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Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness (TPDI) and its Impacts on Tourist Experience and Tourist Satisfaction -The Case Study of Hunan (China)

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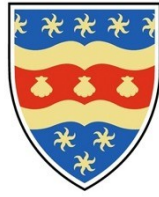
Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness (TPDI) and its Impacts on Tourist Experience and Tourist Satisfaction -The Case Study of Hunan (China)

by

Xiaoshan Yang

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Author's Declaration

At no time during the registration for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy has the author been registered for any other University award without prior agreement of the Doctoral College Quality Sub-Committee.

Work submitted for this research degree at the University of Plymouth has not formed part of any other degree either at the University of Plymouth or at another establishment.

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Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness (TPDI) and its impacts - The case study of Hunan (China)

Abstract

The primary purpose of this study is to develop a comprehensive understanding of tourist perceived destination innovativeness (TPDI) and to assess its impacts on tourist experience and satisfaction, and the thesis accordingly develops a multidimensional scale for measuring the concept of destination innovativeness. TPDI in this study refers to the willingness and capability of a destination to provide and deliver unique, interesting service and product. The development and validation of the multidimensional scale for the concept followed a rigorous procedure with three different stages of study, the data for which was collected from tourists in Hunan. The first stage analysed qualitative data from 30 interviews using a thematic analysis technique. In the second stage, the exploratory factor analysis (n=522) was used to purify and refine the scale generated in the first stage. The last stage of the study used confirmatory factor analysis (n=748) to validate the 20 item-scale for destination innovativeness. The study developed a model with one higher order factor (TPDI), and five corresponding lower order factors (destination co-creation innovativeness, destination development innovativeness, destination experiential innovativeness, destination inclusiveness innovativeness and destination marketing innovativeness).

Moreover, the impacts on tourist experience and satisfaction were assessed using the data from the third stage, which were confirmed by SmartPLS. The thesis highlights the positive relationship of TPDI on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Moreover, the study reveals that the tourist experience acts as a mediation role between TPDI and tourist satisfaction. The results indicate that an innovative destination needs to consider tourist perception as a whole, and not only new products and unique promotions, and take into account inclusiveness of service for tourist as well. The current study illuminates the procedure for developing a complete scale for future tourism research. Hopefully, the TPDI scale can become a benchmark for practitioners' evaluation of the effectiveness of strategies for innovativeness. The developed scales and relationships of this study may contain limitations, and the construction of other scales and different variables for TPDI may well be of interest.

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List of Abbreviations

AI   Artificial Intelligence
AR   Augmented Reality
CB-SEM   Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modelling
CFA   Confirmatory Factor Analysis
COVID-19   Coronavirus disease
DI   Destination Innovativeness
DCI   Destination Co-creation Value Innovativeness
DDI   Destination Development Innovativeness
DEI   Destination Experiential Innovativeness
DMI   Destination Marketing Innovativeness
DMO   Destination Marketing Organisations
DII   Destination Inclusive Innovativeness
EFA   Exploratory Factor Analysis
ICT   Information and Communications Technology
PLS-SEM   Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS   Statistics Package for the Social Sciences
TE   Tourist Experience
TS   Tourist Satisfaction
TPDI   Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness
VR   Virtual Reality
WTTC   World Travel and Tourism Council

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Tourism is considered one of the largest industries globally (Sun, Ding & Yang, 2022), and it plays an essential role in economic benefits (Liu, Kim & Song, 2022). Particularly, tourism has vital economic contributions because it creates employment opportunities, generates tax revenues, and brings foreign exchange earnings (Okumus & Kocak, 2023; Zhang & Yang, 2023). Specifically, tourism brings in cash inflows to local and national economies through tourist spending on accommodation, food, transportation, attractions, and other related tourism services. Those revenues can contribute to tax increases (Scarlett, 2021). The taxes can further support the infrastructure development (Palmer & Riera, 2003). Moreover, the increase in inbound tourism has the potential to drive foreign currency inflows and the export of tourism-related products, consequently fostering the growth of a nation's gross domestic production (Belloumi, 2010).

Furthermore, destinations are considered the fundamental analysis unit in tourism because destinations and their images attract tourists, and the destinations further motivate the visit. Therefore, the destinations energise the whole tourism system (Cooper, 2012).In addition, destinations are considered the physical place and space that interwind social, economic and environmental practices (Hoarau-Heemstra *et al.*, 2023). Specifically, the study focuses on one of the destinations in China. The tourism industry in China is critical, and it plays an important role in positive economic growth and the increase of job opportunities. For example, China generated CNY 6.63 trillion in tourism revenue, accounting for 11.6% of the overall economy in 2019 (World Tourism, 2021). Innovation plays a vital role in the tourism and hospitality industry. Gomezelj (2016) states that the importance of innovation within the sector should be understood from the multidimensional perspective of innovation. Innovativeness is connected to a company's ability to participate in innovation by embracing and fostering new ideas, practices, and procedures (Lago *et al.*, 2023). From the standpoint of tourists they are more experienced than before because of the appearance of Information Communication Technologies (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2019). Thus, tourists have more options to choose destinations for holidays (Hjalager, 2010; Page & Hall, 2014), which pressure destinations to be more innovative. Destinations and organisations currently are facing a fast-changing, information-explosive, and competitive society with the globalisation of the world (Luštický & Štumpf, 2021; Özer, Küçüksakarya & Maiti, 2022). Therefore, mature tourism destinations are forced to apply innovative practices to attract more tourists and remain competitive (Broshi-Chen & Mansfeld, 2021; Scheidegger, 2006).

Innovativeness is essential for companies to sustain competitiveness. Additionally, the tourist experience is pivotal in influencing whether individuals will recommend destinations to friends and family or revisit those destinations, mainly when tourists are satisfied with their visits. Destination innovativeness elevates and intensifies the perceptions that visitors view the destinations. However, there is a notable gap in knowledge regarding this concept. This lacks comprehensive understanding underscores the necessity for thorough research and empirical evidence in the field of destination innovativeness. This is particularly significant given the limited insights currently available about innovativeness within the tourism and hospitality industry. This study aims to conceptualise destination innovativeness from the tourists' perspective to address this knowledge gap. It endeavours to develop a model that integrates tourist experience and satisfaction, providing a more nuanced understanding of how innovativeness influences those critical aspects of tourism.

This chapter is organized in a structured manner. It begins with an introductory section, which sets the stage for the research. Following this, the second section delves into the rationale behind the study, highlighting the significance of innovation and innovativeness. It also sheds light on related studies and explains the choice of Hunan Province as the focal point for the case study. The third section articulates the research's aim and objectives, providing a clear direction for the study. The fourth section discusses the significance of this research, examining its impact from theoretical and practical perspectives. Finally, the chapter concludes with a section that outlines the overall organization of the thesis.

1.2 The Rationale for the Research

The significance of innovation in destination management, especially for sustaining competitiveness, is extensively recognized in existing research. Key references supporting this assertion include works by scholars such as Cooper (1998), Gajdošík *et al.* (2017), Gelter, Fuchs and Lexhagen (2022), Gomezelj (2016), (Hjalager, 2010), Ngo and O'Cass (2013), Stamboulis and Skayannis (2003). This research specifically concentrates on tourists' perceived destination innovativeness. To elucidate this focus, the upcoming three subsections are dedicated to providing a comprehensive justification.

The first subsection underscores the necessity of studying tourists' perceived destination innovativeness. It delves into the reasons for prioritizing this area of research. The second subsection examines the relationship between tourists' perceived destination innovativeness and tourist experience, shedding light on how perceptions of innovativeness influence the overall

tourist experience. The third subsection justifies the selection of Hunan Province as the case study, explaining its relevance and potential contributions to this field of study.

1.2.1 The Need to Study Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness

Innovativeness is considered the diffusion of innovation. Innovativeness has been studied in different fields of research (Cho, 2018; García-Villaverde *et al.*, 2021; Goldsmith & Hofacker, 1991; Hollebeek & Rather, 2019; Hong, Lin & Hsieh, 2017; Hubert *et al.*, 2017; Randolph *et al.*, 2022). Scholars indicate that innovativeness also plays a critical role in firms gaining sustainable competitive advantages (Lin, Peng & Kao, 2008). Hult, Hurley and Knight (2004) acknowledge that innovativeness is positively related to business performance in general business. Tsai and Yang (2013) further investigate that firm innovativeness has the most positive effect on business performance when the market turbulence and competition intensity are high in the manufacturing industry. Nevertheless, there is a lack of research on innovativeness in the tourism and hospitality industry. The tourism and hospitality industry has developed quickly recently (Luo, 2018). According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), tourism and hospitality are considered one of the 'world's largest economic sectors, which provides more than three hundred and nineteen million job opportunities worldwide and generates 10.4% of the world Gross Domestic Product (WTTC, 2019). Furthermore, the number of destinations is increasing at a fast pace (Omerzel, 2015). Therefore, the competition between destinations is rising sharply, and it is crucial for the industry to innovate. Accordingly, some of the studies pay attention to the relationship between innovativeness and firm performance within the tourism and hospitality industry (e.g.Aziz & Omar, 2013; Urban & Matela, 2022).

In the hospitality industry, other studies focus on different topics concerning innovativeness, such as restaurant innovativeness (Jin *et al.*, 2015; Jin, Line & Merkebu, 2016b; Jin, Line & Merkebu, 2016a; Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018; Sandvik, Duhan & Sandvik, 2014) and innovativeness in hotel sectors (Jalilvand, 2017; Sandvik, Duhan & Sandvik, 2014). In the tourism hospitality, some topics, like model development (Omerzel, 2015), online consumer behaviours (Couture *et al.*, 2015; San Martín & Herrero, 2012), small and medium-sized enterprises (Martínez-Román *et al.*, 2015) relation to innovativeness, are investigated. There are some studies with innovativeness in the tourism industry after a review of available literature sources (e.g.Omerzel, 2015; San Martín & Herrero, 2012). However, there is limited research on innovativeness on a destination level (Kuščer, 2013). It seems to have no articles which address general destination innovativeness as destination plays an important role in the tourism industry. Flagestad *et al.*

(2005) call for more studies on innovation and innovativeness relevant to tourism destinations. Most of the tourism activities take place at destinations (Leiper, 1979), and destinations are considered as the vehicle to compete and attract tourists to the places. Therefore, it is associated with a highly competitive business, which is to attract visitors to the local area. While innovativeness is a key element to help the destination to maintain competitiveness. Hence, it is urgent to investigate destination innovativeness and its impact on destination performance from a customer perspective.

Measuring innovativeness perceived by consumers has been crucial since the creation of measurement methods for social phenomena, and it is considered a foundation for a scientific approach (Borgatta & Montgomery, 2000). Churchill (1979, p.64) stresses that scale development is "a critical element in the evolution of a fundamental body of knowledge"." Borgatta and Montgomery (2000) argue that failure to capture the scale development of theoretical dimensions, may represent a form of measurement error. Heise (2000) highlights that it is necessary to adopt high-quality measurements by using quantitative research methods for the development of specific parameters for mature theoretical formation. Also, it is worth determining social dimensions by selecting affordable and reliable qualitative techniques. Therefore, scale development by creating a scale of consumer perception of innovativeness is fundamental. However, according to previous studies, measurement scales for innovativeness are limited. The prior literature has a basis in either a narrow investigation of product innovativeness (e.g.Wang & Ahmed, 2004) or development from a 'firm's perspective (e.g.Knowles, Hansen & Dibrell, 2008; Wang & Ahmed, 2004). The only identifiable study which tests destination innovativeness is Kuščer (2013), in which the study does not provide the scale items. Since none of the studies has a clear conceptualization or procedures to develop adequate scales to measure innovativeness in relation to destination innovativeness, Hence, it becomes essential to develop a valid and dependable scale measuring tourist perceived destination innovativeness (TPDI).

1.2.2 The Need to Study Relationships among Perceived Destination Innovativeness, Tourist Satisfaction and Experience

Unlike the manufacturing industry, the tourism industry is a service-based industry. Consumers strongly perceive the quality of service (López-Toro, Diaz-Munoz & Perez-Moreno, 2010). Therefore, the performance of a destination is strongly linked to tourist satisfaction and tourist experience, which are of paramount importance to the destination's competitiveness (Baloglu *et al.*, 2004). For example, tourist satisfaction influences the choice of destination, the decision to return, and the recommendation of the place to others (Yoon & Uysal, 2005a). Thus, tourist satisfaction is considered a prerequisite for destination management to enhance attractiveness and

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maintain competitiveness (Dmitrović *et al.*, 2009). Numerous studies are about tourist satisfaction and tourist experience in terms of destination performance from different aspects, such as tour guide (Chang, 2014; Huang, Hsu & Chan, 2010), destination image (Lee & Lee, 2009; O'Leary & Deegan, 2005) and public transport (Thompson & Schofield, 2007). However, limited research links innovativeness with tourist experience and satisfaction, especially on a destination level.

Hence, it is urgent to study destination innovativeness and its relationship between tourist satisfaction and tourist experience. As there are limited articles connecting destination innovativeness with tourist satisfaction and tourist experience in a single article (Kuščer, 2013; Volo, 2005), even though tourist experience and tourist satisfaction are two significant elements at destinations (Elia & Utomo, 2019; San Martin, Collado & Rodriguez Del Bosque, 2013; Tan, 2017a). The tourism industry highly relies on 'tourists' experiences (Oh, Fiore & Jeoung, 2007; Quan & Wang, 2004). At destinations, tourists seek unforgettable (Song *et al.*, 2015), memorable (Tung & Ritchie, 2011) experiences (Song *et al.*, 2015), and positive experiences lead to satisfied tourists (Antón, Camarero & Laguna-García, 2017; Chen & Chen, 2010). Satisfied tourists tend to revisit the destinations and create positive communication about the destination with their friends and family (Peter, Olson & Grunert, 1999). While destination innovativeness can contribute to the development of destinations (Kuščer, 2013), further investigation is necessary to explore the relationship among destination innovativeness, tourist experience, and tourist satisfaction.

1.2.3 The Reasons for Using Hunan as a Case Study

This research chooses Hunan province as the case study to investigate innovativeness because Hunan province is famous for innovation in several industries (Wu, 2019; Zeng, 2015a). For example, Hunan TV is a innovation pioneer in the entertainment industry (Zeng, 2015a). Hunan TV launched a programme called 'Happy China' to maintain its brand competitiveness. Also, Hunan TV introduced some great entertaining programmes such as 'Where is my dad' and 'Singer'. Hunan province is the origin of hybrid rice in the agriculture industry, and it ranks at the top of China (He, 2012). According to the Hunan Provincial Bureau of Statistics, the innovation activity of manufacturing industries is significantly higher than that of mining enterprises (17.7%) and electricity, heat, gas and water production and supply industries (27.7%), accounting for 44% from 2013 to 2014 (HPBS, 2016). However, innovation is significant in the tourism industry. For example, the revenue from the tourism industry in Hunan Province increased to 34.79% on a year-over-year basis (HPDCT, 2020). However, none of the research on innovativeness is relevant to the tourism industry, especially at the destination level; even the tourism sector could bring many economic benefits.

Moreover, Hunan Province has abundant tourism resources (Hunter, 2013a). For example, the province has the first national park, Zhangjiajie National Forest Park, established in 1982. The region also has a significant Red Tourism resource (Hong, Heping & Shuqi, 2011; Yang *et al.*, 2011; Yang, Zou & Zhu, 2010), such as Shaoshan Village (Zhao, Xu & Cai, 2009). This Village is officially recognised as the site of Chairman 'Mao's residence of childhood in 1961 (Hunter, 2013b). Consequently, Hunan has attracted 693 million of tourists before the pandemic (Tourism, 2021). Nevertheless, there is an urgent need for the province to improve the tourist experience and develop new products, mainly to attract repetitive tourists.

Many articles are published about tourism in Hunan from different aspects (e.g.Cai & Xiong, 2010; Deng *et al.*, 2003; Huang, 2006; Qiang, Chong-gui & Jin-yang, 2002; Yuan *et al.*, 2014; Zeng, Zhou & Zhong, 2018; Zhong, Deng & Xiang, 2008). It seems that some researchers have started to investigate tourism in Hunan, focusing on natural and cultural tourism and related issues. For example, Xu, Qiu and Liu (2019) explore the relationship among the sense of resident acquisition, satisfaction and support willingness in ten ethnic cultural tourism towns in Hunan Province. Deng *et al.* (2003) examine the environmental impacts of natural tourism in Zhang Jiajie National Forest Park. Some study focuses on a specific region of Hunan province, such as tourism in Xiangxi Tujia and Miao Autonomous Prefecture (Liu, Liu & Li, 2007; Liu, Liu & Li, 2008). However, none of the articles are about innovativeness in destination development to investigate different destinations in Hunan Province in a single study.

In addition, the government encourages enterprises to undertake innovations in Hunan (Deng, Li & Wu, 2022; Liu *et al.*, 2020; Wen *et al.*, 2022). For example, Hunan is encouraged to establish an enterprise-centred, industry-university-research and market-oriented innovation system for cultural tourism science and technology. Lastly, the motivation to choose Hunan province as a case study is from the 'researcher's personal experience. The first impression of the province is about the entertainment industry. At the same time, most foreign friends are unfamiliar with this province. This suggests the need to coordinate with other central provinces to develop both domestic and international tourist markets. Above the analysis, it seems to be sound that to investigate innovativeness in Hunan province.

1.3 Research Aim and Objectives

This research aims at developing a comprehensive understanding of tourist perceived destination innovativeness and its impacts on tourist experience and satisfaction. For this study, there are five objectives to achieve the aim.

These objectives consider the need for this research to contribute to theory and offer practical benefits. The objectives are listed below:

1. To develop in-depth knowledge of tourist perceived destination innovativeness.
2. To construct and validate the scale of tourist perceived destination innovativeness.
3. To assess potential relationships among tourist perceived destination innovativeness, tourist experience, and tourist satisfaction.
4. To assess the potential effects of gender on different relationships.
5. To make recommendations to the destination to use innovation to improve tourist experience and satisfaction.

1.4 The Significance of the Study

This research contains both theoretical and managerial significance. Theoretically, this present study builds on previous conceptual work of innovativeness from general business and tourism literature, extends knowledge of innovations, and provides a theoretical foundation for future research regarding destination management and marketing. The current study offers a scale for measuring destination innovativeness and a tested model to measure the relationship between destination innovativeness, tourist experience, and tourist satisfaction. The study provides fundamental knowledge for future research on destination innovativeness.

Practically, the measurement scales of destination innovativeness could provide a guideline for destinations to assess or monitor the efficiency and effectiveness of strategies for either short-term or long-term innovativeness. Also, the tested model is a benefit for all destinations that need to be innovative. It can help the destination to improve service quality and enhance the destination image by assessing tourist experience and tourist satisfaction regarding destination innovativeness.

1.5 The Organization of the Thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters. They are explained in detail below:

Chapter 1 presents a general introduction to this thesis, which includes the aim and objectives, and rationales of this research. Then, the significance of this thesis is presented, and the chapter ends with the structure of the whole thesis.

Chapter 2 reviews the existing literature on innovation and its diffusion theory, innovativeness, and literature related to the topics within the context of the

tourism industry, particularly in the destination sector. Firstly, the chapter briefly discusses the different definitions of destination, innovation, and innovativeness. Then the present chapter shows the understanding from different perspectives, which contributes to defining tourist perceived destination innovativeness (TPDI). Different dimensions of innovativeness are widely discussed in various contexts. The chapter identifies gaps in existing innovativeness research. The literature review summary is provided to consolidate the material related to innovativeness.

Chapter 3 critically reviews the existing literature on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. It starts with the different definitions on them from the different perspectives in various contexts. Then, it identifies research gaps based on the existing literature. The chapter ends with a summary.

The research methods and approach are documented in Chapter 4. This methodology chapter discusses the research philosophy underpinning the study and provides the rationale for this approach. The research design and methods used in both the collection and analysis of data are identified and justification of such an approach is provided for three stages. The three stages serve distinct purposes. Stage 1 aims to generate themes related to destination innovativeness, and data is collected through interviews. Stage 2 aims at purifying items generated from Stage 1, necessitating the use of questionnaires. Stage 3 serves two primary purposes: firstly, to validate items of TPDI, and secondly, to test the relationship between TPDI, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Consequently, another round of questionnaires is required. Also, the choice of data analysis techniques is demonstrated before a summary of this chapter.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the three stages of data analysis. Additionally, hypothesis testing between TPDI, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction is discussed.

The following chapter, Chapter 6, discusses the results of the scale development of TPDI, the identified dimensions based on the understanding of TPDI, and hypotheses testing between tourist experience, tourist satisfaction and TPDI. Additionally, potential explanations according to the results are provided.

The final chapter, Chapter 7, concludes this study by presenting the key findings of this research. Both theoretical and practical contributions of this thesis are documented. The limitations of the research are also identified, and recommendations for further research are made to develop in-depth knowledge in this field.

Chapter 2 Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness: A Critical Review

2.1 Introduction

Destinations play a crucial role in the tourism industry, serving as foundational units which shape the overall tourist experience. Innovativeness is of significant importance to the tourism sector, acting as a driving force to enhance and enrich tourist experiences at destinations. This literature review chapter aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of tourists' perceptions of destination innovativeness. To achieve this aim, the chapter discusses relevant themes, conducting a comprehensive examination and evaluation of the relevant literature, and exploring concepts such as innovation, innovativeness, destination, destination innovation, and destination innovativeness.

The structure of this chapter is outlined as follows: the introduction session 2.1 provides an overview of the chapter's structure. Section 2.2 synthesises knowledge of destinations from various perspectives, drawing on existing literature. Section 2.3 considers in-depth the definition of innovation across different disciplines, laying the groundwork for the chapter. An in-depth review of articles on innovation within the tourism and hospitality industry, including literature relevant to destination innovation. Section 2.4 elaborates on the distinctions between innovation and innovativeness; this section will critically assess existing literature on the definition of innovativeness, adapting the concept of consumer-perceived innovativeness based on scholarly sources. Section 2.5 addresses the research gap surrounding destination innovativeness, drawing insights from relevant body of literature. The concluding section 2.6 summarises the chapter's key findings and underscore the definition of tourist-perceived destination innovativeness.

2.2 Destinations

Leiper (1990)'s tourism system as presented in Figure 2.1, comprises three main elements. The first is tourists, who are the main actors with the system, the second is tourism businesses and organisations which constitute tourist suppliers, and the third relates to geographical features. The latter comprises three parts, i.e.:
- traveller generating regions;
- tourist destination regions;
- transit route regions.

It is established that destinations are the core element in the tourism system (Leiper, 1990) which is consistent with the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), recognising the destination as the fundamental unit of analysis in tourism (Pike & Page, 2014a). However, it is challenging to provide an actual definition of a destination (Jovicic, 2016; Lew, 1987; Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011), and there has been a change in the interpretation of the term 'destination'. Framke (2002, p.93) questions: "Is the destination an attraction, or a geographical unit, or an empirical relationship, or a marketing object, or a place where tourism happens…?" The understanding of destinations can be conceptualised from different perspectives in various settings; the following sections therefore critically review the understanding of the destination from different perspectives.
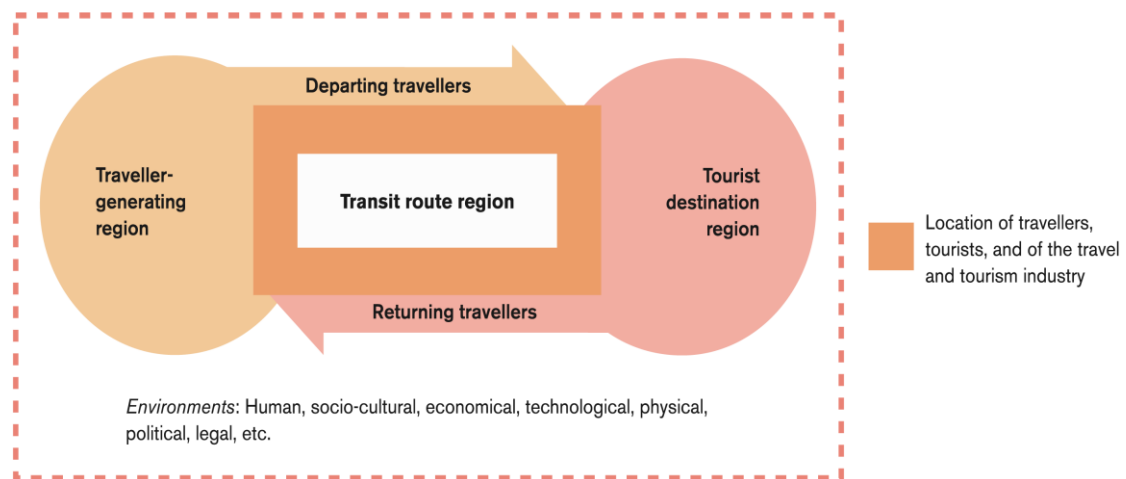
Figure 2.1 Leiper's Tourism System (Leiper, 1990)

2.2.1 Defining Destination

Within the range of tourism-related, a fundamental study of destination provided by Lew (1987), who suggests that tourist attractions or destinations are associated with a framework of ideographic, organizational, and/or tourist cognition-based features. From the ideographic perspective, both natural features such as a mountain, and human constructs, such as man-made facilities, constitute the destinations. Organisationally, destinations are characterised by their spatial, temporal, and capacity features, although. Lew's framework fails to analyse the layered nature of tourism products. Moreover, Lew fails to take into account consumers or tourists, while Larsen, Urry and Axhausen (2007) indicate that tourism and tourist places have secure connections with everyday life.

Furthermore, the interpretation of destination should be twofold in order to achieve a neat understanding, i.e.: supply-side and demand-side (Pike, 2007).

Destination means an accumulation of resources and attractions, infrastructure, equipment, service providers, other support and administrative organisms, which integrate and coordinate different activities for consumers with the experiences they expect from their chosen destination from the supply-side perspective (Bordas Rubies, 2001). Demand-side defines destination as "places towards which people travel and where they choose to stay for a while to experience certain features or characteristics" (Leiper, 1995, p.87).

Jovicic (2016) contends that there are five different approaches to defining what a destination is, i.e.: classical, traditional views of destinations, destinations as industrial districts, the systemic approach to tourism destinations, smart tourism destinations, and integrative conceptual frameworks of a tourism destination. Studies of classical or traditional tourism destinations focus on geographical characteristics (Burkart & Medlik, 1981; Mill & Morrison, 2013). Framke (2002) asserts that tourism as a whole industry occurs in destination areas which, have natural and/or man-made features, attracting non-local visitors and/or tourists for different activities. From this perspective, destinations act as suppliers, providing tourists with activities (Jovicic, 2016). Burkart and Medlik (1981) hold that a tourism destination has a self-contained centre, whether a specific town, city, or larger-scale area such as a country or a continent. However, this view is not analysed comprehensively due to geographic boundaries, and these tourism destinations can be defined at multiple scales.

It is important to mention Marshall's industrial district model before tourism destinations as an industry district (Jovicic, 2016); initially, the concept of the industrial district is often used in modern industrial economies, denoting the agglomeration of specialised industries in specific locations. Russo and Segre (2009) subsequently connect tourism destinations with the industrial district model, addressing the importance of the cultural dimensions which are apparent in industrial districts due to their inter-corporate connections; these improve physical and socio-cultural connections, supporting cooperation and the exchange of knowledge and skills. Therefore, the development of tourism destinations can be easily understood through the industry district model, in particular the way in which various tourism-related attractions, businesses, and services collaborate to generate wealth, representing a vocation for local people by exploiting local resources (Jovicic, 2016). However, there is the potential for social conflict in tourism-directed communities (Yang, Ryan & Zhang, 2013); for example, conflict between the indigenous owners of the land and investors and conflict between tourists and locals regarding limited resources (Jovicic, 2016).

Furthermore, from a systemic approach for a better understanding of tourism destinations. Butler (1999) questions whether tourism has long been isolated

from the world, and whether its situation of tourism be changed, thus a systemic approach is proposed in order to develop a holistic understanding of tourist destinations. Wall (1996) notes that tourism destinations feature vertical and horizontal integration with the provision of a wide variety of interrelated services, certain infrastructural requirements such as transport to, from, and within destinations, accommodation and attractions. Howie (2003) notes that tourism destinations have a strong connection with the tourism market and its competitive, socio-economic, and ecological environment, with the exception of attractions, tourist accommodation, and transportation within destinations.

Cooper and Hall (2016) define a more comprehensive tourism destination system, comprising three elements, i.e.: location, locale, and sense of place. Location is a specific point of the globe, locale refers to a material or physical setting for daily social relations, actions, and interactions of different people, also, , meaning urban setting and 'scapes' of various kinds such as landscapes, servicescapes, streetscapes and experiencescapes (Cooper & Hall, 2016). Specifically, the term 'scape' refers to a location or a view, along with emotion and consumption, which produces tourist experiences. 'Sense of place' refers to personal, subjective, and emotional connections and relationships between places and people, reflecting the feelings about the physical and social dimension of the community where people inhabit. Cooper and Hall's model takes into account different aspects or characteristics of tourism destinations, such as their geographic, marketing, and social-cultural environments, hence, this approach provides a more comprehensive understanding of what a destination is.

Moreover, tourism destinations are becoming smarter with the emergence and application of ICTs (Boes, Buhalis & Inversini, 2015). A smart destination is defined as a knowledge-based destination, in which ICTs are used to provide information and knowledge in a technological manner, facilitating the immediate organisation of tourism activities. A smart tourism destination emphasises the importance of human resources and innovation, aligned with cooperation and collaboration at both local and regional levels (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003).

Pearce (2014) uses an integrative conceptual framework to interpret destination, focusing on three different dimensions i.e. geographic, mode of production, and dynamic. Table 2.1 illustrates the independence and interconnectedness of this framework. The geographic dimension of destination includes two attributes related to space, i.e.: spatial concentration and colocation of specialised tourism firms and activities, spatial extent and subsystems, and place, meaning elements such as cultural characteristics, social and geographical embeddedness, and a tourism resource. The dimension of the mode of production emphasises the function of destinations,

including structural, behavioural elements and individual actors.

 Pearce (2014) interprets the structural element of production, concurring with other researchers on definition of destination from clusters and industrial districts, including colocation and proximity of tourism firms and related institutions (Hjalager, 2000). Furthermore, interpretation of structural relationship is interdependence between travel companies to provide complementary products and services within the destination for tourists, meeting all their travel requirements (Denicolai, Cioccarelli & Zucchella, 2010; Ivaniš, 2011). Actors involved in the mode of production are different groups of stakeholders i.e.: tourism firms, local authorities, other public institutions, tourists, and residents. The latter two stakeholders' groups are, however, less frequently included. The dynamic dimension of this integrative framework of destination highlights its inherently dynamic nature within destinations.

Table 2.1 Dimensions and Elements of Destinations (Pearce, 2014)

Geographic dimension	Space	Spatial concentration and colocation; spatial extent; spatial scales; subsystems.
	Place	Cultural characteristics including social embeddedness.
Mode of production	Structure Behaviour Actors	Interdependence, complementarity. Cooperative, competitive. Tourism firms, local authorities, and tourists
Dynamic dimension	Structural driving factors	Cultural, economic, adaptation, innovation.

Pearce (2014, p.149) interprets the integrative framework: as "a dynamic, geographically based mode of production that provides interdependent and complementary products to tourists and transforms the spaces and places in which this production occurs." Saraniemi and Kylänen (2011) define destination from two different perspectives, i.e.: conventional views of tourism destinations, and an alternative view: sociocultural construction of destination. In contrast, the five different approaches of Jovicic (2016), they categorize economic geography-oriented research, marketing management-oriented research and customer-oriented research into conventional views of tourism destinations.

In geography-oriented research, destinations are regarded as specific geographical areas, such as countries, islands or towns (Burkart & Medlik, 1981). In terms of economic geography-oriented research, Saraniemi and Kylänen (2011) provide an illustration of the destination as a dynamic environment, presented below in Figure 2.2, emphasising the tourist's movement and development, with their motivations, and the different elements

of their final destinations.
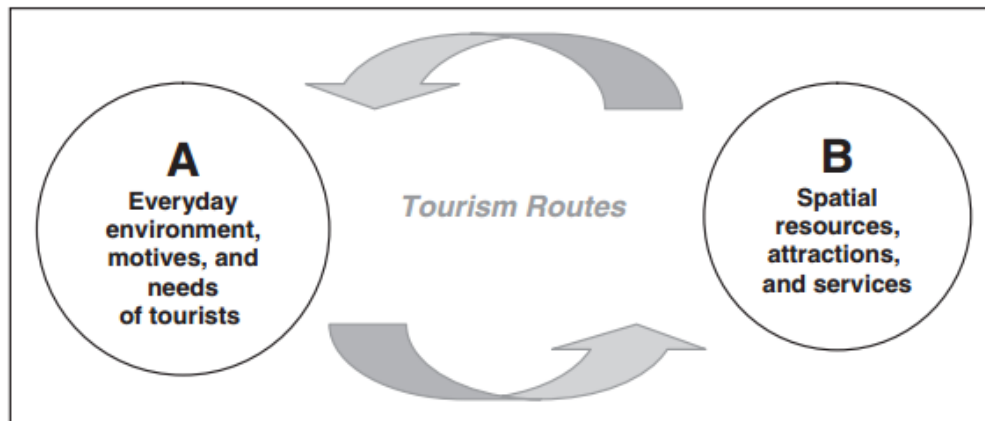
Figure 2.2 Economic geography-oriented research on destination (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011)

According to marketing management-oriented research, destination is regarded as a traditional commodity product (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011); tourism products consist of separate components which comprise a complete, layered product. Service providers such as, travel firms, produce services for tourists, with tourists purchasing services to meet their own aims within destinations. Overall, destinations are agglomerations of different facilities and services to meet tourists' needs (Cooper *et al.*, 2005). Marketing management-oriented research appears to focus on tourists' demands, although it highlights the key assumptions which veil the traditional modernist concept of a tourist destination.

In customer-oriented research, there are three arguments by which to interpret the destination. Firstly, it can be defined as a combination of intangible services, sensory and psychological benefits, and other tangible elements; this argument focuses less on the service environment. Secondly, tourists or customers' values are the core of tourism products, thus this argument focuses on the creation of prerequisites for experience from the distinct service modules available from different service providers. Models of service systems, customer-oriented products have their special features such as image, place, service staff, and hospitality. Thirdly, from a service marketing perspective, different companies, distributors, intermediaries, managers and/or marketers and public organisations are customer-oriented, focusing on customer value (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011). Saraniemi and Kylänen (2011) hold contrasting view of the destination, defining it from a sociocultural construction perspective; adopting the cultural approach to marketing to demonstrate destination demonstrates that tourism destination is not a static concept, instead being mobile market positioned beyond the strict distinction between economic and sociological agenda. Before the operationalisation of destination, it is necessary to review about the widely

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accepted arguments on destination research. Table 2.2 below represents the major arguments on destinations.

Table 2.2 Key Arguments on Definition of Destinations Source: Author's own

Year	Author(s)	Key arguments
1999	(Butler)	Tourism has long been isolated; this situation should be changed.
2002	(Mill & Morrison)	Destinations feature a mixture of independent elements thus they comprises different elements.
2002	(Framke)	The concept of destination should be understood from both economic perspective and socio-culturally-oriented perspectives.
2003	(Howie)	TA destination should meet certain criteria to be considered as such.
2003	(Ritchie & Crouch)	For all destinations, the balanced progress of all their elements , such as economic, social, cultural, political, technological, and environmental mechanisms, is regarded as one of their determinants.
2007	(Schianetz, Kavanagh & Lockington)	Destination ranges from whole countries and states to resorts and small tourist sites.
2013	(Laesser & Beritelli)	Destinations can be understood as geographical entities, vendor clusters or potential networks; a vendor network responds to visitors' needs. In essence, these are productive social systems with specific business and non-business-related goals.
2016	(Jovicic)	Destination is viewed as an industrial district because it consists in part of the agglomeration of tourism-related businesses.

From the above summary of definitions of destination, its understanding can be interpreted from multiple aspects. Firstly, destinations can be categorised on the basis of their features, with urban tourism destinations and scenic spot destinations being two distinct types (Cui, 2001). Secondly, examination of destinations through aa social-cultural lens reveals that they are the products of service production concepts, in which consumers or tourists collaboratively engage in creating various experience or service outputs (Framke, 2002). Thirdly, from a geographical perspective, destinations are defined as places which cater for tourists' needs during their absence from home, offering entertainment and access to different locales. Finally, viewing destinations as industry districts highlights them as areas in which tourism firms aggregate to

provide attractions, activities, and services, leveraging local resources in order to generate economic opportunities and support residents' livelihoods.

In the light of the above analysis on the understanding of destinations, they can be understood as the combination of the social-cultural and geographical perspectives for this study. Destination is defined as a place which meets tourists' leisure and experiential needs during their absence from home.

2.2.2 Research on Destinations

In view of the importance of destinations to the tourism industry, various studies about destinations focus on diverse topics, such as destination image, destination branding, destination marketing organisations (DMOs), and innovation in the location.

2.2.2.1 Research on Definitions of Destinations

Prior studies define destinations from various perspectives; for example, Framke (2002) views destination as two agglomerations. In one respect, destination is seen as a dynamic agglomeration of attractions and services, while in another, it is considered as a dynamic agglomeration of attractions, culture, events, landscapes, and services. Jovicic (2016) explores the evolution of the definition of destination, with a particular emphasis on geographical features and a systematic approach, highlighting the fact that although defining a destination through its geographical features is a common perspective and represents key components of its nature base, it is not exhaustive.

Despite its popularity, the geographical perspective alone may not provide a comprehensive understanding of destination. Javier de la Ballina Ballina (2021) introduces the 'SmartMax' model to define destination, conceptualising it as flows which connect tourists with their point of departure and vice versa. The model incorporates four connectors, i.e.: short internal flows, middle flows, short or middle external flows, and long external flows. These connectors are instrumental in explaining the flexibility of a destination, including factors such as length of stay, tourist' services, and attractions.

2.2.2.2 Destination Image

The second major topic is destination image; this plays a pivotal role in influencing various aspects such as selection of destinations, on-site experiences, and the satisfaction of repeat tourists, along with their likelihood of recommending the destination to others (Arabadzhyan, Figini & Vici, 2021). Previous studies consistently demonstrate the positive impact of destination

image on intention to recommend;. Prayag *et al.* (2017b) highlight its positive influence, while Afshardoost and Eshaghi (2020) conduct a meta-analysis which confirms the significant effect of destination image on recommendations across multiple studies.

There are, however, also instances in tourism research where destination image is found to exert negative impacts; Deng, Peng and Shen (2021) identify a negative correlation of macro-destination image and revisit intention among residents of Guangdong Province, China. Similarly, Kani *et al.* (2017) identify a negative association between perceived risks and destination image in Malaysia. It is noteworthy that the impacts on destination image vary depending on research methodologies, locations, contacts, and mediator roles, as highlighted by Ageeva and Foroudi (2019), who discuss how destination image influences both supply and demand sides, affecting travellers' behaviour. They propose that modern authentic lifestyles allow individuals to establish emotional connections with places, contributing to a positive image. Beerli and Martín (2004) develop a model demonstrating the various factors which shape the post-visit image of a destination; their findings show that factors such as primary and secondary information sources, motivations, leisure travel experiences, and sociodemographic characteristics all play crucial roles in forming a post-visit image.

2.2.2.3 Destination Marketing

Destination marketing receives a significant attention from researchers, being a critical element of tourism (Kozak & Buhalis, 2019) by constituting an operational function to attract tourists to localities in the highly competitive business environment (Pike & Page, 2014b). Previous studies show different perspectives on destination marketing, including celebrity endorsement (Li, Liu & Xie, 2022; Roy, Dryl & de Araujo Gil, 2021), and collaboration and partnerships (Perkins, Khoo-Lattimore & Arcodia, 2021; Zhang *et al.*, 2022a).

Regarding celebrity endorsements, Roy, Dryl and de Araujo Gil (2021) investigate the impact of endorsements of this nature on consumers in destination marketing, using theories of source credibility, congruence, social identity, and consumer cosmopolitanism. Their findings suggest that celebrity endorsements are effective in destination advertising, with significant cross-country differences in consumer influence on celebrity choice (local or global) and destination type (national or international). Similarly, existing research highlights virtual reality (VR) as a significant tool for destination marketing in the digital era (An, Choi & Lee, 2021). Lin, Huang and Ho (2020) demonstrate the effectiveness of VR as a marketing tool for tier-two cities such as Jinan, indicating its potential to encourage travel to such destinations. However, the effectiveness of VR as a marketing tool varies between different cities and/or countries due to demographic factors and research methodologies.

Buhalis (2000) synthesise various models for the strategic marketing and management of destinations, emphasising the need to balance stakeholders' strategic objectives with the sustainability of local resources. Park and Gretzel (2007) use a qualitative meta-analysis methodology to identify successful factors for destination marketing websites, including information quality, ease of use, responsiveness, security and privacy, visual appearance, trust, interactivity, personalization and fulfilment.

2.2.2.4 Destinations and Destinations Marketing Organizations (DMOs)

Destination marketing organisations (DMOs) play an important roles in tourism destinations (Tian, 2014), because they work as vehicles to facilitate destinations' competitiveness, attracting visitors for their own characteristics (Pike & Page, 2014c). Current literature investigates DMOs from various aspects: Blain, Levy and Ritchie (2005) contend that, although DMOs grasp the concept of destination branding, the majority pay attention only to the destinations' logo design. Some studies focus on the relationships between destinations and DMOs; Bornhorst, Ritchie and Sheehan (2010) examine the notion of tourism success and its correlation within Canadian destinations' DMOs. Nonetheless, ultimately advocating for further investigation to explore destinations and DMOs in other countries.

Hristov, Scott and Minocha (2018) use a cross-disciplinary approach to investigate the adoption of distributed leadership within DMOs; their study use Milton Keynes, a destination in England, as a case by which to evaluate leadership development. Mandić and Kennell (2021) focus on heritage tourism to investigate the factors affecting DMOs' perspectives on smart tourism governance. Their study indicates that smart tourism governance is not necessarily beneficial to well-developed DMOs, because they already excel in various aspects of smart tourism governance. However, their study highlights other aspects of smart tourism governance such as social inclusion, and environmental performance, which could help mature DMOs to further develop heritage tourism through a mixed-methods approach. However, the study fails to investigate the impacts of smart tourism governance on less-developed destinations, despite acknowledging that DMOs could leverage smart tourism governance in order to promote destination development.

Gálvez-Rodríguez *et al.* (2020) propose that DMOs should use social networking sites to enhance tourist engagement, particularly within the context of local European DMOs. Their study suggests that online interaction is particularly useful during the low season, emphasising the importance of

focusing on the destination's natural resources and using video formats and positive sentiments within posts. The optimum timing for posts, being recommended as weekends, evenings, and nights. However, the study acknowledges the fact that online engagement in DMOs occurs in a dynamic environment, with post viewing posting statistics differing due to cultural disparities and time differences between countries.

2.2.2.5 Destinations and Destination Branding

Research on destination branding has increased both in terms of volume and contents (Dioko, 2016), with two streams emerging. The first adopts an integral framework to study destination branding holistically; this includes brand awareness, image, and loyalty, which form overall brand equity. In contrast, the second stream focuses on understanding the ideal image of DMOs and the steps required to strengthen the brands of specific destinations. Currie (2020) measures organic and induced destination image, suggesting that branding efforts can improve destination image even when there is negative perception of a country.

With tourists increasingly relying on the Internet for information relevant to tourism and destination choices (Khan & Fatma, 2021), researchers are paying attention to online destination branding experiences. Khan and Fatma (2021) develop a model linking online destination brand experience, destination brand authenticity, affective commitment, and word-of-mouth (WOM), highlighting the moderating effect of culture. Zhang *et al.* (2021) affirm that live performances are crucial tools for the delivery local symbols to tourists and the building of destination brands. They conclude that such performances enhance destination brand equity by connecting tourists with flow experiences, facilitated by creative performances, visual appeal, cultural contact, and authenticity. Despite the increased amount of research on destination branding, further studies could explore WOM and social media in the promotion of destination brands and their relationships.

2.2.2.6 Destinations and the COVID-19 Pandemic

The COVID-19 pandemic has sparked considerable scholarly interest as a global crisis (Abdillah *et al.*, 2022). Its impact on the tourism industry has been profound, with travel restrictions and lockdowns bringing the sector to a halt (Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, 2021b; Wong, Ou & Wilson, 2021). Consequently, there has been a significant shift in tourism destinations, prompting extensive research into the impacts of the pandemic across various dimensions such as social media (Itani & Hollebeek, 2021), and tourist satisfaction levels (Durmaz, Çayırağası & Çopuroğlu, 2022; Humagain & Singleton, 2021). Cambra-Fierro *et al.* (2022a) explore the correlation between DMO-generated and tourist-

generated communication on factors such as destination awareness, destination imagery, and health and safety. Although their findings suggest a positive effect of DMO-generated communication on these factors, the study is limited to the specific destination, Madrid in Spain, leaving the broader impact on diverse cultural destinations unclear.

Li *et al.* (2021b) analyse online ticket sales data in order to understand how the COVID-19 pandemic has influenced tourists' destination choices in post-lockdown era, identifying a tendency to avoid high-risk destinations and opt for local attractions. However, the study focuses on seven southern Chinese provinces with varying levels of economic status, thus raising questions about its generalisability. Economic factors also come into play, with regions of higher economic development being likely to attract more tourists (Ruan & Zhang, 2021), potentially skewing tourist numbers across different provinces. Pachucki, Grohs and Scholl-Grissemann (2022) examine the impact of the pandemic on destination communication via social media, noting significant changes in linguistic features and increased engagement metrics. Although their insights are valuable for crisis communication strategies, it is crucial to consider platform-specific nuances in view of the variations in social media usage (Putzke *et al.*, 2014).

Given the discussion on various destinations-related topics, Table 2.3 below provides a summary of the above-mentioned groups. Discussions about destinations cover a broad spectrum of topics, ranging from geographical features to economic impacts, marketing strategies, and governmental policies. Scholars emphasise the multi-faceted nature of destination management, highlighting the need for a holistic approach that integrates considerations beyond mere visitor numbers and revenue generation. Despite the emphasis on economic metrics, there is a call for greater attention to be paid to innovativeness and the fostering of innovation within destination management, which suggests a shift in focus towards more sustainable and inclusive development practices, particularly in smaller cities and regions in which innovative strategies play a pivotal role in enhancing destination's competitiveness and resilience.

Table 2. 3 Key prominent themes on destination

Themes	Chinese authors	Western authors
Concept of destination	(Jiang & Zheng, 2007; Jin, Weber & Bauer, 2012; Jing, 2008; Qu & Qu, 2015; Wu, Lan & Lee, 2012; Xiao & Mair, 2006; Zhang *et al.*, 2011)	(Flagestad & Hope, 2001; Framke, 2002b; Kielar & Borrmann, 2016; Kozak & Huan, 2002; Mihalič, 2013; Qu, Kim & Im, 2011; Ritchie, 1993; Ruzzier, 2010; Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011b; Schianetz, Kavanagh &

		Lockington, 2007(Javier de la Ballina Ballina, 2021))
Destination image	(Chen & Tsai, 2007b; Choi, Chan & Wu, 1999; Chon, 1990; Deng, Peng & Shen, 2021; Gibson, Qi & Zhang, 2008; Pan & Li, 2011; Shani *et al.*, 2010; Song, An & Zheng, 2006; Tseng *et al.*, 2015; Wu & Song, 2001; Xiao & Zhao, 2009; Zhang *et al.*, 2011)	(Afshardoost & Eshaghi, 2020; Ageeva & Foroudi, 2019; Alrawadieh, Alrawadieh & Kozak, 2019; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Chen & Tsai, 2007b; Chi & Qu, 2008; Gallarza, Saura & García, 2002; Marques, Vinhas da Silva & Antova, 2021; Oliveira & Huertas-Roig, 2019; Pike, 2002; Qu, Dong & Gao, 2022)
Destination marketing	(Feng, Morrison & Ismail, 2004; Jing, 2008; Li & Wang, 2010; Shani *et al.*, 2010; Wang, Li & Li, 2013a; Xiao, 2013; Yang & Wang, 2015b)	(An, Choi & Lee, 2021; Buhalis, 2000; d'Angella & Go, 2009; Hays, Page & Buhalis, 2013; Hudson & Ritchie, 2006; Marasco *et al.*, 2018a; Nguyen & Pearce, 2015; Park & Gretzel, 2007; Roy & Attri, 2022; Roy, Dryl & de Araujo Gil, 2021; Wang & Krakover, 2008)
Destination management organisations (DMO)	(Gao & Wu, 2017; Li & Wang, 2010; Qi, Law & Buhalis, 2008; Tian, 2014; Wang, Li & Li, 2013b; Yang & Wang, 2015a)	(Gálvez-Rodríguez *et al.*, 2020; Gretzel *et al.*, 2006; Hristov, Scott & Minocha, 2018; Köchling, 2021; Li & Wang, 2010; Mandić & Kennell, 2021; Mariani, Di Felice & Mura, 2016; Pike & Page, 2014d; Tian, 2014; Zach, 2012)
Destination branding	(Cai, Qiu & Li, 2007; Cheng, Fang & Chen, 2016; Fan, 2014; Guan & Cheng, 2006; Hsu & Cai, 2009; Xu *et al.*, 2021; Zhang, Qi & Qi, 2021; Zhang & Zhao, 2009)	(Currie, 2020; García, Gómez & Molina, 2012; Khan & Fatma, 2021; Lee & Arcodia, 2011; María Munar, 2011; Perkins, Khoo-Lattimore & Arcodia, 2020; Pike, 2005; Rodríguez-Molina *et al.*, 2019; Ruiz-Real, Uribe-Toril & Gázquez-Abad, 2020; Stephens Balakrishnan, 2008)
Destination and Coronavirus (Covid-19)	(Huang *et al.*, 2021; Li *et al.*, 2021b; Lu & Atadil, 2021; Wan *et al.*, 2022;	(Bhaskara & Filimonau, 2021; Bulchand-Gidumal, 2022; Cambra-Fierro *et al.*,

| | Yang *et al.*, 2021) | 2022a; Cambra-Fierro *et al.*, 2022b; Durmaz, Çayırağası & Çopuroğlu, 2022; Gallego, Font & González-Rodríguez, 2022; Hassan & Soliman, 2021; Mayer *et al.*, 2021; Pachucki, Grohs & Scholl-Grissemann, 2022; Pahrudin, Chen & Liu, 2021; Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, 2021a; Zhu *et al.*, 2022) |

<div align="right">Source: Author's own</div>

2.3 Innovation

The term 'innovation' originates from the Latin noun *'innovatus'* meaning renewed or changed (Brooker & Joppe, 2014); It is found in different disciplines, including economics, sociology, management studies. Growing numbers of researchers and scholars are focusing on innovative activities in the tourism and hospitality industry both in Western and Chinese literature (Chen, 2011; D'Arcy, Omar & Avenir, 2015; Hjalager, 2010; Kozak, 2014; Song, 2012). Currently, organisations and companies are facing a fast-changing, information-explosive, and competitive society which urges them to be innovative. However, there is a general lack of a standard definition of innovation (Adams, Bessant & Phelps, 2006; Baregheh, Rowley & Sambrook, 2009; Brooker & Joppe, 2014; Cooper, 1998; Hjalager, 2010; Zairi, 1994). This section seeks to define and conceptualise innovation, identifying different categories of it; innovation is also discussed in the context of tourism, considering various.

2.3.1 Defining Innovation

The definitions of innovation are varied within Western literature. Shumpeter (1968) defines innovation in different categories, dividing it into five types:

(1) Introduction and development of a new product, or product innovation;
(2) Introduction of a new method for new products, or process innovation;
(3) Opening of a new market, or marketing innovation;
(4) New sources for newly-introduced products, or input innovation;
(5) Introduction of new organisational forms, or organisational innovation.

Schumpeter's definition of innovation provides a foundation for scholars to understand what innovation is, and how it is applied in different areas of study both in China and Western countries, also highlighting essential features for firms to put into practice (Drejer, 2004).

After Schumpeter's innovation theory, Grønhaug and Kaufmann (1988) define innovation as strategies for companies to become more competitive, meaning that they are more likely to survive and achieve long term development. Compared with Schumpeter's categorisation of innovation, they offer a specific definition of it, albeit partially, focused on companies' competitiveness. The, the European Commission (1995) defines innovation from three different perspectives, i.e.: the re-establishment and expansion of various products, services, and the targeted market, the creation of new means of production, supply, and distribution, the introduction of revolution in the form of management, working organisation, and working environment, plus the skills of the workforce. The European Commission's definition is holistic and comprehensive because it includes both micro and macro levels, the micro level perspective, innovation focuses on products, services, market, and the way to distribute products and services. From the macro level perspective, innovation is more focused on individual the companies themselves, such as changes in their structures and management.

Hall and Williams (2008) define innovation as a process of implementing new ideas for the purpose of cutting costs, improving communication, and/or assembling products. Acceptance and implementation are critical to the definition of innovation because they involve the capacity to change and adapt. Accordingly, some different definitions of innovation are categorised by different disciplines in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4 Definitions of Innovation categorized by various disciplines

Year	Author(s)	Definition	Discipline
1965	(Thompson)	Innovation means the generation, acceptance and application of new ideas, products, and services	Organisational studies
1967	(Becker & Whisler)	Innovation is a process which follows invention, but it is distinct from design, while innovation is the employment of an idea by an organisation with similar goals.	Business and management
1986	(Van de Ven)	Innovation is an idea that is perceived as new by the people involved, and it may be imitated elsewhere.	Business and management
1987	(Nord & Tucker)	Innovation is the application of new technology to the provision of products or services.	Technology, science and engineering
1994	(Zahra & Covin)	Innovation is commonly viewed as the lifeblood of companies, enabling them to survive and grow.	Business and management
1995	(Commission)	Innovation is a function of	General

		successful exploration and the exploitation of novelty in the social and economic sphere.	
1996	(Damanpour)	Innovation includes different commercial types, such as new products or services, new technology, new organisational system, administrative systems, and/or new plans.	Business and management
1996	(West & Anderson)	Innovation is the effective implementation of processes and products new to an organisation; it benefits a company and its stakeholders.	Business and management
2004	(Chen, Zhu & Xie)	Innovation is a critical factor for a company to retain its long-term competitive advantage.	Economy
2011	(Rujirawanich, Addison & Smallman)	Innovation is defined as the process of the introduction and application of various activities, such as ideas, products, services, rules, and procedures, related and new to organisations, designed to generate benefit for them.	Business and management
2012	(Kim & Lee)	Innovation is understood as the application of new knowledge, ideas, methods, and skills to generate unique capabilities and to become more competitive.	Organisational studies
2018	(Jia, Durrani & Chen)	Innovation means efforts to introduce, modify, promote, and implement creative ideas.	Leadership and creativity
2019	(Garney *et al.*)	Innovation refers to the development new products, technologies, techniques, and services in order to meet consumers' needs.	Business and engineering

Source: Author's own

On reviewing various definitions of innovation, it becomes apparent that scholars approach the concept from diverse disciplinary perspectives, yet they converge on common characteristics. Innovation is not a static notion, instead being a dynamic process by which companies introduce novel ideas, services, or products (Becker & Whisler, 1967; Rujirawanich, Addison & Smallman, 2011). It is intrinsically linked to modern technology, serving as a catalyst for organisational profitability.

However, within the service industry context, there is a pressing need for a refined definition of innovation. Building on the existing body of literature, this

research study defines innovation as a multi-faceted process including the development, application, and/or implementation of novel ideas and/or services leveraging cutting-edge technology, management systems, or skills. Its primary objective is to enhance performance and efficiency, aligning with contemporary demands for sustainable growth and competitive advantage.

2.3.2 Innovation in the Tourism and Hospitality Industry

The importance of innovation in the tourism and hospitality industry is both undeniable and multi-faceted (Gomezelj, 2016). The advent of information communication technologies (ICTs), tourists now have greater experiential knowledge and a wider range of destination options (Page & Hall, 2014), thereby exerting pressure on destinations to continuously innovate. In the current rapidly-evolving, information-rich, and fiercely competitive global landscape, both destinations and organisations are compelled to adapt to survive (Scheidegger, 2006). Mature destinations, in particular, need to embrace innovative practices in order to attract visitors and maintain their market competitiveness. Consequently, innovation emerges as a pivotal force driving growth and sustainability within the tourism and hospitality sector.

Initially, Schumpeter's theory of innovation in economic development is viewed as a theoretical research framework for the tourism and hospitality industry (Maráková & Medved'ová, 2016), although other types of innovation exist in the tourism and hospitality industry. Meanwhile, the majority of researchers focus on product and process innovations. Abernathy and Clark (1985) propose four types of innovation in the tourism sector:

1. Regular: investigating to enhance productivity, to train and enable employees to improve efficiency, quality, and standards;

2. Niche: attracting entrepreneurs to exploit business opportunities and encouraging firms to network in the market and develop new goods and services based on existing products;

3. Revolutionary: to implementing new methods in the market by using and diffusing new technologies.

4. Architectural: devising new events and attractions by introducing the redefinition of infrastructure and the efficient transfer and use of new research-based knowledge, with all processes performed optimally.

Hjalager (1997) sub-divides five types of innovation on the basis of existing literature, i.e.: product innovations, classical process innovations, process innovations in information handling, management innovations and institutional innovations. Hjalager (2010) subsequently propose five different types of

innovation in the tourism sector:

1. Product or service innovations: changes that can be observed or perceived by tourists and other customers, with the term 'new' referring to concepts never seen or simply inherent to the specific enterprise or destination; these innovations are, to some extent, beneficial to consumers if they make decisions simply based on the novelty of the goods or services;

2. Process innovations: these are typically backstage initiatives designed to enhance efficiency, productivity, and workflow, with technological investments being their main factor:

3. Managerial innovations: new ways of organising internal collaboration, directing, and empowering staff, building careers and compensating work with remuneration and benefits, improving workplace satisfaction and nurturing internal knowledge and competence assets. The most challenging aspect of managerial innovation in many tourism enterprises is to develop new ways in which to retain staff, maintain flexibility and control costs;

4. Management innovations: elaboration and introduction of loyalty programmes and the co-production of brands;

5. Institutional innovations: new collaborative/organisational structures, such as clusters, networks, and alliances.

Brooker and Joppe (2014) propose a different category of innovation types within tourism, i.e.: 'painter', 'artisan', and 'artist'. Figure 2.3 presents the major characteristics of each role. The 'painter' represents operators, administrators, and organisations in the sector, while 'artisans' are more creative in the developing new ideas than actors. An 'artist' provides a unique type of art because they are creative whilst being immune to existing reality, looking beyond. Although the painter, artisan, and artist have different roles, these types of innovation inevitably all occur in the context of tourism.

	Painter	Artisan	Artist
Horizon focus	Now	New	Next
Change artist	Imitate	Differentiate	Innovate
Sector position	Inside	Inside	Outside
Change preference	Status quo	Periodic challenge of status quo	Disrupts status quo
Rogers's diffusion	Majority (early/late)	Early adopter	Innovator
Rogers's percentage	68% of population	13.5% of population	2.5% of population
Primary question	What?	How?	Why?
Network ties	Strong	Not as strong	Weak
Focus	Short term	Medium term	Long term
Focus on	Tangible	Potential	Intangible
Focus on	Either/or	And	Neither
Perspective	See black/white	See grey	See between spaces
Disrupt status quo	Minimal	Periodic	Ongoing
Knowledge level	Codified	Codified/Tacit	Tacit
Research investment	Minimal	Periodic $ and time for travel, networking	Most expensive, ongoing search
Risk	Avoid risk	Minimize risk	Calculated risk
Results time frame	Annually	Three to four years	Five to eight years
Job creation	Unlikely	Potentially	Yes
Target ratio of resource investment	70%	20%	10%

Figure 2.3 Painter, artisan, and artist characteristics Source: Brooker and Joppe (2014)

However, it is challenging to distinguish the different types of innovation due to the interplay between the different categories (Hjalager, 2010; Weiermair, 2006). For example, technological investments are necessary for organisations to improve and enhance services; technology also affects the ways in which marketing is undertaken (Buhalis, 2004), being treated as process innovations. Consequently, this leads to the breakdown of borders between categories (Mattsson *et al.*, 2005; Novelli, Schmitz & Spencer, 2006; Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003).

The number of studies concerning innovation in the tourism and hospitality industry has increased in both Chinese and English context (e.g.Carlisle *et al.*, 2013; Chen, 2017; Martínez-Pérez *et al.*, 2019; Romão & Nijkamp, 2019; Verreynne *et al.*, 2019). The existing body of literature can be categorised by topics. Table 2. 5 presents the existing research on innovation within the context of the tourism and hospitality industry.

Table 2.5 Prominent themes within innovation research

Theme	Chinese authors	Western authors
Systematic review on innovation from different aspects	(Peng & Lai, 2014; Wang, 2002b; Xu, Liu & Liang, 2017; Zhou, 2018; Zhou, 2014)	(D'Arcy, Omar & Avenir, 2015; Gomezelj, 2016; Hall & Williams, 2008; Hjalager, 2010; Lelo de Larrea *et al.*, 2021; Marasco *et al.*, 2018b; Medina-Muñoz, Medina-Muñoz & Zúñiga-Collazos, 2013)
Technology	(Lu *et al.*, 2015; Luo & Liu, 2014; Wang, 2002a; Wang,	(Aldebert, Dang & Longhi, 2011; Ashcroft *et al.*, 2019;

	So & Sparks, 2017a; Yang, 2008)	Budiasa, Suparta & Nadra, 2018; Casais, Fernandes & Sarmento, 2020; Chen *et al.*, 2022b; da Costa Liberato, Alén-González & de Azevedo Liberato, 2018; Karanasios & Burgess, 2008; Kim, Lee & Preis, 2020; Koliouska *et al.*, 2016; Sigala, 2012; Sigala & Chalkiti, 2014; Talwar *et al.*, 2022; Torrent-Sellens *et al.*, 2016)
Demand-side view	(Li & He, 2022; Li & Di, 2021; Li *et al.*, 2022; Liu, 2020; Pai *et al.*, 2021; Tao *et al.*, 2018; Wang, So & Sparks, 2017b)	(Elshaer & Marzouk, 2022; Ghaderi, Hatamifar & Henderson, 2018; Han, Tom Dieck & Jung, 2019b; Latorre *et al.*, 2021; Punnasuparom & Choibamroong, 2020; Solima & Izzo, 2018; Taghizadeh *et al.*, 2022; Zollo *et al.*, 2021)
Supply-side view	(Chan, Go & Pine, 1998; Gu, Duverger & Yu, 2017; Liu *et al.*, 2022a; Wang, Font & Liu, 2020)	(Ek Styvén *et al.*, 2022; Erkuş-Öztürk & Terhorst, 2016; Freund & Hernandez-Maskivker, 2021; Lee, Hallak & Sardeshmukh, 2019; Sorokina *et al.*, 2022; Tajeddini, Martin & Altinay, 2020; Xie *et al.*, 2020)
Small and medium-sized enterprises	(Chan, 2011; Chan & Quah, 2008; Hsu, Hsieh & Yuan, 2013; Qiu Zhang & Morrison, 2007; Tang, 2006; Xie *et al.*, 2013; Yang, Li & Bai, 2013)	(Binder *et al.*, 2013; Cranmer *et al.*, 2021; Durmusoglu *et al.*, 2018; Eriksen, 2015; Hsu, Hsieh & Yuan, 2013; Lee, Pung & Del Chiappa, 2022; Lindsay-Smith *et al.*, 2022; Martínez-Román *et al.*, 2015; Mbatha & Ngwenya, 2018; Muslikh, Byarwati & Hidayati, 2016; Omerzel & Jurdanab, 2016; Orantes-Jiménez & Vázquez-Álvarez, 2015; Tejada & Moreno, 2013; Torrent-Sellens *et al.*, 2016;

		Verreynne *et al.*, 2019)

Studies on innovation within the tourism and hospitality sector cover a broad range of themes, including definitions, various types of innovation, and the critical factors and determinants influencing the innovation processes. Hjalager (2010) investigate the various categories of innovation and its essential determinants in the tourism industry, while D'Arcy, Omar and Avenir (2015) undertake a comprehensive review, examining innovation implementation across diverse domains such as ICTs, management practices, and educational frameworks, spanning from rural to urban contexts. Their longitudinal analysis illustrates the evolving nature of innovation within tourism and hospitality services.

Gomezelj (2016) contributes to the field through a systematic review which employs bibliometric analysis, confirming the pivotal role of innovation in driving business and regional competitiveness; their study, based on examination of 152 published papers, emphasises the significance of innovativeness for sustained success in the industry. Marasco *et al.* (2018b) offers insights into collaborative innovation within tourism and hospitality, categorizing studies into five distinct groups, including cooperative behaviours, co-creation processes, collaborative networks, knowledge transfer mechanisms, and innovation policies. Their systematic review provides both a comprehensive understanding of collaborative innovation dynamics and also valuable directions for future research endeavours within each thematic area.. Various studies focus on technology within the tourism and hospitality industry, reflecting the increasing adoption of ICTs across businesses; this surge in technological integration comprises various facets, including website development, social media engagement, e-booking platforms, and email communication, all of which are vital to facilitate business operations and distribution channels within the industry. Particularly noteworthy amid the COVID-19 pandemic are studies on virtual reality (VR) tourism and other unconventional innovative practices, which have affected significant attention from both practitioners and researchers. Talwar *et al.* (2022) highlight the under-explored realm of VR tourism from consumers' perspectives, proposing a theoretical framework rooted in expectancy theory to demonstrate the motivational dynamics which drive pro-environmental behaviours among tourists.

Kim, Lee and Preis (2020) incorporate innovation and gratification theories to develop a model which illustrates the reasons for tourists' participation in VR tourism. Their study examines the effects of simplicity, benefit, and compatibility, i.e. the attributes of innovation diffusion on authentic experience and subjective well-being, revealing that the association between innovation diffusion and subject well-being is stronger than that between innovation

diffusion and authentic experience. The use of ICTs as an innovative practice attracts researchers' attention, featuring various articles on the use of ICTs (e.g. da Costa Liberato, Alén-González & de Azevedo Liberato, 2018; Gössling, 2020; Marino & Pariso, 2021). Aldebert, Dang and Longhi (2011) use the annual tourism event, 'Tourism@', as a case study to provide the empirical evidence of the use of ICTs, with their study confirming the concentrated applications in the tourism sector. The existing studies acknowledge the use of ICT, confirming the importance and potential to enhance the efficiency and help tourism businesses, helping them to develop and enlarge their markets (Gomezelj, 2016).

Prior studies also investigate innovation from both supply-side and demand-side within the industry. The demand-side perspective primarily focuses on tourists' experiences and satisfaction levels across diverse contexts; Wang, Cole and Chen (2018) identify and validate dimensions of tourist innovation through in-depth interviews and questionnaire surveys, illustrating the nuanced relationship between innovation dimensions and consumer behavioural intentions. Solima and Izzo (2018) examine the impact of technological innovations such as quick response (QR) codes on cultural heritage experiences, illustrating how ICT interventions can enhance tourist enjoyment and engagement, particularly among younger demographics.

However, Punnasuparom and Choibamroong (2020) reveal mixed findings concerning the significance of innovation in online purchasing intentions among tourists, highlighting the complex interplay between innovation and consumer behaviour. Latorre *et al.* (2021) explore product innovation in the form of mycotourism, a novel tourist product linked to rural tourism and offered as an alternative to the use of a forest resource, offering insights into the mycotourists' motivational drivers whilst acknowledging the limitations of their primarily Spanish sample, which constrains the generalisability of their findings.

On the supply side, researchers examine the perspectives of industry managers across different organisational levels, highlighting the critical role of innovation in maintaining competitiveness. Studies by researchers such as Ek Styvén *et al.* (2022) investigate employees' perceptions of innovation within the Swedish tourism and hospitality industry, revealing the pivotal role of creative and innovative work environments in fostering employee satisfaction and loyalty. However, it is important to consider contextual variations, as evidenced by Rodríguez-Pose, Wilkie and Zhang (2021), who suggest that disparities in regional autonomy and technological infrastructure may influence innovation dynamics, particularly between well-developed and less-developed countries. Freund and Hernandez-Maskivker (2021) investigate the gender dimensions of innovation within the tourism industry, emphasising the pivotal role of associations in providing support and opportunities for female

leaders. Xie *et al.* (2020) explore the influence of customer knowledge on service innovation within tourism companies, highlighting the importance of customer orientation and interactive intensity in facilitating knowledge co-creation processes.

A significant body of research focuses on innovation within small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) acknowledging their pivotal role in driving employment opportunities and economic growth. Scholars such as Chan *et al.* (2019) emphasise the multi-faceted nature of innovation within SMEs, ranging from product and process innovations to marketing and organizational innovations. Omerzel and Jurdanab (2016) highlight the importance of intellectual capital dimensions in fostering innovation performance and company growth within the tourism industry, while Cranmer *et al.* (2021) propose an augmented reality (AR) business model tailored to small United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) tourist attractions, emphasizing principles of sustainability and inclusivity. Lee, Pung and Del Chiappa (2022) explore the intricate relationship between tradition, modernity, and innovation within small and medium-sized restaurants, describing various innovation patterns and outcomes across different restaurant types.

2.3.3 Destination Innovation

Wardani and Widodo (2020) acknowledge the fact that destination innovation is a new research topic; The number of relevant articles is limited, with no agreed definition of destination innovation existing. Trunfio and Campana (2019) interpret 'destination innovation' as a complex and evolutionary phenomenon in knowledge-based destinations, which results from the interactions between organisational actors and technology. In this research, organisational actors comprise different levels of political actors, at local, regional, and national levels, destination management organisations, enterprises, and local communities. Although tourist participation is a necessary aspect of the destination (Dmitrović *et al.*, 2009), for some scholars, destination innovation is a model rather than a process in a certain context.

Kuščer, Mihalič and Pechlaner (2017, p.489) specifically develop a mountain destination innovation model, this contends that: "tourism development depends on innovation levels." The mountain destination innovation model is subject to a broad sense of environment, including sociocultural, natural, political, legal, and technical include. Although the limited definitions of destination innovation provide valuable insights into destination innovation, they overlook tourist participation at the destination as a necessary aspect of destination management (Buhalis, 2000; Dmitrović *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, the current body of research interprets destination innovation as a phenomenon from the tourist perspective, and this interpretation is informed

by Trunfio and Campana (2019). Hence, destination innovation is defined as an interactive and evolutionary phenomenon in which tourist can engage, the interaction being between the organisational actors and technology.

Although there are few studies which specifically focus on destination innovation, existing literature within the tourism and hospitality industry predominantly regards innovation as a means by which to enhance competitiveness within destination contexts. (e.g., Ali & Frew, 2014; Borseková, Vaňová & Vitálišová, 2017; Flagestad *et al.*, 2005; Gajdošík *et al.*, 2017; Go & Trunfio, 2011; Halkier, 2014; Kuščer, Mihalič & Pechlaner, 2017; Li, 2016). These studies provide diverse perspectives on destination innovation, which can be examined from both the supply and tourist perspectives.

From the supply side, various stakeholders contribute to innovation literature within destination contexts, including different levels of government (e.g., Halkier, 2014; Mei, Arcodia & Ruhanen, 2015; Svensson, Nordin & Flagestad, 2005), destination management organisations (e.g., Ali & Frew, 2014; Go & Trunfio, 2011; Sheehan *et al.*, 2016), tourist attractions (Weidenfeld, Williams & Butler, 2010), and collaborative partnerships (Zach, 2016).

Researchers explore the tourist perspective investigate the impact of innovation on tourist experiences and satisfaction levels. Scholars recognize the pivotal role of innovation in delivering unique destination experiences and enhancing tourist satisfaction levels. Distinct themes emerge from Western and Chinese research with reference to destination innovation, highlighting the importance of identifying research gaps based on various criteria such as research approach i.e.: qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods, and geographical research areas. Although the significance of innovation in the tourism and hospitality industry is widely acknowledged, there remains a lack of systematic empirical evidence concerning innovative practices, their impacts, and broader implications for destinations (Hjalager, 2010). Studies on these topics are evaluated based on predefined criteria, as outlined in Table 2.6.

Table 2. 6 Studies on innovation in the context of different destination

Year	Author(s)	Tittle	Research Methods	Geographical Area
2002	(Sönmez & Sirakaya)	A distorted destination image? The case of Turkey	Quantitative	Turkey
2004	(Huang)	A study on innovative development of traditional tourism	Qualitative	Sichuan Province (China)

		destination: the case study of Anren in Sichuan Province		
2009	(Monica Hu, Horng & Christine Sun)	Hospitality teams: Knowledge sharing and service innovation performance	Quantitative	Taiwan
2010	(McDowall)	International tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: Bangkok, Thailand	Quantitative	Bangkok (Thailand)
2012	(Dong)	A study on the coupling relationship between inbound tourism flow drive and urban destination response from the perspective of supply and demand: An example of Xian	Qualitative	Shanxi Province (China)
2013	(Li)	The research on the core competitiveness of tourist destinations based on complexity theory: An example of Yunnan Province	Qualitative	Yunnan Province (China)
2013	(Sun, Geng-Qing Chi & Xu)	Developing destination loyalty: The case of Hainan Island	Quantitative	Hainan Island (China)
2015	(Boes, Buhalis & Inversini)	Conceputalising smart tourism destination dimensions	Qualitative	Europe
2015	(Nieves & Segarra-Ciprés)	Management innovation in the hotel industry	Quantitative	Spain
2018	Marasco et al	Collaborative innovation in	Literature review	n/a

		tourism and hospitality: a systematic review of the literature		
2018	(Bagiran Ozseker)	Towards a model of the destination innovation process: an integrative review	Literature review	n/a
2018	(Gardiner & Scott, 2018)	Destination innovation matrix: A framework for new tourism experience and market development	Quantitative and qualitative	Australia
2018	(Pham, Driml & Walters)	Managing seasonality in rural destinations: a case of South Gippsland-Australia	Qualitative	South Gippsland (Australia)
2019	(Andrades & Dimanche)	Destination competitiveness in Russia: tourism professionals 'skills and competences	Quantitative	Russia
2020	(Williams, Rodriguez & Makkonen)	Innovation and smart destinations: Critical insights	Literature review	n/a

Source: Author's own

The existing literature gap in destination innovation research reveals two categories: research methods and geographical focus. The first category, centred on research methods, comprises three groups: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed research methodologies. Among the literature reviews, five papers adopt a discussion format, synthesising findings and conclusions, with only one paper using a mixed research approach. The second category, examining geographical areas, includes various locations, with five articles focusing on different regions of China, notably omitting Hunan province from investigation.

In the prevailing literature on destination innovation, little attention is paid to studies from the tourist perspective, particularly within the Chinese context.; instead, the emphasis is predominantly on the supply perspective. These two identified gaps in destination innovation provide foundations for the dentification of gaps in existing literature on innovativeness. Thus, the

following section investigates innovativeness and identify research gaps.

2.4 Innovativeness

Scholars have recently started to pay attention to innovativeness, and the diffusion theory of innovation (e.g.Ali, Krapfel Jr & LaBahn, 1995; Ariffin & Aziz, 2012; Aziz & Omar, 2013; Barone & Jewell, 2014; Barrena-Figueroa & Garcia-Lopez-de-Meneses, 2012; Bellingkrodt & Wallenburg, 2015; Cho, 2018). There is consensus in existing innovation literature that innovation is an outcome of a company's products and/or services (Crawford & Di Benedetto, 2015). Although consumers may hold different views on it, a purely expert-based view of innovation often fails to provide a solution to consumers' needs(Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971).

However, previous studies show that consumer perceived innovativeness exerts a positive effect on consumer's product evaluation (Barrena-Figueroa & Garcia-Lopez-de-Meneses, 2012) and companies (Hwang & Hyun, 2016). Thus, the term "innovativeness" is more appropriate than "innovation" to investigate consumers' perceptions. Innovativeness has received significant attention in business and management literature (Tajeddini & Trueman, 2008). It is essential to adopt innovativeness in a fast-changing environment. Moreover, a company's innovativeness is an advantage in the marketplace (Camisón & Monfort-Mir, 2012; Kazadi, Lievens & Mahr, 2016).

2.4.1 Distinguishing Innovation and Innovativeness

The researcher distinguishes differences between innovation and innovativeness before defining the latter innovativeness because these terms are used interchangeably uses in the existing body of literature (Garcia & Calantone, 2002). However, Domi, Capelleras and Musabelliu (2020) acknowledge that innovativeness differs from innovation, while Strahl and Sobczak (2017) assert that innovation constitutes the implementation of changes, while innovativeness is the capacity of an organisation to create and implement novel ideas. Innovation is regard as an outcome of a firm's creative activities i.e., new services, goods and markets, while innovativeness is an enduring characteristic, which may not be successful at any one point (Hurley & Hult, 1998). To distinguish between innovativeness and innovation, the Table 2.7 below demonstrates the differences between the two terms.

Table 2.7 Differences between innovation and innovativeness

Aspect	Innovations	Innovativeness	Resources
Definition	The process of introducing something new or	The ability to generate new ideas, products or	(Hjalager, 2010; Kim, Tang &

	significantly improved.	services.	Bosselman, 2018; Xin, Ahmad & Khattak, 2023)
Types/dimensions	Product, process, marketing, input, and organisational innovation.	Product, service, marketing, experiential and brand innovativeness.	
Focus	Outcome-oriented	Trait-oriented	
Examples	The introduction of electronic vehicles related technologies.	The process of developing menus for fast-service restaurants.	

Source: Author's own

2.4.2 Distinguishing Consumer and Customer

Definitions of consumers and customers are varied in marketing literature, with consumers having various definitions according to different aspects. For example, a consumer is defined as an individuals who not only purchases but also uses and disposes of goods and services for personal consumption according to psychological, social, and cultural aspects of consumer behaviour (Solomon, 2015). In contrast, Schiffman (2007) define consumer on the basis of aspects of motivations and decision-making processes, depicting consumers as individuals who actively seek, evaluate, use, and dispose of products and services in order to satisfy their personal needs and desires. Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2001) focus on the cognitive, affective, and behavioural responses of individuals engaging with market entities, emphasising the experiential and psychological dimensions of being a consumer with an emphasis of understanding of a customer being related to transactions.

Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2020) define customers as those who engage in transactions or have a business relationship with a provider, emphasizing the economic and transactional nature of the term. Payne and Frow (2013) discuss customers in the context of relationship marketing, regarding them as entities which engage in a series of transactions over time, this highlights the ongoing nature of the customer-provider relationship. These definitions provided by multiple authors in the field emphasise the subtle distinctions between consumers and customers. While the term 'consumers' emphasises the behavioural aspects of product and service usage and experience, 'customers' are characterised by a greater focus on transactional and relational aspects.

In the realm of tourism and hospitality literature, the term consumer and customer are often interchangeable, as evidenced by various studies(e.g., Abbasi *et al.*, 2023; Bilal *et al.*, 2024; Godovykh & Tasci, 2020). However, for the purposes of this study, consumer is deemed more appropriate than

customer, because it reflects the active engagement of tourists in seeking, experiencing, and evaluating tourism products and services within the scope of this study.

2.4.3 Defining Consumer Perceived Innovativeness

2.4.3.1 Understanding on Innovativeness

Following discussion of the disparities between innovation and innovativeness, the author scrutinised various definitions of the latter, subsequently, the researcher presenting the definition of consumer perceived innovativeness, laying the groundwork for operationalising tourist perceived destination innovativeness. Prior studies show that the interpretation of innovativeness has significant adoption in marketing and management literature (Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018; Kunz, Schmitt & Meyer, 2011). Innovativeness is regarded as the basic premise of entrepreneurship, also facilitating the achievement of financial and non-financial goals (Sherlock, Dibrell & Memili, 2023). The concept of innovativeness is proposed by Hurley and Hult (1998), who describe it as the capacity of a firm to develop and implement new ideas and products.

However, Vilà and MacGregor (2007) argue that Hurley and Hult's approach focuses on technology or new products, rather than being a general assessment of innovativeness in business concepts. Crawford and Di Benedetto (2015) provide a similar definition to Hurley and Hult, contending that innovativeness refers to firms' capabilities to be open and receptive to new ideas, services, and promotions (Crawford & Di Benedetto, 2015). Nawrocki and Jonek-Kowalska (2023, p.3) define innovativeness as: "the ability to implement and create innovations in business practice." Clearly, the definitions of innovativeness are similar, with innovativeness includes the ability and capability to implement innovative, new, and unique ideas. Despite the similarities of those definitions, scholars have varied perspectives on understanding innovativeness; two key perspectives on understanding of innovativeness are discussed and presented in this study, which are firm innovativeness and consumer perceived innovativeness. The following sub-sections review these two perspectives.

2.4.3.2 Definitions of Firm Innovativeness

Firm innovativeness is regarded as the willingness of organisations to develop new ideas (Menguc, 2006), with those ideas contributing to the development and launch of new products. Mackelprang, Habermann and Swink (2015) define firm innovativeness as strategies for innovative companies to invest

heavily in the development of new and novel products and processes compared to their competitors.

Typically, the understanding of firm innovativeness focuses on companies functional and technical performances (Danneels & Kleinschmidtb, 2001; Ottenbacher, 2007). Earlier than that, Goldsmith and Hofacker (1991, p.211) had described innovativeness as "the tendency to learn about and adopt innovations (new products) within a specific domain of interest." However, the authors do not clearly explain the specifics of interest, and the origin of the tendency is unclear, being either from firms consumers.

2.4.3.3 Definitions of Consumer Perceived Innovativeness

The definition of innovativeness from a customer perspective differs from a firm-centric view (Danneels & Kleinschmidtb, 2001). Unlike firm-centric innovativeness, innovativeness from a consumer perspective tends to find means of offering and creating a new experience for consumers (Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2019a). From a customer-centric view, innovativeness refers to creativity and new experience offered by a firm to customers (Danneels & Kleinschmidtb, 2001). More recently, Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018, p.86) define innovativeness from a customer-centric view as general activities which "show activities and capability and willingness to consider and institute unique and meaningfully different ideas, services, and promotions when selecting from alternative activities."

In the body of literature on perceived innovativeness, the concept of brand innovativeness is introduced; Ouellet (2006) makes an initial effort to define consumer perceived brand innovativeness as the perception consumers have of a brand's inclination to embrace and endorse new ideas, novelty, experimentation, and creative processes, although it is noteworthy that this definition specifically centres on brand innovativeness within the fashion industry. In the context of tourism, particularly, in the setting of museums, Kang and Gretzel (2012) define consumer perceived innovativeness as a discernible personal attribute which influences the adoption of innovation. In the context of the hospitality industry, specifically restaurants, Jin et al. (2015) define consumer perceived innovativeness, referring to consumers' perceptions of the capability of a restaurant to produce innovative ideas and solutions.

For the purpose of this study, consumer perceived innovativeness is most appropriate to operationalise tourist perceived destination innovativeness. Analysis of the above-proposed definitions indicates that prior research defines innovativeness as the willingness and capacity of a destination to deliver unique and novel services, and promotions perceived by tourists in the context of destination.

2.4.4 Dimension of Perceived Innovativeness

The conceptualisation of innovativeness focuses on a single perspective; scholars define and measure it from the perspective of a product, service, technology or experience (Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018). Kunz, Schmitt and Meyer (2011) argue that it is necessary to adopt a holistic approach for the assessment of newness and novelty, although they focus on manufacturing rather than the service industry. Table 2.8 below gives evidence for different dimensions for innovativeness based on existing literature.

Table 2.8 Studies on the different dimension of innovativeness from a consumer perspective

Year	Authors	Innovativeness dimension	Industry
2009	(Zolfagharian & Paswan)	Service innovativeness	Fitness and auto repair
2011	(Kunz, Schmitt & Meyer)	Perceived firm innovativeness	Manufacturing
2012	(Ariffin & Aziz)	Physical environment innovativeness	Hotel
2012	(Barrena-Figueroa & Garcia-Lopez-de-Meneses)	Product Innovativeness	Coffee
2015	(Li, Zhang & Wang)	Product innovativeness	General commercial products
2015	(Lin)	Product/service/promotion/ experience	Retail
2015	(Shams, Alpert & Brown)	Brand innovativeness	Mobile phone
2016	(Jin, Line & Merkebu)	Perceived firm innovativeness (innovation image)	Restaurant
2017	(Hong, Lin & Hsieh)	Product innovativeness	Wearable technology
2017	(Truong *et al.*)	Product innovativeness	High technology
2017	(Hubert *et al.*)	Brand innovativeness	Cycling
2019	(Hollebeek & Rather)	Service innovativeness	Travel agency

2020	(Shams, Brown & Alpert)	Brand innovativeness	n/a
2021	(Kim, Kim & Hwang)	Perceived innovativeness	Food delivery services
2022	(Kim, Im & Shin)	Menu, technology-based service, experience and promotion innovativeness	Restaurant

Source: Author 'own

From the above table, it is clear that some industries realise the importance of innovativeness, and therefore focus on different aspects of it. Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2019a) hold that product, technology-based service, experiential and promotional innovativeness all contribute to a comprehensive understanding of innovativeness. However, based on the above table, it is clear that dimensions of perceived innovativeness are limited in published articles, with the dimensions focusing on product innovativeness, technology-based innovativeness, and promotional innovativeness. These three dimensions of innovativeness are commonly discussed in majority of studies (Danneels & Kleinschmidtb, 2001; Hubert *et al.*, 2017; Truong *et al.*, 2017a).

2.4.4.1 Product Innovativeness

The first dimension is product innovativeness, which is regarded as one of the major ways of addressing environmental issues and keeping competitiveness (Chen *et al.*, 2022a). Product innovativeness is defined as the novelty and uniqueness of a product perceived by customers (Ali, Krapfel Jr & LaBahn, 1995). Mainstream research on product innovativeness focuses on how innovative and new of a product is (Chen *et al.*, 2022a; Stock & Reiferscheid, 2014; Stock & Zacharias, 2013). Recent research further categorises product innovativeness into technological and market innovativeness (Ding & Ding, 2022), in their study, the term technological innovativeness refers to the extent to which a new venture highlights the most advanced technology in a new product, while market innovativeness reflects the extent to which a new venture adds novelty and uniqueness in order to highlight new features and customer benefits.

Some studies confirm that product innovativeness is capability of a company to develop new products (Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018). Zhang, Liang and Wang (2016) investigate relationships between customer value anticipation, product innovativeness, and customer lifetime value from the perspective of consumers. although they do not provide a definition of product innovativeness; they assert that productive innovativeness can be significantly affected by customers' perceived customer value anticipation.

Story, Boso and Cadogan (2015) review definitions of product-level product

innovativeness and firm-level product innovativeness, although they fail to operationalise the concept of product innovativeness in their research. Their study compares new product performance outcomes of firm product innovativeness in the context of developed and emerging markets. Some of the definitions of product innovativeness derive from firms' perspectives, and they do not take consumers into consideration.

Further, published research considers menu innovativeness as an example of product innovativeness, although the definition differs in the destination settings. Therefore, a definition of the destination context of product innovativeness from tourists' perspective is required.

2.4.4.2 Service Innovativeness

The second dimension of innovativeness is service innovativeness. this is defined as "an idea for performance enhancement that a customer perceives as offering a new benefit of sufficient appeal that dramatically influences their behaviour, as well as the behaviour of competing companies" (Berry *et al.*, 2006, p.56). The existing body of literature divides service innovativeness into two streams; one stream is from a firm's perspective (Akgün *et al.*, 2016), which refers to a firm's ability to introduce and develop product innovations. The other is from consumers' perceptions, which represents a service provider's ability to develop valuable service innovation (Lin, 2019).

These definitions are not, however, examined by empirical study, nor do they validate understandings of actual firms or consumers, and exiting definitions conflate different types of innovation in an effort to understand innovativeness. Thus, there is a need to operationalise service innovativeness without conflating it with the concept of innovation. Service innovativeness is highly reliant on technology (Dotzel, Shankar & Berry, 2013), because technology helps consumers to engage in the process of service delivery. Further, innovation associated with technology is strongly linked to customer satisfaction and loyalty to a business (Dan Reid & Sandler, 1992).

In the tourism industry, various research studies have recently recognised the importance of technology-based service innovativeness (e.g.Ali & Frew, 2014; Jung, Chung & Leue, 2015; Tussyadiah, 2016b). However, it is challenging to distinguish the differences between product innovativeness and technology-based service innovativeness. Also, studies on the dimensions of service innovativeness, in particular, technology-based service innovativeness, are limited to their destination context.

2.4.4.3 Brand Innovativeness

The term brand innovativeness is the last common form of innovativeness listed in Table 2.7 above. A successful brand helps a firm to stand out from fierce competition (Piha, Papadas & Davvetas, 2021). In view of importance of branding, the term brand innovativeness has been introduced to innovativeness literature. Eisingerich and Rubera (2010, p.66) conceptualise brand innovativeness as: "the extent to which consumers perceive brands as being able to provide new and useful solutions to their needs". However, this research has its limitations despite it claiming to be the first study to conceptualise brand innovativeness from consumers' perceptions; the study collects data from two countries, the United Kingdom (UK) and China, which have different cultural backgrounds, thus there may be differences between citizens and regions in cultural.

Shams, Alpert and Brown (2015, p.1954) define brand innovativeness as: "consumers' perception of a brand's track record of product innovations, degree of creativity, and potential for continued innovative activity in the future in a given market". Although the study considers brands' target market, this definition combines understanding of innovation and innovativeness because it adapts brand innovativeness from corporate reputation for product innovation. Further, the study's respondents are all university students; meaning that their age group tends to be limited, because consumers of different ages have their own understandings of brand innovativeness.

Researchers called for more studies on brand innovativeness, therefore, an increasing number of studies investigating its impacts. Wong and Haque (2022) confirm its importance of brand innovativeness, examining the relationship between brand innovativeness and its outcomes such as brand love, trust, visual appeal, and impulse purchases. They investigate the positive indirect impact of brand innovativeness on consumer attitudes i.e., WOM and behaviours i.e., purchase intention. Their study demonstrates the need to investigate the issues in other sectors, such as tourism and hospitality, healthcare and manufacturing because this particular study focuses on the footwear industry.

Hetet, Ackermann and Mathieu (2020) test the positive effect of brand innovativeness on the evaluation of new products. Perceived newness mediates the effect of brand innovativeness and new product evaluation; this effect is moderated by functional, hedonic, and social consumer innovativeness. However, the study targets only consumers in France; attention could therefore be paid to those consumers in Asian countries, such as China, Japan, and Korea. Ahmad *et al.* (2018) focus on brand innovativeness from consumers' perceptions and brand identification and loyalty. Their study indicates that brand innovativeness as an extrinsic

message helps marketers to better understand consumers and respond appropriately to their needs.

Interestingly, promotional innovativeness has started to attract researchers' attention in recent decades (Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018; Lin, 2015b). However, extensive studies focus on promotion in various disciplines (e.g. Al Saed, Upadhya & Abu Saleh, 2020; Hallikainen *et al.*, 2022; Holzer, 2020; Liang *et al.*, 2022; Mussol, Aurier & de Lanauze, 2019). Promotion allows firms to present brand, product and/or service messages to potential customers as an essential aspect of marketing communications (Grewal *et al.*, 2011). There are different creative promotional practices, including the use of mobile, digital, online platforms and social media channels; businesses use these to convey information digitally (Doherty & Ellis-Chadwick, 2010). Firms can also provide new opportunities effectively and efficiently with potential consumers, attract attention, and add value to the consumer experience (Grewal *et al.*, 2011).

In terms of promotional innovativeness, Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018, p.88) define this as: "a firm's capability to offer multiple opportunities to effectively target customers." Research Lin (2015b) conceptualises consumers' perceptions of retailer innovativeness, developing measurement scales. Four dimensions of consumers' perceptions of retailer innovativeness are identified, i.e.: perceived product-related, service-related, promotion-related, and experience-related innovativeness. Promotion-related innovativeness is considered as the capability of a retailer to provide a promotional mix, devising new promotions and price promotions, as perceived by consumers. However, a definition of promotional innovativeness does not exist in current tourism literature, although researchers acknowledge the benefits of promotional innovativeness in other sectors.

2.5 Research on Perceived Innovativeness in Tourism and Hospitality Literature

Innovativeness has largely been investigated in other disciplines on the basis of the literature reviewed in the previous section, while few studies examine innovativeness, particularly from consumers' perspectives in the tourism and hospitality industry. Table 2.9 details studies relating to innovativeness in the tourism and hospitality industry both from the supply and demand side; innovativeness in tourism and hospitality has received some attention from scholars. Although the number of studies has increased since 2012, less attention has been paid to innovativeness in tourism and hospitality literature than in general business literature (Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018). Hence, there is a need to study innovativeness in the context of the tourism and

hospitality industry.

Table 2.9 Perceived innovativeness literature in the tourism and hospitality industry

Year	Author	Perspective	Industry Sector	Research Area	Methodology
2012	(Ariffin & Aziz)	Customer	Hotel	Malaysia	Quantitative approach
2012	(Kang & Gretzel)	Customer	Tourism attraction	United States	Quantitative approach
2012	(Sikora & Nybakk)	Owner	Tourism attraction	Poland	Mixed research approach
2013	(Zehrer, Pechlaner & Reuter)	Company	Tourism operators	Germany	Quantitative approach
2014	(Sandvik, Duhan & Sandvik)	Manager	Hotel	Norway	Quantitative approach
2014	(Wang)	Consumer	Hospitality	n/a	Qualitative
2015	(Čivre & Gomezelj Omerzel)	Company	Tourism operators	Slovenia	Quantitative approach
2015	(Jin *et al.*)	Customer	Restaurant	United States	Quantitative approach
2015	(Martínez-Román *et al.*)	Owner	Tourism Firms	Spain	Quantitative approach
2016	(Jin, Line & Merkebu)	Customer	Restaurant	United States	Quantitative approach
2016	(Binder *et al.*)	Manager	Hotel	Vienna	Qualitative approach
2018	(Kim, Tang & Bosselman)	Customer	Restaurant	United States	Mixed methods approach
2018	(Nysveen, Oklevik & Pedersen)	Customer	Hotel	Norway	Quantitative approach
2020	(García-Villaverde *et al.*)	Company	Cultural tourism company	Peru	Mixed methods approach
2021	(Teng & Chen)	Customer	Restaurant	Taiwan	Quantitative approach
2022	(Kim, Im & Shin)	Employee	Restaurant	United States	Quantitative approach
2022	(Gómez-Rico *et al.*)	Tourist	Restaurant	Spain	Quantitative approach

Source: Author's own

Studies of innovation phenomena in the tourism and hospitality industry from the demand side amount to 52.91% of the total number. In contrast, only 4.61% examine customers from the demand side (Gomezelj, 2016). The summary presented in Table 2.7 is consistent with the findings of Gomezelj (2016), that fewer studies focus on consumer perceived innovativeness. Although there is a trend to investigate perceived innovativeness in the restaurant context, literature gaps still exist.

Significantly, the majority of studies (e.g., Binder *et al.*, 2016; Čivre & Gomezelj Omerzel, 2015; Martínez-Román *et al.*, 2015; Sandvik, Duhan & Sandvik, 2014; Sikora & Nybakk, 2012; Zehrer, Pechlaner & Reuter, 2013) examine innovativeness from the supply perspective. Sandvik, Duhan and Sandvik (2014) assess the relationship between innovativeness and profitability in Norwegian hotels, significantly testing theindirect relationship between them. In particular, their study confirms the importance of innovativeness on hotels' financial issues. However, sporadic studies reach conclusions on how customers evaluate firms' innovativeness (e.g.Ariffin & Aziz, 2012; Hwang & Hyun, 2016; Jin, Line & Merkebu, 2016b; Kang & Gretzel, 2012; Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018).

In general, the number of studies on innovativeness in tourism and hospitality is increasing (e.g. García-Villaverde *et al.*, 2021; Randolph *et al.*, 2022), while the number of articles on consumers' perspectives within the industry is relatively low. Consumers' impressions, perceptions or awareness of innovativeness are crucial for the industry, because customers determine whether activities are implemented successfully (Victorino *et al.*, 2005). Wang (2014) appears to appreciate the importance of consumers perceived innovativeness and begins to conceptualise its concept in the hospitality setting i.e.: hotels, restaurants, bars, food and beverage, and professional training. Their study uses interviews to collect data from hospitality managers, identifying different themes such as novelty seeking, eagerness, vigilance, openness, venturesome, hedonism, value seeking and social distinctiveness to capture the concept of innovativeness. The paper contributes to demonstrating a definition of consumers' innovativeness although, it has its own limitations; it claims to investigate consumers' innovativeness, although data are collected from managers, and it is unclear how these data reflect the understandings and insights of consumers themselves.

The understanding of innovativeness has not been updated with globe changes, as new technological practices have been developed to mitigate the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic. Hence, the interpretation of innovativeness could be different before and after the pandemic. Research on consumer perceived innovativeness therefore requires in-depth and up-to-dated investigation. From the discussion and Table 2.9, several points are important to further investigation of innovativeness in the context of tourism. Firstly,

there are gaps in geographical areas in which to investigate innovativeness in the tourism context, because the attention to consumer perceived innovativeness in the tourism and hospitality literature is increasing, the distribution of research in geographical area is concentrated to the specific countries listed in the above table. Scholars pay massive attention to the United States (US) within the section, including restaurants and tourist attractions such as museums. Kang and Gretzel (2012) choose a library and museum in the US because they attract a large number of visitors with diverse backgrounds and interests, and have a wide range of recordings of speeches and interviews that can be easily accessed through podcast tours.

European countries, such as Austria, Germany, Poland, and Spain, also receive attention from scholars, although Asian countries receive less attention regarding consumer perceived innovativeness than US. China is one of the world's most popular tourist destinations (Cai, Card & Cole, 2004; Lim & Pan, 2005), with the tourism industry playing a significant role in the promotion if consumption, investment and foreign exchange. In 2019, China's tourism revenue reached CNY 1.094 billion, representing 11.05 % of gross domestic product (GDP), creating 79.87 million job opportunities, and representing 10.31% of the country's total workforce (Sun, Ding & Yang, 2022). However, there are a limited number of articles which investigate perceived innovativeness in China both from the firm or consumer perspectives. Hence, there is an urgent need to investigate innovativeness from a consumer perspective in the context of China.

Secondly, few studies research consumer perceived destination innovativeness; six focus on consumer perceived innovativeness within the tourism and hospitality industry in Table 2.9 above, while all the papers are starting to appreciate its importance. However, the existing articles provide valuable insights into consumer perceived innovativeness in the context of restaurant sector (e.g.Jin *et al.*, 2015; Jin, Line & Merkebu, 2016b; Jin, Line & Merkebu, 2016a; Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018).

Volo (2005) acknowledge that more studies are needed on destination innovativeness, although tourism destination innovativeness has now received attention from some scholars (e.g.Kuščer, 2013; Oliveira Santini, Ladeira & Sampaio, 2018). Kuščer (2013) concludes that mountain destination innovativeness contains elements of mountain tourism attractors and mountain destination management, thus these elements of mountain destination innovativeness could offer guidelines for destination development and the enhancement the destination's overall condition. However, the identification of elements of mountain destination innovativeness focuses only on the supply side, while, the author focuses only on mountain, rather than general destinations.

Oliveira Santini, Ladeira and Sampaio (2018) explain demonstrate habits associated with innovativeness can be measured by a domain-specific innovativeness scale; habits include new experiences, risk perceptions, and favourable attitudes relating to innovativeness. However, the study fails to define domain-specific innovativeness pertaining to destination, and the measurement scales are adapted from the domain-specific interest. While this research focuses on consumers' perspectives, the measurement scales designed to verify innovativeness from a firm perspective are not supportive of the current study. Therefore, there is an urgent need to develop measurement scales for innovativeness from consumers' perspectives in the context of destination.

Finally, few studies have applied mixed research methods in order to investigate innovativeness from the consumer perspective, developing an appropriate measurement scale for tourist perceived destination innovativeness. Among the six studies concerning innovativeness from the supply perspective, four use a quantitative research approach to research it, while two apply mixed research method. Five studies from the consumer perspective employ a quantitative research approach, and none apply a qualitative research method.

Specifically, Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018) develop and construct a multi-dimensional scale of consumer perceived restaurant innovativeness by use of a mixed research method. The existing measurement scales used for innovativeness in previous research show the basis of narrow product concepts (e.g.Alegre, Lapiedra & Chiva, 2006), or development from firms' perspectives (e.g.Hogan *et al.*, 2011; Knowles, Hansen & Dibrell, 2008). Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018) is the only study which provides measurement scales of innovativeness from consumers' perspectives, although it develops measurement scales in the restaurant setting. This measurement gap may generate barriers to understanding innovativeness from a consumer perspective in tourism settings such as destinations. The only identifiable study which tests destination innovativeness is Kuščer (2013), which partially measured mountain destination innovativeness by use of seven-item scales. None of the previous studies follow rigorous procedures to create adequate scales for the measurement of destination innovativeness. In order to fill this gap, it becomes necessary and important for this research study to develop a reliable and valid scale by which to measure tourist perceived destination innovativeness (TPDI).

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter provides foundational knowledge on destination, innovation, and tourist-perceived destination innovativeness, considering in-depth the exiting

definitions of those terms. The term tourist-perceived destination innovativeness, derived from previous literature, refers to a destination's willingness and ability to provide unique and novel services and promotions as perceived by tourists. The chapter critically reviews relevant studies within the tourism and hospitality industry.

From examination of the current body of research, several gaps emerge; the first pertains to the lack of a comprehensive understanding of destination innovativeness. Although there are two streams of understanding innovativeness, i.e. from firms' perspectives and consumers' perspectives in various contexts, there exists no universally agreed on definition of destination innovativeness, while, existing conceptions of innovativeness stem primarily from marketing and management literature. The growing emphasis on innovativeness from consumers' perspectives underscores its importance in the tourism and hospitality industry, although there remains a dearth of understanding regarding innovativeness within the destination context from tourists' viewpoints, highlighting a research gap in defining destination innovativeness from the tourist perspective. The second gap lies in the scarcity of empirical research, including research methods, geographical coverage, and participants characteristics, within studies of destination innovativeness in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Furthermore, the body of literature on tourism notably lacks empirical research on destination innovativeness. The current study adopts a mixed research method in order to investigate tourist-perceived destination innovativeness in China to address these gaps, thus filling this research gap. In view of the significance of the tourist experience and satisfaction, the subsequent chapter offers a critical literature review.

Chapter 3 Tourist Experience and Tourist Satisfaction at Destination

3.1 Introduction

One objective of this research is to examine the relationships between TPDI, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. This chapter seeks to enhance comprehension and identify research gaps related to these two distinct constructs. As topics related to tourist experience and tourist satisfaction lie at the core of the tourism industry, research on these two concepts has significantly increased, topics including tourists' emotional experience and destination loyalty (Li, Yuan & Zhang, 2024), tourists' gastronomic experience and their satisfaction with local food (Choe & Kim, 2024), and tourists' authentic experience and overall satisfaction in industrial wastelands (Wei & Zhang, 2023). The tourism industry has turned into a competitive sector (Camisón *et al.*, 2016; Neuhofer, Buhalis & Ladkin, 2014; Sharma & Nayak, 2019). This situation impels the industry to be innovative in enhancing tourists' satisfaction and experience (Scheidegger, 2006). These are two essential factors for the creation of destination image (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Sharma & Nayak, 2019).To achieve the objective of this research, it is critical to review each of these constructs.

This chapter comprises five sections. Having outlined the brief context and purpose of this chapter in this section. The second section discusses tourist experience various definitions thereof, and existing relevant research related to destination and innovativeness. Thereafter, the third section explores tourist satisfaction, and investigates current research on this topic related to the same two ideas. Then, research gaps are identified based on the overall review, with the final section presents a concluding summary of this chapter. The last section presents a concluding summary about this chapter.

3.2 Tourist Experience

The global economy has changed dramatically from one concerned with the products, to service and ultimately to experience (Chirakranont & Sakdiyakorn, 2022; Kim, 2017; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Voss, Roth and Chase (2008) acknowledge the importance of consumer experience as it offers something unique experience for businesses and their consumers. Furthermore, Pine and Gilmore (1999) argued that increased revenue in industries is accompanied by an increase in the benefits of consumer experience. A rich body of research has emerged that reflects the importance of the experience economy, presenting a definition of experience and how this

can be measured (e.g. Brandt, Gardiner & Macrae, 2006; Oh, Fiore & Miyoung, 2007). The tourism industry is at the forefront of experience (Oh, Fiore & Miyoung, 2007), and therefore, many previous articles examine tourist experience from different aspects, such as memorable tourist experience and ordinary tourist experience with user-generated content posts, holistic tourist experience in halal tourism, foreign tourist experience with air pollution, and tourist experience and an archaeological site (e.g., Bigne, Fuentes-Medina & Morini-Marrero, 2020; Olorunsola *et al.*, 2023; Suhartanto *et al.*, 2021; Yang, Zhang & Fu, 2022). Hence, the following section critically reviews definitions and measurements of tourist experience from various perspectives.

3.2.1 Defining Tourist Experience

Experience comprises different elements involving consumers' emotional, physical, intellectual, and spiritual senses (Shaw & Ivens, 2002). Within the tourism industry, the strength of a tourist is an important factor in creating a connection with the destination. As aforementioned, existing research about tourist experience presents different understandings of the concept from wide-ranging aspects, as summarised in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 Definitions of tourist experience

Year	Author(s)	Definitions
1973	(Maccannell)	Tourist experience refers to an active response to difficulties in modern life, and a belief among tourists that experiencing real life overcomes obstacles.
1979	(Cohen)	Tourism experience is the relationship between a person and various tourism activities, including sightseeing. By clarifying that the meaning of knowledge as that which comes from a person 's world view, this is dependent upon whether sticks to those tourism activities.
1997	(Ryan)	Travel experiences refer to a multifunctional leisure activity that comprises both entertainment and learning.
2000	(Li)	The tourist experience includes artificial consumption behaviour, the response to the "ordinary" life problems, the pursuit of authenticity, and various leisure activities.
2003	(Stamboulis & Skayannis)	Tourist experience refers to an interaction between the tourists and the destinations, which represents the site of the background context of an experience, while the tourist is seen as the actor therein.
2007	(Larsen)	Travel experiences should be defined as past travel-related events of sufficient importance to be stored in long-term memory.
2007	(O'Dell)	Tourism experience involves more than the tourists themselves. The tourism industry itself is a part of the

		production, performance and consumption experience through local control and cultural presentation.
2007	(Selstad)	The travel experience is a novel/familiar combination of an individual's pursuit of identity and their self-actualisation.
2010	(Cutler & Carmichael)	Tourist experience is a complicated psychological process.
2011	(Tung & Ritchie)	An individual's subjective evaluation (i.e., affective, cognitive, and behavioural) of events related to their tourist activities before (i.e., planning and preparation), during (i.e., at the destination), and after the trip (i.e., recollection).
2012	(Boorstin)	Tourist experience refers to a popular act of consumption as a contrived, prefabricated mass tourism experience.
2013	(Pearce *et al.*)	The tourist experience can be understood as multiple experiences which similar to those when listening to an orchestra. The four elements of the travel experience should comprise sensory inputs, emotional responses, cognitive mechanisms for thinking about and understanding the environment, and available behaviours; these four elements together define the participants' world.
2014	(Osman, Johns & Lugosi)	Tourist experiences in destinations are perceived as multidimensional, involving the entanglement of people, places, organizations, actions, technologies, and objects. Such experiences are multi-sensorial and can have a multiplicity of extraordinary and mundane elements that may emerge in sequence or in parallel.
2015	(Duerden, Ward & Freeman)	The tourist experience is a dynamic experience, which encompasses objective, interactive encounters, and the resultant outcomes.
2021	(Suhartanto *et al.*)	The tourist experience refers to meeting tourists' hedonic leisure and eudemonic needs in the destination.

Source: Author's own

From the above table, it is evident that the definition of tourist experience has received different researcher interpretations, and. definitions from the above table can be supported by categories of development of understanding tourist experience based on Chen (2023), including descriptive, experiential, and transformative stages. The following sub-sections critically review tourist experience from each of these stages.

3.2.1.1 Descriptive Stage

The descriptive stage refers to the earliest phases in exploring tourist experience, representing an explorative pattern to understanding the concept.

Research investigate the significance of exploration within human leisure activities(e.g., Ryan, 1997), while another study provides insights into comprehending travellers' motivations, including escaping from difficulties in daily life (e.g., Maccannell, 1973).

3.2.1.2 Experiential Stage

This stage focuses on the subjective and experiential aspects of the tourist experience, such as emotions and sensations (e.g., Osman, Johns & Lugosi, 2014; Pearce *et al.*, 2013; Tung & Ritchie, 2011) Sensation is the process by which sensory stimuli (such as light, vibration, pressure and chemicals) trigger sensory organs, which converted these into electrical signals transmitted to the brain, situating the sensation at the beginning of an individual's perception of the environment (Goldstein, 2017). As a result, the five human senses have been considered essential methods for marketing and consumer experience (Agapito, Pinto & Mendes, 2012; Krishna, 2011). Some authors highlight that tourism research has systematically focused on the visual components of the travel experience (Pan & Ryan, 2009a). However, this does not necessarily mean that vision dominates tourism, as cultural, social and geographical factors have historically determined shifts in sensory perception (Agapito, Pinto & Mendes, 2012). Agapito, Pinto and Mendes (2012) further suggest that tourist experience and tourist satisfaction can be designed and enhanced through sensory marketing, wherein the environment surrounding places and individuals is described as multi-sensory, comprising both a visual impression and its associated sound, smell, taste, and touch. Agapito, Mendes and Valle (2013) summarised all empirical research on the multi-sensory dimension of the tourist experience, as shown in Table 3.2 below. This suggests that more attention should be paid to tourist experience in terms of the perception of the destinations.

Table 3.2 Summary of empirical research on the tourist experience

Author(s)	Senses	Data collection methods	Implications
(Markwell, 2001)	Sight, sound, taste and touch	Content, semiotic and textual data analysis and self-reflection on participant observation.	Sometimes, the body can interfere with the experience you desire based on a natural environment; some visitors may therefore want and are willing to pay for less intermediary experience, with less intervention from travel agencies.
(Gretzel & Fesenmaier,	Sight, sound, and smell	Online survey	Sensory information should collated into themes when

2003)			designing tourism products. Thereafter, it is better to promote the products using effective marketing tools.
(Son & Pearce, 2005)	Sight, sound, smell and touch	Self-administrated questionnaires	Food can comprise one of the main elements of the travel experience. However, the experience of food in Australia is unpleasant. Further developments could be done.
(Govers, Go & Kumar, 2007b)	Sight, sound, smell, taste and touch	Online surveys	An alternative to facilitate the study of destination images and comparison of destinations and managements thereof using artificial neural software.
(Pan & Ryan, 2009b)	Hearing, sound, taste and touch	Travel journalist's reports of New Zealand	An 'ideal' itinerary is proposed that would allow journalists to capture a sensory experience of New Zealand.
(Small, Darcy & Packer, 2012)	Non-visual senses	Interviews and focus groups	The tourism industry should address the multi-sensory nature to design quality barrier-free visits to experience quality glasses, both visually impaired and for non-visually impaired visitors.
(Agapito, Valle & Mendes, 2014)	Sight, sound, smell, taste and touch	A self-administered questionnaire	In rural destinations, sensory information can determine the overall destination experience, and ensure local communities and tourism providers involved.
(Agapito *et al.*, 2016)	Sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch	A multidisciplinary literature review	Sensory themed tourism could promote rural tourist experiences.
(Kim *et al.*, 2016)	Smell, sight, sound and touch	A self-administered questionnaire	Airlines need to better understand airline travellers' well-being perceptions and satisfaction, therefore, to affect behaviour intentions
(Chua *et al.*, 2019b)	The physical environment of sky lounge of airlines, including design, décor,	A self-administrated questionnaire	The airline should provide a better sensory experience to retain current consumers and attract new ones to maximise revenue and save costs.

	fixtures, lighting, temperature, colour, scent and cleanliness		

With the emergence of the concept of the experience economy proposed by Pine and Gilmore (1999), this has become influential in defining tourist experience by applying the framework of this experience economy (e.g. Lo, Qu & Wetprasit, 2013; Mehmetoglu & Engen, 2011; Song et al., 2015). Pine and Gilmore (1999, p.12) define experience as "events that engage individuals in a personal way", whose experience "encompasses anything ranging from emotional, intellectual, and aesthetic to experience of nature, amusement and travel (Mei, 2014, p.73)." As advanced exploration of tourist experience, the understanding the experience becomes more concrete in different areas. For example, Oh, Fiore and Jeoung (2007) adapt existing definitions of tourist experience by adding knowledge thereof tourist experience from four dimensions: entertainment, education, aesthetics, and escapism. Furthermore, they differentiate experience from Pine and Gilmore (1999), by combining it with tangible products and intangible experiences. Moreover, they conceptualise tourist experience as pleasant, engaging, memorable moments when tourists are consuming tourism products and events. Nevertheless, this definition has its drawbacks, notably its failure to account for emphasis on on-site experience.

Four areas (educational, entertainment, escapism, and aesthetical dimensions of tourist experience, actively and passively indicate the level of tourists' participation. For instance, passive consumer involvement in business (or the destination serve to embody the entertainment and aesthetic dimensions, whereas educational and escapist indicate tourists' active involvement. With educational experience, tourists can gain knowledge and skills when they are visiting a destination through educational events. In terms of aesthetic experience, tourists prefer to visit a destination without affecting or changing the nature of the environment presented to them. For instance, Chapter 1 highlights Hunan Province's abundant natural resources, fostering aesthetic experiences. Additionally, the province's red tourism offerings contribute to educational involvement. When these involve with natural attractions, they passively appreciate, or are influenced by, the way the destination appeals to their senses, as regard the destination environment's level of authenticity. Additionally, aesthetic experience tends to be an important determinant of the destination evaluation and overall experience. Escapist experiences require immersion and engagement more than entertainment and educational experiences as tourists are more likely to escape from their daily life and routines to participate and experience remarkable tourism activities. Therefore,

the role of tourists can be both passive and active when engaging with tourism activities.

3.2.1.3 Transformative Stage

This stage changes the exploration of tourist experience by encompassing extensive scopes, such as authenticity in tourism and memorable tourist experience. In addition, various aspects from previous approaches currently remain a focus of this stage, including the psychological aspect and the experience economy. As regards, authenticity in tourism, Wang (1999) provides insight in understanding tourist experience from the view of authenticity, suggesting that even if the tourist's object is completely unreal, it is still possible to find something else, in that tourists could seek an alternative, namely, the authenticity of existence, which is activated by the tourism experience.

Tan (2017b) defines tourist experience as the escapist experience offered by a destination which essentially evokes in tourists' feelings of escaping daily life. Here, it is important to note the two different types of escapist experience, namely, the peak experience and the supporting experience. The peak or pure experience usually derives from the attractions, viewed as an extension of the everyday life experience in the tourist's journey, for example, their experience of accommodation and transportation. By comparison, the supporting experience relates more to the higher standard of service quality, especially the quality of food and hospitality (Quan & Wang, 2004). Further, the author explains that tourist experience differs from that experienced by tourists in their daily lives. Cohen (1979) argues that travel essentially requires a temporary departure from the daily routine to create a relaxed state characterised by no need to work, care, and be frugal. However, McCabe (2002) believes it is misleading to exclude everyday life from tourist experience as this should comprise both peak and supporting experience with neither of the two experiences being dispensable. Although the definition varies based on underlying theory, they share common characteristics, for example, tourist experience relates to physical and psychological factors alongside their impact on destination image.

Quan and Wang (2004) note that a tourist is considered as a consumer, as they are served and have a commercial relationship with the service provider. The scope in this study is the service quality perceived by tourists when receiving tourism services. Mossberg (2007) further expands this point by suggesting that tourist experience is the co-production of tourism products to add value to tourists. The study proposes five specific factors as important for tourist experience: physical environment, personnel, other tourists, products and souvenirs, and a theme or story. As researchers are more likely to pay attention to the hospitality sector in terms of marketing and management

approach, limited research considers this approach in the context of destination to explore and understand tourist experience.

There is an increased trend into memorable tourist experience (MTE) (e.g., Chen & Rahman, 2018; Kim, Koo & Chung, 2021; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2021a; Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016), as experience is one of important factors that affects tourists' loyalty. MTE originates from the subjective perception of an event from an emotional, physical, mental and/or intellectual level (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Kim, Ritchie and McCormick (2012a, p.13) initially suggest MTE as "a tourism experience positively remembered and recalled after the event has occurred [that is] selectively constructed from tourism experiences based on the individual's assessment of the experience." Park and Santos (2017) further identify that the cycles of the multiple stages of MTE and their corresponding themes are sequential, cumulative and dynamic (Figure 3.1).
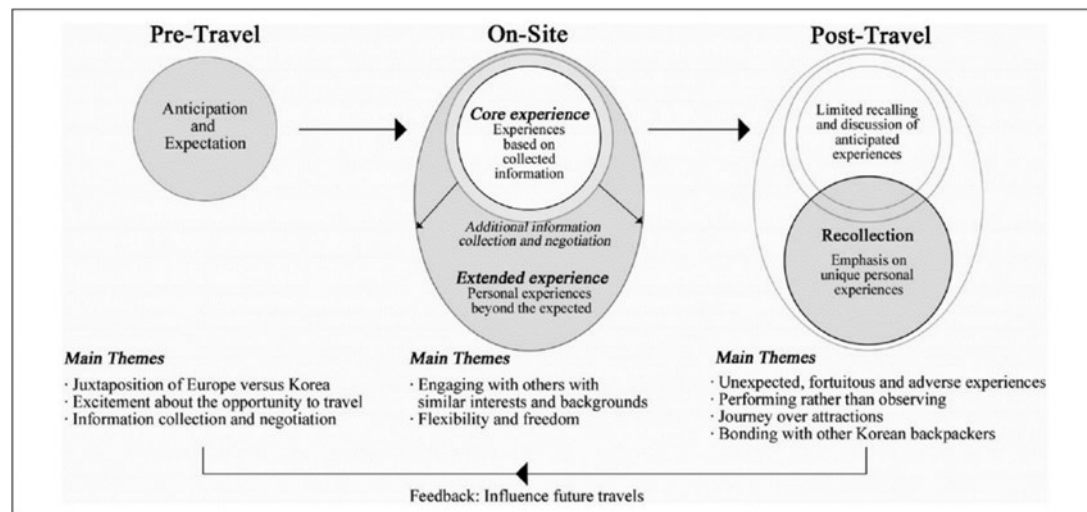
Figure 3.1 Cyle of MTE during the different tourism stages (Park & Santos, 2017)

The above figure presents a comprehensive overview of tourists' experience and emotions through three distinctive stages and in, relation to the customer journey. Customer journey is commonly described as the process or series of steps that a customer undergoes to access or utilize a company's services or products (Følstad & Kvale, 2018). Similar to customer, the stages of tourist experience aim to pursue hedonic consumption (Zátori et al., 2019). Before the journey, the tourist imagines the destination image based on their previous tour to the destination or recommendations from other tourists, and this represents their first experience of the destination. As regards during travel, tourist experience can be seen as engagement with the activities related to the journey, including accommodation, attractions, dining, destination innovation, communication with the locals, and transportation. The interaction of emotion and sensation forms the second stage of tourist experience. Post-travel is likely to be linked to recollection, such as the willingness to share this

experience with others (Park & Santos, 2017), which may be the last time the tourist shows knowledge about the destination.

Jong-Hyeong, Ritchie and McCormick (2012) acknowledge that MTE is selectively constructed based on an tourist's evaluation. Consequently, some studies have focused on the post-stage to define tourist experience. For example, Kim, Koo and Chung (2021) define MTEs as pleasant and valuable experiences that tourists positively remember after travelling. Similarly, Park and Santos (2017) suggest that MTE is formed at the last stage, after the travel has ended. It is worth noting that negative emotions, such as frustration and disappointment, can also be integral parts of the overall tourist experience (Su & Hsu, 2013).

In light of the above literature, the current research combines both experiential and transformative stages to define tourist experience, as these two stages incorporate various theories that are key to interpreting tourist experience comprehensively. Moreover, tourist experience mainly stems from an individual's subjective emotional evaluation, and tourists are more likely to seek authenticity when they are travelling. Therefore, the definition of tourist experience applied in this study encompasses the individual's emotional evaluation process and active interaction with their quest for authenticity through culture, history, religion, nature, events, architecture in a certain destination or destination system during and after travelling.

3.2.2 Three Stages of Travelling and Tourist Experience

There are three stages of travelling: pre-phase, on-site phase, and post-travel phase. Previous studies have demonstrated an understanding of tourist experience by examining the connections between these three stages. The pre-travel phase as the first stage refer to the tourist's search for information and the anticipated experience. However, researchers and practitioners have paid less attention to this initial stage of tourist experience on a destination level, despite the pre-travel phase playing a crucial role in shaping a positive destination image when tourists are searching for information. This is further confirmed by Eletxigerra, Barrutia and Echebarria (2021). In addition, who find that on potential reason for less attention to pre-travel might be the leading role played by experience providers when tourists are on-sites, such as accommodations, restaurant, public transportation, tourists information centres, and so on. Hence, Eletxigerra, Barrutia and Echebarria (2021) contributes to knowledge on pre-travel value co-creation.

The on-site phase focuses on tourists' spontaneous engagement and interactions with destinations when there. An *et al.* (2022) investigates the effect of emotional solidarity with community residents during the on-stie

phase experience and visit intentions among volunteer tourists. On-site phases lead tourists to have learning, enjoyment, and escape experiences, and these experience forms have significant positive effects on tourists' revisit intentions. Similarly, Qian *et al.* (2021) links on-site experience to dark tourism, exploring the positive effect of dark tourism destination image on on-site experience and behavioural intentions. Differently, on-site experience comprises disaster memory, rescue and relief memory, cognition of disaster consequences, and negative emotions. It can therefore be found that the formation of on-site experience takes on different forms in various settings. Post-travel is the final stage of traveling, involving the use of ICT to document, memorize, and share the tourist experience. Therefore, it is highly relevant to tourist revisit intention (Assaker, Vinzi & O'Connor, 2011a), recommendation intention (Kim, Choi & Koo, 2022) and word of mouth intention (Bae et al., 2017). However, the post-trip phase and how it is influences tourist experience is less explored and has not been fully investigated in the destination context, despite its critical importance to the tourism industry.

3.2.3 In-destination Tourist Experience Research

It is widely acknowledged that tourist experience is helpful to promote destinations, and that tourism is inherently experience-based (Akdag *et al.*, 2018; Chirakranont & Sakdiyakorn, 2022; Kim, 2017; Laing *et al.*, 2014; Liberato, Alen & Liberato, 2018; Sharma & Nayak, 2019; Tan, 2017b). Dmitrovic *et al.* (2009) indicate that destination is a blend of tourist and tourism products which provide experience, and that destinations are consumed within the context of a servicescape (Goldsmith & Tsiotsou, 2012). Therefore, destinations become important sites where tourists consume experience. Richards (2001) suggests that the entire tourist destination can be viewed as 'experience', while the formation of tourist experience is significantly linked with "environmental fuzziness and geographical consciousness" (Mohd, Ismail & Halim, 2015, p.237). In other words, the uncertainty and unpredictability of travel, combined with awareness of geographical factors, play a significant role in determining how travellers feel and remember their journeys. Given the importance of tourist experience to the destination, numerous articles discuss tourist experience from different aspects of destination (e.g. Brown & Osman, 2017; Köchling, 2021; Smith *et al.*, 2015; Tan, 2017b; Xia, Zhang & Zhang, 2018; Yang *et al.*, 2021). Previous studies provide essential knowledge that allows for appreciation of the factors that shape or impact tourism experience. The complexity thereof indicates that it embraces different trip stages and various factors, while being shaped and impacted by each stage and factors. Existing literature provides background knowledge to support researchers into the key factors that influence tourist experience, which include environmental factors, like air quality (Yang, Zhang & Fu, 2022), safety aspects (Alrawadieh, Alrawadieh & Kozak, 2019; Huete-

Alcocer & Hernandez-Rojas, 2022), and experience quality (Moon & Han, 2018; Schlesinger, Cervera-Taulet & Pérez-Cabañero, 2020). .

3.2.3.1 Geographical Locations and Tourist Experience

Many studies have focused tourist experience on different geographical locations, including China, South Korea, and Indonesia (e.g., Lee, Chung & Koo, 2023; Li *et al.*, 2023a; Li *et al.*, 2023c; Suhartanto *et al.*, 2021). For instance, Shi, Gursoy and Chen (2019) focus on the home-sharing tourist experience in Guizhou, Xi'an and Tibet, China. International and famous cities are empirically examined, with Hainan as an international destination receiving significant attention from academia and industry. Chen (2019) addresses cruise tourism in Hainan, and how to build the destination image based on this context. Fang (2010) in a study of Sichuan province highlights that the destination could lead to the development of tourism routines or other products based on cultural and natural themes to enhance tourists' experiences through their five senses. Various authors evaluate different parts of Hunan province separately, such as Loudi City, Xiangxi Tujia and Miao Autonomous Prefecture. However, limited studies consider Hunan province a destination system to investigate.

3.2.3.2 Special Interest Tourism and Tourist Experience

Special interest tourism has received research interests from a tourist experience perspective (e.g., Douglas, Douglas & Derrett, 2001; Soleimani *et al.*, 2019), including cultural heritage tourism (Sakdiyakorn & Sivarak, 2016), green tourism (Henderson *et al.*, 2001), nautical tourism (Lam-González, León & de León Ledesma, 2019) and gastronomy tourism (Pérez Gálvez *et al.*, 2017) at different destinations. Among the various types of special interest tourism, significant research has focused on food tourism, exploring different aspect of experience in this context. Chen (2016) examines domestic tourist food experience at different stages in China, finding that food has significant impact on Chinese domestic tourists' destinations choice. Similarly, Mora *et al.* (2021) indicate that gastronomic experience is the key element for destination development, and this is influenced by gastronomic motivations. The main motivation for choosing to visit a certain destination may be the consumption of local food of that destination. However, Chen and Huang (2016) argue that food tourism was not major motivation for attracting tourists in China at the pre-travel stage, though food tourism does enhance tourists' experience during the on-site phase.

3.2.3.3 Measuring Tourist Experience

Diverse tourism studies present experience scales with which tourist

experience can be measured in the destination context; thus, scale development enriches theoretical knowledge with reliable and vigorous procedures. For instance, Kim, Hallab and Kim (2012) combine repeat visitation with tourist experience. The study acknowledges that the destination experience could add more revisit intention. Later, Tan (2017b) examines the positive relationship between tourist experience and revisit intention. Specifically, the physical environment provides the primary context for sensory engagement and direct experiences, while the virtual dimension expands and enriches these experiences through digital connectivity and information access. Therefore, the satisfaction of tourists is influenced not only by what they encounter in the physical space but also by how they navigate and engage with the virtual space through their smartphones. Köchling (2021) develops new scales to measure online destination experience, including sensory, affective, intellectual, social and behavioural dimensions. The original four dimensions (sensory, affective, intellectual, and behavioral dimension) for measuring brand experience originated from Brakus, Schmitt and Zarantonello (2009) are the measurements are commonly seen in most experience research.

Köchling (2021) updates measurements for online destination experience enrich the theoretical literature on this aspect. The sensory dimension describes that consumption experience from the prespective of interrelationships between individuals, environment, emotion, and activity while emphasizing the role of multisensory stimuli in these processes (Agapito, 2020). Therefore, sensory measures in this study include 'appealing', 'beautiful', 'fascinating', 'impressive', 'cool', and 'special'. The affective dimension demonstrates emotions and feelings evoked by the stimuli associated with the destination, and common spontaneous affective descriptions are 'happiness' and 'fun'. In addition, 'surprised' and 'impressed' are discussed to measure affective online destination experience. The intellectual aspect deals with personal motivations and interests. The social dimension relates to destinations' local residents, other tourists and other companions during the same trip. The behavioural and intentional dimension shows tourists' behavioural and intentional thoughts, such as their desires, need, and interests in visiting the destination. Evidently, the four-dimensional measurements are applicable to the three stages of tourism to assess tourist experience. In addition, researcher has developed measurement scales to assess tourist experience in entertainment destinations. Luo, Lam and Wang (2021) confirmed seven dimensions of learning, enjoyment, escape, refreshment, novelty, involvement, and local culture. For this research, both sensory and affective measures are used to examine tourists' during and post-travel experience, as these measures could offer a more comprehensive examination of tourist experience.

3.2.4 Innovativeness in Tourist Experience Research

From the perspective of innovative practices, previous studies pay attention to the advantage thereof and its positive or negative influence on tourist experience (Gajdošík & Marciš, 2019; Muthuraman & Al Haziazi, 2019; Pasquale Del et al., 2018; Serravalle et al., 2019; Solima & Izzo, 2018). Pasquale Del et al. (2018) propose that data generated by tourist experience on social media platforms could define the sustainable tourism experience based on the study of Apulia. Moreover, the paper identifies that more opportunities are provided through innovative practices, including valuable insights during the ideation phase, the development of new products and services during the R&D stage and marketing and promotions during the commercialization stages. Han, Tom Dieck and Jung (2019a) investigate visitor adoption of augmented reality smart glasses (ARSG) in cultural tourism; however, the paper fails to examine how ARSG influences tourists' experience. The authors find that social accessibility is a crucial factor as it could interrupt the interaction with technology.

Despite the implications of technology innovation, scholars have shifted their interests to smart destinations, introducing these concepts into both managerial and theoretical implications. Jovicic (2019) acknowledges the importance of understanding what a smart tourism destination is. Furthermore, the concept of smart destination enables collaboration among the public sector, the private sector and consumers. Da Costa Liberato, Alén-González and De Azevedo Liberato (2018) revealed that the availability of information communication of technologies, such as smartphones, the internet and other mobile applications and devices, in smart destinations influence tourists' choice of destination, tourism experiences and satisfaction. Muthuraman and Al Haziazi (2019) further argue that smart tourism destinations could add value to the tourist experience along with the 6As of tourism destination (attractions, accessibility, amenities, available Packages, activities and ancillary services), suggesting more business development opportunities. Moreover, tourism innovation may be a key factor in improving consumer satisfaction (Akdag et al., 2018; Alexander & Marysol, 2016; Lou, Tian & Koh, 2017). In contrast, Alexander and Marysol (2016) show that innovative marketing strategies could improve tourist satisfaction in small and medium-sized tourism companies in Colombia.

In recent years, researchers have begun to investigate artificial intelligence (AI) and virtual reality (VR) at destinations. For instance, Grundner and Neuhofer (2021) indicate that the level of tourist experience depends on the development of AI, and further develop a model called 'The Realms of AI Tourist Experiences'. The model comprises four dimensions with two different axes. One axis describes AI and the tourist experience, and has three sub-

dimensions of information, personalisation, and integration. However, the use of AI may lead to negative experiences as tourists undertake as much research as information at a specific destination is directly available on AI devices. The second area of personalisation is connected with tourists' wants and needs. AI may be able to understand these two aspects, accordingly, facilitating the delivery of the best products and services for tourists. Moreover, AI could provide offers based on tourists' preferences, which enables tourists to have more time to relax and enjoy their travel. Hence, AI helps to improve the tourist experience positively from a personalisation perspective. The last area in the model is integration, which refers to the integration of AI use with other ICTs, like VR. Those devices create virtual experiences allowing tourists to visit a destination virtually, particularly as a result of COVID-19 impact. Although the study emphasises the lighter side of AI, it also reveals its dark side. The biggest concern with AI relates to privacy as tourists are afraid of information disclosure; therefore, AI devices may affect tourists' destination experience. However, the study does not specifically present evidence as to how AI can negatively impact the tourist experience. Hence, the quality of this research is questionable as it uses futures wheel research. Benckendorff (2008) explains that one limitation of this method is the speculative nature of data. In addition, participants are restricted to those below 50; generalisability and representativeness, validity and reliability are therefore not demonstrated in the researchers; data analysis phases.

Similarly, focusing on the scope of VR, a stimulus-organism-response theory was used to investigate the impact of authentic experience on cognitive and affective responses of VR at destinations (Kim, Lee and Jung, 2020). It is found that cognitive and affective responses are important mediators of attachment and visit intention. The results indicate the impact of VR on the travel intention with the influence of cognitive response with VR on the intention to travel to destinations being stronger than that of emotional response.

Several studies demonstrate the positive correlation of experience and innovativeness in different industries with organisational performance, competitive advantage, and long-term sustainability (e.g. Hwang, 2014; Matute-Vallejo & Melero-Polo, 2019; Ratih Puspa & Ike Janita, 2011). However, there is a lack of investigations into tourist experience and innovativeness within the tourism industry. Some articles adopt similar measurements to explore the relationship between experience and innovativeness in other industries. For example, Hwang (2014) uses enjoyment, ease of use and usefulness to describe the experience of personal innovativeness in information technology. Ratih Puspa and Ike Janita (2011) imply that enjoyment can be useful in the fashion industry to measure purchase intention. Through these measurements of the impact of experience and innovativeness, it is acknowledged that innovativeness has a positive

effect on experience to some degree; however, these measurements may have limited application to the tourism and hospitality industry. In this industry, only one study by by Hwang and Hyun (2016) addresses the relationship between innovativeness and tourist experience. The study finds that perceived firm innovativeness has a positive effect on cruise traveller's experience in relation to education, entertainment, aesthetics, and escapism. However, a firm's perspective differs somewhat from that a tourist's.

3.3 Tourist Satisfaction

Satisfaction refers to the perceived difference between expected performance and the perception of performance after consumption (Cengiz, 2010). When the performance is inconsistent with the expected performance, dissatisfaction occurs (Oliver, 1980). Satisfaction can be defined as the degree to which a person believes that experience evokes positive emotions (Oliver & Rust, 1994). Therefore, satisfaction becomes an important indicator of consumers' loyalty, re-purchasing or revisit intention, and word of mouth (Tiganis, Grigoroudis & Chrysochou, 2022). In addition, satisfaction is a key element enabling a company to achieve its strategic plan and financial goals (Song *et al.*, 2012). Satisfaction has been introduced into the tourism industry and is a widely studied in tourism literature (e.g., Asmelash & Kumar, 2019; Bhuiyan, Darda & Hasan, 2021; Durmaz, Çayırağası & Çopuroğlu, 2022; Pestana, Parreira & Moutinho, 2020). Given the importance of satisfaction, the following sections critically review exiting literature related to satisfaction in the tourism industry.

3.3.1 Defining Tourist Satisfaction

In the tourism and hospitality industry, previous studies have shown their understanding of tourist satisfaction from different aspects, including culinary tourist satisfaction in cooking classes, satisfaction during outdoor recreation trips, and bike-sharing availability with tourist satisfaction (e.g. Agyeiwaah *et al.*, 2019; Alexander & Marysol, 2016; Battour, Battor & Bhatti, 2014b; Cevdet Altunel & Erkurt, 2015; Corte *et al.*, 2015; Humagain & Singleton, 2021; Prayag *et al.*, 2022; Zhang *et al.*, 2023). Table 3.3 below presents definitions of tourist satisfaction.

Table 3.3 Definitions of Tourist Satisfaction

Year	Author(s)	Definitions
1978	(Pizam, Neumann & Reichel)	Tourist satisfaction is the result of interaction between a tourist's experience at destination and the expectations about that destination.
1980	(Oliver)	Tourist or consumer satisfaction is a function of the disconfirmation arising from discrepancies between

1982	(Churchill & Surprenant)	Tourist satisfaction results from the purchase and use generated by the buyer comparing the rewards and costs of the purchase with the expected results.
1991	(Hughes)	Tourist satisfaction is a multi-dimensional concept, mainly determined by visitors' attitudes before and after travel.
1994	(Pizam & Ellis)	Tourist or consumer satisfaction is a subjective concept related to expectations and an objective concept related to product attributes or results.
1996	(Chadee & Mattsson)	Tourist satisfaction is a cognitive assessment of an attribute which consumers attach to a service
1997	(Eccles & Durand)	Tourist or consumer experience relates to customers' subjective evaluation of their experience. Different customer groups may use different standards by which to evaluate a given service experience, and these standards will change with different situations and environments
2001	(Bigne, Sanchez & Sánchez)	Tourist satisfaction is a tourist's evaluation of the overall experience of a journey.
2002	(Bowen & Clarke)	Tourist satisfaction is a post-experience assessment (including antecedent variables for expectation, performance, uncertainty, attribution, and fairness/inequality).
2002	(Reisinger)	Tourist satisfaction primarily refers to the function of pre-tourism expectation and post-tourism experience. Visitors are satisfied when the experience compares favourably with their expectations. However, they experience dissatisfaction when this leads to unpleasant feelings. .
2013	(Correia, Kozak & Ferradeira)	Tourist or customer satisfaction is considered as a multidimensional structure including psychological factors and emotional factors.
2018	(Prayag, Suntikul & Agyeiwaah)	Customer satisfaction is defined as a post-consumption behaviour that emanates from cognitive and emotional assessments of an experience, supporting the outcome view of satisfaction.
2019	(Asmelash & Kumar)	Tourist satisfaction refers to r the function of pre-visit expectations and post-visit encounters.
2020	(Chang et al., 2020)	Tourist satisfaction refers to tourists' satisfaction with the overall tour, including the travel itinerary and tour leaders.
2021	(Basak et al., 2021)	Satisfaction refers to the combination of pre-visit assumptions and post-visit interactions.

From the above table, it is evident that definitions of satisfaction are context-specific though they share similarities. . Early studies have shown that there

are different theories behind the concept of tourist satisfaction, such as the expectation-perception gap model by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985), and the expectancy disconfirmation theory by Oliver (1980). Essentially, Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) in their explanation of the expectation-perception gap model that customer satisfaction is the result of the process of comparison between tourists' expectation of products and services and perceived performance. It is suggested that this definition connects tourists' expectations with service quality. However, the definition is ambiguous and simple as tourist satisfaction can be differ at various travel stages. Oliver (1980) proposes the expectancy disconfirmation theory, which argues that when a person purchases a product or service, he or she will have pre-purchase expectations. Once the product or service is purchased and used, the results are then compared to the initial expectations. When this comparison matches, the satisfaction occurs; when disconfirmation results, a mismatch occurs,. Positive disconfirmation occurs when results are greater than expected. Therefore, it is suggested that satisfaction is the result of satisfaction or positive dissatisfaction, while dissatisfaction is caused by negative feelings and emotion. However, the definition lacks any assessment of tourist satisfaction as regards its importance for the destination in having a measurement for tourist satisfaction (Carlos Martin, Saayman & du Plessis, 2019).

Kozak (2000) stresses the importance of adopting different approaches to satisfaction within tourist destinations: customer feedback is one measure through conducting a survey among consumers. Furthermore, the author emphasises that the need for destination marketing organizations to understand the extent to which tourists are satisfied or dissatisfied, alongside a more comprehensive understanding of their needs and aspirations. However, a limitation of the study is that the scope of tourists is not stated given the importance of evidence that tracks tourists' opinions of the design, provision and evaluation of the delivered service (Fuchs & Weiermair, 2003).

As the literature on satisfaction evolves, scholars tended to define satisfaction from affective aspect though there is significant debate as to whether satisfaction is a cognitive, affective judgement or a combination of those aspects. Research incorporates emotional variables to the understanding of satisfaction, defining it in relation to the consumer's emotional response towards the desired level of products or services. Specifically, satisfaction from this perspective refers to the emotional state reflected by tourists' evaluation of a destination (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Similarly, Cole and Scott (2004) defined satisfaction as overall emotions experienced after visiting a destination.

Given the above definitions of tourist satisfaction, in this research, tourist satisfaction refers to tourists' evaluation of the whole journey., with primary

focus on tourists' emotional during and post-trip evaluation of a specific destination. When these during and post-visit experience meets the tourist's expectation, the tourist is satisfied. Once the tourist is satisfied, they repeat the purchase and may engage in word-of-mouth recommendations. The current study therefore foregrounds emotional evaluations, using measurements to examine tourist satisfaction from an intention-oriented, focusing on factors such as recommendations and revisitation intentions. Consequently, data is collected in during and post-travel stages. Detailed information on data collection is provided in the methodology chapter (Chapter 4).

3.3.2 Tourist Satisfaction Research at Destination

Tourist satisfaction is one elements of destination management and economic development, which may influence tourists' destination choice, revisit intention and recommendation to family and friends (Yoon & Uysal, 2005b). Existing studies examine tourist satisfaction at destinations from different perspectives (Assaker, Vinzi & O'connor, 2011b; Hultman *et al.*, 2015; Lo *et al.*, 2011), with researchers linking satisfaction with destination image, memorable experience, ICTs, value and perceived risk, all factors considered to be importance predicators of satisfaction in terms of destination. Many studies confirm that destination image is a significant predicator of satisfaction, with studies highlighting the influence of destination image on satisfaction. For instance, Chiu, Zeng and Cheng (2016) suggest that destination comprises cognitive and affective components, which directly influence satisfaction. Similarly, Loi *et al.* (2017) confirm that destination image positively influences tourist satisfaction. Various studies acknowledge how of ICTs improve destinations, in terms of changing the way accessed information is consumed in tourism. ICTs enable potential tourists to acquire adequate information, which may sport them in enhancing satisfaction. For instance, smartphones use enables tourists to gain information about attractions at the destination, translating essential tourist information into an accessible local language to facilitate comprehension. Additionally, smartphone applications enable tourist to maintain close relationships with their friends and relatives as a communication tool, offering user entertainment to minimise travel and the option to share key experience. Thus, tourist satisfaction is significantly enhanced via the use of smartphones (Tan & Lu, 2019).

Previous research examines the positive relationship between destination experience and revisit intention (e.g. Kim, Hallab & Kim, 2012; Tan, 2017b), and existing literature links tourist satisfaction with revisit intention at destinations (e.g. Assaker & Hallak, 2013; Jang & Feng, 2007; Loi *et al.*, 2017). It is important to have tourists revisiting both newly-developed and well-developed destinations (Petrick, Morais & Norman, 2001). Tourist satisfaction is considered an antecedent to revisit intention (Jang & Feng,

2007). Specifically, Assaker and Hallak (2013) reveal that a high level of tourist satisfaction correlates with high revisit intention both in the long and short term. Moreover, Um, Chon and Ro (2006) argue that perceived destination attractiveness has a more significant effect on revisits than overall satisfaction. This suggests that a visitor's revisit intention depends more on what they are really attracted to than what they are satisfied with.

In terms of geographical locations, studies explore satisfaction effects from various aspects. Satisfaction has been extensively explored in European countries, particularly, Italy and Spain. For instance, Iniesta-Bonillo, Sánchez-Fernández and Jiménez-Castillo (2016) examine the relationships between Italian and Spanish tourists' perceived sustainability of a tourist destination and their perceived value and satisfaction. Similarly, Mainolfi and Marino (2020) investigate special events in southern Italy, and how event satisfaction can influence acceptance of regionally produced products. Further, research in Sweden by Heuvel *et al.* (2022) explores how fishing destination loyalty is significantly influenced by image, satisfaction and place attachment. As regards on Asian countries, a study by Lo *et al.* (2011) confirms a positive relationship between service quality and the level of satisfaction in a remote destination in Malaysia. Bui and Le (2016) confirm that destination image influences the level of tourist satisfaction in Vietnam. Lam, Ismail and Lee (2020) focus on users-generated platforms as a contributing factor in the relationships between co-creation experience, destination image, and overall destination satisfaction in Malaysia. Su *et al.* (2020) identify an indirect relationship between tourists' motivations and satisfaction in the context of heritage tourism in Vietnam. Despite the increase in tourist satisfaction at destinations in Asian countries, further research is required to examine tourist satisfaction in mainland China due to different cultural factors between western and eastern countries, and given that tourist satisfaction different indicators among various nationalities (Voldnes, Grønhaug & Nilssen, 2012). Therefore, there is a need to investigate tourist satisfaction in Chinese destinations.

3.3.3 Tourist Satisfaction Research on Innovativeness

Recently, practitioners have identified product innovativeness as an important influencer on satisfaction in different industries (Christensen, Cook & Hall, 2005; Stock, 2011). Kibbeling, Der Bij and Weele (2013) find that firm innovativeness contributes to customer satisfaction from the supplier perspective in the supply chain. Stock (2011) compares consumer satisfaction in the context of goods innovativeness and service innovativeness, confirming that in relation to innovativeness of goods offering, there is a U-shaped relationship between this and consumer satisfaction, and an S-shaped relationship between service innovativeness and customer satisfaction. Despite the plethora of publications related to innovativeness and satisfaction

in different industries, further study of satisfaction and innovativeness is required in the tourism industry. In the hospitality industry, Ariffin and Aziz (2012) examine the effect of physical environment's innovativeness on the relationship between hosting quality and satisfaction in the hotel services. Sreejesh, Mitra and Sahoo (2015) confirm a positive relationship between satisfaction and perceived service innovativeness in the general service industry, highlighting that perceived service innovativeness will promote satisfaction at both cognitive and affective level. However, research on tourist satisfaction and innovativeness in the tourism industry is absent.

Exiting existing literature within the tourism and hospitality industry primarily , examines the impact of innovation on tourist satisfaction and tourist experience in various contexts, including the usage of ICTs and smart tourist destinations (e.g., Brooker & Joppe, 2014; Divisekera & Nguyen, 2018; Hjalager, 2014; Mei, Arcodia & Ruhanen, 2012; Mei, Arcodia & Ruhanen, 2015; Paget, Dimanche & Mounet, 2010). As mentioned in the previous chapter, innovation and innovativeness are two distinct concepts, even though both terms refer to novelty and creativity. Innovation is considered a process for firms to deliver new, creative products or services, while innovativeness is a precondition for providing innovations, as it presents as the ability of a firm to be innovative.

Most studies focus on how different types of tourism innovation promote the destination, with aspects such as product innovation (Huang, 2019; Wang, 2019), marketing innovation (Qin, 2010; Wang, 2018; Yuan, 2018) and technology innovation (Dong, 2018). However, among these studies, the different types of innovation are not given individual attention. For example, Dong (2018) dealt with marketing innovation and technology innovation together, focusing on Fuzhou city as a specific case study to explore tourism innovation. The study does however show how new media platforms could impact marketing and tourists' travelling experiences and feelings. In the study, new media platforms-specifically the internet, mobile devices and interactive digital television- are considered as innovative practices with different functions. In addition, the author refers 5G technology because of its speed. First, tourists can obtain more destination information prior to travelling using the new social media platforms from viewing the destination organisers online promotion material. Then, tourists can interact with the destination and complete payment transactions with new technology during their travel. Finally, tourists could influence potential consumers' destination choices by sharing content on the latest social media platforms. However, a limitation of this paper is that it neglects the importance of other types of innovation in the context of destination.

In contrast, Qin (2010) take tourism performing arts (TPA) in the Xiangxi area of Hunan province as a case study. TPA is a type of artform combining artistic

performance with entertainment through original, indigenous or innovative cultural expressions (Zheng *et al.*, 2019). While, the paper provides a useful summary of all existing problems and marketing strategies, It lacks research methods and evidence to validate the issues. Wen (2017) studies marketing innovation from the perspective of a unique selling proposition. The study provides some marketing innovation strategies, including intellectual property strategy, event-marketing planning, different offline- online strategy and various marketing channels. Specifically, it suggests that it is necessary to attract more tourists away from reality shows or other entertainment shows, arguing that the idea of intellectual property may be the unique selling proposition for Hunan Province. Hunan TV has received significant attention from national wide audiences with   Hunan increasingly becoming a top tourism destination choice (Zeng, 2015b). Although this paper provides a different insight into marketing strategies for Hunan Province destination innovation, a limitation is that the paper does not provide details of research methods and data analysis used.

Although the current body of literature recognises the pivotal role of innovation in the tourism industry and offers some in-depth exploration of innovation types, supporting and enabling destinations in offering novel and distinctive products and services for enhanced competitiveness, there remains a gap. Specifically, there studies fail to clearly define what constitutes 'destination innovativeness' and to delineate its various forms. As highlighted in the preceding chapter, the tourism sector can bring substantial economic rewards; therefore, in view of the significant role that innovativeness plays in the tourism industry, it is imperative to identify and articulate the different types and facets of innovativeness. This clarification is vital in assisting firms in remaining competitive and meeting tourist expectations through their innovative practices.

3.3.3.1 Tourist Satisfaction Measurements

Existing literature considers different factors in measuring tourist satisfaction at destinations. For example, McDowall (2010) uses level of tourist satisfaction, convenience, tourist products, and tourist activities. In addition, the study measures two aspects of destination loyalty, namely, revisit intention and recommendation to others. Todorović, Manojlović and Budović (2017) apply HOLiday SATisfaction (HOLSAT) instruments to measure tourist satisfaction through examination of tourist expectations. The study explores seven factors to measure tourist expectations: attractions, appearance, safety, communication, services, transportation, and affordability. Kozak and Rimmington (2000) examine four factors to measure tourist satisfaction at destinations: destination attractiveness; tourist attractions and facilities; availability of English language; and facilities and services at the destination airport. In this study, the focus is primarily on revisits and recommendations,

as the two factors with the potential to highly influence tourist satisfaction. Previous studies have been confirmed the impacts of tourist satisfaction on the same two factors (e.g., Cong, 2021; Saayman *et al.*, 2018; Shaykh-Baygloo, 2021; Vieira, Jordan & Santos, 2021). In this research, revisit intention refers to an individual's willingness and desire to visit the same destination more than once (Stylos *et al.*, 2016). Recommendation intention is defined as people's willingness to recommend a destination, product or service to others after the consumer's experience is satisfied (Cheung & Thadani, 2012).

Based on a review of previous literature, the research indicates a further gap in exploring tourist experience and innovativeness. There is a paucity of research examining tourist satisfaction and innovativeness across various sectors, specifically destination, of the tourism industry. To address those research gaps, this study focuses on an investigation of relationship between tourist experience and tourist satisfaction from a tourist's perspective, given the significant differences between tourists and firms within the tourism industry. Firstly, the roles firms and tourists play are distinct, with firms serving as providers of tourism services, and tourists as users of tourism facilities and services. Tourists, being a diverse group with varied personalities and experiences, exhibit distinctive motivations and needs (Cooper, 2012).

Secondly, motivations driving tourists and firms differ extensively. Travellers may select a destination based on various factors, such as novelty seeking (Maghrifani, Liu & Sneddon, 2022), assurance seeking (Assiouras *et al.*, 2015) and escape motivation (Back, Bufquin & Park, 2021). In contrast, firms in the tourism industry aim for sustainable development, including business growth and profit maximisation (Wang, Hung & Huang, 2019). The differences in roles and motivations among tourists highlight the complexity in comprehending their diverse preferences and expectations. Additionally, tourist satisfaction is closely interrelated with tourist experience. If tourists are content with their travel experience, they are likely to revisit and recommend the destinations. Prior studies have extensively explored the impact of innovation on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction; however, research on innovativeness from the perspective of tourist experience and tourist satisfaction remains scarce. Consequently, there is a lack of understanding of tourists' behaviours regarding innovativeness, resenting an important gap integrating tourist satisfaction, tourist experience and innovativeness from the tourist's perspective, as explored in this study.

Exploring these identified gaps offers a significant contribution to the literature and knowledge Addressing them can enrich existing literature by providing a more comprehensive and in-depth understanding of the relationship between destination innovativeness, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. This knowledge extension can contribute to the development of more effective

strategies for enhancing and improving tourist experience and tourist satisfaction, and useful in ensuring the sustainable development of a destination. Thus, this study's contributions are valuable for expanding theoretical frameworks for understanding destination innovativeness.

3.4 Gender Research in the Tourism and Hospitality Context

Gender is a key demographic factor, and it is defined as "a set of characteristics that distinguish between males and females" (Hwang, Lee & Kim, 2019, p.96). As gender is a frequently explored topic in the field of tourism literature, a primary emphasis of its examination within the realm of is on tourism employment. This issue includes double workload (Duffy *et al.*, 2015), wage gap (Marfil Cotilla & Campos-Soria, 2021), and discriminations faced by female managers (Carvalho *et al.*, 2019). Additionally, existing literature highlights a robust correlation between gender and tourist's consumption behaviour (e.g., Jog, Gumparthi & Jena, 2024; Tan & Ooi, 2018; Zou *et al.*, 2022). For instance, Zou *et al.* (2022) confirm the moderating effect of gender on revisit and recommendation intentions. Furthermore, research highlights the common observation that female and male tourists hold distinct perspectives on the connections between tourism products or services purchase experience and tourist satisfaction. Chua *et al.* (2019a) confirm an insignificant moderation effect on satisfaction and behaviour intentions between male and female travellers in the context of cruise industry. Abubakar *et al.* (2017) examine the impact of gender on recommendation intention in the context of medical tourism, confirming that males are more likely to revisit a destination and recommend to others. Differing preferences between male and female tourists may arise for various reasons, including the different contexts, gender equality and various types of socially constructed cognitive structure. Hence, males and females display different motivations underpinning their decision-making processes. Therefore, there is a need to investigate the moderation effect of gender in the context of tourist destinations.

Previous studies have demonstrated gender differences in innovativeness, satisfaction or experience in diverse fields (e.g., Ab Halim, 2012a; Ali, 2019; Michon *et al.*, 2007; Nirmala & Dewi, 2011). For example, Huang *et al.* (2022) investigate innovativeness and entrepreneurial performance of female entrepreneurs, indicating positive impact of female entrepreneurs' innovativeness on entrepreneurial performance. Hwang, Lee and Kim (2019) examine the moderating effect of gender on drone food delivery services, confirming that females are more inclined to use the service, and that female users perceive the utilisation of drones as innovative. The study's findings further indicate that females are more likely to express positive opinion about drones than males. In contrast, other previous studies have revealed that

males are more inclined to exhibit re-use intentions. For instance, Chen *et al.* (2015) in examining the moderating effect of gender on re-purchase intention when users intend to engage in online shopping, find that male users exhibit a higher re-purchase intention than females.

Considering the dynamic nature of the tourism industry, where tourist preferences, including those differentiated by gender, are in constant flux (Choe, Baek & Kim, 2023; Nguyen, 2022), it is critical to examine the intersection of gender and TPDI. TPDI has the potential to empower travellers, particularly by specifically tailoring experiences to individual needs and addressing any specific concerns that may arise for female tourists. This personalisation approach can significantly enhance the overall tourist experience and satisfaction. However, there is a noticeable gap in empirical research that explicitly connects gender differences, particularly within the tourism context, to destination innovativeness and its impact on tourist experience and satisfaction. This paucity of research highlights a crucial gap for future study, to gain a better understanding of these dynamics which could identify more nuanced and effective strategies in tourism management and marketing.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter has mainly presented a review of key literature on tourist experience, tourist satisfaction and gender in a tourism context. Most importantly, several research gaps are identified throughout the review. Empirically, the proposed effects of perceived innovativeness on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction need further detailed verification through actual tourists' experiences. Methodologically, a mixed research method is therefore required. The identified research gaps, highlight the importance of obtaining a richer, detailed picture of tourist experience and satisfaction by assessing the relationship between them in the context of tourist's perceived innovativeness for the benefits of both practitioners and scholars. The next chapter outlines methodological approach and justify the rationale underpinning for different choices related to the selected collection and analysis techniques.

Chapter 4 Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter mainly presented the research methodology employed for the current study, which reflected how the research was performed scientifically and systematically. Particularly, the research was undertaken in three different stages, though both Stage 2 and 3 applied a quantitative approach. Yet, those stages had different purposes, each stage used different data analysis techniques. The presentation of three stages was integrated, while those stages were conducted one after another.

The structure of this chapter was arranged as follows. The researcher started with the research philosophy, which covered different research types and ontological and epistemological assumptions of the philosophical paradigm. Then, the research design was included in this thesis. After that, the researcher provided justification for the usage of mixed research methods. The consequent sections presented the primary data collection methods, including the design of interview questions and questionnaires' design and layout, pilot studies, and sampling techniques for different stages. Then the data analysis methods were presented, including exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and structural equation modelling. Finally, a concluding summary was provided.

4.2 Research Philosophy

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) defined research philosophy as the assumptions about the way of seeing the world. Research philosophy played a huge role in research as it related to the "development of knowledge and nature of knowledge (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012, p.126)", and there was a necessity to determine the research paradigm before any empirical activity to develop an appropriate research design (Maxwell, 2005). Paradigm is considered as the worldview that consists of beliefs and assumptions about knowledge and informs their research (Creswell & Clark, 2017). Particularly, those philosophical assumptions could shape the research process and the way of conducting research (Creswell & Clark, 2017). Mainly, several research philosophies existed, which were commonly seen in the research, such as positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism and pragmatism (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). In addition, there are three main components of research philosophy, and they are ontology, epistemology and

methodology (Scotland, 2012). Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality, and epistemology is concerned with the nature and forms of knowledge (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Methodology is the strategy for researchers to choose particular methods (Crotty, 1998). Scotland (2012, p.9) explains that the methodology deals with "why, what, from where, when and how data is collected and analyzed." Those three paradigms are based on their own ontological and epistemological assumptions.

Chen (2016), Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012), and Scotland (2012) stated that there are four major philosophical paradigms and they are pragmatism, realism, interpretivism, and positivism. Each paradigm had its ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions. The proper research paradigm helps the researcher to accommodate "facts and values, accurate and rigorous knowledge and different contextualized experiences" (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012, p.143).

Consequently, pragmatism is more suitable for two main reasons.

Firstly, the selection of research methods for a particular study is based on the research question (Creswell & Clark, 2017). Additionally, pragmatism is considered the philosophical match of the mixed methods approach (Denscombe, 2008). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) state that multiple methods within one study are highly appropriate for pragmatism research. Moreover, pragmatists insist that many ways of interpreting the world can be used in research. Therefore, reliable, credible and relevant data are produced (Kelemen & Rumens, 2008).

Secondly, ontologically, pragmatism states that the 'reality' is the result of ideas, and pragmatists typically start with a problem and aim at contributing practical implications (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). The current research is consistent with the ontology believes of pragmatism. Initially, the researcher had a doubt about the destinations in Hunan Province based on the researcher's previous travel experience and study experience. However, number of articles suggested that innovation can enhance tourist experience and satisfaction in the context of destination (Carson & Carson, 2018; Cui, 2001; Kozak, 2014; Liberato, Alen & Liberato, 2018; Prayag *et al.*, 2017a; Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003; Su & Hsu, 2013; Sukiman *et al.*, 2013), and the doubt is that "Can tourist experience and satisfaction enhance destination in terms of perceived innovativeness?" Epistemologically, pragmatism focuses on true theories. In this study, the research extracts measurable items from the existing theories related to the key terms, such as tourist loyalty (Faullant, Matzler & Mooradian, 2011; Lee *et al.*, 2008; Prayag *et al.*, 2017a), intention to recommend to others (Grappi & Montanari, 2011; Lee *et al.*, 2008), destination emotion scale (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010b; Hosany *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, pragmatism is an ideal research philosophy for the current study as

it enables the researcher to use quantitative and qualitative research methods, and it can help the researcher to facilitate replication related to the key topics (e.g.Battour, Battor & Bhatti, 2014a; Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018).

4.3 Research Approach

There are three types of research approaches. They are quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods (Creswell, Plano Clark & Hanson, 2003). All those three types of research approaches provide particular procedures.

This research applied a mixed research method, and the rationale of the utilization is presented as follows.

Firstly, mixed research methods could add credibility to the research, because the employment of mixed research methods could enhance the "integrity of findings (Bryman, 2006, p.106)."

Secondly, Creswell and Creswell (2017) indicate that the choice of research method depends on the nature of research problem or issue being addressed, personal experience of the researcher and the audiences for the study. However, with a further review of relevant literature on assessing the relationship among tourist destination perceived innovativeness, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction, both the qualitative research approach and quantitative research approach have been the dominant research approach meaning that there is a lack of employment of mixed research methods. Consequently, the selection of mixed research approach can contribute to filling the methodological gap present in current destination innovativeness research.

Lastly, the use of mixed research methods could confirm findings and minimizing the weakness of the quantitative and qualitative methods (Creswell & Clark, 2017). Specifically, the qualitative data can generate items about tourist destination perceived innovativeness and using the quantitative research to test and confirm results by applying mixed research methods (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). For mixed research methods, there are different classification of mixed research methods (Doyle, Brady & Byrne, 2009; Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). Table 4.1presented different types of mixed research methods research and sequential mixed research design.

Table 4.1 Classification of mixed methods research

Typology of mixed methods research	Description
Concurrent mixed methods research	This research involves the separate use of quantitative and qualitative methods within a single

	phase of data collection and analysis.
Sequential mixed methods research	This research involves more than one phase of data collection and analysis.
Sequential exploratory research design	The first phase of qualitative data collection and analysis is followed by the collection of quantitative data to test or generalized the initial qualitative results.
Sequential explanatory research design	The first phase of quantitative data collection and analysis is followed by the collection of qualitative data, which are used to explain the initial quantitative results.

Source: (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012)

After reviewing the table above, this research applied sequential mixed research methods according to the previous research process, because this research involved more than one phases of data collection and analysis. In addition, this research applied a sequential exploratory research design. The first phase of qualitative data collection and analysis enabled the researcher to gain depth understating of tourist destination perceived innovativeness, and the followed quantitative data collection and analysis helped the researcher to test the understanding and to generalized factors that influence tourist destination perceived innovativeness.

4.4 Research Design

Research is widely accepted a series of highly interrelated activities (Cooper, 2014; Kumar, 2014), and it generally involves several steps to answer research questions by collecting, analyzing and interpreting primary and secondary data. Kumar (2014) states that research has five characteristics, and they are controllable, rigorous, systematic, valid and verifiable, empirical and critical.

For this research, in total, six steps were taken as explained below.

1. It involves reviewing existing literature in the tourism and hospitality industry to develop specific research question, and the research aim and objective.

2. The research gaps are identified based on the reviewed literature with the guidance of the research aim and objectives.

3. A theoretical framework is generated to achieve the research aim and objectives. The conceptual framework is conducted to analyse data both quantitatively and qualitatively.

4. The first data collection and analysis stage was designed for generating items for destination innovativeness from the tourists' perspective. Therefore, interview questions are designed based on relevant literature, which involves understanding relevant terms and personal information for this study (question designing was further presented in 4.5.2.1). After a pilot study was performed, more interviews were undertaken with tourists. The primary purpose of this stage is to generate items. Therefore, the understanding of destination innovativeness is presented in Chapter 5.

5. It aims to purify and refine scales generated from the first stage; therefore, quantitative data collection and analysis were designed at Stage 2. Before distributing questionnaires, a pilot study was conducted to refine the questionnaire to avoid the respondents' problems while answering the questions. After the pilot testing, the questionnaires were distributed in major attractions of Changsha city. After the questionnaire was gathered from the participants, the exploratory factor analysis was used to identify factors and refine statements.

6. The purposes of this stage are to validate statements that are refined from Stage 2 and test hypotheses based on existing literature. The confirmatory factor analysis was used to validate refined statements, and the SEM was used to test relationships between TPDI, TE and TS (Detailed analysis was presented in Chapter 5).

As mentioned in previous sections, each stage of this research has its own purposes, thus, the table (Table 4.2 below presents purposes of each stage.

Table 4.2 Purpose(s) for different stages of the primary data collection and analysis

Stage	Purpose(s)
1	To generate items for TPDI
2	To purify and refine statements that generated from Stage 1
3	a. To validate 31 statements that purified and refined from Stage 2 b. To test the model regarding relationships among different constructs.

4.4.1 Research Strategy

A research strategy is the plan that answers a researcher's questions. The choice of research strategy depends on the research objectives, types of research questions, accessibility of data sources, and time constraints (Sekaran, 2016). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) discuss eight types of research strategies, and they are experiment, survey, archival and documentary research, case study, ethnography, action research, grounded theory and narrative inquiry. While Sekaran (2016) numbers five types of research strategies: experiment, ethnography, case study, grounded theory, action research and survey.

For this research, two research strategies are used.

The case study is the primary research strategy in the first stage of this research. As case study can gain an in-depth understanding in a real-life setting, which is consistent with the purpose of this stage of research. The case study enables the researcher to understand the dynamics of destination innovativeness in real life. Furthermore, Flyvberg (2011) indicates that case studies have been commonly used in business and management for a long time.

For the second and stage of the primary data collection. The survey is used as the main research strategy, and there are two main reasons for using this strategy. Firstly, the survey strategy helps investigate relationships between variables and develop a model between those variables (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). In this study, the survey could help the researcher examine relationships between TPDI, TE, and TS and produce a model based on the relationships. Secondly, the survey could provide potential reasons to explain the particular relationships (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012).

4.5 Data Collection Methods

In this section, data collection methods for both quantitative and qualitative approaches were clarified. As each data collection has different purposes, three stages of data collection are addressed. Further, the unstructured interview's design and translation, pilot testing, the questionnaire's design and translation, pilot testing are clarified. Interviews are used to identify themes and generate items of the scale for TDPI. Therefore, the quantitative approach is the first stage of this study.

In terms of the language for conducting three stages of data collections, both English and Chinese were used. The reasons for using Chinese and English were presented as follow. Firstly, the use of Chinese could ensure participants

understand and comprehend questions as Chinese is the mother tongue of participants. Meanwhile, the use of Chinese could help the researcher to gain more in-depth data, thus, it is helpful to achieve the research aim and objectives. Secondly, the use of English for conducting the research could help the researcher to understand TPDI from diverse cultural backgrounds. Initially, the interview questions and questionnaires were designed in English and then translated into Chinese. Those questions were checked by the direct of study and the second supervisor, the thesis supervisory team, who can speak Chinese and English. Moreover, they are experts in tourism area. Furthermore, interviews were undertaken with English speakers. However, a professional translator was not used.

4.5.1 Qualitative Data Collection (Stage 1)

As the research chooses the sequential exploratory research design, the qualitative research method, specifically a semi-structured interview, is selected as the first phase of the mixed research methods in this study. It is a widely used method of data collection to interview respondents to obtain information on a specific research topic. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p.388)'s definition, the interview is "a purposeful conversation between two or more people, requiring the interviewer to establish rapport and ask concise and unambiguous questions, to which the interviewee is willing to respond, and to listen attentively."

Mainly, interviews can be classified into three different types, and there are structured interviews, semi-structured interviews and unstructured interviews. Structured interviews refer to standardized or identical sets of questions that are prepared in advance (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). The content of a structured interview contains an introduction, a set of logical topics and suggestions for probing questions (Sekaran, 2016). Semi-structured interviews cover a list of themes and some key questions. As for unstructured interviews, the interviews do not have a planned setting. Sekaran (2016) indicates that the tentative theory of the factors can be conceptualized based on information obtained from structured interviews or unstructured interviews. Table 4.3 presents the advantages and disadvantages of the three types of interviews.

Table 4.3 Advantages and disadvantages of different type of interviews

Types of interviews	Advantages	Disadvantages

Structured interviews	1. It has standardised questions usually with pre-coded answers. 2. It has a higher response rate than the questionnaire	1. The manner, such as the tone and voice of interviewers, impacts the answers. 2. It is time-consuming
Semi-structured interviews	1. A researcher has a list of themes and key questions. 2. The order of questions could vary depending on the conversation flow.	1. Some questions may be omitted in particular questions. 2. Additional question may be needed to explore research questions within particular organisations,
Unstructured interviews (In-depth interviews)	1. There is no prepared list of questions. 2. The researcher could have in-depth conversations with participants because the interviews are informal.	1. It required the interviews to have a clear idea about the aspects that they wanted to explore. 2. The interviewees' perceptions guide the conduct of the interview and topic discussed.

Adapted from (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012)

In addition, the interviews can be conducted either face to face or via advanced technology, such as telephones, videoconferencing or webcam (Brotherton, 2015). Each interview has its advantages and advantages concerning its cost and time. In this study, a face-to-face interview is adopted to conduct the research. According to Sekaran (2016), there are several advantages to apply face to face interviews. First, they can establish intimate connection with respondents and can motivate respondents. Second, the face-to-face interview can clarify the questions and help respondents to answer doubt. In addition, they can figure out the nonverbal cues. Lastly, the face-to-face interviews can use visual aids. However, this technique has disadvantages, such as time consuming, high expense and confidential concern from the interviewees.

After reviewing the advantages and disadvantages of the three different types of interviews. Consequently, this research used semi-structured interview to collect data in terms of Stage 1, and there are two reasons behind this choice. Firstly, it is an effective method to gain insight into the phenomena in question. In addition, the interviewees provide thorough and in-depth information, which cannot acquired by surveys (Malhotra, 2004). Secondly, according to Churchill (1979)' suggested procedures for constructing and validating new scales, the first step is developing a sample of items by exploratory study. Semi-structured interviews can be beneficial to finding out the phenomena and understanding the context because of their flexibility and adaptability

(Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012).

4.5.1.1 Interview Question Design

Semi-structured interviews enable the researcher to improvise questions based on the response from the participants given the flexibility of semi-structured interviews (Kallio *et al.*, 2016a; Rubin & Rubin, 2004). Furthermore, semi-structured interviews could have a framework to guide the interviews, and semi-structured interviews consist main theme-related questions and follow-up questions (Kallio *et al.*, 2016b).Thus, this study includes both prompted question related to the understanding of destination innovativeness and close-ended questions. Moreover, the permission for conducting the semi-structured interview were asked from the tourists. After getting permissions from tourists, the recorder, notebook and a pen were used, and the recorder allowed the researcher to listen to interviews again and provide accurate and unbiased records (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012).

Specifically, the interviews included two main questions about the understanding of destination innovativeness from tourists, which are developed based on the study of Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018) that conducted the interviews with students at a university. However, this study developed the theme-related questions to the tourists for achieving the research objectives. In terms of close-ended questions, they were about personal information of interviewees, including age, education level, travelling experience and travel history to Hunan (See Appendix C and D for the English and Chinese version of interview questions).

4.5.2 Quantitative Data Collection (Stage 2 & 3)

In this section, it mainly focuses on the data collection of Stage 2 and 3, and these two stages use questionnaire to obtain primary data, yet they have different purposes, therefore, Stage 3 of data collection is after Stage 2. Consequent section discusses both the second and third stage of data collection as the same quantitative data collection method is used. Moreover, pilot testing and questionnaire designing are included for both stages.

4.5.2.1 Stage 2 Item Purification and Stage 3 Scale Validation and Hypotheses Testing

Questionnaire survey is a collection of structured questions, and it is given respondents to answer those sets of questions in a predetermined order (De Vaus, 2013; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Moreover, the questionnaire

can be used for exploratory research because it could provide insights on different relationships among various variables (Bell, 2019). Therefore, the questionnaire survey, is suitable for this thesis as it can explore the cause-and-effect relationships between TPDI, TE and TS. The researcher applied questionnaire surveys for both Stage 2 and Stages 3, and they were gathered separately. After the data analysis for Stage 1, the questionnaire for Stage 2 was designed to purify and refine items that generated from Stage 1. Then, the questionnaire for Stage 3 was developed after the analysis of Stage 2, and this was to validate and test relationships. Furthermore, the choice of which questionnaire to use is influenced by several factors regarding to research questions and objectives, including characteristics of respondents, sample size for the analysis, and types and numbers of questions (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012).

In terms of types of questionnaires, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) addressed two different types of questionnaire, and they were self-completed and interviewer-completed questionnaires. Self-completed questionnaires referred to those questionnaires were completed by respondents, and this type of questionnaires had further three sub-types. The first sub-type was postal questionnaires, and it was sent to respondents by mail. Internet questionnaire was the second sub-type, and respondents could access the questionnaire via hyperlink or quick response (QR) code. The last one was delivery and collection questionnaire, and they were distributed by researchers and collected later. In terms of interviewer-completed questionnaires, researchers recorded the answers from the respondents through telephone or face-to-face (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Thus. there are three main reasons for this study to use face-to-face delivery and collection questionnaire. Firstly, questionnaire enables the researcher to explore potential cause-and-effect relationships between specific variables (TPDI, TE and TS). Secondly, questionnaire is a widely used type of survey in the tourism research (Brunt, 1997; Cooper, 2001; Veal, 2011). Thirdly, a direct contact with respondents could improve the percentage to complete questionnaires by answering ambiguous questions for respondents (Bryman, 2015).

4.5.2.2 Questionnaire Design and Layout

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) acknowledged that most of questionnaire could include the combination of open and closed questions. Open questions allowed participants to have their own answers, while closed questions referred to the questions that respondents could choose from a number of alternative answers. Open questions were helpful when researchers explored more detailed information, especially, the accurate wording and the amount of space partially determine the length and fullness of answer. However, this question could be off-putting if the researcher left too

many space (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). In terms of closed questions, they were easy and quick to answer as this type of question provide answers for participants (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Moreover, there were six types of closed questions, including list, category, ranking, rating, quantity, matrix, and combing rating questions into scales questions (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Particularly, the researcher used rating questions for this study. Specifically, the thesis used self-completed questionnaires with closed rating questions to data from tourists who visited to Hunan Province (China) for both Stage 2 and 3.There were two main reasons for using closed-questions for this research. Firstly, closed questions were easy to process answers, and the selected answers from respondents could be coded mechanically (Bell, 2019). Secondly, they could enhance the comparability of answers, and it became easier to present relationships between variables and make comparisons between different types of respondents (Bell, 2019). Furthermore, the thesis used rating closed questions. The main reason for using rating questions was that the type of this collection was to collect opinion data from respondents (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012), which was helpful to understand tourists on destination innovativeness for this thesis.

The Likert scale is used to present the choice of questions for both Stage 2 and Stage 3. The Likert rating scale is considered as the most useful procedure for generating measurements, which is widely used in social science (Asún, Rdz-Navarro & Alvarado, 2016). Particularly, the Likert scale asks respondents to choose the most appropriate statements to present their opinion by using a four-, five-, six-, or seven-point rating scale. In particular, the thesis used seven-point rating scale for several reasons. Firstly, the reliability is optimized with seven-point scale (Colman, Norris & Preston, 1997). Secondly, the seven-point scale would result in a stronger correlation in terms of t-test.(Lewis, 1993).

The designing of the questionnaire at second stage was after the analysis of qualitative data, and this purpose was to purify and refine statements that generated from Stage 1. Thus, the questions included three parts when the researcher was designing the questionnaire. In terms of the third stage, after the analysis of second stage of quantitative data, the questionnaire for third stage is designed. As this stage, the purpose is to validate scales and test relationships between destination innovativeness, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Therefore, the questionnaire for this stage contains four parts. Therefore, the final forms of questionnaires for two stages were given to tourists in Hunan, which presented in the following table 4.4 and 4.5 (Detailed questionnaire were presented as appendix E to appendix H for both Chinese and English version).

Table 4.4 Questionnaire Layout for Stage 2

Questionnaire Part	Description	Reference(s)
Part 1	Introduction of the research, including aim and objective of this research	(Bryman, 2016)
Part 2	Personal information, including age, gender, education level, and the province where the participants are from	(Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018; Kim, Im & Shin, 2022)
Part 3	Generated statements (5 from Stage 1	Own questions were developed from interviews in Stage 1

Source: Author's own

Table 4.5 Questionnaire Layout for Stage 3

Questionnaire Part	Description	Reference(s)
Part 1	Introduction of the research, including aim and objective of this research	(Bryman, 2016)
Part 2	Personal information, including age, gender, education level, and the province where the participants are from	(Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018; Kim, Im & Shin, 2022)
Part 3	Remained statements purified and refined from Stage 2	Own questions were developed from Stage 2
Part 4	Reflected TE in 6 statements from No.36-No.41 Demonstrated 3 statements that reflected TS from No.42-No.44	(Cevdet Altunel & Erkurt, 2015; Suhartanto *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2023)

Source: Author's own

The part one, two three for both stages had similar contents. Bryman (2016) stressed that it was necessary to present research information and ensure confidentiality. Therefore, the introductory parts for both Stage 2 and 3 had a summarized paragraph to introduce the aim and objectives of the thesis, and personal information about the researcher. The second parts for both stages were about demographic information of participants. Regarding the third parts for both stages, statements for purifying and validating TPDI at Stage 2 and 3, those were own questions developed, based on Stage 1, to achieve objectives of this research (Objective 1 and 2). In addition, the part four for questionnaire at Stage 3 contained necessary variables, TE and TS, for this study. The measures for TE and TS were adopted from previous studies to

ensure the reliability and validity. TE was measured by 6 items, which were commonly used in tourism research to measure tourist experience. TS was measured by 3 items, and they were adapted widely in tourism literature.

4.5.2.3 Pilot Testing

A pilot study is a 'trail run' in a small scale of a larger survey based on definition of Veal (2011). In addition, a range of purposes by conducing pilot studies, which includes testing questionnaire wording, sequencing, structure, and fieldwork arrangements, training fieldworkers, estimating response rate and interview time, and testing analysis procedures (Veal, 2011).

The pilot studies for Stage 2 and Stage 3 were conducted separately. Before the pilot study for Stage 2, the questionnaire was sent to supervisors to review the representativeness and suitability of questions. Then, the pilot study for Stage 2 was undertaken from 5th to 6th January of 2021. During that period, 25 copies of questionnaires were distributed to tourists as Fink (2013) suggested that the minimum number for most student questionnaire was 10. Twenty valid copies of questionnaires were gathered from tourists who came to Changsha. In terms of Stage 3, a pilot study was conducted from 1st to 2nd April of 2021. During that period, 36 copies of questionnaires were sent out, and 31 usable copies were collected. Also, a copy of questionnaire for both stages was given to a friend for face validity, this was to ensure that the questions were sensible and easy to understand (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Additionally, most participants commented that the instructions of questions were clarified.

4.6 Sampling Techniques

Sampling is a necessary procedure for most of research, and the definition based on Sekaran (2016, p.235), sampling refers to "the process of selecting the right individuals, objects, or events as representative for the entire population." Finn (2000) stresses that the results of data collected from a sample could be reliable or repeatable. In addition, the sampling can reduce bias and errors (Chen, 2016).

Generally, the sampling techniques are categorized into two broad types, and they are probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Bryman, 2015; Churchill, 2004; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012; Sekaran, 2016). Probability sampling contains nonzero and known elements in the population (Churchill, 2004; Sekaran, 2016). Researchers can specify in advance the probability of choosing any given sample size, calculate the sampling error, and obtain representative information for the population by using probability sampling (Malhotra, 2017; McDaniel, 2006). However, the sampling frame

needs to be detailed, and the target population needs to be operationalized precisely to achieve the purpose of sampling (McDaniel, 2006). There are four common techniques, and they are simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster sampling (Sekaran, 2016). Table 4.6 presents definition, advantages and disadvantages of different probability sampling techniques.

Table 4.6 Definition, Advantages and Disadvantages of Probability Sampling

Probability sampling techniques	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
Simple random sampling	Element in the population has known and equal chance to be selected as a subject.	It has least bias and offers the most possibilities.	The sampling process could be cumbersome and expensive.
Systematic sampling	This sampling technique starts with a randomly chosen element between 1 and nth drawing from every nth element in the population.	This technique could increase representative, and it is easier to implement.	There are possible systematic biases.
Stratified random sampling	This technique involves a process of segregation, followed by random selection of subjects from each stratum.	It is more efficient among all probability sampling.	It is time-consuming.
Cluster sampling	This sampling is gathered in group or chunks of elements that are natural aggregates of elements in the population.	The geographic clusters and costs are low.	It is the least reliable and efficient.

Source: (Sekaran, 2016)

Compared with probability sampling, non-probability sampling refers to "the elements in the population do not have any probabilities attached to their being chosen as sample subjects (Sekaran, 2016)." This means that the findings of these samplings cannot be securely generalized to the population. The non-probability includes four different non-probability sampling techniques, and they are: convenience sampling, judgement sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling. Table 4.7 presents advantages and disadvantages of specific sampling techniques under non-probability sampling.

Table 4.7 Definitions, Advantages and Disadvantages of Non-probability Sampling

Non-	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages

probability sampling techniques			
Convenience sampling	It refers to the collection of information from members of the population who are conveniently available to provide it.	It is widely used during the exploratory phase, and it is the best way to gain information quickly and efficiently.	It has selection bias, and it is not generalizable.
Judgment sampling	The subjects are selected from their expertise in the investigated area.	It is the only meaningful way to investigate sometimes.	The generalizability is questionable, and the entire population cannot be generalizable.
Quota sampling	Subjects are conveniently chosen from targeted groups on the basis of predetermined number or quota.	Sample could be controlled for certain characteristics.	It is not easily generalizable.
Snowball sampling	Participants are volunteered to be part of the research rather than being chosen.	It could estimate rare characteristics.	It is time-consuming.

Sources: (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012; Sekaran, 2016)

After reviewing the advantages and disadvantages of the specific techniques under probability and non-probability sampling all three stages used non-probability sampling.

For Stage 1, it was a start of this research, it acted as preparations for following stages. Bell (2019) figured out that the choice of a specific sampling was dependent on research questions. The stage used snowball sampling. The researchers made initial contact with those people who are relevant to the research questions, then the participants established contacts with others. At this stage, the researcher used this sampling approach because there was no way of knowing the exact number of tourists during the period of data collection. Therefore, a sampling frame was not required. In terms of Stage 2 and Stage 3, the main using for using non-probability sampling is listed. The target population is the tourists who are travelling in Huan province, and the population is shifting. Due to the unknown number of exact number travelers in China during the time of the survey, the probability of tourists being selected from the total population is not known. Hence, the non-probability sampling is

suitable for this study. Specifically, the non-probability sampling technique is convenience sampling, because it is the widely used sampling technique during the exploratory research stage.

4.7 Data Analysis Method

In this section, it starts with quantitative data analysis, including thematic analysis. Also, quantitative data analysis is performed. Particularly, factor analysis (exploratory factor analysis for Stage 2 and confirmatory factor analysis for Stage 3), common methods bias (CMB) and structural equation modelling (SEM) are highlighted. The qualitative data analysis starts with the next sub-section as qualitative data analysis in this study helps the researcher to extract in-depth understanding of destination innovativeness from the tourists' perspective.

4.7.1 Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data are data are in the forms of words, such as interview notes, transcripts of focus groups, answers to open-ended questions, transcriptions of video recordings. The aim of qualitative data analysis is to make valid inferences from the huge amount of collected data (Sekaran, 2016). However, it is not easy to analyse qualitative data because there are no widely accepted rules for qualitative data analysis.

There are different analytical techniques to analyse qualitative data, include thematic analysis, grounded theory, narrative analysis, discourse analysis and content analysis. Thematic analysis is "a method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns or themes within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006)." Grounded theory is "highly structured and systematic, with set procedures to follow at each stage of analysis (Strauss, 2015)." Narrative analysis refers to "a collection of analytical approaches to analyse different aspects of narrative (Sekaran, 2016)", and the author indicates that discourse analysis is the exploration of discourses construct or constitution of social reality and social relation by creating meanings and perceptions. An overview of the advantages and disadvantages of the different analytical technique is presented in the Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Advantages and Disadvantages of Analytical Technique

Analytical technique	Advantages	Disadvantages
Thematic analysis	It is systematic and adaptable.	It can affect the scope of the analysis.
Grounded theory	It can provide systematic analytical	It is time-consuming and intensive and

	techniques.	reflective.
Narrative analysis	It potentially enriches understanding and aid analysis as it allows chronological connections.	It is more sensible to the temporal aspects of experience.
Discourse analysis	Discourse analysis may potentially provide a valuable research approach.	It needs adequate preparation.
Content analysis	It can analyse huge amounts of data, number frequencies and examine the relationship between variables. It also can allow researchers to observe patterns, shifts and trends.	The documentary sources could be missing, inaccessible, incomplete or unusable. Content analysis cannot be used to explore casual relationships.

Source: Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012)

After reviewing the advantages and disadvantages of each qualitative data analysis method, it is beneficiary to use thematic analysis at this stage of this study. Thematic analysis is considered as the fundamental qualitative data analysis technique (Braun & Clarke, 2006), and its essential purpose is to identify themes or patterns within a qualitative data set (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Specifically, Stage 1 (Item generation) uses thematic analysis for three main reasons. Firstly, thematic analysis could help to integrate relevant data from different transcriptions and identify key themes or similar patterns (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012), which are essential for achieving the aim and objectives (Objective 1 and 2). Secondly, thematic analysis is flexible as it is not limited with a specific philosophical position (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Thirdly, this analysis method offers systematic and rigorous steps to undertake the qualitative data analysis, including being familiar with data, initial codes generation, themes researching and relationships identification, naming and defining themes, and propositions testing by producing a report (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Further demonstration of thematic analysis by using above steps is presented in the Chapter 5 (Section 5.2.2).

In addition, NVivo software package will be applied to analyse the data at this stage. There are three main reasons for using NVivo. Firstly, NVivo enables to analysis of the data by coding based on the classification of themes, which allows the researchers to identify, index and retrieve the data during the analysis easily (Auld *et al.*, 2007). Secondly, NVivo can explore alternative meanings in the data (Richards, 2002), identify gaps in the data (Wickham & Woods, 2005) and revisit data to explore new concepts or viewpoints (Sin,

2007). Thirdly, the software package is capable of dealing with different types of data, such as text and audio data, thus, it is suitable for conducting the thematic analysis for this study (Alfadhel, 2021).

4.7.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

This section presents the data analysis techniques for both Stage 2 and Stage 3 consecutively. As indicated in the table, different quantitative data analysis techniques are applied at different stages, thus different data analysis techniques are employed to achieve various purposes. The consequent subsections present the data analysis technique for Stage 2 and 3 respectively.

4.7.2.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

After the completion of Stage 1 of the study, Stage 2 was conducted, and the purpose of this stage was to purify and refine statements generated from Stage 1. Therefore, factor analysis was necessary to analyse the data of this stage, particularly, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used. EFA was a powerful analysis technique that enabled researchers to identify a set of latent factors to represent a set of indicators meaningfully and succinctly (Goretzko, Pham & Bühner, 2021; Hair, 2014). Additionally, EFA was widely used in tourism and hospitality research to examine the latent structure of indicators (Howard & Henderson, 2023). There are two reasons for using exploratory factor analysis for Stage 2. Firstly, EFA was applied in the early stage of scale development (Howard, 2023), and one of the objectives of this study was to develop the scale of TPDI. It was necessary and helpful to use EFA to achieve that objective. Secondly, EFA could be used to identify latent factors and relationships with their indicators without an existing model (Howard, 2023). This meant that EFA could identify potential factors of TPDI, which was not tested in the existing literature (Detailed report and results by using EFA were presented in 5.3).

4.7.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a technique that tests the relationships among latent constructs, such as attitudes and traits (Jackson, Gillaspy & Purc-Stephenson, 2009), and it plays an essential role in evaluating measurement (Brown, 2015). The main reason for using CFA for this stage is because CFA is commonly used in scale development to test the latent structure of a developed structure (Coulacoglou & Saklofske, 2017). Therefore, the utilization of CFA for verification and validation of underlying dimensions for this study.

4.7.2.3 Structural Equation Modelling

With the purpose of addressing relationships between TDPI, TE and TS, therefore, structural equation modelling is selected as the ideal mode of analysis. Structural equation modeling or SEM refers to collection of statistical techniques that help to combine data with underpinning theory (Tabachnick, 2014). It is also known as analysis of covariance structural analysis, linear structural relation model and path analysis, latent variable analysis or confirmatory factor analysis (Hair, 2014). SEM has been commonly used in different subjects, and its popularity has been increased within the academia of tourism (Ayeh, Au & Law, 2013; Battour, Battor & Bhatti, 2014a; Chi, 2012; Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018). There are two fundamental statistical techniques to test SEM, which are covariance-based SEM or CB-SEM (Joreskog, 1970) and variance-based partial least square SEM or PLS-SEM (Lohmöller, 2013). CB-SEM produces an estimated covariance matrix by examining the model, and it aims at minising the discrepancy of the estimated matrix and the sample covariance matrix (Hair, 2014), and the author also notifies that the CB-SEM can test theory by assessing how well the hypothesized model can fit the observed data. While PLS-SEM maximises the explained variance of the endogenous latent variables by employing the least squares as estimation methods (Gefen, Straub & Boudreau, 2000; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011b). It is suggested by researchers that the PLS-SEM is suitable for theory development and implications prediction (Chin, 1998; Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009). Table below illustrates the different between PLS-SEM and CB-SEM.

Table 4.9 Difference between PLS-SEM and CB-SEM

Features	CB-SEM	PLS-SEM
Objectives of SEM	Theory testing and confirmation	Theory development and prediction
Employment of formative construct	Only reflective measurement models	Both formative and reflective measurement models
Assumptions	Parametric	Non-parametric
Model complexity	Small and medium complexity	High complexity
Sample size	Minimal sample size:200-800	Smaller sample size:30-100
Model evaluation	A global goodness-of-fit criterion	Latent variable scores in subsequent analysis

Adapted from (Hair *et al.*, 2014b; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011b; Hair *et al.*, 2019; Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009)

In the current study, it adopts the PLS-SEM to test the structural model after viewing the differences between CB-SEM and PLS-SEM. The rationale for

choosing PLS-SEM is shown as follows. First and foremost, the PLS-SEM is suitable for exploratory studies (Ainuddin *et al.*, 2007) such as this current study, where the measurement of TDPI is new and the relationship among TDPI, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction has not been previously tested. Next, PLS-SEM is commonly used in social science disciplines in recent years (Hair *et al.*, 2014b; Hair *et al.*, 2019), including international management (Richter *et al.*, 2016), hospitality management (Ali *et al.*, 2018), marketing management(Hair *et al.*, 2012) and tourism research (Do Valle & Assaker, 2016). Additionally, given to the advantages of PLS-SEM, it enables researchers "to explore complex models with many constructs, indicator variables, and structural paths without imposing distributional assumptions on the data (Hair *et al.*, 2019, p.3)." Lastly, user-friendly software packages of PLS-SEM are available, and they require little technological knowledge about the method.

4.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethics is the standards of behavior that guide researchers in relation to the rights of people who are the subjects of the studies or affected by the studies. Ethical concerns are unavoidable issue for research when dealing with people during the process of primary data collection based on Bryman (2015) and (David, 2004). Veal (2011) further clarifies that ethical issues may arise in the design and implementation of the study and in the reporting of the results and involve issues such as informed consent, openness and honesty, and confidentiality.

Before the primary data collection procedure, an ethical approval is ensured in the guidance of University of Plymouth's Research Ethics Policy (Pellowe, Lucznik & Martin, 2019). Moreover, the ethical approval will submit to Research Ethics and Integrity Committee of Faculty of Art and Humanity as requested. The ethical considerations are detailed for the actual conduct of interviews and questionnaire surveys in this research. In addition, the consent form material is in English, and the questionnaire and interview are in Chinese.

First, it is the principle of informed consent and the right of withdraw of respondents. Both interview and questionnaire respondents are fully informed of the information about the research and then given informed consent as to whether to participate or not. The respondents who meet the criteria in different stages of data collection are the suitable participants, and they will be informed the details of the project and their willingness to participate the conduct of survey. Moreover, the respondents do not have any pressure or coercion to make decisions about whether to do or not to do the survey. In the meantime, the respondents are informed that they have right to withdraw at any time.

Secondly, the researcher is openness and honest about the research and its purpose and potential implications. All of the respondents will be informed the purpose and procedure at the beginning of survey. At the same time, all applicable information about the activity will be disclosed to the participants in an open manner and detailed how the participants' information would be used and presented by the researcher.

The third principle is the protection of harm. In order to ensure that the respondents do not involve any unwarranted material gain or loss. The research ensures participants' psychological and physical safety during the investigation of survey. In addition, the research ensures the participants' equality, which means the research is conducted with the respect of all groups regardless of social difference such as age, ethnicity, education level, ethnicity, gender, religion and race.

The last principle is confidentiality and data management. The researcher respects all respondent's confidentiality, and the researcher offers guarantees of confidentiality and anonymity to respondents during the process of investigation and the presenting of data. The information of interviewees will be coded; hence, the interview transcriptions has no written record of respondents' names and other information. In addition, the researcher will properly storage data and protect the data in a secure manner. The table 4.13 below demonstrates how this research maps with the ethical principles of the University of Plymouth.

Table 4.10 The connection with the ethical guidelines

Principle	Interviews	Questions
Consent form and right to withdraw	The form notifies the participants their rights to withdraw, and the interview process are audio-recorded.	The consent form for questionnaire notifies the participants their rights to withdraw.
Openness and honesty	On the same consent form, the researcher notifies the participates relevant terms in my research, and the participants and researcher are not benefit from this research.	On the same questionnaire consent form, the researcher notifies the participates relevant terms in my research, such as tourist experience and tourist satisfaction.
Protection from harm	The researcher reports the authorities once the participants are at the	The researcher reports the authorities once the participants are at the

	risk.	risk
Confidentiality and data management	The quote from interviews present on the data analysis remains anonymous. In addition, the record is deleted if the participants decide to withdraw.	When the researcher analyses the result of the questionnaire, identity of participants remains anonymous, and the data related to participants are stored digitally.

Source: Author's own

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter introduces the employment of research methodology for this study. The philosophical position is pragmatism, which resulted the choice of mixed research methods given to its characteristics. With the identification of sequential mixed research approach. Three stages of studies were conducted to achieve the aim and the objectives of this thesis. Stage 1 aimed at generating in-depth understanding of TPDI from tourists, therefore, semi-structured interviews were applied to collect the initial data to generate themes and items. Furthermore, the justification for choosing semi-structured interviews was clarified. The purpose for Stage 2 was to refine and purify statements that generated from Stage 1, Stage 3 was to validate remained scale from Stage 2. Therefore, the questionnaire surveys were employed for both Stage 2 and Stage 3. Moreover, the reasons for choosing closed questions were given for both stages. In addition, the designing and layout for interview questions and questionnaires were given. Then, the sampling technique for different stages were heighted. An ethical approval was required before the procedures of data collection. Given to the characteristic of qualitative and quantitative data, different data analysis method was required. For Stage 1, thematic analysis was used to analyse generated scales. Factor analysis was employed for Stage 2 and Stage 3, particularly, exploratory factor analysis was used for purifying scales. Confirmatory factor analysis was employed for validated the remained scales of TPDI. The reasons for using PLS-SEM were demonstrated to examine relationships between TPDI, TE, and TS. The reasons for using NVivo, SPSS and AMOS software packages were discussed. Those software packages were used at different stage to analyse qualitative and quantitative data respectively.

Chapter 5 Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness - Scale Development and Hypotheses Testing

5.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present the results of the data analysis of three stages. Specifically, this chapter covers the findings of scale developed for TPDI and relationships between TPDI, TE and TS. The research aim has previously been provided: to develop a comprehensive understanding of tourist perceived destination innovativeness (TPDI). With the purpose of this research aim, this chapter endeavours to achieve two of the objectives, which are to develop scales of TPDI and examine relationships between TPDI, TE and TS. Once the understanding and scales of TPDI are discovered, it could be better to examine the impacts of TPDI on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Therefore, the conceptual framework is provided in this chapter as the understanding of TPDI provides a foundation for those relationships.

This chapter is broken down into six sections. Section 5.1 introduces purpose and the structure of the chapter. Section 5.2 presents the analysis procedure of Stage 1, and it discussed item generation and refinement of TPDI. In this stage, the author uses a qualitative data collection method to generate items using thematic analysis, and forty-eight items are identified. The third section (Section 5.3) presents the conceptual framework based on the existing literature and findings from Stage 1. The fourth section (Section 5.4) shows the analysis and results of Stage 2. In this stage of data collection, the investigator uses a quantitative data collection method to collect data by distributing a questionnaire survey in Changsha. Using the common factor analysis method, thirty-one items are retained for the next stage of item validation. Section 5.5 is about the third stage of data collection and data analysis. The researcher distributed questionnaire surveys in four major tourism destinations in Hunan Province. There were 763 copies of the questionnaire in the third stage of data collection. In the last stage of data analysis, confirmatory factor analysis was the data analysis method to re-evaluate the factor structure of DI. In addition, PLS-SEM is used to estimated structural model. Mediation and moderation analysis are performed. Section 5.6 provides a concluding summary based on results from different stages of data analysis.

5.2 Stage One – Theme Identification and Item Generation

Hinkin (1995) agrees that item generation is the foundation for constructing new measurements and most papers about scale development have the step of item generation (e.g. Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018; Kim & Eves, 2012; Pijls *et al.*, 2017; Wong & Wan, 2013b). Therefore, the first step of the current stage is to generate items. Carpenter (2018) recommends that qualitative research is conducted to generate items. To generate valid data at this stage, data from interviews and the existing literature are the guides to distinguish the themes and items.

5.2.1 Profile of Interviewees

The semi-structured interviews conducted with interviewees were recorded with an Android mobile phone. Table 5.1 presents the basic information of each interview with codes. In this research, over 44% of the participants (n=13) were male, and about 56% (n=17) of the respondents were female.

Table 5.1 Profile of Interviewees

Interview Code	Gender	Age Group	Education Level	Nationality	Previous experience of Hunan	Times in Hunan
DI01	M	18-35	Master	Egyptian	N	N
DI02	M	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese (Chongqing)	0N	N
DI03	F	18-35	Master	Chinese (Guangdong Province)	Y	1
DI04	F	18-35	Master (PhD)	Chinese (Beijing)	N	N
DI05	F	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese (Tianjin)	Y	1
DI06	M	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese (Tianjin)	Y	More than five times
DI07	M	60 and above	GCSE	British (Derby)	Y	10-15
DI08	M	18-35	Master	British (Plymouth)	N	N
D109	F	18-35	Three-year College/Equivalent to Higher National Diploma	Chinese (Anhui Province)	Y	1
DI10	F	18-35	Master	Chinese (Jiangsu Province)	Y	2
DI11	F	18-35	Three-year College/Equivalent to Higher National Diploma	Chinese (Hebei Province)	Y	1
DI12	F	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese	N	N

				(Beijing)		
DI13	M	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese (Shanxi Province）	Y	4-5
DI14	F	18-35	Master	Chinese (Sichuan Province)	Y	1
DI15	F	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese (Chongqing)	Y	1
DI16	M	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese (Shandong Province)	N	N
DI17	F	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese (Zhejiang Province)	Y	1
DI18	M	18-35	Three-year College/Equivalent to Higher National Diploma	Chinese (Hubei Province)	Y	1
DI19	M	18-35	Bachelor	Pakistani	Y	More than 10 times
DI20	M	18-35	Master	Chinese (Ningxia)	Y	2
DI21	M	45-60	Three-year College/Equivalent to Higher National Diploma	Chinese (Guangdong Province)	Y	2-3
DI22	F	18-35	Master	Chinese (Shanghai)	Y	1
DI23	F	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese (Guizhou Province)	Y	2-3
DI24	M	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese (Shanxi Province)	N	N
DI25	F	35-45	Three-year college/Equivalent to Higher National Diploma	Chinese (Hubei Province)	Y	1
DI26	F	18-35	Master	Malaysian	N	N
DI27	F	18-35	Bachelor	Chinese (Anhui Province)	Y	4-8
DI28	F	18-35	Master (PhD)	Chinese (Beijing)	N	N
DI29	M	18-35	Three-year College/Equivalent to Higher National Diploma	Chinese (Hei Longjiang Province)	Y	1

				Chinese		
DI30	F	35-45	Bachelor	(Guangdong Province)	N	1

Notes: F=Female, M=Male, Y=Yes, N=No

5.2.2 Results of Understanding of Destinations Innovativeness

For scale development, the aim is to synthesise what people have said regarding TDPI; Table 5.2 indicates the results of understanding.

Table 5.2 Generated items of TDPI

Number of items	Items
1.	Destination innovativeness refers to the fact that the destination is inclusive.
2	Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is able to meet demands of tourists from different provinces of China.
3	Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is able to meet demands of tourists from different parts of the world.
4	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to meet demands of tourists from different age groups.
5	Destination innovativeness refers to the ability that destinations have which allows tourists have unique experiences.
6	Destination innovativeness refers to the ability of the destination to deliver experiences that are not available in other destinations.
7	Destination innovativeness is the ability of destinations to combine Chinese traditions with modern technology.
8	Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness with its local traditions.
9	Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness with its architecture.
10	Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness by its local cuisine.
11	Destination innovativeness is an opportunity for tourists to learn about the uniqueness of a destination.
12	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its land resources.
13	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its landmarks.
14	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its attractions.

15	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its land resources.
16	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its landmarks.
17	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its attractions.
18	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to effectively plan its tourist attractions.
19	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to optimise the use of its attractions.
20	Destination innovativeness is the willingness of local residents to make changes to attract tourists.
21	Destination innovativeness is a destination that has a lot of people travelling to that place
22	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to provide convenience to tourists in various ways.
23	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to develop its attractions.
24	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to enhance its service.
25	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to shape the destination image.
26	Destination innovativeness refers to the ability of a destination to create an attractive destination image.
27	Destination innovativeness refers to the creative changes on the basis of its well-developed infrastructure.
28	Destination innovativeness refers to a destination which has something that is not found elsewhere, making it unique.
29	Destination innovation is the willingness of local people to make changes.
30	Destination innovation is the willingness of local people to change with the support of the government.
31	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to improve the factors that can attract tourists.
32	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to improve via technology and cultural tourism
33	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to develop sustainably.
34	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to have repeat tourists.
35	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to make itself popular with multiple marketing platforms.
36	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to ensure that tourists enjoy their travel.
37	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to cater for tourists' basic necessities with the local specialties.

38	Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that has well-equipped and well-developed facilities.
39	Destination innovativeness means a destination that pays attention to its appearance and orderly building.
40	Destination innovativeness is the popularity of technology used by the destination.
41	Destination innovativeness is the capability of a destination to deliver expected products to the tourists.
42	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to promote a creative city.
43	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to foster a sense of tradition/legacy in terms of Chinese traditional culture.
44	Destination innovativeness is the ability of destination to promote its uniqueness.
45	Destination innovativeness is the ability of destination to attract tourists by promoting its uniqueness.
46	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to use effective narratives.
47	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to use effective narratives to attract tourists.
48	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to use historic and natural narratives to engage with tourists.

In order to identify dimensions of TPDI, thematic analysis is an approach to identify, analyse and report patterns or themes within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In this research, thematic analysis was used to analyse themes of destination innovativeness from the respondents' insights. Generally, there are four steps to employ thematic analysis according to the procedure from Braun and Clarke (2006). The researcher investigated the transcripts using the software of QSR's NVivo 12. One hundred and eighty transcribed pages were generated by the interviews' records, and the researcher checked them for accuracy and imported them into NVivo 12. To achieve the objectives of this research, table 5 .3 presents four steps of thematic analysis to identify themes within the data.

Table 5.3 Four steps of thematic analysis using NVivo12

Step	Purpose	Method	Outcomes
1	Generating initial codes	Coding relevant features of the data	Developing an initial data set
2	Searching for themes	Visual representation-Table	Four dimensions form the codes
3	Reviewing themes	Employing a review	63 items

		of literature	remained
4	Refining items	Experts' review	Final initial pool:48 items

<div align="right">Adapted from Braun and Clarke (2006)</div>

In the first phase of thematic analysis, the researcher listened to every interview twice and then transcribed into scripts in a word file. As listed in previous methodological chapter, interview questions were not asked promptly based on the answers from participants, Participants shared their own understanding of destination innovativeness without any cues or suggestions provided. During the first step, the transcripts were edited carefully to identify understanding of destination innovativeness. Then, the researcher extracted all the statements relevant to their understanding. A word-cloud analysis generated by NVivo 12 was used. Figure 5.1 illustrates what respondents discussed regarding destination innovativeness.

In the second step, the researcher conducted the process of coding, and searched for themes from NVivo 12. The nodes were identified from the words, phrases, and sentences of statements, and the repeated nodes were deleted. Moreover, there was a long list of codes, therefore, it was essential to sort different codes into potential themes. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), it is helpful to visual representations to sort codes into potential themes, such as tables, or mind maps. In this research, a table will be useful to visualize the identified themes. Table 5.4 below presents the themes after the deletion of similar codes.

Table 5.4 Dimensions and themes of TPDI

Dimensions	Themes
Destination Experiential Innovativeness (DEI)	Interesting Unique Enjoyable
Destination Development Innovativeness (DDI)	Convenient Creative Technology-based Well-developed facilities New Local Specialties Willingness to embrace of change
Destination Marketing Innovativeness (DMI)	Advertising Marketing Social media platforms
Destination Inclusiveness Innovativeness (DII)	Inclusiveness
Destination Co-creation value Innovativeness (DCI)	Value Co-creation

Figure 5.1 Analysis by word-cloud

The third step reviewed themes by employing a review of the literature relevant to customers' perception of innovativeness. The themes are consistent with the literature. For example, Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018) present four dimensions with sixteen themes in a restaurant innovativeness setting, such as uniqueness, new, convenient procedures, advertising and marketing. Moreover, Saarijärvi, Kannan and Kuusela (2013) explain that co-creation value has two parties, which are from the perspective of the business and the customer, and the two sides integrate their resources through a mechanism of co-design, co-development or co-distribution to provide resources for the co-creation process (Killa, 2014). The dimensions in the current study are based on the research of Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018), and the current research is slightly modified. After reviewing the themes, the investigator started to consider all the combinations of the existing themes with the given definition of innovativeness to develop items for the current study. Furthermore, Carpenter (2018) agrees that the participants reveal additional dimensions, and this is consistent with the current study. In this research, one of the participants mentioned inclusive culture. However, this dimension was not found in the existing literature regarding innovativeness perceived by customers. The insights gained and generated into TPDI from the qualitative data beyond the existing literature, provided all the identified sixty-three items which were retained for the expert review.

The fourth step was to refine items for the purpose of establishing face and content validity through an expert review. The item refinement through expert review can select appropriate items and prevent subjectivity in the data analysis process (DeVellis, 2016; Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018). Moreover, Churchill (1979, p.67) recommended "a judgment sample of persons who can offer some ideas and insights into the phenomenon". In this research, the

experts consisted of the two supervisors of the research within the discipline of tourism and hospitality. The experts considered three elements when they evaluated the items of TPDI, and they are: representativeness, comprehensiveness, and clarity. Hence, the initial items were modified and revised based on feedback from the supervisors. Fifteen items were deleted from the initial pool of items, and 48 items were retained for the second stage of data collection and data analysis. The dimensions are used for naming the identification of factors in Stage 2.

In summary, this section provides the procedure and results of item generation. The final items are provided in table 5.2. Both the Chinese and English version of the items will be presented as an appendix. Participants provide their understanding of TPDI in different ways. Most of the respondents agreed that destination innovativeness should focus on the tourist experience. They agree that the destination has the ability to provide new, unique, and convenient experience for tourists. It is also important to understand TPDI from the point of view of service for the tourists. For example, they think that the destination has the ability to provide technology-based service. Moreover, the participants provided their understanding beyond the existing literature, and the researcher extracted their insights and modified them as items for further scale purification and validation. The Stage 1 of this study confirms and discovers destination innovativeness from tourists' perceptions, however, the impacts of tourist perceived destination innovativeness on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction have not been fully investigated. The following sections of this chapter report the results of the item purification and scale validation.

5.3 Conceptual Framework: The Impact of Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness on Tourist Experience and Satisfaction

Maxwell (2012, p.33) defined a conceptual framework as "the system of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs, and theories that support and inform your research." Also, Miles *et al.* (1994, p.18) noted that a conceptual framework "explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied – the key factors, concepts or variables – and the presumed relationships among them". Accordingly, the conceptual framework is based on the discussion from the literature review chapters in two and three and findings from Stage 1 (5.2), which proposes opportunities for further investigation among different relationships. Particularly, the existing studies indicated that innovativeness could influence experience and satisfaction (e.g., Hwang, Kim & Lee, 2021; Nysveen, Oklevik & Pedersen, 2018; Teng & Chen,

2023; Tran & Chang, 2022). However, there is a lack of research concerning the impacts of innovativeness based on the review in chapter 2 (innovativeness). Specifically, the impacts of innovativeness on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction are overlooked in the tourism industry, especially in Hunan Province (China). Thus, the relationships are first considered in this conceptual framework.

It seems that innovativeness has a positive impact on consumer satisfaction and a positive effect on consumer experience based on existing literature (e.g.Bellingkrodt & Wallenburg, 2015; Dai *et al.*, 2015; Jai, 2015; Kibbeling, Der Bij & Weele, 2013; Lian & Yen, 2017; Nysveen, Oklevik & Pedersen, 2018; Zirger, 1997). For example, Nysveen, Oklevik and Pedersen (2018) declared that perceived brand innovativeness positively influences sensory, affective, cognitive, relational and behaviour experience in the hotel context. In another hospitality context, Teng and Chen (2023) stated that restaurant innovativeness positively influences memorable brand experience. Concerning tourist experience at the destination, destinations make greater use of technology to provide essential services at every stage of the tourist experience. New types of tourist activities at destinations are employed with the development of new technologies that change conventional experiences (Sundbo & Darmer, 2008). Liberato, Alen and Liberato (2018) emphasize the importance of modern technology, and their research reveals the positive relationship between new technologies at destinations and tourist experience. Neuhofer, Buhalis and Ladkin (2012) explore technology as a way of innovation to co-create destination experiences. Tourist experience involves psychological aspects (Larsen, 2007) and tourists' emotions (Hosany *et al.*, 2015). Hosany and Gilbert (2010a) develop the Destination Emotion Scale (DES) to validate and measure tourists' emotional experience. The DES consists of fifteen items representing three dimensions of tourists' emotions, which are joy, love, and positive surprise. The DES dimensions are widely used in marketing research (e.g. Batra, Ahuvia & Bagozzi, 2012) and tourism research (e.g. Crotts & Magnini, 2011; Faullant, Matzler & Mooradian, 2011; Lee & Kyle, 2013). Consequently, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Tourist perceived destination innovativeness has a positive impact on tourist experience.

Most previous studies have shown the effect of tourist experience on tourist satisfaction (Cevdet Altunel & Erkurt, 2015; Chou, 2014; Hendijani & Research, 2016; Song *et al.*, 2015). For example, Chou (2014) collects data from 586 visitors in order to explore the effect of the visitors' consumption experience on tourist satisfaction in Taiwan's night markets. The results reveal a positive relationship between tourist consumption experience and tourist satisfaction. Hendijani and Research (2016) investigate the effect of food-related experiences on tourist overall satisfaction in Indonesia. Kim (2017)

examines the important role of tourist memorable experience on destination image and satisfaction by distributing 400 questionnaires to international tourists in Taiwan. The author suggests that tourist memorable experience has direct effect on tourist revisit intention and overall tourist satisfaction. In summary, several previous studies suggest a positive relationship between tourist experience from different aspects and tourist satisfaction. Based on the previous theoretical background, the study makes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Tourist experience has a positive impact on tourist satisfaction.

In tourism literature, tourists' experience of service, products, and other resources provided by tourism destinations can influence satisfaction (Corte *et al.*, 2015). However, there is limited literature on the relationship between destination innovativeness and tourist satisfaction, and most of the studies investigate the relationship between innovativeness and customer satisfaction in other industries. For example, Dai *et al.* (2015) indicate that innovativeness can improve service quality, and the service quality has a positive relationship with customers' satisfaction. Bellingkrodt and Wallenburg (2015) show that service provider innovativeness has a positive impact on customer satisfaction. Khan, Masrek and Mahmood (2019) reveal that personal innovativeness has strong influence on users' satisfaction. It is critical to measure tourist satisfaction for the survival, development and success of tourist destinations (Song *et al.*, 2012). Revisit intention and recommendations to friends and others are the most common measurement of satisfaction (e.g. Alegre & Garau, 2010; Battour, Battor & Bhatti, 2014b; Corte *et al.*, 2015; Kozak, 2000; Prayag, Suntikul & Agyeiwaah, 2018; Truong, Lenglet & Mothe, 2018).. Satisfied tourists tend to recommend the destination to others (Chen & Tsai, 2007a; Prayag *et al.*, 2017a), while dissatisfied tourists are less likely to return the destination and will negatively engage with WOM (Chen & Chen, 2010). As such, the study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Tourist perceived destination innovativeness has a positive impact on tourist satisfaction.

Previous studies present different effects of gender in a perceived innovativeness setting. Nirmala and Dewi (2011) used an online survey to determine that females tend to shop online for fashion products. Cho and Workman (2011) explore the relationship among gender and fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership. Based on the analysis of collected data, they conclude that both females and males equally tend to choose shopping channels online, while Ab Halim (2012b) finds that males are more confident with innovative productive than females. Although previous articles show different results, they commonly argue the moderating role of gender in innovativeness. Therefore, the study proposes the following hypothesis based

on theoretical backgrounds.

Hypothesis 4 (H4): The moderation effect of gender is different on tourist perceived destination innovativeness.
Hypothesis 4a (H4a): The relationship between tourist perceived destination innovativeness and tourist experience is strong among males.
Hypothesis 4b (H4b): The relationship between tourist perceived destination innovativeness and tourist satisfaction is strong among males.

Diallo *et al.* (2022) found that personal tourist experience acts a mediator between tourism sustainability and social engagement propensity. In general, most studies acknowledged that favourable or unfavourable experience from customers will increase or decrease their satisfaction and their future intentions (Abou-Shouk & Soliman, 2021; Han & Jeong, 2013). In the cultural tourism context, Cevdet Altunel and Erkurt (2015) revealed that quality experience mediates the relationship between involvement and recommendation intention. Limited tourism studies investigated the mediation role of tourist experience between TPDI and tourist satisfaction. Thus, the fifth hypothesis of this study is developed based on above discussion.

Hypothesis 5: Tourist experience mediates the relationship between TPDI and tourist satisfaction.

Figure 5.2 Conceptual Framework and Hypothesis
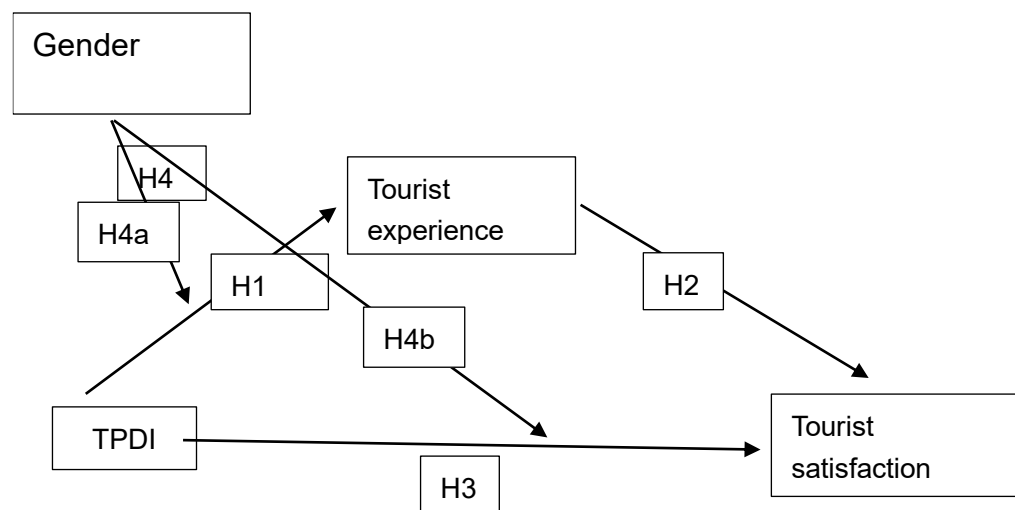
Source: Author's own

5.4 Stage Two-Item Purification and Refinement

After the thirty interviews with different tourists, sixty-three statements were identified, and forty-eight items were retained for the second stage data of collection. The final items of TPDI were measured by a seven-point Likert Scale ranging from one (Strongly Disagree) to seven (Strongly Agree). Likert scales are common in social science research and are the most fundamental tools to quantify human behaviour (Joshi *et al.*, 2015; Wu & Leung, 2017). Moreover, the seven-point Likert scale offers more choices for participants to pick their preferred ones (Dawes, 2008). The questionnaire survey for the second stage was conducted between the first of January and the second of March 2021. A total of five hundred and twenty-two questionnaires were handed out to tourists in major tourist attractions in Changsha. Among all the obtained questionnaire surveys, five hundred and fourteen were valid in this stage (98.5% valid response rate).

5.4.1 Profile of Respondents

At this stage of data collection, there were five hundred and twenty-two participants who took part in this round of questionnaire survey. Among all of the respondents, there were 44.3% male (n=231) and 55.7% female (n=291). Most of the respondents were from the age group 18-35, while the age group 60 and above had the least number of respondents. Table 5.5 demonstrates the frequencies of different groups of respondents.

Table 5.5 Details of Respondents

		Frequency	%
Gender	Male	231	44.3
	Female	291	55.7
Age group	18-35	423	81.1
	35-45	55	10.5
	45-60	33	6.3
	More than 60	11	2.1
Educational Level	High school and below	60	11.5
	Three-year college	62	11.9
	Undergraduate	342	65.5
	Master	51	9.8
	PhD	7	1.3
Where do you come from	China	420	80.5
	Other countries	102	19.5

Source: Author's own data

5.4.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Since 2008, the number of articles on scale development and validation has increased in the study of tourism both in Chinese and English (Chen & Zhao, 2017). Therefore, Table 5.6 below summarises recent papers on different methods of factor analysis, criteria that the studies follow and the reasons that the studies retain or delete items at the stage of item purification.

Table 5.6 General process for item purification

Authors (Year)	Method they used	Criteria they followed	Why they delete/retain items
Kim, Ritchie and McCormick (2012)	EFA Both orthogonal (varimax) and oblique (oblimin) rotation methods are used.	Factor loading and communality are used to retain items.	In the EFA section, the author did not mention the items and the numbers of the item that are discarded or the reasons for deletion.
	CFA	Chi-square test, comparative fit index, non-normed fit index, the incremental fit index, and the root mean square error of approximation are used to test the overall fit of the model.	
Tsaur, Lin and Liu (2013a)	EFA (Sample 1) PCA/Varimax Rotation	Item-to-total correlations Eigenvalue; factor loading, KMO, Bartlett's test of sphericity	Item-to-total correlations were above 0.3. Eigenvalue was greater than 1. Factor loadings are more than 0.4 on one factor and less than 0.3 on other factors.
	CFA (Sample 2) Maximum-likelihood estimation		
Wong and Wan (2013b)	EFA (Promax oblique rotation) Parallel analysis to retain four factors	KMO, Cronbach's alpha (reliable) Eigenvalue	8 items are removed because the mean value is below 3.0. 3 items are removed because of low factor-loadings or cross-loadings.
So, King and Sparks (2014)	EFA The maximum likelihood estimation method with oblique rotation was used on the remaining 25 items.	KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity to ensure the adequacy of the sample size and the suitability of the EFA. Eigenvalue and scree plot is used for factor extraction.	9 items were deleted because the factor loadings are below 0.40.

		Total variance Cronbach's alpha and cross-loadings	
Kim (2014)	EFA Promax oblique rotation method	Item-to-total correlation KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity were examined to test the appropriateness of factor analysis. Eigenvalues are greater than 1	9 items are deleted because items are poorly correlated (<0.4) before EFA.
(Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2015)	EFA Principle components analysis with promax rotation	Eigenvalue	The retained items because their Eigenvalue is greater than 1. 10 items are excluded because of poor item-total correlations and Cronbach's alpha being lower than 0.7. 4 items are deleted because the loadings are less than 0.4. 2 items are discarded because the factor has one item with factor loading less than 0.4 2 items are deleted because Cronbach's alpha is lower than 0.7. 8 items are deleted because factor loadings less than 0.4 and cross loadings higher than 0.4.
Kim et al. (2015)	EFA via principal axis factoring with varimax rotation	Kaiser criteria (Eigenvalue) Factor loadings Scree plot	Retained factors at least have three items. Double-loaded items are deleted.
	CFA	Chi-square statistic, the normed chi-square, the standardized root mean squared residual, the	

		root mean square error of approximation, the comparative fit index and the Tucker-Lewis Index	
Fatma, Rahman and Khan (2016)	EFA Principle component analysis with varimax rotation	Eigenvalue of 1 is taken as a cut-off criterion, Total variance, Coefficient alpha	Items with factor loadings less than 0.5 are deleted. Item cross loaded on more than two factors were deleted.
Fetscherin and Stephano (2016)	EFA Principle component analysis with promax rotation	Average community Eigen values Cronbach's alpha	Items with low item loading less than 0.50 are removed.
Liu *et al.* (2017)	EFA Component analysis/Oblique promax method	Item-to-total correlations Eigenvalue, scree plot KMO, Bartlett test of sphericity	Eigenvalues are greater than 1. Factor loadings are more than 0.4 on one factor and less than 0.3 on other factors.
Taheri, Jafari and Okumus (2017)	EFA Principle component analysis with promax rotation	KMO, Bartlett's test sphericity Reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha) Variance inflation factor	Eigenvalues are greater than 1 of all 8 items.
Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018)	EFA PCA, Oblique promax	Cronbach's alpha Eigenvalue, total variance,	Three items are deleted because they are redundant for the first factor. Two items are deleted because the duplicated content required the deletion of the second dimension. Three items are discarded because of the possibility of double loadings.
Liu *et al.* (2019)	EFA Maximum likelihood estimation method with oblique rotation	Cross-loading, factor loading, Cronbach's alpha	Two items were deleted due to the low factor loadings.

After comparison of different extraction and rotation methods, the maximum likelihood with promax rotation method was employed in the research. There are three main reasons for using maximum likelihood as the extraction method. First, some scholars acknowledge that the use of principle factor analysis (PCA) is a mistake (Goldberg & Velicer, 2006; Reise, Waller & Comrey, 2000), because the PCA includes error variance, which leads the researchers to retain unnecessary items (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Costello & Osborne, 2005; Goldberg & Velicer, 2006). Secondly, the results from common factor analysis methods, such as principle axis factoring or maximum likelihood are "more generalizable when submitting hypothesized models to a confirmatory factor analysis" (Carpenter, 2018, p.36). Thirdly, it is clear that the use of maximum likelihood is limited in the studies of scale development. Promax is used as the rotation method, because it is one of the oblique rotation methods, which allows the factors to correlate (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

With reference to previous research, data analysis at this stage is based on certain criteria such as Cronbach's alpha, item-to-total correlation, and eigenvalue. The process of data analysis will be computed in SPSS 25. Firstly, reliability was computed for the original forty-eight statements. Item-to-total correlations, which should exceed 0.30 were performed for all the statements (Churchill, 1979). Accordingly, all of the items were retained as all were higher than 0.3. Churchill (1979) suggests that coefficient alpha is the first measure to test the internal consistency of items, and the item with a large alpha indicates that the items correlate well. This stage used Cronbach's alpha to assess the internal consistency of the original items as it is one of the most common used measures of reliability in social science research (Bonett & Wright, 2015). Cronbach alpha normally ranges from zero to one (Matkar, 2012), and in this study Cronbach alpha was 0.967, indicating that the scale of TPDI is highly reliable (George & Mallery, 2019).

There were 17 deleted items: DI05, DI06, DI07, DI09, DI14, DI15, DI16, DI17, DI18, DI19, DI26, DI28, DI29, DI33, DI44, DI46, and DI48. Those items were deleted because their eigenvalues were less than 1.0, and their coefficients were less than .50.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were used to verify the appropriateness of factor analysis, which indicated KMO values of 0.952, expressed as "marvellous" by (Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < 0.001$), indicating the suitability of variables for factor analysis. The numbers of components were identified based on the eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Kaiser, 1960). Accordingly, a five-factor structure with thirty-one items were retained because the eigenvalues of those items are higher than one. Table 5.7 presents the

details of each factor with the items, and Table 5.8 is the presentation of the retained statements for the data validation.

Table 5.7 Items for defining TPDI

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
DI35	**.834**				
DI34	**.790**				
DI31	**.711**				
DI43	**.685**				
DI42	**.639**				
DI36	**.614**				
DI32	**.609**				
DI41	**.547**				
DI45	**.531**				
DI30	**.508**				
DI08	**.493**				
DI37	**.473**				
DI40	**.441**				
DI27	**.416**				
DI21		**.910**			
DI23		**.777**			
DI22		**737**			
DI24		**.706**			
DI20		**.688**			
DI25		**.582**			
DI03			**945**		
DI04		.	**.862**		
DI02			**.772**		
DI01			**515**		
DI38			.	**.867**	
DI39				**.755**	
DI28				**.654**	
DI11					**.820**
DI10					**,805**
DI12					**.682**
DI13					**.537**
Eigenvalue	18.520	2.240	1.874	1.313	1.074
% of variance	38.584.	4.667	3.904	2.736	2.238
Cumulative %	38.584	43.251	47.154	49.890	52.128

Cronbach's alpha	.916	.918	.876	.829	.82

Table 5.8 Retained Statements for the third stage validation

1. Destination innovativeness refers to the ability of a destination to make itself attractive.
2. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to shape its destination image.
3. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to develop its attractions.
4. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to develop sustainably.
5. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to attract repeated tourists.
6. Destination innovativeness refers to its creative changes on the basis of its well-developed infrastructure of a destination.
7. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to enhance its service.
8. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to enhance its technological use and cultural tourism
9. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to ensure that the tourists enjoy their travel.
10. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to provide convenience to the tourists in various ways.
11. Destination innovativeness is a destination's capability of providing interesting travel experience for the tourists.
12. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination which has something that cannot be found elsewhere, making it unique.
13. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to identify the factors that enables it to attract tourists.
14. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to identify the factors that enables it to attract tourists.
15. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its landmarks.
16. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its land resources.
17. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its attractions.
18. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its landmarks.
19. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its land resources.
20. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its attractions.
21. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is able to meet the demands of tourists from different parts of the world.
22. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to meet the

demands of tourists from different age groups.
23. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is able to meet demands of tourists from different provinces of China.
24. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is inclusive.
25. Destination innovation is the willingness of local residents to embrace change.
26. Destination innovation is the willingness of local residents to embrace changes with the support of the government.
27. Destination innovativeness is the willingness of local residents to embrace changes to attract tourists.
28. Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness with its architecture.
29. Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness with its local traditions.
30. Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness with its local cuisine.
31. Destination innovativeness is an opportunity for tourists to learn about the uniqueness of a destination.

5.5 Stage Three-Scale Validation and Relationships Testing

This stage of data collection is to validate the proposed scales' items. A self-administered cross-sectional empirical survey tested the validity of the thirty-one items gained in Stage Two. The data was collected in major tourism destinations in Hunan Province from 01 April to 30 June 2021, and they are Changsha, Chenzhou, Shaoshan, Zhang Jiajie and Yueyang. The retained items of TPDI at this stage were measured on a seven-point Likert Scale ranging from one (Strongly Disagree) to seven (Strongly Agree).

5.5.1 Profile of Respondents

Among the 763 surveys obtained, 15 responses were unqualified and consequently deleted, leaving, therefore, 748 useable questionnaires for data analysis. Table 5.9 presents the details of respondents. 58.3% of the respondents were female, and 41.7% were male. The age group of 18-24 years comprised the highest proportion (40%) of the total sample; 26.7 % of the respondents were 24-34, 17.4% of the participants were 34-44, 9.9% were 45-54, and 6.0% were 55 and above. Participants with bachelor's degree accounted for the highest proportion (54.1%) of the total responses, while 9.9% of respondents held the degree of Master and above.

Table 5.9 Profile of respondents

	Frequency	Percent

			(%)
Gender	Male	312	41.7
	Female	436	58.3
Age group	18-24	299	40
	24-34	200	26.7
	34-44	130	17.4
	45-54	74	9.9
	55 and above	45	6.0
Educational Level	High school and below	110	14.7
	Three-year college	159	21.3
	Undergraduate	405	54.1
	Master and above	74	9.9
Where do you come from	China	643	85.96
	Other countries	105	14.04

5.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

At this stage of data analysis, the researcher applied confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to analyse data using IBM SPSS AMOS 25.0. Given the increasing number of articles relevant to scale development, table 5.10 summarizes the parameters and criteria for validation in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Table 5.10 General parameters and criteria for item validation in scale development literature

Authors (Year)	Method they used	Software package they use	Parameters	Why are the parameters reasonable	Other criteria
Tsaur, Lin and Liu (2013a)	Confirmatory factor analysis with maximum likelihood to examine the factorial structure	LISREL 8	Factor loading, t-values, squared multiple correlations(SMC), composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE)	Factor loadings are between 0.53 and 0.95, and t-values range from 8.38 to 22.10.The SMCs are above 0.3. The CR ranges from 0.79 to 0.94	X^2=797.95, df=384,x^2/df=2.07,p-value<0.00, GFI=0.85,SRMR=0.062, RMSEA=0.059, CFI=0.97, NFI=0.95
Wong and Wan (2013b)	Confirmatory factor analysis	LISREL 8.8	Average variance extracted (AVE)	The AVE for the four subscales is above the .50 threshold	The fit of the four subscales and the overall scale are satisfactory, with comparative fit index (CFI) ≥ .99, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) ≤ .08, and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) ≤ .03.
Liu *et al.* (2017)	Confirmatory factor analysis with maximum likelihood to examine the criterion-related validity	LISREL 8.8	Factor loading, t-values, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) , squared root of AVE	Factor loadings are between 0.55 and 0.84. The CR and AVE exceeded 0.4.	High fit indices x^2=525.67,df=237,p<0.05 , x^2/df=2.22, GFI=0.84,SRMR=0.06, RMSEA=0.07,NFI=0.91,NNFI=0.94, CFI=0.95, AGFI=0.80
Kim, Tang and	Confirmatory factor analysis	Not Given	Factor loading, AVE,CR	Factor loadings are between 0.78 and 0.89.	χ2 (115) = 566.20; p < 0.001; χ2/df = 4.92; root mean squared

Bosselman (2018)				CR is from 0.91 to 0.92 which exceeds the recommended 0.70. The AVE ranges from 0.69 to 0.74	error of approximation [RMSEA] = 0.087; standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = 0.048; confirmatory fit index [CFI] = 0.94; [NFI] = 0.93; tucker-lewis index [TLI] = 0.93, and incremental fit index [IFI] = 0.94).
Liu *et al.* (2019)	Confirmatory factor analysis	SPSS Amos 25.0	AVE, the square root of the AVE, Cronbach's alpha	AVE ranged from 0.52 to 0.65, and Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.81 to 0.88, and the composite reliability estimates	Excellent model fit χ2/df = 2.10, GFI = 0.963, CFI = 0.980, NFI = 0.962, standardized RMR = 0.0295, and RMSEA = 0.037
So, King and Sparks (2014)	Confirmatory analysis	AMOS 19.0	Validity: factor loadings, t values, average variances extracted (AVEs) Reliability: composite reliability (CR)	The *t* values for all loadings were greater than 2.57, and all average variances extracted were greater than .50. The composite reliability values ranging from .92 to .97	a reasonable fit, x^2 = 813.29, *df* = 362, c2/*df* = 2.25, *p* < .05, goodness-of-fit index (GFI)= .81, comparative fit index (CFI) = .95, Tucker–Lewis index (Ettlie, Bridges & O'keefe) = .94, normed fit index (NFI) = .92, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .07, and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .0452.

Kim, Ritchie and McCormick (2012)	Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using the covariance matrix to examine the scale items were structurally consistent with embedded theory or with any priori logic of scale design.	Not provided	Reliability: Cronbach's alphas, composite reliability Convergent validity and discriminant validity: factor loadings, the average variance extracted (AVE)		The ratio of the $\chi 2$ to the degrees of freedom ($\chi 2$ /df= 1.66) and other commonly used goodness-of-fit indices (CFI=0.98, NNFI= 0.97, IFI= 0.98, and RMSEA=0.05) were in line with the established criteria(CFI above 0.90, NNFI above 0.95, and RMSEA below 0.08
Kim *et al.* (2015)	CFA Remaining six-factor model was conducted CFA using ML estimation	Not provided	Cronbach's alpha coefficient, construct reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) values	The Cronbach's alpha values for the perceived social impacts factors recorded were above .70. The coefficient alpha value in the range from 0.6 to 0.7. The CR values for all perceived social impacts factors were well above the rule of thumb threshold of .70 Lastly, the AVE value for the perceived social	Chi-square statistic, The normed chi-square The chi-square difference test and model fit indices (e.g., factor loading values, coefficient values, standardized residual covariance, and the tests of fit indices).

				impacts factors recorded from .43 to .56.	
Fatma, Rahman and Khan (2016)	Second order confirmatory factor analysis	AMOS 22.0	Composite reliability, coefficient of determination	Composite reliability above 0.60 and coefficient of determination above 0.5	All the model fit indices (GFI=0.911; NFI=0.899; CFI=0.923; RMSEA =0.7) achieved the threshold levels of model fit.
Chandralal and Valenzuela (2015)	Confirmatory factor analysis	AMOS	Composite reliability	Convergent validity (CR[1]>.07), discriminant validity (CR>AVE[2]; AVE>.05) and composite reliability (MSV[3]<AVE; ASV[4]<AVE).	The model fit indices showed that the model is well-fitted to the data (CMIN/DF=1.572<3, CFI=.968>.95, IFI=.969>.95,TLI=.963>.95, RMSEA =.041<.08
Taheri, Jafari and Okumus (2017)	Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM)	SmartPLS 3.0	Composite reliability (CP), Cronbach's Alpha (α), factor loadings, and average variance extracted (AVE)	The AVE should exceed the threshold of .50	A Chi-square statistic was used to evaluate two groups' invariance for age
Fetscherin and Stephano (2016)	Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to confirm the nature of construct and	Not provided	Cronbach alpha for CFA also AVE and CR values	AVE values range between .45 to .60 and CR values range between .60 to .79. All CR values are higher than the AVE	Not given

	its' dimensionality				
Kim (2014)	Confirmatory factor analysis using the maximum likelihood estimator	LISREL 9.1	Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability estimate The average variance extracted	Composite reliability estimates ranged from .81 to .91 Cronbach's alpha ranged from .81 to .90	$X^2(450=777.87,$ CFI=.96, NNFI=.96, IFI=.96, and RMSEA =.05.

Cronbach's alpha ranged from .916 to .966, which suggested an acceptable level of reliability. At this stage of data analysis, the convergent is the consideration to construct validity. Convergent validity examines whether each factor is a one-dimensional structure (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). First the composite reliability (CR) ranged from 0.80 to 0.88, and the CR exceeded the recommended level of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). Second, the average variance extracted ranged from 0.36 to 0.62, and the promotional destination innovativeness failed to surpass the recommended cutoff value of 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981)

Table 5.11 Reliability and convergent validity properties

	Mean	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
DDI (14 items)		.966	0.88	0.36
DI01	5.13			
DI02	5.09			
DI03	5.20			
DI04	5.31			
DI05	5.22			
DI06	5.29			
DI07	5.19			
DI08	5.25			
DI09	5.32			
DI10	5.32			
DI11	5.23			
DI12	5.24			
DI13	5.27			
DI14	5.29			
DCI (6 items)		.951	0.87	0.54
DI15	5.24			
DI16	5.26			
DI17	5.21			
DI18	5.14			
DI19	5.16			
DI20	5.16			
DII (4 items)		.926	0.86	0.62
DI21	5.08			
DI22	5.17			
DI23	5.18			
DI24	5.21			
DMI (3 items)		.916	0.80	0.58
DI25	5.07			
DI26	5.05			
DI27	5.09			
DEI (4 items)		.929	0.80	0.51
DI28	5.19			

DI29	5.28			
DI30	5.22			
DI31	5.26			

5.5.3 Model Comparison of TPDI

To confirm whether or not a second-order factor model is the best option for conceptualization of TPDI required comparing four alternative models: Model 1 examined a first order model with 31 variables (Figure 5.3); Model 2 estimated the five first-order factors model without correlation (Figure 5.4); Model 3 contained the five first-order factors model with correlation (Figure 5.5); Model 4 estimated that the second-order factor accounted for the covariance among the five first-order latent variables (Figure 5.6)3.
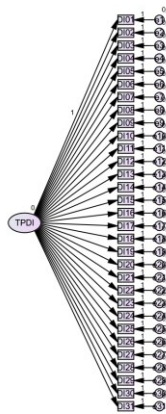
Figure 5.3 Model 1: One first-order model
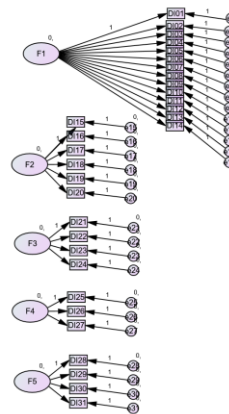
Figure 5.4 Model 2: Five first order model without correlation
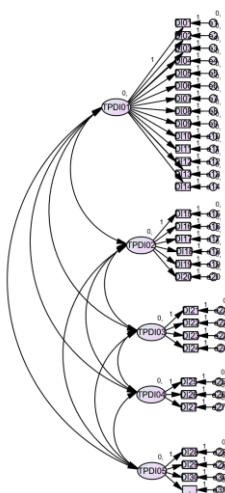
Figure 5.5 Model 3: Five first-order model with correlation **Figure 5.6** Model 4: One second order with
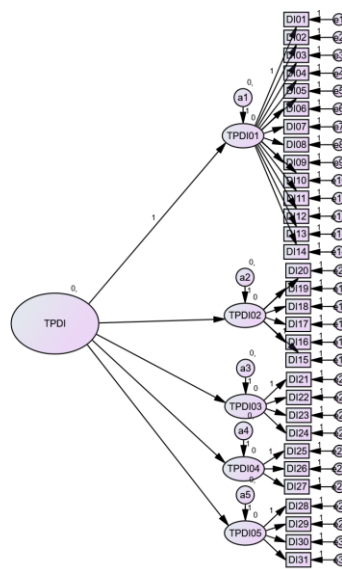
To determine the best fitting model for TPDI, the four different models were analysed using maximum likelihood estimation in IBM SPSS AMOS. Before the comparison of the four models, the table below (Table 5.11) provides the suggested values from the existing literature. The suggested values are a common baseline in CFA analysis (e.g. Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018; Liu *et al.*, 2019; So, King & Sparks, 2014; Tsaur, Lin & Liu, 2013b) .

Table 5.12 Suggested values

Variables	Suggested Values	Resources
Average variance extracted (AVE)	>0.5	(Hair *et al.*, 2014c)
Composite reality (CR)	>0.7	(Hair *et al.*, 2014c)
Comparative fit index (CFI)	>0.95	(Hu & Bentler, 1999)
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	>0.90	(Hair *et al.*, 2014c)
Normal fit index (NFI)	>0.90	(Bollen et al., 2014)
Tucker-Lewis index	>0.95	(Hu & Bentler, 1999)
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	<0.08	(Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993)
Standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR)	<0.08	(Hu & Bentler, 1999)

The comparison results of the four models are provided in Table 5.12. Model 2 is discarded, because the indices were lower or higher than the acceptable values, for example, the suggested value of RMSEA should lower than 0.08, but the RMSEA in the second model was .149, higher than the acceptable level. Furthermore, CFI was .748, smaller than the suggested 0.95. After the deletion of Model 2, the comparisons were between the Models 1, 3, and 4.

The three competing models were run to identify the best option to develop TPDI. Model 1 assumed that all TPDI items were loaded on a single construct, which was a one-factor model. Model 3 is defined as a five-factor model with correlations; and Model 4 showed the scale of TPDI as second-order constructs with five first-order factors. The results from table 5.12 showed that Model 3 and Model 4 had similar indices, however, some of the indices were different such as NFI, TLI, χ^2, df, and χ^2/df. Though the variables of Model 3 and Model 4 were acceptable with the guidelines from table 5.11, Model 3 showed high fit indices (χ^2=1144.474, df=424, p<0.05, χ^2/df=2.699, GFI=.915, SRMR=.0218, RMSEA=.048, NFI=.960, CFI=.974). To develop the in-depth knowledge of TPDI, the best option for TPDI was a second-order factor model (Model 4). The major contribution of second-order factor model could help to retain representative features of first-order constructs (Li *et al.*, 2020).

Table 5.13 Model Comparisons of TPDI Scale

Goodness fit-indices	Model 1 One first-order factor model	Model 2: Four first-order factors model without correlation	Model 3: Four first-order factors with correlation	Model 4: One second-factor model with four first-order factors
RMSEA	.61	.149	.048	.048
SRMR	.0229	.6067	.0218	.0219
CFI	.965	.748	.974	.974
NFI	.953	.736	.960	.959
GFI	.896	.622	.915	.914
TLI	.965	.730	.972	.971
$\chi 2$	1351.164	7487.746	1144.474	1164.676
df	434	434	424	429
$\chi 2$/df	3.113	17.253	2.699	2.715

5.5.4 Common Method Bias

Common method bias (CMB) happens in survey research when all data (independent variables, dependent variables and mediating and moderating variables) are collected using the same method. It could affect the vigorous of research (Jordan & Troth, 2020a). In addition, the study's validity could be determined by the result from CMB (Kock, Berbekova & Assaf, 2021). Given the importance of CMB, and it is a well-examined topic. However, many research studies remain submitted to journals that do not identify this phenomenon as a limitation to their method.

Furthermore, the CMB is often neglected in most tourism articles. Therefore, this study applies Harman's one-factor test to test CMB, and it is the most popular and simplest statistical approach to test the CMB (Jordan & Troth, 2020b; Mat Roni, 2014). CMB is present if EFA, with all primary study variables included, results in one factor accounting for more than 50% of the variance; CMB is present if CFA suggests that one-factor model fits the data as well as the proposed model (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). For the current study, SPSS was employed to run the Harman's single factor score, the result of total variance was given in the table below.

Table 5.14 Harman's single factor score

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loading		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	21.12	68.129	68.129	21.12	68.129	68.129
2	0.955	3.081	71.21			
3	0.739	2.384	73.594			
4	0.583	1.88	75.474			

5	0.502	1.62	77.094			
6	0.479	1.546	78.64			
7	0.386	1.246	79.885			
8	0.377	1.215	81.1			
9	0.358	1.153	82.254			
10	0.351	1.134	83.388			
11	0.327	1.054	84.442			
12	0.314	1.014	85.455			
13	0.306	0.989	86.444			
14	0.299	0.964	87.408			
15	0.286	0.923	88.331			
16	0.284	0.916	89.248			
17	0.274	0.883	90.131			
18	0.263	0.849	90.98			
19	0.259	0.836	91.816			
20	0.245	0.791	92.607			
21	0.242	0.782	93.389			
22	0.238	0.769	94.158			
23	0.231	0.744	94.902			
24	0.224	0.723	95.625			
25	0.218	0.704	96.33			
26	0.209	0.673	97.003			
27	0.207	0.668	97.671			
28	0.201	0.649	98.32			
29	0.188	0.605	98.926			
30	0.176	0.569	99.494			
31	0.157	0.506	100			

From table above, the current study exists common method bias because the total variance is higher than recommended level of 50%. A possible explanation might be common scale properties, such as number of scale of points, and it increases CMB (Johnson, Rosen & Djurdjevic, 2011). Clearly, the CMB is one of limitations for this study, and the limitations will be discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

5.5.5 Structural Equation Modelling

The third stage of the questionnaire survey was conducted to examine the relationship between destination innovativeness, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction, The profile of respondents was provided in the previous sections The full structural equation modelling (SEM) consists of measurement and structural models (Byrne, 2016). A measurement model displays the links between the latent variables and their relative observable constructs. A structural model depicts the hypothesised relationship among latent variables (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). When applying the partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM), the first step

involves examining the measurement models (Hair *et al.*, 2019).

The current stage uses PLS-SEM because there are formative indicators. The significant advantage of PLS-SEM is that it has unrestricted use of formative measures (Hair *et al.*, 2014a; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011b; Hair *et al.*, 2019). Furthermore, the selection of PLS-SEM is determined by the objectives of this study. One of the objectives of this study is to assess potential relationships among tourist perceived destination innovativeness, tourist experience, and tourist satisfaction. The analysis of the relationships is concerned with testing a theoretical framework from a prediction perspective (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, the PLE-SEM technique is the preferred approach for this study.

Moreover, a hierarchical component or higher-order construct is presented in the context of PLS-SEM in this study because it enables the researcher to develop more dimensions with specific subdimensions (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2019). Two of the most popular methods for specifying and estimating a higher-order construct are (extended) repeated indicators and a two-stage approach (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2019). Both of the two approaches produce highly similar results when the sample size is large enough. This study employs the two-stage approach to present a better parameter recovery. The analysis of this current study will be in two stages; mainly, the disjoint two-stage approach will be employed. The first stage examines the lower-order components of this model, and those components are theoretically linked with all other higher-order indicators in the second stage (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2019). The construct scores will be saved to measure the higher-order indicators in the second stage.

5.5.5.1 Assessment Disjoint Two-stage Approach

The recommended procedures and criteria for assessing the measurement model can be used to estimate the two-stage approach in this study (e.g.Hair *et al.*, 2016; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2019). Further details of the two-stage approach will be provided in the following subsections.

5.5.5.2 Stage 1 Assessment of the Lower-order Constructs (LOC)

Four significant criteria are considered for testing the lower-order constructs' reliability and validity (LOC), including internal consistency reliability, indicator reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011b). The first step in testing the LOC is to examine the factor loading based on Hair *et al.* (2019)' s guideline. The second step is to assess the internal consistency reliability. Two commonly used measures are composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha (e.g.Kim, Lee & Bonn, 2016; Sarstedt *et al.*,

2014). The third step is to examine the convergent validity. The average variance extracted (AVE) is used for evaluation (Hair *et al.*, 2019). The last step to assess the reflective measurement model is to test discriminant validity. The Fornell-Larcker criterion is a frequently employed method. Alternatively, the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of the correlations was proposed in recent years (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015; Voorhees *et al.*, 2016). The result of assessments in the criteria above will be presented and discussed in the following sections.

Factor Loadings

Factor loading means the correlated relationship between a variable and a factor, and the factor loading can range from +1 to -1(Cramer, 2004). The higher absolute value indicates a higher correlation of the item. Based on Hair *et al.* (2016) 's recommendation for the factor loadings, the values should be above .50. Table 5.15 below shows factor loading for this study, and none of the values was lower than the recommended value. Hence, no items were removed in this study.

Table 5.15 Results of factor loadings

	DDI	DCI	DII	DMI	DEI	TE	TS
DI01	0.652						
DI02	0.658						
DI03	0.884						
DI04	0.893						
DI05	0.873						
DI06	0.891						
DI07	0.878						
DI08	0.885						
DI09	0.888						
DI10	0.876						
DI11	0.876						
DI12	0.875						
DI13	0.876						
DI14	0.877						
DI15		0.901					
DI16		0.897					
DI17		0.897					
DI18		0.889					
DI19		0.895					
DI20		0.897					
DI21			0.898				
DI22			0.907				
DI23			0.912				
DI24			0.898				
DI25				0.924			

DI26				0.928		
DI27				0.923		
DI28					0.903	
DI29					0.908	
DI30					0.911	
DI31					0.910	
TE01						0.910
TE02						0.904
TE03						0.904
TE04						0.892
TE05						0.902
TE06						0.897
TS01						0.928
TS02						0.931
TS03						0.922

Internal Consistency Reliability

Two methods are commonly employed to assess the internal consistency reliability. One uses Jöreskog (1971) 's composite reliability, and the other is Cronbach's alpha (Hair *et al.*, 2019). However, Hair *et al.* (2019) argued that the reliability of Cronbach's alpha is lower than composite reliability because the items are not weighted. In comparison, Chin (2010) suggested that Cronbach's alpha could be used with the composite reliability. Hence, this study uses the two measures to assess the internal consistency reliability followed by Chin (2010) 's suggestion.

The accepted values of the two measures are higher than 0.70 based on several researchers' guidelines ((Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011b; Hair *et al.*, 2019; Lee *et al.*, 2011). While Hair *et al.* (2019) argued that the values of reliability could be problematic if the values are larger than 0.95 because the values are redundant. After reviewing the existing literature that applied the PLS-SEM approach. It indicated that values larger than 0.95 could not be a significant problem for internal consistency reliability (e.g.Carlson & O'Cass, 2010; Loureiro, Dias Sardinha & Reijnders, 2012; Sanchez-Franco & Rondan-Cataluña, 2010). For this study, Table 5.16 presents the results of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability. The Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.918 to 0.970, whereas composite reliability ranged from 0.947 to 0.974. Both of the indicators met the requirements of the threshold of .70. Therefore, the internal consistency reliability was established.

Table 5.16 Values for internal consistency reliability

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
DCI	0.928	0.949
DDI	0.955	0.962

DEI	0.907	0.942
DII	0.906	0.941
DMI	0.915	0.947
TE	0.954	0.963
TS	0.918	0.948

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is the extent of a measure that correlates positively with an alternative measure of the same construct (Hair, 2022). Commonly, the convergent validity is assessed by average extracted variance (AVE) in most research (e.g.Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018; Liu *et al.*, 2019; Palos-Sanchez *et al.*, 2021; Tsaur, Lin & Liu, 2013b). The rule of thumb for AVE is 0.5 or higher, which indicates that the construct is able to explain the 50% of variances on average. Table 6.4 displays the AVE value of reflective measure models. It can be found that the AVE values were higher than 0.50. It indicated that the convergent validation for reflective measures was achieved.

Table 5.17 AVEs for reflective constructs

Construct	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
DCI	0.823
DDI	0.716
DEI	0.843
DII	0.841
DMI	0.855
TE	0.813
TS	0.859

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity means the extent of a construct different from other constructs in the same structural model (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Two standard measures are applied To examine the discriminant validity. One is cross-loading (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011b), and the other is Fornell and Larcker criterion (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The cross-loadings are liberal because it requires that the loadings on its construct are higher than cross-loading on the other construct (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009). For the current study, Table 5.18 show the cross-loadings between the construct and its indicator.

Table 5.18 Cross-loadings for each item

	TE	TS
TE01	0.910	0.840
TE02	0.903	0.831
TE03	0.904	0.843

TE04	0.892	0.829
TE05	0.902	0.833
TE06	0.897	0.829
TS01	0.857	0.927
TS02	0.860	0.931
TS03	0.856	0.921

Based on the table above, each measuring item within the construct was higher than other cross-loadings in row and column. Therefore, the method for cross-loadings was acceptable for this current study. The second option to test the discriminant validity was the Fornell and Larcker criterion. It suggested that AVE of each construct should be compared with the squared inter-construct correlation of that same construct and all other reflective measures in the same structural model (Hair *et al.*, 2019). The result of the Fornell and Larcker criterion displays in Table 5.19 below. From the criterion results, all square roots of AVE were higher than other latent constructs based on Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2011b) 's guidelines regarding the Fornell and Larcker criterion. Consequently, the current study met the requirements for both measures to assess the discriminant validity. It means that the present study for discriminant validity was satisfactory.

Table 5.19 Results of Fornell and Larcker

	DCI	DDI	DEI	DII	DMI	TE	TS
DCI	0.896						
DDI	0.954	0.852					
DEI	0.924	0.939	0.908				
DII	0.927	0.939	0.916	0.904			
DMI	0.874	0.883	0.867	0.881	0.925		
TE	0.904	0.918	0.901	0.903	0.851	0.902	
TS	0.868	0.884	0.862	0.862	0.811	0.925	0.927

5.5.5.3 Stage 2 Assessment of the Higher-order Constructs

At the second stage, the scores of latent variables are saved when they are satisfactory, and those scores form the HOC. In this study, the latent variables were saved in Excel, and they were imported into the data file of SmartPLS, and it was named DI 3rd Stage-LVS. TPDI as the HOC in the current study. It was based on five lower-order constructs, Destination Development Innovativeness, Destination Co-creation Innovativeness, Destination Experiential Innovativeness, Destination Inclusive Innovativeness and Destination Marketing Innovativeness. To validate the higher-order constructs, outer weight, outer loading, and VIF will be examined. At this stage, the outer

weight was found significant (Hair *et al.*, 2016).

Furthermore, outer loadings were higher than the recommended level of .50 for each lower-order construct (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2019). Finally, the variance inflation factor (VIF) was used to assess the collinearity of formative indicators. The results of each higher-order construct are presented in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20 Results of Higher-order construct

HOC	LOCs	Outer Weight	T Statistics	P Values	Outer Loadings	VIF
TPDI	DCI	0.156	3.980	0.0001	0.951	7.750
	DDI	0.298	5.584	0.0000	0.970	8.774
	DEI	0.237	6.798	0.0000	0.959	7.631
	DII	0.259	4.974	0.0000	0.962	7.888
	DMI	0.091	2.061	0.0393	0.913	5.113

Indicator Collinearity

The result of VIF is presented in Table 5.20 above. It can be found that the VIF were higher than 0.5, which means that the levels of collinearity are very high (Hair *et al.*, 2016). The VIF is commonly used to examine the collinearity of formative indicators. Generally, formative indicators do not correlate highly because high correlations among formative indicators could bias the result (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). Ideally, the VIF values could be close to 3 and lower. (Hair *et al.*, 2019). In contrast, some researchers suggested that values of VIF could be 10 (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014).In this case, indicators could remove to solve the collinearity issue according to Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2011b) 's recommendation. Therefore, some items are eliminated in this study, and the table 5.21 shows the removed items and its dimensions. The indicators from the DMI were retained because at least three measure variables are preferable for each factor or dimension (Izquierdo, Olea & Abad, 2014; Watkins, 2018).

Table 5.21 Removed Items to Solve the Collinearity Issue

Removed Item	Statement	Dimension
DI04	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to develop sustainably.	Destination Development Innovativeness
DI05	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to attract repeated tourists.	
DI08	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to enhance its technological use and cultural tourism	
DI10	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to provide convenience to the	

	tourists in various ways.	
DI13	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to identify the factors that enables it to attract tourists.	
DI15	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its landmarks.	Destination Co-creation Innovativeness
DI17	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its attractions.	
DI18	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its landmarks.	
DI21	Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is able to meet demands of tourists from different parts of the world.	Destination Inclusiveness Innovativeness
DI31	Destination innovativeness is an opportunity for tourists to learn about the uniqueness of a destination.	Destination Experiential Innovativeness

After removing the items in the table above, the VIF for each dimension was lowered, and the results of VIF were shown in table 5.22. The results of VIF was satisfactory in this study even the VIF of each indicator was higher than the suggested level. Overall, table 5.23 gives updated results of validation of outer weight, outer loadings and VIF. The higher-order construct validation was established since all the criteria were met.

Table 5.22 Results of VIF after Removing Items

Construct	VIF
DCI	7.7504
DDI	8.774
DEI	7.6311
DII	7.8885
DMI	5.1135

Table 5.23 Updated Results for High-order Constructs

HOC	LOCs	Outer Weight	T Statistics	P Values	Outer Loadings	VIF
TPDI	DCI	0.136	2.988	0.0032	0.962	10.031
	DDI	0.383	5.952	0.0000	0.984	12.910
	DEI	0.209	5.668	0.0000	0.959	8.060
	DII	0.221	4.182	0.0000	0.962	8.512

	DMI	0.088	2.171	0.0492	0.913	5.096

5.5.6 Assessment of the Structural Model

The next step is to estimate the structural model after assessing the reflective and formative constructs of the measurement model. It covers the hypothesised relationships among the exogenous and endogenous latent variables (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). Before proceeding with the analysis, Figure 5.7 below presents the theoretical model proposed in the previous section (Section 5.3).

It is necessary to apply several steps with different criteria to evaluate the structural model. Standard assessments criteria include the coefficient of determination (R^2), the blindfolding-based cross-validated redundancy measures Q^2 and the relevance of the path coefficients(Hair *et al.*, 2019). The following sections introduce each criterion in detail for the assessment of the structural model.
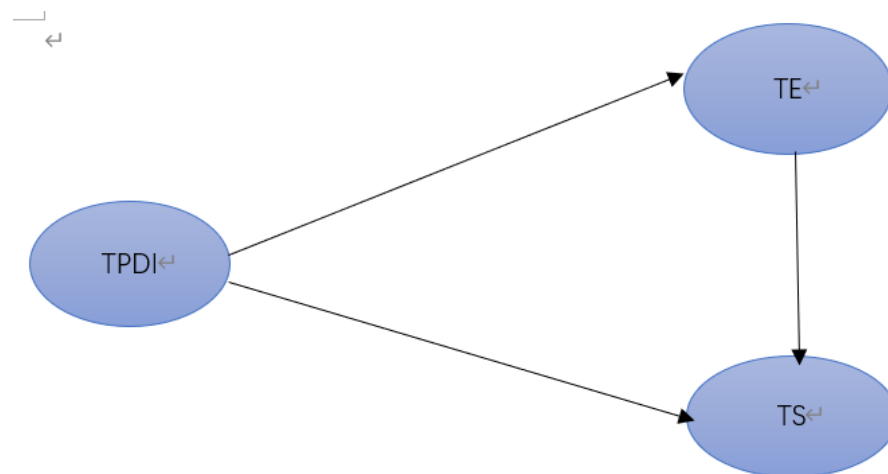
Figure 5.7 Proposed theoretical model Source: Author's own

Collinearity assessment
Multi-collinearity could be a potential problem for estimating formative constructs' indicators and evaluating the relationships among the constructs (Temme, Kreis & Hildebrandt, 2006). Therefore, collinearity must be examined to ensure it does not cause bias problems for the regression result before assessing the structural relationships. When considering multi-collinearity within the structural model, the model must be separated into different parts to evaluate each set of predicting constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2014a).

Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

The coefficient of determination (R^2 value) is the commonly used criterion for a structural model assessment Hair (2022), and the R^2 value is to measure the model's in-sample explanatory power of the endogenous variables (Hair *et al.*, 2014a; Peng & Lai, 2012). There is no generalised rule of thumb of R^2 value regarding an acceptable R^2 value, with 0.75, 0.50, 0.25, and the different values indicate substantial, moderate and weak respectively (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011b; Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009).

Table 5.24 below gives the values of R^2 for the two endogenous constructs of the structural model used in this study. It can be found that the R^2 values were identified as being acceptable as the R^2 values range from 0.864 (TS) to 0.867 (TE).

Table 5.24 Results of R^2 for endogenous constructs

Endogenous constructs	R^2
TS	0.864
TE	0.867

Predictive Accuracy (Q^2)

Another means is to use the Q^2 to calculate the PLS path model's predictive accuracy (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). These are only applied to endogenous latent variables with reflective measurement model specifications or endogenous single-item constructs. Regarding the obtained value, if the value is more prominent than zero for a certain reflective endogenous construct, predictive relevance is indicated for the path model; otherwise, the model is deficient in predictive relevance (Peng & Lai, 2012; Rigdon, 2014). As a rule of thumb, Q^2 values are supposed to be higher than 0, 0.25 and 0.50, which describes the PLS-path model's small, medium and large predictive relevance.

In the current study, Q^2 values were obtained after running the blindfolding procedures shown in Table 5.25. As the Q^2 values were above zero, the model was indicated as sufficient predictive relevance for the reflective constructs.

Table 5.25 Values of predictive relevance (Q^2)

Endogenous Latent Variables	**Q^2 Value**
TE	0.696
TS	0.735

Structural Model Path Coefficients

The estimates for relationships among the structural model are provided after employing the PLS algorithm. The data reflect the hypothesised relationships among the constructs through examining the path coefficients. Hair *et al.* (2014a) suggested that values of path coefficient range from -1 to +1, and the coefficients close to +1 represent a strong positive relationship. The values of coefficients close to -1 indicate a negative relationship. Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009) proposed that the estimated values should be assessed of sign, magnitude, and significance in the structural model. After obtaining the estimated path coefficient, to evaluate the significance of the path coefficient, the t-value needs to be examined; this can be obtained by running a bootstrapping procedure in SmartPLS (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). Based on the t-statistics output, the significant level of each relationship can then be determined.

In this study, a bootstrapping procedure was performed with a specific number of 5000 subsamples. In Table 5.26, the path coefficients, the t-values, their significance levels, and p values are presented. It was demonstrated that all relationships were significant at the level of 1 %.

Table 5.26 Significance testing results of the structural model path coefficients

	Path Coefficient	t Values	Significance level	p Values
TPDI ->TS	0.224	4.403	***	0.000
TPDI-> TE	0.929	76.788	***	0.000
TE -> TS	0.717	14.660	***	0.000

*p< 0.10. **p< 0.05. *** p<0.01

It is also crucial to determine the sizes of the structural coefficients as it may not be meaningful by examining the relevance of significant relationships (Hair *et al.*, 2014a). To assess the relevance, 'total effects', as the sum of direct and indirect effects, has been suggested as the measure most suited. Table 5.27 shows the corresponding results for the total effects of the exogenous constructs on the target constructs. It was demonstrated that all total effects are significant at the level of 1 %.

Table 5.27 Significance testing results of the total effects

	Path Coefficient	t Values	Significance level	p Values
TPDI ->TS	0.890	70.580	***	0.000
TPDI-> TE	0.929	76.788	***	0.000
TE -> TS	0.717	14.660	***	0.000

5.5.6 Mediation Analysis

When the third mediator variable intervenes between two other related constructs, mediation occurs (Hair *et al.*, 2016). Mediation effects have indirect and direct effects. Direct effects are the relationships with directly linked constructs by a single arrow. While indirect effects are a sequence of direct effects, the indirect effects can be presented by multiple arrows. There are certain evaluation criteria for mediation analysis, and the employed measures are presented in Figure 5.8

Figure 5.8 Criteria for mediation analysis
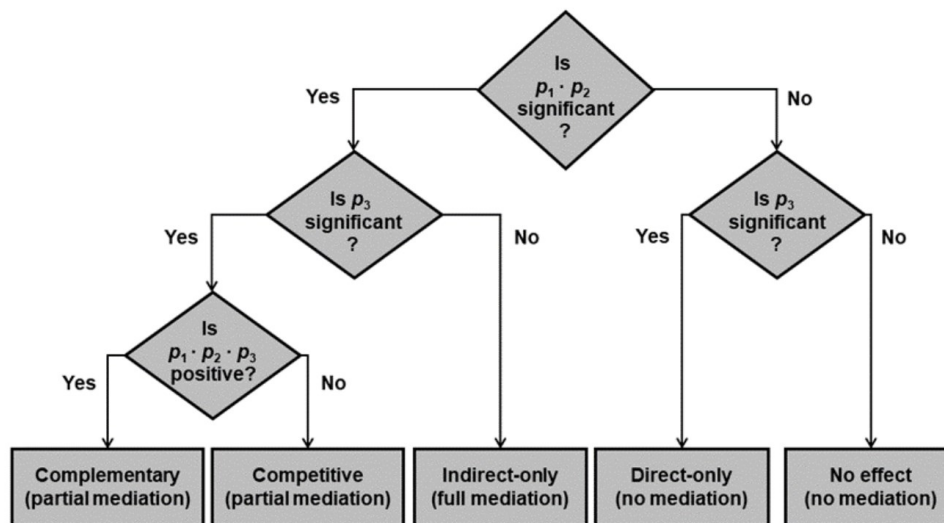
<div align="right">Source: (Hair et al., 2016)</div>

As the figure above shows, the evaluation process involves three steps. First, the researcher determines whether a significant indirect effect is diverted through the hypothesised mediator (demonstrated by p1*p2 in the graph). If the indirect effect is significant, then the researcher will continue to examine the direct effect of the predictor (demonstrated by p3 in the diagram). Again, suppose the direct effect is significant. In that case, the researcher will be required to perform the third evaluation step: evaluating the product of the coefficients of the direct and indirect effects. A positive product indicates a complementary mediation effect, whereas a negative product is suggestive of a competitive mediation effect.

According to the steps mentioned above of mediation analysis, the researcher employed the bootstrapping techniques to obtain the result of p1*p2 (the total indirect effect in the bootstrapping history as the first step. The result shows that the total indirect effect for TPDI ->TS is significant ($\beta=0.661$, t=15.131,p<0.01). Therefore, the first step of the evaluation is confirmed, and the researcher continued to examine the significance of p3 (the direct effect of TPDI -> TS. Again, the assessment result is significant (Table 5.28). Hence, it

could be concluded that this effect is a partial mediation rather than a full mediation. In the third and final step of the analysis, the researcher examined the value of p1*p2*p3 and found that it had a positive value. Consequently, TE could be confirmed as a significant mediator for the relationship between TPDI and TS. Its effect is a complementary partial mediation.

Table 5.28 Significance of direct and indirect effects

Relationship	Direct effect	t value	Significant? (p < 0.05)?	Indirect effect	t value	Significant? (p < 0.05)?
TPDI -> TS	0.890	70.580	Yes	0.661	15.131	Yes

5.5.7 Moderation Analysis

In similarity to a mediation effect, a moderation effect is a function of third variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). However, these two functions differ in that mediation explains a relationship between two variables, whereas moderation influences the strength of a relationship between two variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hair *et al.*, 2016). In addition to controlling the strength of a relationship, the moderation effect can also affect and change the direction of a relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hair *et al.*, 2016). In this study, multiple group analysis (MGA) will be used to assess the significant differences between the assumptions of homogeneity (Cheah *et al.*, 2020). MGA is "a means to test predefined data groups to determine the existence of significant differences across group-specific parameter estimates (Cheah *et al.*, 2020, p.11)." MGA is considered the most efficient tool to assess moderation effects among different relationships.

MGA is important because it is vital to assess differences across groups, and if the researcher does not consider heterogeneity, it could mislead the conclusion (Cheah *et al.*, 2020; Matthews, 2017). Therefore, the MGA is employed in this current study to examine different relationships among age, gender, TPDI, TE and TS. To execute MGA, specific steps to follow. The first and second steps are to generate data groups and test invariance. The second step is more complicated than the first and the third step, and it includes another three-step process. At this stage, measurement invariance of composite models (MICOM) is used, and the first step is about configural invariance. The second and third steps are about compositional invariance and composite equality. The last step to assess MGA is to analyse and interpret permutation results. The following subsections discuss each step in detail.

Data Group Generation

Before executing an MGA, the researcher generated groups in data. The analysis is able to statistically assess the differences between the group-specific parameters, most often path coefficients resulting from different subpopulations. This procedure enables the researcher to evaluate observed heterogeneity in model relationships. For this study, the sample size for the female subgroup is 428 and for the male subgroup is 308. Each subpopulation exceeds the minimum with two arrows pointing at a construct—i.e., TS (10% with a minimum R^2 of 0.10=86. In order to exceed the minimum R^2 of 0.10 at a 5% significance level, both the male and female subgroups would need to exceed 110 (Hair *et al.*, 2016).

Test for Invariance

The first step of MICOM is to identify indicators, data treatment and algorithm setting by reviewing the process that is followed during the survey development. All of the above criteria have been met, thus the configural invariance was established in the study. The second stey of MICOM is to examine compositional invariance. The Permutation tests were used in the study. In the Permutation test, the permutation was set at 5000. The MICOM results, shown in Table 5.29, report for the second step, indicating that compositional invariance has been demonstrated for all the constructs. This is evident based on the original correlations being equal to or greater than the 5.00% quantile correlations (shown in the 5% column).

Table 5.29 MICOM Step 2 Report Result

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
TE	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.769
TPDI	0.997	0.998	0.994	0.343
TS	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.529

The next step is to evaluate the results tab for the third step of the MICOM procedure. This step assesses the composites' (constructs) equality of mean values and variances across the groups. For invariance to be established, the first column (mean original difference) must be a number that falls within the 95% confidence interval. This is assessed by comparing the mean original difference to the lower (2.5%) and upper (97.5%) boundaries shown in columns three and four. If the mean original difference is a number that falls within the range of the lower and upper boundaries, then the first part of step three has been met, thus providing initial evidence of invariance. However, the construct did not pass the test portion for invariance because the mean original difference was higher than the range of the low and upper boundaries. The second portion of the results for the MICOM step three is shown in Table

6.15. The data in column one (original variance difference must be a number that falls within the 95% confidence interval. Therefore, the first column is again compared to the lower (2.5%) and upper (97.5%) confidence intervals. In order to conclude full measurement invariance for the composites (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016), all the constructs must fall within the 95% confidence interval. However, in this study, Table 5.30, the mean original difference for all constructs did not fall within the 97.5% of interval. Thus, the partial invariance was confirmed.

Table 5.30 MICOM Step 3 Report Result-Part 1

	Mean - Original Difference (Female - Male)	Mean - Permutation Mean Difference (Female - Male)	2.50%	97.50%	Permutation p-Values
TE	0.1712	-0.0011	-0.1446	0.1431	0.0192
TPDI	0.2009	-0.0016	-0.1476	0.1473	0.0068
TS	0.2044	-0.0009	-0.1453	0.1479	0.0054

Table 5.31 MICOM Step 3 Report Result-Part 2

	Variance - Original Difference (Female - Male)	Variance - Permutation Mean Difference (Female - Male)	2.50%	97.50%	Permutation p-Values
TE	-0.1868	0.003	-0.2265	0.2336	0.1066
TPDI	-0.1895	0.0032	-0.2344	0.2507	0.131
TS	-0.1445	0.004	-0.2134	0.2261	0.2034

In the current study, the researcher moved to the third step because the partial measurement invariance allows researchers to compare the group-specific coefficients of the relationships (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016). To determine whether the path coefficient of the model for the two groups are significantly different, the researcher ran each male and female group separately. Table 5.32 and Table 5.33 present results between male and female groups by using bootstrapping.

Table 5.32 Bootstrapping result for male group

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
TE -> TS	0.463	0.435	0.091	5.067	0.000
TPDI -> TE	0.946	0.946	0.020	47.593	0.000
TPDI -> TS	0.491	0.519	0.088	5.592	0.000

Table 5.33 Bootstrapping result for female group

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
TE -> TS	0.844	0.833	0.055	15.314	0.000
TPDI -> TE	0.913	0.913	0.014	64.214	0.000
TPDI -> TS	0.086	0.097	0.059	1.474	0.128

As noted in the tables above, the relationship between TPDI and TS is significant for males (p-value=0.000). It is not significant for females (p-values=0.141). The other relationship TPDI and TE, did not indicate a major difference between males and females. It was necessary to return to the output of the permutation test because it could help the researchers determine the other group's differences. Table 6.18 presented the report of the permutation test. The results showed the hypothesised structural relationships. The first two columns showed the original path coefficients for the groups of interest, which are males and females. The following two columns indicated the path coefficient original differences and the permutation and mean differences, followed by the lower and upper boundaries for the 95% confidence interval. The final column contained the permutation *p*-value. If the p-value is less or equal to 0.1, it indicates a significant difference between the two groups. However, the relationship between TPDI and TE indicates an insignificant difference between males and females. This was evident by the permutation p-value of 0.158 in Table 6.18. Therefore, the hypothesis for the relationship between TPDI and TE in relation to gender was rejected in this study. Overall, it was confirmed that the relationship between TPDI and TS is strong among males by using the MGA.

Table 5.34 Permutation Test Path Coefficient Result

5.5.8 Hypothesis Testing

	Path Coefficients Original (Female)	Path Coefficients Original (Male)	Path Coefficients Original Difference (Female - Male)	Path Coefficients Permutation Mean Difference (Female - Male)	2.5%	97.5%	Permutation p-Values
TE -> TS	0.844	0.453	0.391	0.004	-0.195	0.203	
TPDI -> TE	0.913	0.947	-0.034	0.000	-0.041	0.049	0.158
TPDI -> TS	0.086	0.501	-0.414	-0.004	-0.213	0.199	

In terms of the previous assessment of the theoretical model, the results of the estimates of the path coefficients on the proposed relationships among the constructs are presented. Based on the results, the acceptance or rejection of the proposed hypotheses based upon the relationships among the constructs in the theoretical model can be determined. Figure 5.9 presents the structural model with t-statistics, and the following subsections present the moderation and mediation effect in detail.

H1: Tourist perceived destination innovativeness has a positive impact on tourist experience.

H1 examines whether TPDI has a positive impact on the tourist experience or not. The result reveals that the TPDI significantly affects TE (β=0.890, t=76.788, p<0.01). Although no available studies can be recognised as directly confirming the relationships in destination innovativeness settings, support can be obtained from the general context. Errichiello and Micera (2021) expressed that the smart tourism destination is considered the integrated use of ICT solutions, which could improve efficiency and sustainability and enrich the tourist experience.

H2: Tourist experience has a positive impact on tourist satisfaction at destinations.
Hypothesis 2 was accepted at β=0.717, t=14.660, p<0.01 in that the tourist's experience has a significant effect on their satisfaction. This finding agreed with several previous studies in the destination context that demonstrated a positive relationship between tourist experience and tourist satisfaction (e.g.Azis *et al.*, 2020; Gohary *et al.*, 2020; Quynh, Hoai & Loi, 2021).

H3: Tourist perceived destination innovativeness has a positive impact on tourist satisfaction.
A significant association has been identified between TPDI and their satisfaction (β=0.890, t=70.580, p<0.01), which resulted in the acceptance of Hypothesis 3. It is recognised that no publications have assessed the

relationships between destination innovativeness and tourist satisfaction.

H4: The moderation effect of gender is different on tourist perceived destination innovativeness.

A partial significant association has been identified between TPDI and genders. Male tourists have stronger impact than female tourists on TPDI, in particularly, male tourists have stronger impact on tourist satifaction ($\beta=0.491$, $t=5.396$, $p<0.00$). This finding is consistent with Shahriari (2016)' result in general contexts of consumer satsifaction. In terms of tourist experience, both female tourists and male tourists have similar moderation effection between TPDI and tourist experience (male: $\beta=0.945$, $t=47.550$, $p<0.00$; female: $\beta=0.912$, $t=64.543$, $p<0.00$). Overall, the assessment above shows that the most of the proposed hypotheses are supported, except for hypothesis H4a. Table 5.35 presents a summary of the hypotheses testing results in this study.

Table 5.35 Summary of hypothesis testing

No.	Hypothesis	Result
1	Tourist perceived destination innovativeness has a positive impact on tourist experience.	Accepted
2	Tourist experience has a positive impact on tourist satisfaction at destinations.	Accepted
3	Tourist perceived destination innovativeness has a positive impact on tourist satisfaction.	Accepted
4	The moderation effect of gender is different on tourist perceived destination innovativeness.	Accepted
4a	The relationship between tourist perceived destination innovativeness and tourist experience is strong among males.	Rejected
4b	The relationship between tourist perceived destination innovativeness and tourist satisfaction is strong among males.	Accepted
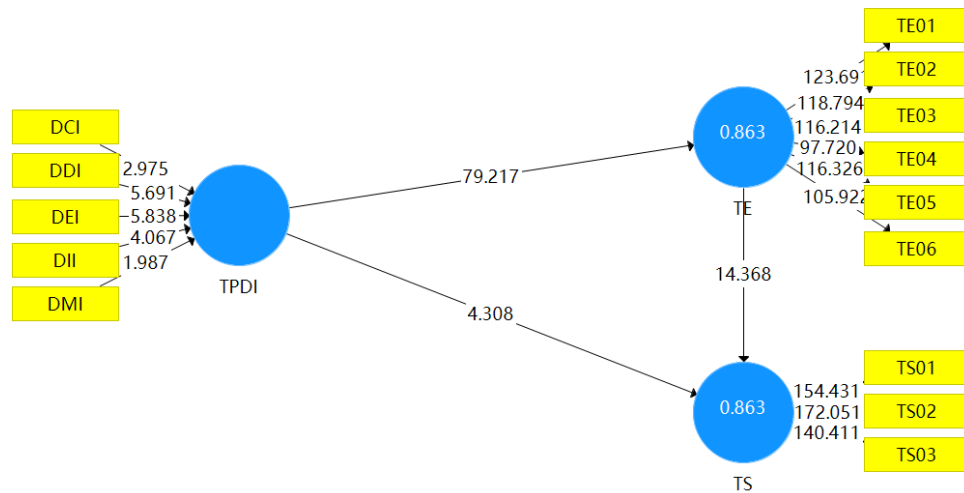
Figure 5.9 Structural model with T-statistics

5.6 Conclusion

To summarize, this study developed a comprehensive and systematic set of items for the TPDI. A 5-dimension, 31-item TPDI was arrived at by applying the multi-stage method from Churchill (1979). The whole scale development had different methods for data collection and data analysis: semi-structured interviews and two rounds of questionnaire survey; thematic analysis for interviews, and EFA and CFA for the second and third stages of questionnaire surveys respectively.

The first stage of the study used semi-structured interviews, and it was analysed by NVivo to generate items, and reviewed by the two supervisors from the supervisory team. Experiential destination innovativeness, destination development innovativeness, destination promotional innovativeness, destination inclusive innovativeness, and destination co-creation value innovativeness were extracted based on interviews with reference to existing literature (e.g. Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018). The experiential and promotional innovativeness were relatively new in tourism literature, and were consistent with Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018)'s study about restaurant innovativeness. Each dimension of TPDI are further discussed in next chapter (Chapter 6).

Then, the results of EFA of the stage 2 of the study assisted in purifying items from the original 48 items into 31 items with 5-dimension of TPDI. The CFA results of stage 3 further confirmed the five-dimension 31-item TPDI. The five dimensions were different compared with the results from stage 1 of the study

and existing literature in terms of innovativeness. In the results of stage 1, inclusiveness was a subdimension of service destination innovativeness, while in the results of stage 3, inclusiveness destination innovativeness became one of the main dimensions of TPDI. In addition, the result from the 3rd stage added co-creation destination innovativeness as a main dimension of TPDI, which was not in the existing literature such as Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018). The final model was consistent with the studies relevant to scale development, and the models from the existing studies were second-order factor models (e.g., Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018; Liu *et al.*, 2019)

Overall, with the purpose of continuing to fulfil the research objective, this chapter provides a rigorous procedure for developing scales of destination innovativeness from tourists' perspectives. The existing tourism and hospitality studies measuring the concept of innovativeness focused on one domain, such as service, technology innovativeness (Ariffin & Aziz, 2012), or as a general understanding (Jin *et al.*, 2015), or in the setting of a restaurant (Jin *et al.*, 2015; Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018). Recent studies suggest that the concept of innovativeness lies not only in the attributes relevant to technology but also in other aspects of experience (Kunz, Schmitt & Meyer, 2011; Lin, 2015b), and the conceptualization and development of TPDI scales were consistent with those recent studies.

Chapter 6 Discussions

6.1 Introduction

This thesis addresses a topic widely discussed in general business; however, it receives less attention in tourism literature, namely destination innovativeness, and, more specifically, destination innovativeness and its relationship between experience and satisfaction from tourists' perceptions. As the thesis stresses the importance of innovation and the innovativeness of a destination to maintain and improve its competitiveness. Therefore, the thesis identifies research gaps and fills the gaps in tourism literature. The thesis aims to develop a comprehensive knowledge of destination innovativeness from tourists' perceptions, and the thesis develops different objectives to achieve that aim. In the previous chapters, Chapter 5 develops a multi-scale to conceptualize destination innovativeness from tourists' interpretation, and explores the impacts of destination innovativeness on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Consequently, this chapter aims to interpret findings and discuss the results from the previous chapter relevant to the knowledge of TPDI and its impacts on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction based on the proposed aim and objectives.

This chapter is structured as follows. The first section introduces the significance and structural arrangement of this chapter. The second section discusses findings relevant to the scale development of TPDI and its five dimensions of TPDI. It compares the key findings of this thesis with existing literature and provides potential reasons for the unpredicted findings of this study. The second section mainly unpacks findings from proposed hypotheses between TPDI and tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Moreover, this section compares and contrasts with the existing literature, and provides potential explanations of differences among existing literature. The second and third sections identify the strengths and limitations of this thesis by comparing them with existing literature on innovation and innovativeness in different contexts, such as in the setting of startups, multi-national enterprises, and rural businesses, which provides the basis for implications and limitations in the next chapter. The third section concludes with a summary of the key points of this chapter, such as the potential explanations of unpredicted results in terms of subdimensions of TPDI and its relationships to tourist experience and satisfaction.

6.2 Discussion on the TPDI Measurement Items and Dimensions

Innovativeness is a key source for businesses to be competitive. Two of the objectives of this research are to develop in-depth knowledge of tourist perceived destination innovativeness and to construct and validate the scale of tourist perceived destination innovativeness, and this study mainly follows the steps of Churchill (1979) to generate scales to achieve the objectives of this research, including the development of in-depth knowledge of TPDI and construction and validation of scales of TPDI. In Chapter 5, both interviews and questionnaires were used to collect data, and different items and dimensions were generated and purified through interviews.

For Stage 1, 48 items are generated based on the understanding of TPDI, and they are different from existing scales of destination innovativeness produced by Lyu *et al.* (2023a). The similarities between their study and the current study are infrastructure development, cultural tourism resources, and transportation, although the emphasis is not similar. Their study focuses on the innovative practices of these aspects within towns, i.e.; the tourism infrastructure in the town is innovative; and this current study emphasises the ability of destinations. In contrast, the current study develops all new items to measure TPDI, which are not able to find other similar items tourism sector. The 48 items are used for further stages to validate them. These items are presented as questions to ask participants whether agree on the items or not.

After a critical review of relevant literature, the study conceptualizes TPDI as the ability, capability and willingness to provide unique, new, different services, or products to tourists, which advances the understanding of innovativeness in the tourism context. Moreover, the conceptualization of destination innovativeness from tourists' perspectives indicates that innovativeness is different from innovation as stressed in the previous chapter. To develop further depth knowledge of TPDI, the 20-item TPDI scale was finally developed reliably and rigorously through qualitative and quantitative data analysis. . Initially, five dimensions of tourist perceptions of destination innovativeness were developed from Stage 1, and those five dimensions were not developed in existing literature. These dimensions include destination development, destination co-creation value, destination experiential, destination inclusive, and destination marketing innovativeness. Specifically, destination development, destination co-creation value, and destination inclusive innovativeness were the first time to identify in the existing tourism literature, and then those generated scales with five dimensions from Stage 1 were purified and refined in Stage 2, which was the gist of Stage 2. In Stage 2,

several items were excluded because some of the scales were overlapping. In addition, other scales were dropped as they did not pass the validity test. To further confirm the scale and test the relationships between TPDI, TE and TS, those remaining scales from Stage 3 were used in Stage 3 via the Seven-point Likert Scale. Table 6.1 presents the different dimensions of the TPDI scale. The following sub-sections focus on the discussion of results from Stages 2 and 3 as Stage 2 and 3 further confirmed and validated those scales generated from Stage 1.

Table 6.1 Different dimensions of TPDI scale

No.	Dimension	Scale
1.	Destination Development Innovativeness (DDI)	Destination innovativeness refers to the ability of a destination to make itself attractive.
2.		Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to shape its destination image.
3.		Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to develop its attractions.
4.		Destination innovativeness refers to its creative changes on the basis of the well-developed infrastructure of a destination.
5.		Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to enhance its service.
6.		Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to ensure that the tourists enjoy their travel.
7.		Destination innovativeness is a destination's capability of providing interesting travel experience for the tourists.
8.		Destination innovativeness refers to a destination which has something that cannot be found elsewhere, making it unique.
9.	Destination Co-creation Innovativeness （DCI）	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its land resources.
10.		Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its land resources.
11.		Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its attractions.
12.	Destination Inclusiveness Innovativeness (DII)	Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to meet the demands of tourists from different age groups.
13.		Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is able to meet demands of tourists from different provinces of China.
14.		Destination innovativeness refers to a

		destination that is inclusive.
15.	Destination Marketing Innovativeness (DMI)	Destination innovativeness is the willingness of local residents to embrace change.
16.		Destination innovativeness is the willingness of local residents to embrace changes with the support of the government.
17.		Destination innovativeness is the willingness of local residents to embrace changes to attract tourists.
18.	Destination Experiential Innovativeness (DEI)	Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness with its architecture.
19.		Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness with its local traditions.
20.		Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness with its local cuisine.

Most importantly, the generated scales are applicable to other destinations. The following paragraphs explain the reasons why those dimensions can be applied to other destinations to examine TPDI by comparing and contrasting each dimension of destination innovativeness with existing literature. Notably, this is the first time to develop innovativeness from a tourist's perspective in the setting of destinations, thus, the existing literature could be limited in the tourism setting, therefore, literature from other disciplines is used to discuss findings.

6.2.1 Destination Development Innovativeness

Firstly, the research findings indicate that destination development innovativeness has the highest contribution among the five dimensions (eigenvalue=18.520), and it refers to the ability and willingness of the destination to develop the destination. This may include tourism product development, infrastructure and facilities development of a destination. The data suggests that this dimension plays a key role related to destination sustainable development. However, this dimension is different from most studies that investigate innovativeness as it includes various scales in relation to services, attraction, and infrastructure within a destination. In the existing literature on innovativeness, most studies have product innovativeness as a dimension to understanding innovativeness from consumers 'perceptions (e.g., Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2019b; Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018; Lin, 2015a; Shams, Brown & Alpert, 2020; Truong *et al.*, 2017b). For example, in food research, Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018) indicate that menu innovativeness as product innovativeness, including customized menus, new flavours, combinations of food, new ways for the presentation of food, and other

innovative ways in terms of food shown in the menu. In contrast, the result of this study indicates that product innovativeness is part of destination development. In addition, the finding shows that this dimension of DDI includes eight different items, ranging from service and attraction development of a destination to developed infrastructure. The potential explanation could be the differences between restaurants and destinations. One of the common features of destinations is that destinations are amalgams. Destinations contain various components, such as attractions, amenities (accommodation, food and beverage, entertainment, and other services), access, and ancillary services (Cooper, 2012). In addition, the improvement level of infrastructure and tourism facilities are critical for tourists to choose a destination to visit. It seems that tourists are inclined to pay attention to destinations with well-developed infrastructure and tourism facilities because they can satisfy tourists and form a positive tourist experience (Manhas, Manrai & Manrai, 2016). In addition, destination development highlights the central role of differentiation of a destination, and it could help to promote the destination image. Therefore, infrastructure and tourism facilities become the major parts of the destination from tourists' perspective.

6.2.2 Destination Inclusive Innovativeness

Secondly, the research finding indicates that destination inclusive innovativeness makes the second contribution of five dimensions of TPDI (eigenvalue=2.240), However, researchers pay less attention to inclusive and destination. Previous studies relevant to inclusive focus on the group of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (e.g., Ram *et al.*, 2019), accessibility to technology, and capability and knowledge of digital tools (e.g., Sigala, 2020), and the existing studies are not mainly from tourism literature, especially, they are not discussed in the destination contexts. The study makes consistent with one of the elements of inclusive tourism from Scheyvens and Biddulph (2018), which is to promote respect and respect among people. There are three potential reasons that participated tourists think inclusiveness is critical for their travelling. The first reason might be that China is a country with different provinces. Each province has its unique folk customs, local specialities and traditions (Wen, 1997). In particular, spicy food receives popular in Hunan Province, and it has a great amount consumption in daily food (Yang *et al.*, 2022b). However, some of the provinces are not adapted to such spicy food, such as Guangdong province. Tourists from Guangdong province are more likely to choose Hunan Province to have a visit. Statistically, tourists from Guangdong province account for 10.17% of the geographical distribution, and the majority of tourists are from Hunan province regarding the distribution (Administration, 2021). The second potential explanation can be attributed to the consideration of other people as one of the essences of traditional Chinese culture. Chinese traditional culture has

been developing continuously in China's centuries-long history, and the Chinese are influenced by traditional Chinese cultural values. In particular, Confucius's philosophy highly emphasizes harmony with people, and it has a huge impact on the Chinese (Tsang, 2011). Thus, the Chinese are more likely to avoid conflicts with others and to show respect to others, especially to the elders (Tsang, 2011). Lastly, this might be related to the development of tourism in China, and it becomes one of the most popular destinations. This leads to attracting tourists from different countries globally. However, the dimension of inclusive contains one of the elements of inclusive tourism, which mainly focuses on respect among people, hence, it might be beneficial to explore other elements of destination inclusive innovativeness as there are eight elements of inclusive tourism (Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018).

6.2.3 Destination Co-creation Value Innovativeness

Thirdly, the finding reveals that destination co-creation value innovativeness has the third contribution (eigenvalue=1.874) to the TPDI as one of its dimensions of it. The existing literature on innovativeness in the context of destination has limited discussion compared with studies in other disciplines regarding value co-creation. In existing tourism literature, value co-creation is mainly divided into two streams, tourist participation behaviour and tourist citizenship behaviour (Yen, Tsai & Han, 2022; Yi & Gong, 2013). The dimension of destination co-creation value innovativeness generated in this study can be classified into the stream of tourist participation behaviour, which is consistent with a previous study by Teng and Tsai (2020). This suggests that tourists are considered value co-creators, which is consistent with a study from Kim, Kim and Kim (2022). Differently, the study extends cocreation value into two different aspects of a destination, namely, cultural and economic aspects. The reasons behind those two aspects are different. Culturally, tourists have the awareness that there is an integration of culture and tourism, and they can experience China's historical traditions and ethnic culture (Huang & Wen, 2021; Jin *et al.*, 2022). Thus, tourists can be immersed in the cultural experience through the integration of local cultural elements into tourism activities, therefore, the service providers play role in co-creating unique experiences from tourists' perspectives (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004; Rachão *et al.*, 2021). Economically, existing studies confirm that economic incentives have positive impacts on consumers' value co-creation behaviours (Fu, Wang & Zhao, 2017; Pan, 2020; Xie *et al.*, 2016). In contrast, this dimension of cocreation value in terms of economic aspects indicates that it maximizes economic gain through the process of value co-creation. Previous studies also confirm that tourism stimulates economic growth (e.g., Comerio & Strozzi, 2019; Croes *et al.*, 2021; Ekeocha *et al.*, 2021; Liu, Kim & Song, 2022; Liu & Wu, 2019). For example, destinations were forced to close during the pandemic as the policies restricted domestic and international

travel. Therefore, the revenues of destinations were reduced (Allan *et al.*, 2022). Thus, technology plays a key role in value co-creation in terms of economic aspects from tourists' perspective as tourists are able to co-create with destinations to gain experience, and destinations can maximize economic gains through value co-creation with technological tools (Bonamigo *et al.*, 2022; Yang *et al.*, 2022a). However, co-creation value contains different elements, the current study identifies cultural and economic aspects to co-create value, which is not enough. Therefore, more aspects of co-creation value could be identified in the context of destination innovativeness as destinations are complicated and everchanging to meet demands from tourists.

6.2.4 Destination Promotion Innovativeness

Fourthly, the result indicates that destination promotion innovativeness makes the fourth contribution (eigenvalue=1.313) to form different dimensions of TPDI. Moreover, the result of this research reveals that residents play an important role to promote the destination, which is consistent with the findings from Zhang *et al.* (2022a). However, this finding is different from most of the existing literature. In particular, celebrities or influencers are considered key influences to promote a specific destination to attract tourists for a visit in the existing literature (e.g., Halder, Pradhan & Roy Chaudhuri, 2021; Li, Liu & Xie, 2022). For this study, one of the major elements of destination prometon innovativeness suggests that local residents are viewed as the promoter of the destination, which is consistent with the study of Qiu *et al.* (2023). The potential explanation might be the complexity of the destination as it involves various stakeholders to deliver integrated services or products to tourists (Sainaghi & Baggio, 2017). Moreover, residents play a key role in tourism development as one of the stakeholders (Castro, Kim & Assaker, 2023; Çelik & Rasoolimanesh, 2021). For example, active support from residents could help a destination to develop sustainably and successfully (Castro, Kim & Assaker, 2023; Erul, Woosnam & McIntosh, 2020). Residents could be a factor to draw attention from tourists as customs, culture, hospitality and behaviour could be attraction factors in destinations. Those attraction factors further constitute fundamental components of tourism products at destinations (Qin *et al.*, 2021). In addition, attitudes from residents could provide the potential for the formation of this dimension of TPDI. From the perspective of residents, they do not always welcome tourists because of the negative impression of tourists. Some of the tourists might be rude, loud and self-centred, resulting in losing residents' support for the development of local tourism (Moreira Gregori, Román & Martín, 2022). From tourists' perspective, the acceptance and welcome led by residents received from tourists can be one of the factors that impact their moods during their stays in a specific destination. The residents are the hosts of a certain destination, and the

acceptance and welcome perceived by tourists may be a benefit for tourists to promote the destination where they visit. In contrast with the work of Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018), the result of marketing innovativeness does not include market programmes or membership programmes. Though this dimension applies to other destinations both domestically and globally, however, this study is limited as it focuses on the attitudes and willingness of Chinese residents towards tourists.

6.2.5 Destination Experiential Innovativeness

Fifthly, the result indicates that the destination experiential innovativeness makes a fifth contribution to the formation of the dimension of TPDI (eigenvalue=1.074). This dimension is consistent with Kim, Tang and Bosselman (2018). Compared with their study, this dimension mainly focuses on the unique, and memorable experience of tourists in destination contexts rather than in the context of restaurants. In this study, novelty and uniqueness are identified as central elements of this dimension, which is in agreement with the previous study of Crawford *et al.* (2006) in marketing literature. In addition, it is evident that experiential innovativeness is relatively new in the literature on tourism and hospitality. The appearance of the experiential aspect could be attributed to the importance of experiences. Experiences are the core of the tourism industry, and they are integrated with different sectors, including accommodation, transportation, and food and beverage (Prebensen, Kim & Uysal, 2016; Shin *et al.*, 2022). Accordingly, diverse services and products provided by those sectors form consumers' overall experience (Shin *et al.*, 2022). Moreover, experience is a critical indicator for future choice behaviour, such as the intention to revisit and recommend, and a generator of memories. Tourist experience can lead tourists to be satisfied. Tourists with a high level of satisfaction are more like to revisit and recommend the destination to others (Obradović *et al.*, 2023; Prayag, Hosany & Odeh, 2013). In terms of the generation of memories, tourism activities could stimulate and develop tourist experiences, leading to emotional responses through a series of physical processes (Tang, Zhang & Yang, 2021). Thus, tourist experience will be generated and retained by those unique experiences from tourism activities. Data from this study collected from China within the context of destination may provide an explanation for the different results. Essentially, tourists are attracted by different attractions within a destination that can form an overall experience (Vinyals-Mirabent, 2019). Each destination has various characteristics such as nature, architecture, heritage or culture, among others, making Chinese cities and rural areas unique and greatly appealing as tourist destinations (Peng, 2021; Vinyals-Mirabent, 2019; Yang & Xu, 2022). Therefore, uniqueness is an important element of destination marketing innovativeness because of the features of tourism.

To sum up, this section provides a holistic and depth explanation for similarities and unexpected results on each dimension of TPDI, which reflects the phenomenon of innovativeness among tourists and perceived by them. Destination development innovativeness is different from the existing literature. The major difference is that the product is one of the elements of this dimension. There are several reasons to explain the contradiction to findings from other research, such as the characteristics of the tourism industry, and differences between destinations and restaurants. Moreover, the result indicates that there are some unpredicted dimensions. The first unpredicted dimension is destination inclusive innovativeness. The philosophy of Confucius, Chinese culture, tourism development, and various geographical distributions in China could explain that unique dimension. Additionally, the result indicates that destination co-creation innovativeness is the second unpredicted dimension of TPDI. The potential reasons for that dimension could be the awareness of tourists and destination management organizations on the integration of culture and tourism, and the increased revenues from the tourist value cocreation process. Furthermore, destination promotion innovativeness is in contrast with the existing literature as it focuses on local residents as one of the elements. Active support from residents helps the sustainable development of a destination, and attitudes from residents could have impacts on tourists' feelings and emotions. In addition, destination experiential innovativeness is compatible with research that investigates consumer perceived innovativeness in the setting of restaurants. This may be explained by the focus on experience from a tourist perspective. Moreover, the combination of all five dimensions of TPDI could suggest that a destination could be considered as a local innovation system to improve the ability of a destination to provide its unique and new tourism services or products, which is good for a destination to leverage its resources and maintain its competitive advantages (Rodríguez-Díaz & Espino-Rodríguez, 2008). It is a meaningful complement to the development of the scale of innovativeness in the context of destination and a useful tool for subsequent exploration as the current study is the first time to holistically provide such dimensions.

6.3 Discussion on relationships between TPDI, TE and TS

Previous studies focus on the influences of consumers' perception of innovativeness on service evaluation, service offering adaptive behaviour, and employee engagement (e.g., Anić *et al.*, 2023; Jiang *et al.*, 2022; Kim, Im & Shin, 2022; Li *et al.*, 2021a; Taylor *et al.*, 2023). While tourism is a tourist-focused industry. Thus, this study aims to investigate tourists' perception of innovativeness in a destination on their experience and satisfaction. Therefore, this study proposes and tests a model that investigates a structural

relationship between TPDI, TE, and TS with empirical data in Hunan Province (China), and it further confirms positive relationships between TPDI and tourist experience and satisfaction, which was one of the major contributions of this research.

6.3.1 Hypothesis 1 Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness Has a Positive Impact on Tourist Experience

The result of this study indicates that tourists 'perceptions of a destination's innovativeness directly influence the tourist experience. The finding of this study is in agreement with Nguyen and Nguyen (2022), whose study concentrated on perceived innovativeness with consumer experience. The findings discovered that tourist perceived destination innovativeness influences how tourists perceive the destination, and tourist perceived destination could consider a key factor to shape the overall tourist experience.

The current results are in contrast with the study conducted by Kurtmollaiev, Lervik-Olsen and Andreassen (2022), who noted that changes in experience relationships could have a negative impact on consumers' perceptions of firm innovativeness in Norway. There are different possibilities for the different impacts on consumer experience. Firstly, it could attribute to different nationalities and cultural backgrounds. Their study investigated a Norwegian firm, and the current study explored a Chinese province. These two countries represent different cultures, which are Western and Oriental cultures. For instance, Hofstede's cultural framework indicates the cultural differences between Eastern and Western consumer behaviour (Zhang, van Doorn & Leeflang, 2014). Secondly, the different impacts of perceived innovativeness on the tourist experience might be caused by different understandings of perceived destinations from tourists' perceptions. Thus, tourists may have different ways to obtain and process information when they perceive destination innovativeness, therefore, tourists may have a different level of experience evaluations (Govers, Go & Kumar, 2007a). Thirdly, there are differences between firms and destinations. Destinations require a range of amenities, support facilities and services to meet the various needs of tourists (Cooper, 2012).

6.3.2 Hypothesis 2 Tourist experience has a positive impact on tourist satisfaction.

The result of the research indicates that tourist satisfaction can be influenced by the tourist experience. In other words, tourists could be satisfied or dissatisfied if they have a positive or negative experience at a specific

destination. The result is confirmed by other scholars who examined relationships between tourist experience and tourist satisfaction (e.g., Agyeiwaah *et al.*, 2019; An, Choi & Lee, 2021; Cevdet Altunel & Erkurt, 2015; Coves-Martínez, Sabiote-Ortiz & Frías-Jamilena, 2022; Kundra *et al.*, 2022; Mora *et al.*, 2021), and their studies confirm that the tourist experience has a positive impact on tourist satisfaction. For example, the finding is similar to the study from Suhartanto *et al.* (2021), who explored the holistic tourist experience could influence tourist satisfaction positively in halal tourism. Additionally, the study presents that tourist experience and tourist satisfaction are positively related to tourist perceived destination innovativeness which has not been empirically investigated in the literature on tourism. In other words, when tourists are satisfied with their overall travelling experience in a destination when tourists perceive destination innovativeness, they are more likely to revisit and recommend the destination to their friends and relatives The finding partly substantiates past studies in general tourism (An et al., 2022; Prayag, Hosany & Odeh, 2013).

In contrast, the existing literature indicates that first-time tourists and repeat tourists have different levels of satisfaction (Gidey & Sharma, 2017; Yoo & Katsumata, 2022), which the finding is not explored in this current study. The potential explanation could be different patterns of tourist experience evaluation from expert tourists. The level of tourist expertise tends to influence how they evaluate their experience (Li *et al.*, 2023b). Tourists with a high level of expertise tend to be more critical and questionable regarding their experience evaluation of a specific destination (Zhang, Zhang & Yang, 2016). In addition, experienced tourists with a higher level of tourism knowledge tend to be emotionally numb when evaluating their experience, resulting in a likely lower rating of the tourist experience (Li *et al.*, 2023b). Through the discussion with previous studies, the current study could have investigated differences between first-time visitors and repeat visitors of their tourist experience and tourist satisfaction in terms of TPDI, because most of the participants in this study were first-time visitors.

6.3.3 Hypothesis 3 Tourist perceived destination innovativeness has a positive impact on tourist satisfaction.

The result of this study indicates the positive impact of TPDI on tourist satisfaction, which was in agreement with the study of Lyu *et al.* (2023b). It is worth noting that the study from Lyu *et al.* (2023b) partly tests the impact of destination innovativeness on tourist revisit intention. The current study explores more in-depth, and it measures satisfaction from different indicators, such as attribute satisfaction or overall satisfaction (Acharya, Mekker & De Vos, 2023), and recommendation intention (Al-Ansi, Olya & Han, 2019; Altinay

et al., 2023). Likewise, prior studies examined relationships between innovativeness and satisfaction, and they confirmed the positive relationships between them. For example, Satjawathee *et al.* (2023) confirmed the positive relationship between fitness use innovativeness and satisfaction. Similarly, Naz *et al.* (2023) confirmed the positive impact of innovativeness on satisfaction at a brand level. Thus, the results confirmed the positive impact of TPDI on tourist satisfaction with the consistency of previous studies. Moreover, the study revealed that TPDI could be considered an important predictor of tourist satisfaction. Particularly, it is significantly related to tourists' recommendations and revisits intention.

In contrast, limited literature confirms the negative impact of perceived innovativeness on consumer satisfaction though some studies explored innovativeness. The current study is in disagreement with the study from Kibbeling, van der Bij and van Weele (2013), who explored the negative impact of supplier's innovativeness on end-user satisfaction in the Netherlands in a supply chain. There are two potential explanations for the different impacts of innovativeness. The first reason could be the different contexts and countries. The supply chain is different from the tourism industry because of the essence of the supply chain based on its definition and objectives. A supply chain is an integrated system that synchronizes a series of interrelated business processes to obtain raw materials and components, process these raw materials and parts into finished products, the added value of these products, distribute and promote these products to retailers or customers, facilitate the exchange of information between different business entities such as suppliers, manufacturers, distributors, and the third party logistics providers and retailers (Min & Zhou, 2002). While the tourism industry involves multidimensional, multiple stakeholders and many different economic activities (Cooper, 2012). In addition, the Netherlands and China represent Western culture and Eastern culture respectively. The second reason could be the investigation of innovativeness from a different perspective. Their study investigated suppliers' innovativeness, and the current study explored perceived innovativeness from consumers' perspectives. Suppliers offer different values, qualities and volumes of materials with different characteristics(Rezaei & Fallah Lajimi, 2019). While a consumer is someone who identifies a need or desire, makes a purchase, and then disposes of the product during the consumption process (Mehta, Saxena & Purohit, 2020). Thus, the focus on innovativeness could be different as the roles are different.

6.3.4 Hypothesis 4 The moderation effect of gender is different on tourists perceived destination innovativeness.

The result of the current study indicates that moderating role of genders on TPDI, TE and TS, and the results confirmed different impacts of gender. The ratio of female to male tourists is increasing, and women are showing a higher level of engagement in tourism. Moreover, female tourists show different expectations of travel and attitudes to travel (Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2001). This study extended the understanding of gender diversity in destination innovativeness by testing the moderating effect of gender on the impacts of TPDI on tourist experience and satisfaction. The results demonstrated that gender partly moderated the effects of tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Neither female nor male tourists did not demonstrate a different level of tourist experience when they perceived destination innovativeness as a hypothesis related to tourist experience was rejected. Differently, women tourists exhibited a weaker level of satisfaction when they perceived destination innovativeness. The results did not indicate the existence of gender inequality in China as the research demonstrate in the first chapter. The first potential reason could be that women travellers tend to be more critical and suspectable to their experiences, and they are more interested in destinations with cultural and educational experiences (Deng & Liu, 2021). In addition, female tourists may form unrealistic expectations of the destination when they are searching for information about the destination and making decisions, resulting in the formation of a low level of experience (Li *et al.*, 2023c). This also may suggest the development of social awareness and the increase in the educational level of women tourists (Huang *et al.*, 2022). The second potential explanation could be the willingness to try new technology, previous study indicates that males tend to have a stronger willingness to try new technologies (Liu *et al.*, 2022b). The third reason could the male participants were fewer than the female participants who completed the questionnaires. In terms of gender effect on TPDI and tourist satisfaction, the study found that male tourists have different levels of satisfaction when they perceive destination innovativeness when they are visiting and experiencing a specific destination. The result was consistent with a study undertaken by Zheng *et al.* (2022), who demonstrated that women generally had a lower level of satisfaction than men.

In addition, the current study is in disagreement with other previous studies. For example, Vieira, Silva and Teixeira (2022) stated that female tourists tended to be more satisfied compared with men tourists. In addition, some of the studies demonstrated that there was no impact on tourist satisfaction in terms of male tourists. This could attribute to gender differences as the gender

differences could be differentiated across age groups, races, countries and cultures (Vieira, Silva & Teixeira, 2022).

6.3.6 Hypothesis 5 The mediating role of tourist experience on TPDI and tourist satisfaction

The result discovers the mediating role of tourist experience on tourists' perceptions of destination innovativeness and tourist satisfaction within tourism research, which has not been investigated within the context of tourism. The study's result notes that TPDI leads to tourist satisfaction if tourists had positive experiences with destinations. The finding is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Altunel, Erkurt & Management, 2015; Li, Liu & Soutar, 2021; Wong & Wan, 2013a) that investigate the positive relationships between tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Taking into consideration of satisfaction, the observation has shown a positive and significant relationship with experience, which is consistent with previous studies. Li, Liu and Soutar (2021) and (Medina-Viruel *et al.*, 2019) argued that the tourist experience is an exceptional source of tourist satisfaction, and the same outcome confirmed that. Therefore, the result indicated that TPDI indirectly can improve tourist satisfaction as tourists are satisfied with their experience. In addition, some researchers previously pointed out that the level of satisfaction is different and is related to the experience that a tourist receives in a specific destination (Medina-Viruel *et al.*, 2019). Similarly, the study is in agreement with research from Diallo *et al.* (2022), and they confirm the mediation role of the personal tourist experience. In addition, this result supports the mediation analysis in the research field of tourism and hospitality tourism (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2021). Wood *et al.* (2008) noted that the mediation model plays a critical role in the theory development and evolution of knowledge in social sciences. However, mediating effects are often not explicitly assumed in studies. Therefore, this current study confirms the mediator role of tourist experience between TPDI and tourist satisfaction.

This study is the first study to integrate tourist experience and tourist satisfaction in the context of destinations, thus, it is limited to finding literature that has different influences on the mediation role of the tourist experience. Several studies investigated the mediator role of experience on different variables in various contexts, such as perceived brand innovativeness, tourist participation, eudaimonic well-being, sensation seeking, cyberbullying, and motivated consumer innovativeness (e.g., Diallo *et al.*, 2022; Kautish *et al.*, 2023; Nysveen, Oklevik & Pedersen, 2018; Zhang *et al.*, 2022b). For example, Nysveen, Oklevik and Pedersen (2018) confirmed that brand experience mediated the influence of perceived brand innovativeness and perceived green image on brand satisfaction. To sum up, the results from the three

stages of data collection confirm the understanding of TPDI and its relationships with tourist experience and satisfaction.

6.4 Conclusion

This discussion chapter interpreted the results from quantitative and qualitative data, and it provided potential reasons for unpredicted dimensions and relationships between tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Overall, the scale of TPDI demonstrates a multidimensional concept, reflecting tourists' perspective of destination development, value co-creation, inclusive, marketing and experiential innovativeness. In the discussion on dimensions of TPDI, it was clear that it was the first time to develop and provide holistic dimensions of innovativeness in the context of destinations. Surprisingly, destination development innovativeness, destination value co-creation innovativeness, and destination inclusive innovativeness are unpredicted dimensions after the interpretation of the results. The potential reasons for those differences could vary, such as diverse nationalities, the increased awareness of Chinese traditional culture, and different cultural backgrounds. It was clear that those dimensions of TPDI and factors are fundamental to attracting first-time and repeated tourists and maintaining the competitiveness of destinations.

In addition, significant relationships are identified between TPDI, tourist experience and satisfaction. All five proposed hypotheses were confirmed. Analysis facilitated the understanding of the intrinsic relationship between TPDI, tourist experience and satisfaction. TPDI was found to have an influence on tourist experience and satisfaction. This discussion explains potential reasons for similarities or contrasts compared to the relationships with the existing literature. Although there are explorations on variables, tourist experience and tourist experience in the existing literature of tourism, some of the research revealed positive or negative relationships between those two variables. It lacks research in the destination context to investigate tourist perceived destination innovativeness, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Thus, this research integrated them together and investigated the relationships between them. Furthermore, the research could have focused on the relationships between tourist experience, tourist satisfaction of first-time visitors and repeat visitors, and TPDI. Therefore, theoretical and managerial implications can be made through the discussion of results, contributing to tourism theory and the marketing and development of a destination. These theoretical and managerial implications, future study, and recommendations will be discussed in the next chapter, Chapter 7.

Chapter 7 Conclusion and Recommendation

7.1 Introduction

This study aims to a comprehensive understanding of tourist perceived destination innovativeness and its impacts on tourist experience and satisfaction. This chapter is the final chapter of this study, and it summarises the key findings presented in the previous chapters. Focusing on destination innovativeness, this study holistically investigated its relationship with tourist experience and satisfaction. The previous chapters produce different findings based on data analysis techniques; therefore, this chapter draws a conclusion related to the research objectives. It also provides recommendations for relevant destinations based on the findings, thus addressing the five research objectives of the study.

The structure of this chapter is arranged as follows. Section 7.1introduces this chapter and shows the arrangement. Section 7.2 presents critical research findings, and the findings are displayed based on different research objectives. Section 7.3 discusses the theoretical and practical implications. Section 7.4 identifies the current study's limitations. The final section 7.5 shows expectations of future studies.

7.2 Key research findings

This section demonstrates the key findings from previous chapters and discusses how the findings address the respective research objectives. It develops a precise aim with six different objectives, and the aim and objectives are shown in Table 7.1. In order to demonstrate the extent to which this study has been successful, the following subsections discuss detailed critical findings concerning the research aims and objectives.

Table 7.1 The research aims and objectives of this study

Research Aim			
To develop a comprehensive understanding of tourist perceived destination innovativeness and its impacts on tourist experience and satisfaction.			
Corresponding research objectives			
No.	Statements	Related chapter(s)SE	Related sections in Chapter 7
RO1	To develop in-depth knowledge of tourist perceived destination innovativeness.	Chapter 2 and Chapter 5	Section 7.2.1

RO2	To construct and validate the scale of tourist destination perceived innovativeness on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction.	Chapter 5	Section 7.2.3
RO3	To assess potential relationships among tourist perceived destination innovativeness, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction.	Chapter 5	Section 7.2.4
RO4	To assess the potential effects of gender on different relationships.	Chapter 5	Section 7.2.5
RO5	6. To make recommendations to the destination to apply innovativeness to improve tourist experience and satisfaction.	Chapter 7	Section 7.3.2

7.2.1 Research Objective 1: to develop in-depth knowledge of tourist perceived destination innovativeness.

This literature review is undertaken in the second chapter; it identified two perspectives to understand innovativeness, which the consumer perspective (e.g., Barrena-Figueroa & Garcia-Lopez-de-Meneses, 2012; Goldsmith & Hofacker, 1991; Lowe & Alpert, 2015) and firm perspective (Danneels & Kleinschmidtb, 2001; Hwang & Hyun, 2016; Kunz, Schmitt & Meyer, 2011). However, limited research defines the consumer perspective of innovativeness in the context of tourism. Therefore, more precisely, the thesis operationalises the definition of tourist perceived innovativeness in the context of destination based on the theoretical background. The result of this study replicates and extends the definition of tourist perceived destination innovativeness (TPDI), which refers to the capability, ability, and willingness of a destination to provide unique, newness, different services, or products to tourists. The definition is consistent with previous studies focusing on ability and willingness (Kim, 2016).

The study considers TPDI as a related but distinct concept from consumer innovativeness. Lacking a valid and reliable measure for TPDI, Chapter 5 explores operationalising TPDI in alignment with the exploratory findings. The exploratory data were collected from tourists with travel experience in Hunan or those with extensive travel experiences. The first stage of data analysis identifies various subthemes of TPDI. Then, the study categorised the subthemes into five dimensions to the definition of TPDI, which are limited investigation in the previous studies (e.g.Kuščer, 2013; Wardhani & Widodo, 2020). In addition, the identified scale helped the study propose a definition of TPDI, which filled the gap in an integrative definition of destination

innovativeness. Previous studies have provided definitions of restaurant innovativeness from the consumers' perspectives (Kim, Tang & Bosselman, 2018), consumer innovativeness (Tussyadiah, 2016a), and mountain destination innovativeness (Kuščer, 2013).

7.2.2 Research Objective 2: to construct and validate the scale of tourist perceived destination innovativeness.

Chapter 5 of this study developed and validated multidimensional scales of TPDI in the destination context to help reach the second objective. In this chapter, the rigorous process followed the guidance of Churchill (1979) to develop scales that included interviews analysed by NVivo to identify and generate items. A further step was conducted, such as a review by the supervisory team, to purify and refine scales. The EFA and CFA examined the reliability and validity. The scales generated in the present study comprehensively cover various dimensions of destination innovativeness, including aspects of service, co-creation and development, and experiential and promotional innovativeness, which are relatively new in the tourism and hospitality literature. According to the result of factor analysis, the chapter presented five dimensions of destination innovativeness.

The purpose of this study is to establish measurements for assessing TPDI. There are two primary reasons to measure TPDI in tourism literature. Firstly, understanding TPDI is crucial as it reflects a destination's overall ability and capacity to develop innovative activities. The TPDI scales allow destinations to evaluate their innovative process across various dimensions, such as destination development, inclusivity, value co-creation, destination marketing, and experiential offerings, enhancing their core values and competitive edge. Secondly, this study enriches tourism literature by incorporating insights from tourists' evaluations of destination innovativeness. Notably, previous studies on innovativeness have primarily focused on providers' perspectives. To the researcher's knowledge, this study represents the first attempt to provide measurements across five dimensions, offering valuable insights for destination research.

Consequently, measuring TPDI is vital for both practitioners and academic researchers seeking a deeper understanding of tourists' preferences. Furthermore, this study significantly contributes by developing a scale for destination innovativeness, combining quantitative and qualitative approaches. This adds another methodological dimension to innovativeness research in tourism.

7.2.3 Research Objective 3: to assess potential relationships among tourist perceived destination innovativeness, tourist experience and satisfaction.

The researcher confirmed five out of six proposed relationships as one of the objectives of this study. The impact of TPDI on tourist experience and satisfaction was examined using PLS-SEM's technique. Specifically, the technique helped the research confirm the suitability of assessing the measurement and measurement model of TPDI. The measurement model analysis tested the reliability and validity of the constructs, and all the criteria were met following guidelines (e.g., Hair *et al.*, 2012; Hair, 2022; Hair *et al.*, 2014c; Hair *et al.*, 2006; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011a; Hair *et al.*, 2019; Hair *et al.*, 2014d). The structural model analysis confirmed the impact of destination innovativeness on tourism experience and tourist satisfaction. The structural model analysis of the study discovered the positive impact of destination innovativeness on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction.

The results on the positive impact of TPDI on TE provide further insights. Firstly, perceived destination innovativeness by tourists offers unique and new experiences that differentiate destinations from competitors. Those abilities of destinations can create excitement, curiosity, and a sense of adventure among tourists, enhancing their overall experience. Secondly, the destination innovativeness often engages tourists on a deeper level, stimulating their senses, emotions, and intellect. Through interactive exhibits, immersive technologies, or participatory activities, tourists are more likely to be actively involved and engaged, leading to more memorable and satisfying experiences. Thirdly, perceived destination innovativeness adds value to the tourist experience by offering new and improved ways to fulfil tourists' needs, preferences, and aspirations. The ability to provide further services or provides may enhance convenience, efficiency, comfort, and enjoyment, thereby maximising the overall perceived value of the travel experience.

Furthermore, this study discovered that TPDI directly impacts the tourist experience and channels some of its positive impacts through the construct of tourist satisfaction. The positive impact of TPDI on TS provides further insights for tourism research in two aspects: intention to revisit and word-of-mouth intentions. If tourists have a positive experience when they perceive the destination innovativeness, they are more likely to revisit and recommend the destination to others. This study first attempts to investigate relationships between destination innovativeness and TS, and provides empirical evidence to understand the role of perceived destination innovativeness in the

formation of TS. Overall, understanding the impacts of TPDI on TE and TS is critical to expanding existing knowledge in tourism literature.

7.2.4 Research Objective 4: to assess the gender effects on different relationships.

The potential effects of the gender factor on different relationships were confirmed by moderation analysis in Chapter5. This research discovered that male tourists have a significant moderation effect on the relationship between TPDI and tourist satisfaction (p-value=0.000). Moreover, female tourists have an insignificant moderation effect on the relationship between TPDI and tourist satisfaction (p-value=0.141). These results are critical for tourism research for the following reasons. Firstly, it could be better to understand tourists' behaviours as gender can significantly influence traveller's choices, including destination selection, tourism-related activities, and spending patterns. Secondly, it helps to identify and address gender-specific needs. By acknowledging and accommodating those needs, it is necessary for destinations to enhance the overall tourist experience based on the identified five dimensions of destination innovativeness. Thirdly, these results on gender contribute to a broader understanding of social issues, and pave the way for more inclusive and equitable practices.

7.2.5 Research Objective 5: to make recommendations to the destination to use innovativeness to improve tourist experience and satisfaction.

After reviewing the current study's findings, theoretical contributions to existing knowledge and practical implications for the destination in Hunan are evident. Discussion of the contributions is documented in this concluding chapter. Theoretical implications will be discussed in section 7.3.1, and the practical implications will be explained in section 7.3.2.

7.3 Implications of the research findings

As summarised in Section 7.2 above, this study met all the pre-determined research objectives. This section will be divided into two subsections. The first subsection (section 7.3.1) discusses those theoretical implications based on undertaken literature review and three stages of data analysis. The second subsection (section 7.3.2) provides valuable practical implications based on

the proposed definition of TPDI and identified relationships to improve the tourist's experience and satisfaction.

7.3.1 Theoretical Implications

According to Uriely (2005) and Alegre and Garau (2010), researchers and practitioners have recognised the importance of tourist experience and tourist satisfaction within the tourism industry. After reviewing the existing literature, the research revealed several research gaps, which address the need to investigate destination innovativeness. Moreover, destination innovativeness is crucial, and it becomes a concern for the researchers (e.g.Dobni, 2008; Kuščer, 2013; Wang & Ahmed, 2004). The key findings produced several theoretical implications. The theoretical implications are discussed in the following.

Firstly, a significant contribution of this research provides the first conceptualisation of TPDI. It refers to a destination's ability, willingness, and capability to provide unique, new, and different products or services to the tourist. This, concept, with evident support from tourists, this concept extends with understanding from tourists into five dimensions. In addition, the thesis establishes new constructs to measure TPDI via qualitative and quantitative research methods, and all the data came from actual tourists. Therefore, it provides valuable insights into destination innovativeness. Hence, the current study fills the gap in measuring destination innovativeness using different scales.

Secondly, the other contribution of the study is the validity and reliability of scales, making this study the first to apply the TPDI comprehensively. This conceptual assessment was intended to uncover numerous aspects of understanding TPDI. Specifically, based on a rigorous scale development procedure, the developed scale outlines five dimensions applicable to the TPDI. The interviews were conducted in the first stage of data collection, and different themes of innovativeness were identified and categorised at this stage of data analysis using the thematic analysis method. Questionnaires were used to collect data in the second and third stages. Different data analysis techniques were used to purify the scales and examine the relationships. In the second stage, the EFA and CFA were used to generate and purify 31 items of different scales. Then, the items were categorised into five dimensions based on the identified themes. In the third stage, another round of questionnaire surveys was used to examine the validity and credibility of the 31 items. Therefore, the study makes contributions to measurements of TPDI.

Thirdly, the research builds destination innovativeness, tourist experience, and tourist satisfaction models. Existing literature supports the relationship between tourist experience and tourist satisfaction (Huang, Afsharifar & Veen, 2016; Ramjit & Nasiba, 2018; Shaykh-Baygloo, 2021; Tan, 2017a), where tourist experience is influenced and influenced by tourist satisfaction (Jung *et al.*, 2015; Muskat *et al.*, 2019). The study adds destination innovativeness to the relationship between tourist experience and satisfaction. Findings can guide management practices related to the tourist experience and satisfaction. In addition, this research contributes to the industry because it can assist destinations in providing specific benefits and attractive environments to enhance tourists' experiences. Hence, this scale can enrich professional knowledge of tourism tourist experience and serve as a reference for organisational tourism strategies and marketing.

Fourthly, this study has also contributed to research on destination innovativeness in China's context, particularly in Hunan. It has increased understanding and filled a gap in the literature on destination innovativeness. As noted, existing studies focused chiefly on several countries or regions, such as Austria and Indonesia. In addition, most of the published research does not have empirical data to support it. Therefore, by investigating the destination innovativeness in Hunan, this study helps fill a research gap in the literature.

Fifthly, based on the researcher's knowledge, this study contributes by being the first study to investigate the moderation effect of gender on tourist perceived destination innovativeness, providing a key contribution to innovativeness, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction research. Hwang, Lee and Kim (2019) examined the moderating role of gender on perceived innovativeness in the context of drone delivery services in Korea. In contrast, this study contributes to investigating the moderating role of gender among tourists and destination innovativeness when visiting Hunan province, thereby making a significant contribution to tourism research. Finally, the study makes a methodological contribution by using the mixed research method to add value to the operationalisation of TPDI and the impacts on TPDI, tourist experience and tourist satisfaction.

7.3.2 Practical Implications

In addition to the theoretical implications of this study, its research findings also provide several implications for destinations. Therefore, this section addresses Research Objective 5 of the study, which offers recommendations to destinations to use innovativeness to improve tourist experience and satisfaction. The practical implications focus on the different dimensions of destination innovativeness, and recommendations are provided based on the

key findings. Given that the data were collected in Hunan, the practical implications are based on the data contained in Hunan. The researcher chose Hunan to collect data because Hunan attracts tourists yearly, and the tourism industry brings revenues to the province (Tourism, 2022). Furthermore, the practical implications can be applied to destinations with the same features as Hunan.

The first practical implication is destination development innovativeness. The research finds the definition of destination development innovativeness, refers to the destination's ability and willingness to improve its infrastructures and facilities. In addition, the study finds the positive impacts of destination development innovativeness and tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. There are several things to improve based on tourists' experiences. Based on the interviews with the participants, the destination image plays an important role in forming a memorable tourist experience (Kutlu & Ayyildiz, 2021). Therefore, the tourism infrastructure and other general infrastructure should be constantly improved. In addition, the respondents from this study confirmed that the destination has problems regarding traffic, parking, and amenities. While all of these are critical elements for destination development (Albrecht, 2021), the goal should work together with the local authorities and DMOs to maximise the benefits.

The research finds that destination co-reaction value innovativeness (DCI) depicts the ability, capability, and willingness to co-create value through interactive, collaborative, or personalised activities with or for the tourists. In addition, the research finds that the DCI has a positive relationship with tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. Destination co-creation innovativeness is the second practical implication. While technology helps facilitate the co-creation value process, it is helpful to have online platforms to co-create tourist experiences (Zhang *et al.*, 2018). The destination should use information communication technologies and digital platforms. For example, the destination could have emotion-invoking messages from the media (Zhang *et al.*, 2015). In addition, the food-related activities could be helpful to co-creation values among destinations. Hunanese food is popular in China, and tourists visit Hunan to taste particular food and drinks (Gibas, 2017). Notably, direct contact between tourists and hosts can transfer new knowledge and skills. Therefore, tourists can increase the value of co-creation by preparing local dishes or picking specific plants to create liquors (Rachão *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, the destination could create an immersive environment to provide a meaningful and creative dining experience, which can be delivered through interior architecture, employees, and atmosphere.

The study finds that destination experiential innovativeness is the ability of a destination to offer a unique experience. Therefore, the third practical

implication focuses on the destination's experiential innovativeness to improve the competitiveness of a destination through the unique experience. Hunan Province has 10.1% ethnic minority groups (Province, 2022), which means tourists can experience different cultures from minority groups. Previous studies acknowledged the importance of ethnic minorities in tourism (Abrahams, 2015; Lee & Lee, 2019; Wang *et al.*, 2010). To enhance the destination's unique tourist experience, the current study recommends promoting the products and experiences needed to match tourists' needs and motivations (Li *et al.*, 2021c). Furthermore, the destination needs to improve the authenticity of the experience for tourists as tourists criticise the destination for being over-commercialised (Li *et al.*, 2021c). The study suggests that destinations like Hunan Province and Guizhou Province should limit the number of bars and singing rooms in major cultural attractions. The organisers are part of the tourist experience, and they can facilitate human resource management to enhance experience and satisfaction (Chang & Hung, 2021). The staff could help to guide tourists, provide information patiently, and assist visitors as needed (Chang & Hung, 2021). The employees are reliable, kind and knowledgeable, and the tourists could be satisfied with the destination experience (Hung, Peng & Chen, 2019)

The study finds that destination inclusive innovativeness should be included to define TPDI. This study defines destination inclusive innovativeness as a destination's ability to provide service that meets all demands of different tourists and positively impacts tourist experience and satisfaction. Therefore, destination inclusive innovativeness is the fourth practical implication in the current study. As such, destinations can have various languages, such as English, Spanish, and Korean, to name a few, to explain the attractions. Also, destinations can provide wheelchairs for wheelchair users and offer braille for people with visual impairments to get information about the attractions at some less developed destinations.

The last practical implication is linked with destination marketing innovativeness. The study finds that marketing innovativeness explicates customers' perceptions of a destination's innovative marketing strategies, positively impacting experience and satisfaction. The current research suggests that the destination can use social platforms or social media to promote tourism attractions or products (Juliana *et al.*, 2022), including WeChat official accounts, Douyin, Xiaohongshu, and QQ. Furthermore, the destination could collaborate with the travel social media influencers because the followers trust the influencer-generated content (Gretzel, 2017). Besides the collaboration with influencers from social media sites, the destination could advertise itself on social media to increase its presence. Advertising in social media is considered the most cost-effective way to reach more tourists (Chen *et al.*, 2021). From tourists' perspective, the study encourages tourists

to use social media platforms to search the videos posted by other tourists or official channels from destination marketing organisations (Wengel *et al.*, 2022).

7.4 Limitations

Although the research makes several contributions to the literature, it has some limitations. Firstly, translation issues play a crucial role in the validity of the data and the presentation of findings. In this study, the researcher initially designed both interview questions and questionnaires in English and then translated them into Chinese. Triangulation of the meanings of the words for the use of different languages is not considered. Subsequently, participants' responses are provided in Chinese and translated back into English. However, using other languages may introduce confusion during discussions and translations of concepts or terms, potentially leading to varying interpretations (Esfehani & Walters, 2018).Moreover, expressions and phrases rooted in cultural values may lose their original meanings when the researcher interprets the understanding of relevant concepts, as direct translations may fail to convey nuanced meanings adequately.

Secondly, the sampling method may affect the generalizability of the results. Despite the researcher's efforts to include respondents from different age groups, a significant proportion of the participants are young females who were more inclined to participate in the surveys. Given that most respondents in both the baseline and validation samples were young females, the patterns of experiences may vary across generations and may not fully represent the understanding of TPDI, and the research findings may not accurately reflect the experiences, perspectives, and needs of all genders.

Thirdly, due to time and resource constraints, only tourists in Hunan were interviewed and sampled in this study. Although the researcher attempted to visit different attractions within Hunan Province to conduct interviews and distribute questionnaires in order to include tourists from various provinces, the majority of respondents were from other cities within Hunan. As a result, the generalizability of the findings is limited.

Lastly, this limitation pertains to the impact of COVID-19. The research was conducted during the pandemic, and the researcher endeavoured to conduct interviews under challenging circumstances. Adhering to UK government policies, some interviews were conducted online, while others were carried out face-to-face. Additionally, efforts were made to include foreign respondents to ensure diversity among participants. However, due to

international travel restrictions and China's stringent COVID-19 containment measures (Mallapaty, 2022), the researcher encountered difficulties in recruiting international participants. Those who did participate were primarily international students or foreigners employed in Hunan.

Concerning domestic travel within China, several provinces, including Jilin, Hebei, and Heilongjiang, reported confirmed COVID-19 cases during the data collection period. Consequently, residents of these high-risk provinces were subject to travel restrictions, which affected the ability to recruit participants. As a result, the number of respondents from these provinces with confirmed cases was limited compared to those from southern provinces.

7.5 Future studies

Developments of TPDI create opportunities for future research in different ways. The expectations are identified based on the limitations from the previous section (section 7.4) in this chapter.

Firstly, future studies could work with professional translators to avoid misrepresentation. Additionally, the forward- and back-translation methods could be used to avoid language barriers and problems in future studies. Moreover, future studies might investigate further knowledge about destination innovativeness, such as the factors influencing the destination to enhance their ability and willingness to provide innovative services. Advisedly, future research could include the TPDI as an antecedent for customers' attitudes, it could be trust and behaviours, participation and loyalty. The availability of the scale may stimulate much-needed empirical research focusing on innovativeness, its antecedents, and consequences.

Secondly, future studies could also apply the theoretical model developed in this study to different places. It is not easy to replicate studies and produce the same results in other sites or at different times within social sciences (Veal, 2006). This study has helped establish a model that incorporates the impact of destination innovativeness on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction. However, this study only focuses on Hunan province. Hence, future studies could apply this theoretical model to investigate innovativeness in other provinces or countries with different tourism features because of demographic and cultural differences. Furthermore, the study explored the moderating effect of gender, suggesting that future research should also consider examining the moderating effect of age, particularly in studies involving a larger number of male participants.

The final expectation is that future studies will gain essential insights from

other stakeholders, such as policymakers and industry professionals, to be competitive destinations. At present, there is limited knowledge about the supply side of the destinations, so the opinions of other stakeholders would enable researchers to become more knowledgeable about the ability and willingness of a destination to be more innovative. While conducting these studies, researchers should design a rigorous approach to collect primary data from the stakeholders and topics, such as consumer in-tour experience could be examined in greater detail.

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Appendices

Appendix A Ethical Approval for Mixed Research Method

UNIVERSITY OF PLYMOUTH
Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Business

Date: 21 August 2020

Dear Xiaoshan

Ethical Approval Application No: FREIC1920.41
Title: Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness and its impacts --- The Case Study of Hunan Province (China)

Thank you for your application to the Faculty Research Ethics & Integrity Committee (FREIC) seeking ethical approval for your proposed research.

The committee has considered your revised application and is fully satisfied that the project complies with Plymouth University's ethical standards for research involving human participants.

Approval is for the duration of the project. However, please resubmit your application to the committee if the information provided in the form alters or is likely to alter significantly.

The FREIC members wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely
(Sent as email attachment)

Mr Derek Shepherd

Chair
Faculty Research Ethics & Integrity Committee
Faculty of Arts, Humanities & Business(SoLCG & PBS)

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Appendix B Semi-Structured Interview Schedule

Introduction

1. An introduction of the researcher, and research aim and objectives.
2. A briefing on the participant information sheet and informed consent form.
3. An explanation for any queries related to the research, the key terms, and two types of forms.
4. A confirmation from the interviewee whether is happy to be recorded; if not, a notetaking is required for the researcher.
5. An invitation for the information to complete and sign for the participant information sheet and informed consent form.
6. To start the interview

The Interview

1. To record the whole interview if applicable.
2. To have conversations with the interviews with the core questions.
3. An Invitation for further questions.

The End of the Interview

1. To highlight the anonymous, confidentiality and interviewee's personal information storage.
2. To thank interviewee's participation in the research.

Appendix C Core Questions for the First Stage of Data Collection

English Version

Section 1 Profile of interviewees

1. What is your age?

2. What is your level of education?

3. Do you travel often? Have you been to Hunan before?

4. How many times have you been to Hunan, if applicable?

Section 2 Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness

1. What is your understanding of innovativeness?

2. What is your understanding of destination innovativeness?

3. What are the dimensions of innovativeness in the context of destinations?

Appendix D Core Questions for the First Stage of Data Collection (Chinese Version)

第一部分 被采访者基本信息

1. 您的年龄是？

2. 您的教育程度是？

3. 请问您经常旅游吗？您之前来过湖南吗？

4. 如果您来过，请问来过几次呢？

第二部分 旅游地创造力

5. 请问您是如何理解创造力这一词语的呢？

6. 请问您是怎么理解旅游地创造力呢？

7. 请问就旅游地来说的话，创造力可以分为哪几个方面呢？

Appendix E Questionnaires for the Second Stage of Data Collection (English Version)

Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness and its impacts on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction.

The purpose of this research is to investigate destination innovativeness on tourist experience and satisfaction. Therefore, you are invited to take part in this questionnaire survey. My name is Xiaoshan Yang, and I am current a PhD student of tourism and hospitality industry of University of Plymouth. I will handle the personal information you provide in an anonymous and confidential manner. In addition, the investigators of this study will not disclose any questionnaire information provided by you to third parties. After the survey, I will analyze the data through the data analysis software. Finally, the results of this research may be published in academic journals or used in academic conferences.

Section 1 About You （Please choose one of the options）		
1. What is your gender?	Male	Female
2. What is your age?	a. 18-24 b. 24-34 c. 35-44 d. 45-54 e. 55 and above	
3. What is your highest education level?	a. Senior middle school and below b. Junior college c. Undergraduate d. Postgraduate and above	
4. Where are you from? (Please write your name of country)		

Section 2 Your perceptions on destination innovativeness
Please indicate to what extent the following statements reflect your understanding of destination innovativeness.
(1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat disagree 4=Neither agree nor disagree 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Destination innovativeness refers to the fact that the destination is inclusive.							
6. Destination innovativeness refers to a							

destination that is able to meet demands of tourists from different provinces of China.							
7. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is able to meet demands of tourists from different parts of the world.							
8. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to meet demands of tourists from different age groups.							
9. Destination innovativeness refers to the ability that destinations have which allows tourists have unique experiences.							
10. Destination innovativeness refers to the ability of the destination to deliver experiences that are not available in other destinations.							
11. Destination innovativeness is the ability of destinations to combine Chinese traditions with modern technology.							
12. Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness with its local traditions.							
13. Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness with its architecture.							
14. Destination innovativeness shows how the destination delivers local uniqueness by its local cuisine.							
15. Destination innovativeness is an opportunity for tourists to learn about the uniqueness of a destination.							
16. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its land resources.							
17. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its landmarks.							
18. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its attractions.							
19. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its land resources.							
20. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its landmarks.							
21. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its attractions.							
22. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a							

destination to effectively plan its tourist attractions.							
23. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to optimize the use of its attractions.							
24. Destination innovativeness is the willingness of local residents to make changes to attract tourists.							
25. Destination innovativeness is a destination that has a lot of people travelling to that place							
26. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to provide convenience to tourists in various ways.							
27. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to develop its attractions.							
28. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to enhance its service.							
29. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to shape the destination image.							
30. Destination Innovativeness refers to the ability of a destination to create an attractive destination image.							
31. Destination innovativeness refers to the creative changes on the basis of its well-developed infrastructure.							
32. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination which has something that is not found elsewhere, making it unique.							
33. Destination innovation is the willingness of local people to make changes.							
34. Destination innovation is the willingness of local people to change with the support of the government.							
35. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to improve the factors that can attract tourists.							
36. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to improve via technology and cultural tourism							
37. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to develop sustainably.							
38. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to have repeat tourists.							
39. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to make itself popular with multiple marketing platforms.							
40. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to ensure that tourists enjoy their							

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travel.							
41. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to cater for tourists' basic necessities with the local specialties.							
42. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that has well-equipped and well-developed facilities.							
43. Destination innovativeness means a destination that pays attention to its appearance and orderly building.							
44. Destination innovativeness is the popularity of technology used by the destination.							
45. Destination innovativeness is the capability of a destination to deliver expected products to the tourists.							
46. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to promote a creative city.							
47. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to foster a sense of tradition/legacy in terms of Chinese traditional culture.							
48. Destination innovativeness is the ability of destination to promote its uniqueness.							
49. Destination innovativeness is the ability of destination to attract tourists by promoting its uniqueness.							
50. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to use effective narratives.							
51. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to use effective narratives to attract tourists.							
52. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to use historic and natural narratives to engage with tourists.							

Appendix F Questionnaire for the Second Stage of Data Collection (Chinese Version)

<div align="center">

对游客感知旅游地创造力的理解

</div>

本研究旨在探讨游客感知旅游目的地创造力对游客体验与满意度的影响，特此邀请您完成此问卷调查。我叫杨小姗，目前我是一名就读于普利茅斯大学旅游与酒店管理专业的博士研究生。我们会以匿名保密的方式处理您提供个人信息。此外，本次研究的调研者不会将您所提供的任何问卷信息泄露给第三方机构。在本次调研结束后，我将通过数据分析软件对数据进行分析。最终，本次调研的成果可能会在学术期刊中出版，或用于学术会议交流。

第一部分 您的基本信息		
（根据您的实际情况，对下列选项选择其中之一）		
1. 您的性别？	男	女
2. 您的年龄是？	a. 18-24 b. 24-34 c. 35-44 d. 45-54 e. 55 及以上	
3. 您的最高学历是	高中及以下 大专 本科 硕士研究生及以上	
4. 您来自哪里？ （请填写您所来自的省份）		

第二部分 您对旅游地创造力的理解							
请选择和您根据对以下陈述句在多大程度上能反映了您对旅游地创造力的理解相对应的数字。 （1=完全不赞同 2=不赞同 3=比较不赞同 4=既不赞同也不否定 5=比较赞同 6=赞同 7=完全赞同）							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 旅游地创造力指一个有包容性的旅游地							
6. 旅游地创造力指一个旅游地能满足来自不同省市的游客需求的能力							
7. 旅游地创造力指一个旅游地能满足来自世界各地游客需求的能力							
8. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地能满足不同年龄层							

次游客需求的能力。							
9. 旅游地创造力就是旅游地可以给游客带来独特的旅游体验的能力。							
10. 旅游地创造力指的为旅游地为游客带来不被其他旅游地允许的体验的能力							
11. 旅游地创造力指一个旅游地能结合中国传统和现代科技的能力。							
12. 旅游地创造力展现了旅游地如何通过当地风俗向游客传递当地特色的能力							
13. 旅游地创造力展现了旅游地如何通过当地建筑向游客传递当地特色。							
14. 旅游地创造力展现了旅游地如何通过当地美食向游客传递当地特色。							
15. 旅游地创造力是一次游客了解旅游地特色的机会。							
16. 旅游地创造力指的是一个旅游地通过其土地资源共同创造文化价值的能力。							
17. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其地标共同创造文化价值的能力。							
18. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其景点共同创造文化价值的能力。							
19. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其土地资源共同创造经济价值的能力。							
20. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其地标共同创造经济价值的能力。							
21. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其景点共同创造经济价值的能力。							
22. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地规划其旅游景点的能力							
23. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地充分利用其旅游景点的能力。							
24. 旅游地创造力是旅游地当地居民为吸引游客而做出的改变的意愿。							
25. 旅游地创造力就是一个旅游地能有很多人去这个旅游地旅游							
26. 旅游地创造力就是一个旅游地能从不同方面为游客带来便利的能力。							
27. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地对其旅游景点开发的能力。							
28. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地改善其服务的能力。							
29. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地打造旅游地形象的能力。							

30. 旅游地创造力指的是一个旅游地通过其旅游地形象使该旅游地变得更加有吸引力的能力。							
31. 旅游地创造力指在旅游地完善的基础设施上进行有创意的改变。							
32. 旅游地创造力指的是一个旅游地有着其他地方没有的，从而使这个旅游地变得更加独特。							
33. 旅游地创造力是当地居民做出改变的意愿。							
34. 旅游地创造力是当地居民在政府的支持下做出改变的意愿。							
35. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地能对吸引游客的因素进行改善的能力。							
36. 旅游地创造力指的是一个旅游地改善其技术利用率和文化旅游的能力							
37. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地能可持续发展的能力。							
38. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地能有回头客的能力。							
39. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过不同的宣传手段使自己火起来的能力。							
40. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地让游客享受他们旅行的能力。							
41. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地能用当地特色迎合游客衣食住行的能力							
42. 旅游地创造力就是一个旅游地能从不同方面为游客带来便利的能力。							
43. 旅游地创造力指的是一个旅游地有着完善的配套设施。							
44. 旅游地创造力指一个能注重建筑外观和整洁的旅游地。							
45. 旅游地创造力是旅游地对所使用科技的普及程度							
46. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地为游客提供预期的旅游产品的能力							
47. 旅游地创造力是指一个旅游地营销创意城市的能力。							
48. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地有着培养游客对于中国传统文化的传承感的能力。							
49. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其传播出去的特色来吸引游客的能力。							
50. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地使用叙事技巧的能力。							
51. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地使用叙事技巧吸引游客的能力							

52. 旅游地创造力指的是一个旅游地利用历史和自然的叙事技巧和游客互动的能力。							

Appendix G Questionnaire for the Third Stage of Data Collection (English Version)

Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness and its impacts on tourist experience and tourist satisfaction

The purpose of this research is to investigate destination innovativeness on tourist experience and satisfaction. Therefore, you are invited to take part in this questionnaire survey. My name is Xiaoshan Yang, and I am current a PhD student of tourism and hospitality industry of University of Plymouth. I will handle the personal information you provide in an anonymous and confidential manner. In addition, the investigators of this study will not disclose any questionnaire information provided by you to third parties. After the survey, I will analyze the data through the data analysis software. Finally, the results of this research may be published in academic journals or used in academic conferences.

Section 1 About You		
（Please choose one of the options）		
1. What is your gender?	Male	Female
2. What is your age?	a. 18-24 b. 24-34 c. 35-44 d. 45-54 e. 55 and above	
3. What is your highest education level?	a. Senior middle school and below b. Junior college c. Undergraduate d. Postgraduate and above	
4. Where are you from? (Please write your name of country)		

Section 2 Your perceptions on destination innovativeness Please indicate to what extent the following statements reflect your understanding of destination innovativeness. (1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat disagree 4=Neither agree nor disagree 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree）							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Destination innovativeness refers to the ability of a destination to make itself							

attractive.							
6. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to shape its destination image.							
7. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to develop its attractions.							
8. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to develop sustainably.							
9. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to attract repeated tourists.							
10. Destination innovativeness refers to its creative changes on the basis of its well-developed infrastructure of a destination.							
11. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to enhance its service.							
12. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to enhance its technological use and cultural tourism							
13. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to ensure that the tourists enjoy their travel.							
14. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to provide convenience to the tourists in various ways.							
15. Destination innovativeness is a destination's capability of providing interesting travel experience for the tourists.							
16. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination which has something that cannot be found elsewhere, making it unique.							
17. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to identify the factors that enables it to attract tourists.							
18. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to identify the factors that enables it to attract tourists.							
19. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its landmarks.							
20. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its land resources.							
21. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its attractions.							
22. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its landmarks.							
23. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create cultural value with its							

land resources.							
24. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to co-create economic value with its attractions.							
25. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is able to meet demands of tourists from different parts of the world.							
26. Destination innovativeness is the ability of a destination to meet demands of tourists from different age groups.							
27. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is able to meet demands of tourists from different provinces of China.							
28. Destination innovativeness refers to a destination that is inclusive.							
29. Destination innovation is the willingness of local residents to embrace change.							
30. Destination innovation is the willingness of local residents to embrace changes with the support of the government.							
31. Destination innovativeness is the willingness of local residents to embrace changes to attract tourists.							
32. Destination innovativeness presents how the destination deliver local uniqueness with its architecture.							
33. Destination innovativeness presents how the destination deliver local uniqueness with its local traditions.							
34. Destination innovativeness presents how the destination deliver local uniqueness with its local cuisine.							
35. Destination innovativeness is an opportunity for tourists to learn about the uniqueness of a destination.							

Section 3 Destination innovativeness on tourist experience and satisfaction
Please indicate to what extent following statements reflect your experience and your satisfaction.
(1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat disagree 4=Neither agree nor disagree 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. The travel experience in Hunan is fun							
37. The travel experience in Hunan is exciting.							
38. The travel experience in Hunan is memorable.							
39. The travel experience in Hunan is convenient.							
40. The travel experience in Hunan has been effective.							
41. The travel experience in Hunan is personalized.							

42. I am satisfied with my travel experience in Hunan.						
43. I am planning to revisit Huan.						
44. I am recommending Hunan to others.						

Appendix H Questionnaire for the Third Stage of Data Collection (Chinese Version)

游客感知旅游地创造力及其对游客体验以及游客满意度影响调查

本研究旨在探讨游客感知旅游目的地创造力对游客体验与满意度的影响，特此邀请您完成此问卷调查。我叫杨小姗，目前我是一名就读于普利茅斯大学旅游与酒店管理专业的博士研究生。我们会以匿名保密的方式处理您提供个人信息。此外，本次研究的调研者不会将您所提供的任何问卷信息泄露给第三方机构。在本次调研结束后，我将通过数据分析软件对数据进行分析。最终，本次调研的成果可能会在学术期刊中出版，或用于学术会议交流。

第一部分 您的基本信息		
（根据您的实际情况，对下列选项选择其中之一）		
53. 您的性别？	男	女
54. 您的年龄是？	a. 18-24 b. 24-34 c. 35-44 d. 45-54 e. 55 及以上	
55. 您的最高学历是	高中及以下 大专 本科 硕士研究生及以上	
56. 您来自哪里？ （请填写您所来自的省份）		

第二部分 您对旅游地创造力的理解							
请选择和您根据对以下陈述句在多大程度上能反映了您对旅游地创造力的理解相对应的数字。 （1=完全不赞同 2=不赞同 3=比较不赞同 4=既不赞同也不否定 5=比较赞同 6=赞同 7=完全赞同）							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. 旅游地创造力指的是一个旅游旅游地通过其旅游地形象使该旅游地变得更加有吸引力的能力。							
58. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地打造旅游地形象的能力。							
59. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地对其旅游景点开发的能力。							

60. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地能可持续发展的能力。							
61. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地能有回头客的能力。							
62. 旅游地创造力指在旅游地完善的基础设施上进行有创意的改变。							
63. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地改善其服务的能力。							
64. 旅游地创造力指的是一个旅游地改善其技术利用率和文化旅游的能力							
65. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地让游客享受他们旅行的能力。							
66. 旅游地创造力就是一个旅游地能从不同方面为游客带来便利的能力。							
67. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地能为游客带来有趣的旅游体验的能力。							
68. 旅游地创造力指的是一个旅游地有着其他地方没有的，从而使这个旅游地变得更加独特。							
69. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地能对吸引游客的因素进行改善的能力。							
70. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地充分利用其旅游景点的能力							
71. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其地标共同创造文化价值的能力。							
72. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其土地资源共同创造经济价值的能力。							
73. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其景点共同创造文化价值的能力。							
74. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其地标共同创造经济价值的能力。							
75. 旅游地创造力指的是一个旅游地通过其土地共同创造文化价值的能力。							
76. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地通过其景点共同创造经济价值的能力。							
77. 旅游地创造力指一个旅游地能满足来自世界各地的游客的需求。							
78. 旅游地创造力是一个旅游地能满足不同年龄层次游客需求的能力。							
79. 旅游地创造力指一个旅游地能满足来自不同省市的中国游客的需求。							
80. 旅游地创造力指一个有包容性的旅游地							
81. 旅游地创造力是当地居民做出改变的意愿。							
82. 旅游地创造力是当地居民在政府的支持下做出							

改变的意愿。							
83. 旅游地创造力是旅游地当地居民为吸引游客而做出的改变的意愿。							
84. 旅游地创造力展现了旅游地如何通过当地建筑向游客传递当地特色。							
85. 旅游地创造力展现了旅游地如何通过当地风俗向游客传递当地特色							
86. 旅游地创造力展现了旅游地如何通过当地美食向游客传递当地特色							
87. 旅游地创造力是一次游客了解旅游地特色的机会。							

第三部分 游客在湖南的体验和满意度 根据您在湖南旅游的感受，选择和您的旅游体验以及满意度相对应的数字。 （1=完全不赞同 2=不赞同 3=比较不赞同 4=既不赞同也不否定 5=比较赞同 6=赞同 7=完全赞同）							
88. 在湖南的旅游体验是有趣的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. 在湖南的旅游体验是令人激动的。							
34. 在湖南旅游是一段难忘的旅游体验。							
35. 在湖南的旅游是便利的。							
36. 在湖南的旅游是实在的。							
37. 在湖南旅游是一段有个性化的旅游体验。							
39. 我很满意在湖南的旅游体验							
40. 我计划以后再来湖南旅游。							
41. 我会推荐湖南给其他人来旅游。							

Appendix I Consent Form

University of Plymouth
Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Business

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH PROJECT

Name of Researcher

Xiaoshan Yang

Title of Research

Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness and its Impacts on Tourist Experience and Tourist Satisfaction – The Case Study of Hunan (China)

Brief statement of purpose of work

This study is to develop a comprehensive understanding of tourist perceived destination innovativeness and its impacts on tourist experience and satisfaction.

The objectives of this research have been explained to me.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from the research and ask for my data to be destroyed if I wish.

I understand that my anonymity is guaranteed unless I expressly state otherwise.

I understand that the researcher of this work will have attempted, as far as possible, to avoid any risks.

Under these circumstances, I agree to participate in the research.

Name:
Signature: Date:

Appendix J Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Research Title: Tourist Perceived Destination Innovativeness and its Impacts on Tourist Experience and Tourist Satisfaction-The Case Study of Hunan (China)

You are invited to share your travel experience in associated with destination innovativeness. Please read the information sheet carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. If you have any questions, please contact me without any hesitation (xiaoshan.yang@plymouth.ac.uk).

1. What is the purpose of the study?
This research aims at developing a comprehensive understanding of tourist perceived destination innovativeness and its impacts on tourist experience and satisfaction.

2. Why have I been chosen?
I am looking for tourists with travel experiences at different destinations in Hunan Province

3. Do I have to take part in?
Your decision to take part in this research is fully voluntary. You can withdraw this research before the data is being analysed without any reason.

4. What will happen to me if I take part?
You will be asked to complete a face-to-face interview about your feelings on innovativeness based on your personal experience, and the interview lasts less than an hour.

5. What are the other possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?
Participating in the research is not anticipated to cause you any disadvantages or discomfort. The potential physical and/or psychological harm or distress will be the same as any experienced in everyday life.

6. What are the possible benefits of taking part?
Whilst there are no immediate benefits for those people participating in the project, it is hoped that this work will have a beneficial impact on destination innovativeness.

7. What happens if the research study stops earlier than expected?
I will explain to you that the research stops earlier than planned and you are

affected.

8. What if something goes wrong?

If you have any concerns of the conduct of this study or you wish to complain please contact:

Dr Wai Mun Lim (Director of Studies)
Associated Professor in Service Management
Room 324, Cookworthy Building, Drake Circus
Plymouth
W.M.Lim@plymouth.ac.uk

Or alternatively the Research Administrator to the Faculty Research Ethics Committee:

Judith Rudiger
Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Business
1A Roland Levinsky Building, Drake Circus
Plymouth, PL4 8AA
FoAHSocSciResearch@plymouth.ac.uk

9. Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

The interview you complete and any reports that I write will remain anonymous. Your name will only be used in this consent form to keep a record of those who agreed to take part in the study. A unique study number will be given to you to record on all your answer sheets for the study. Your answers will be kept confidential at all times and treated with respect. Any data and results included in future publications will remain anonymous too.

10. What will happen if I do not want to carry on with the study?

Your decision to take part in this study is entirely voluntary. You can withdraw at any time during the study up until you have completed the tasks. Please let the researcher know you wish to withdraw. Your data will not be used for analysis and they will be destroyed. Once your data is anonymised with a unique identifier, it will not be possible to withdraw your anonymised data.

11. What will happen to the result of the study?

The results of the study will be used in a thesis document. You will not be able to be identified in any of the write up or publications.

12. Who has reviewed the study?

This project has been ethically approved by the University of Plymouth Faculty Research Ethics & Integrity Committee

Thank you for reading the participant's information for the present study

Warmest Regards
Xiaoshan Yang
Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Business
University of Plymouth