustainability education, experiential learning, and social justice: Designing community based courses in the Global South. *Journal of Sustainability Education*, 5, 1–13.
- Russell, D. W., & Russell, C. A. (2010). Experiential reciprocity: The role of direct experience in value perceptions. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27(6), 624–634.
- Sadat, A. M. (2019). Trust in information source, prior experience and switching intention: The examination of three competing models in telecommunication service. *International Journal of Latest Engineering and Management Research*, 4(7), 18–26.
- Saeed, A., Hussain, N., & Riaz, A. (2011). Factors affecting consumers' switching intentions. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 19(1), 54–61.
- Schneider, C. E., & Beatty, R. W. (1977). Predicting participants' performance and reactions in an experiential learning setting: An empirical investigation. In *Paper presented at the 4th annual conference of the association for business simulation and experiential learning, wichita, KS*.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Shobeiri, S., Laroche, M., & Mazaheri, E. (2013). Shaping e-retailer's website personality: The importance of experiential marketing. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 20(1), 102–110.
- Siddique, A., Aslam, H. D., Khan, M., & Fatima, U. (2011). Impact of academic leadership on faculty's motivation and organization effectiveness in higher education system. *International Journal of Academic Research*, 3(3), 730–737.
- Singh, I. (2018). Interrelations, transitions, and experiential outcomes are the main domains to lay the foundation and maximum learning in architectural design studio. *International Journal of Scientific Engineering and Research*, 9(7), 1397–1403.
- Stern, P. C. (2000). New environmental theories: Toward a coherent theory of environmentally significant behavior. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56(3), 407–424.
- Sung, H., & Lee, W. (2015). The effect of basic, performance and excitement service factors of a convention center on attendees' experiential value and satisfaction: A case study of the phoenix convention center. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism*, 16(3), 175–199.
- Suryanarayana, A. (2013). Role of store atmospherics in attracting customers: An empirical study in Indian retailing. In *Paper presented at global business research conference, kathmandu, Nepal*.
- Suryawanshi, K., & Narkhede, S. (2015). Green ICT in higher education: The next frontier for sustainable growth. *CSI Communications*, 39(5), 12–13.
- Sustainability Management School. (2020). *A program that addresses challenges in sustainability that leaders face in global business*. Retrieved from <https://sumas.ch/program/bba-sustainable-tourism-management/>.
- Temizer, L., & Turkyilmaz, A. (2012). Implementation of student satisfaction index model in higher education institutions. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 3802–3806.

- Trantopoulos, K., von Krogh, G., Wallin, M. W., & Woerter, M. (2017). External knowledge and information technology: Implications for process innovation performance. *MIS Quarterly*, *41*(1), 287–300.
- Unesco. (2015). *Rethinking education: Towards a global common good?* Paris: UNESCO. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002325/232555e.pdf>.
- Wangenheim, F. V., & Bayon, T. (2004). The effect of word of mouth on services switching measurement and moderating variables. *European Journal of Marketing*, *38*(9/10), 1173–1185.
- Wingfield, S. S., & Black, G. S. (2005). Active versus passive course designs: The impact on student outcomes. *The Journal of Education for Business*, *81*(2), 119–123.
- Wong, S. M. H., & Wong, K. H. (2011). Building relationship between education institutions and students: Student loyalty in self-financed tertiary education. *IBIMA Business Review*, *2011*, 1–22.
- Wu, G. (2011). A new concept of green education: The cultivation model for successful and practical talents. *International Forum of Teaching & Studies*, *7*(1), 45–48.
- Wu, H. C. (2017). What drives experiential loyalty? A case study of starbucks coffee chain in Taiwan. *British Food Journal*, *119*(3), 468–496.
- Wu, H. C., & Ai, C. H. (2016). Synthesizing the effects of experiential quality, excitement, equity, experiential satisfaction on experiential loyalty for the golf industry: The case of Hainan Island. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *29*, 41–59.
- Wu, H. C., Ai, C. H., & Cheng, C. C. (2019). Experiential quality, experiential psychological states and experiential outcomes in an unmanned convenience store. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *51*, 409–420.
- Wu, H. C., & Chang, Y. Y. (2019). What drives experiential loyalty intentions?: The case of bitcoin travel. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2019.1641454>
- Wu, H. C., Chang, Y. Y., & Wu, T. P. (2019b). Pilgrimage: What drives pilgrim experiential supportive intentions? *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *38*, 66–81.
- Wu, H. C., & Cheng, C. C. (2017). What drives green advocacy? A case study of leisure farms in Taiwan. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *33*, 103–112.
- Wu, H. C., & Cheng, C. C. (2018). What drives experiential loyalty toward smart restaurants? The case study of KFC in Beijing. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *27*(2), 151–177.
- Wu, H. C., & Cheng, C. C. (2019). An empirical analysis of green experiential loyalty: A case study. *Journal of International Food & Agribusiness Marketing*, *31*(1), 69–105.
- Wu, H. C., & Cheng, C. C. (2020a). Relationships between experiential risk, experiential benefits, experiential evaluation, experiential co-creation, experiential relationship quality and future experiential intentions to travel with pets. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *26*(1), 108–129.
- Wu, H. C., Cheng, C. C., & Ai, C. H. (2018a). A study of experiential quality, experiential value, trust, corporate reputation, experiential satisfaction and behavioral intentions for cruise tourists: The case of Hong Kong. *Tourism Management*, *66*, 200–220.
- Wu, H. C., Cheng, C. C., & Ai, C. H. (2018b). An empirical analysis of green switching intentions in the airline industry. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, *61*(8), 1438–1468.
- Wu, H. C., Cheng, C. C., Ai, C. H., & Wu, T. P. (2020b). Fast-disappearing destinations: The relationships among experiential authenticity, last-chance attachment and experiential relationship quality. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *28*(7), 956–977.
- Wu, H. C., Cheng, C. C., Chen, Y. C., & Hong, W. (2018c). Towards green experiential loyalty: Driving from experiential quality, green relationship quality, environmental friendliness, green support and green desire. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *30*(3), 1374–1397.
- Wu, H. C., Cheng, C. C., & Hong, W. (2017). An empirical analysis of green convention attendees' switching intentions. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism*, *18*(3), 159–190.
- Wu, H. C., & Li, T. (2017). A study of experiential quality, perceived value, heritage image, experiential satisfaction, and behavioral intentions for heritage tourists. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *41*(8), 904–944.
- Wu, H. C., Li, M. Y., & Li, T. (2018d). A study of experiential quality, experiential value, experiential satisfaction, theme park image, and revisit intention. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *42*(1), 26–73.
- Wu, H. C., Wei, C. F., Tseng, L. Y., & Cheng, C. C. (2018e). What drives green brand switching behavior? *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, *36*(6), 694–708.
- Yang, B. C., & Wong, J. W. (2018). The role of experiential learning and proactive personality in enhancing students' learning satisfaction: The case of exchange students in the hospitality and tourism industry. In *Paper presented at 2018 international conference on education*. Chengdu, China: Social Sciences and Humanities.
- Yuan, Y. H. E., & Wu, C. K. (2008). Relationships among experiential marketing, experiential value, and customer satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *32*(3), 387–410.
- Zhai, X., Gu, J., Liu, H., Liang, J. C., & Tsai, C. C. (2017). An experiential learning perspective on students' satisfaction model in a flipped classroom context. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society*, *20*(1), 198–210.
- Zou, Y., Zhao, W., Mason, R., & Li, M. (2015). Comparing sustainable universities between the United States and China: Cases of Indiana university and Tsinghua university. *Sustainability*, *7*(9), 11799–11817.
- Zuieback, S. (2013). The importance of outcomes. Retrieved from <https://www.stevezuieback.com/blog/the-importance-of-outcomes/>.