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EXPLORING THE EFFECT OF BRANDING ON HERITAGE TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN CHINA

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**UNIVERSITY OF
PLYMOUTH**

**EXPLORING THE EFFECT OF BRANDING ON
HERITAGE TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN CHINA**

by

XIA YIN

A thesis submitted to the University of Plymouth
in partial fulfilment for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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My sister Ping took me on a trip to Mountain Huang in Anhui, China, in 2010. I fell in love instantly with the natural beauty of the WHS. I would like to dedicate this thesis to Ping. Without the loving memory of her, I could not have started this project.

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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 the 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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EXPLORING THE EFFECT OF BRANDING ON HERITAGE TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN CHINA

EVIDENCE FROM WHS GARDENS IN SUZHOU, CHINA

XIA YIN

Abstract

China's World Heritage Sites have increasingly been developed to exploit local tourism and alleviate poverty. However, this destination brand may lack a vital destination branding process, which must combine brand components to increase tourist visitation and create loyalty. As a result, the destination image will be negatively affected, which would damage the financial gain needed for heritage conservation. This research contributed to theory by establishing a novel conceptual framework of destination branding, deploying destination identification, attachment and satisfaction to predict destination image and loyalty.

Based on an objective perspective, this study adopted a positivist philosophy and the approach of a case study. Data were collected in two different years. A quantitative survey methodology used a sample of 714 including tourists and residents at the Humble Administrator's Garden and 338 at the Lingering Garden in Suzhou, China. SPSS 25 and AMOS 25 were used to conduct data analysis. The Structural Equation Modelling technique was deployed in the analysis. Hypotheses were tested. The findings revealed that destination identification did not positively influence destination image in both Gardens but engendered a higher level of attachment and satisfaction. The factors associated with a heritage site, residents and tourists were investigated to identify the relevant dimensions of destination identification.

The study revealed residents' participation in heritage tourism management increased destination attachment and satisfaction, enhanced destination loyalty and image. Destination identification is an antecedent of destination branding without directly having a positive influence on destination image. Destination attachment and satisfaction are mediators in the relationship between identification and image. Destination identification can have a positive impact on destination loyalty when more residents are involved in engendering a higher level of destination attachment or satisfaction, confirmed in the findings of Lingerin Garden. Unlike destination satisfaction, destination identification is not a guaranteed predictor of destination loyalty.

This study contributed to knowledge by combining residents and tourists in destination branding whilst previous researchers focused on tourists. Heritage tourism management needs to involve residents in destination branding. The relationships between residents, tourists, and destinations can be manipulated by projecting the appropriate dimensions in destination identification, such as national and cultural identity, to improve destination attachment and satisfaction. Combining residents and tourists in destination branding, destination image and loyalty can be enhanced, strengthening the World Heritage Site destination brand.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1. Introduction	1
1.2. Addressing the Complications in HTM of China	4
1.2.1. Destination Image & Destination Loyalty	4
1.2.2. Destination Identification, Attachment and Satisfaction in WHS Branding	8
1.3. The Economic Perspective	11
1.3.1. Research aims and objectives	11
1.3.2. Involving Residents in Heritage Tourism	13
1.3.3. The Complications in China's HTM	15
1.3.4. Understanding the Role of DID in WHS Branding in China's HTM	17
1.4. Research Aims and Objectives	21
1.5. The Significance of This Research	22
1.6. Research Outline	25
Chapter 2: Heritage Tourism Management	30
2.1. Introduction	30
2.2. Brief Review on Heritage Management Plan	31
2.3. Defining Heritage in HTM	33
2.3.1 Heritage versus Identity in Heritage Tourism	34
2.4. The critical role of HTM	35
2.4.1. WHS in HTM	37
2.4.2. The Need to Include Residents and Tourists in HTM	39
2.5. HTM in China	40
2.5.1. Identity in HTM in China	44
2.5.2. The Culture Element in HTM in China	46
2.5.3. Heritage Tourism Policy and Practices in HTM in China	48
2.5.4. The Involvement of Residents in China's HTM	50
2.5.5. Combining Tourists and Residents in China's HTM	51
2.6. Brief Review on Impacts of HTM on China	52
2.6.1. Tourism Development Impacts in China	52
2.6.2. Issues in HTM in China	54
2.6.3. The Conflicts between Heritage and Tourism in HTM in China	56
2.7. Conclusion	58
Chapter 3: Destination Branding in HTM	62
3.1. Introduction	62
3.2. Brand and Branding Theory	64

3.3. The Need to Enhance DL.....	65
3.4. The Need to Enhance DI.....	66
3.5. The Need to Include DS in Destination Branding.....	67
3.6. The Need to Include DAT in	68
3.7. The Need to Include DID in Destination Branding.....	69
3.8. Social Identity Theory.....	70
3.9. Tourists in Destination Branding.....	73
3.10. The Need to Combine Residents and Tourists in Destination Branding.....	76
3.11. Conclusion.....	80
Chapter 4: A Conceptual Framework of Destination Branding.....	83
4.1. Introduction.....	83
4.2. Brief Review on Brand Attributes and Traits.....	84
4.3. Build and Protect Brands' Reputation.....	87
4.4. Internal Branding in Destination Branding.....	89
4.5. Hypothesis Development and Conceptual Framework.....	92
4.5.1. Destination Identification	93
4.5.2. Destination Image.....	96
4.5.3. Destination Loyalty.....	98
4.5.4. Destination Attachment.....	100
4.5.5. Destination Satisfaction.....	103
4.6. Conceptual Framework.....	106
4.7. Conclusion.....	108
Chapter 5: Research Methodology.....	112
5.1. Introduction.....	112
5.2. Philosophical Position.....	112
5.3. Research Approach.....	116
5.4. Research Strategy.....	120
5.5. Research Methods.....	122
5.5.1. Understanding the Type of Research.....	122
5.5.2. Quantitative Investigation in WHS Branding.....	125
5.5.3. Deploying Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).....	127
5.5.4. Case Study Method.....	129
5.5.5. Issue Related to Data Gathering.....	134
5.6. Research Procedure.....	136
5.6.1. Questionnaire Survey.....	136
5.6.2. Questionnaire Design and Measurement Scales.....	139

5.6.3. Validity and Reliability.....	142
5.6.4. Ethical Protocol.....	145
5.6.5. Informed consent.....	146
5.6.6. Questionnaire Survey and Data Collection.....	146
5.6.7. Pilot Study.....	147
5.7. Research Population and Sampling.....	149
5.7.1. Sampling Frame.....	151
5.7.2. Sampling Size.....	153
5.8. Data Analysis for the Questionnaire.....	154
5.8.1. Statistics Package for Social Science (SPSS) and AMOS.....	156
5.8.2. The Trustworthiness of the Collected Data.....	158
5.8.3. Making Sense of Quantitative Data and Coding.....	159
5.9. Conclusion.....	162
Chapter 6: Data Analysis.....	165
6.1. Introduction.....	165
6.2. Data Analysis.....	165
6.2.1. Characteristic of Samples.....	165
6.2.2. Measurement Model and Validity.....	166
6.2.3. Validity.....	172
6.2.4. Structural Equation Model and Hypotheses Test.....	180
6.2.5. Hypotheses Testing	190
6.2.6. The Effectiveness of WHS Brand.....	202
6.3. Conclusion.....	205
Chapter 7: Discussion.....	207
7.1. Introduction.....	207
7.2. The Conceptual Framework of WHS Destination Branding in HTM.....	207
7.3. The Relationship Between DID and DS.....	211
7.4. The Relationship Between DID and DAT.....	213
7.5. The Relationship Between DID and DL.....	214
7.6. The Relationship Between DID and DI.....	216
7.7. The Role of DID in WHS Branding.....	217
7.8. The Mediating Role of DAT and DS.....	219
7.9. Conclusion.....	222
Chapter 8: Conclusion.....	225
8.1. Introduction.....	225
8.2. Key Findings.....	226

8.2.1. Contribution to Destination Branding Theory.....	227
8.2.2. Contribution to Heritage Tourism.....	228
8.2.3. To Establish a Conceptual Framework of WHS Branding by Deploying DID, DAT and DS to Predict DI and DL.....	229
8.2.4. To Identify the Dimensions of DID in WHS Destination Branding.....	230
8.2.5. To Determine the Challenges of Involving Residents in HTM in China.....	231
8.2.6. To Investigate the Role of Residents in Enhancing DI and DL.....	232
8.2.7. To Explore the Benefits of Residents in Improving DAT and DS.....	233
8.2.8. To Examine the Benefits of Combining Residents and Tourists in WHS Branding.....	234
8.2.9. To Investigate the Relationship Between the WHS Branding Components.....	235
8.2.10. To Explore the Role of WHS Branding on DID.....	236
8.3. Implication.....	238
8.3.1. Theoretical Implication.....	238
8.3.2. Practical Implication.....	239
8.4. Limitations and Recommendations.....	241

APPENDIX.....	246
Appendix 1: World heritage sits in China.....	246
Appendix 2: Survey Questionnaire (English).....	247
Appendix 3: Survey Questionnaire (Chinese).....	248
Appendix 4: Consent Form.....	250
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	251

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: WHS list with nations having more than 10 WHS.....	16
Table 3.1: Heritage Tourist's perception.....	74
Table 4.1: The ratio in building a successful brand's reputation.....	88
Table 4.2: Definition of constructs.....	106
Table 4.3: Proposed hypotheses.....	107
Table 5.1: Different types of research.....	124
Table 5.2: Measurement Scales.....	142
Table 5.3: Descriptive Items and Labels.....	161
Table 6.1: Characteristics of data collected at HAG and LG.....	166
Table 6.2: Measurements of the five constructs.....	167
Table 6.3 Skewness and Kurtosis of the constructs.....	167
Table 6.4 Results of measurements after factor loading (HAG).....	169
Table 6.5 Results of measurements after factor loading (LG).....	169
Table 6.6: KMO and Bartlett's test (HAG)	170
Table 6.7: KMO and Bartlett's test (LG)	170
Table 6.8: Goodness-of-fit indices of HAG and LG Measurement model.....	172
Table 6.9: The validity of constructs of HAG measurement model.....	175
Table 6.10: The validity of constructs of LG measurement model.....	176
Table 6.11 The validity statistics of HAG Model and of HAG and LG model.....	176
Table 6.12 Discriminant validity (HAG).....	177
Table 6.13 Discriminant validity (LG).....	177
Table 6.14: Correlation matrix of constructs (HAG) (N=714)	178
Table 6.15: Correlation matrix of constructs (LG) (N=338)	178
Table 6.16: Correlation Matrix (HAG) (N=714)	179
Table 6.17: Correlation Matrix (LG) (N=338)	180
Table 6.18: Result of confirmatory factor analysis (HAG).....	182
Table 6.19: Result of confirmatory factor analysis (LG).....	183
Table 6.20: Goodness-of-fit indices.....	186
Table 6.21: The validity statistics of Structural Equation Models of HAG and LG.....	187
Table 6.22: Research hypotheses (HAG).....	191
Table 6.23: Research hypotheses (LG)	191
Table 6.24: Mediation relations (HAG).....	200
Table 6.25: Mediation relations (LG).....	201
Table 8.1: Findings	235

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 4.1: Proposed conceptual framework.....	107
Figure 5.1: Research process.....	122
Figure 5.2: Pre-analysis Process.....	160
Figure 6.1: First order measurement model (HAG).....	171
Figure 6.2: First order measurement model (LG).....	172
Figure 6.3: Structural Equation Model (HAG).....	181
Figure 6.4: Structural Equation Model (LG).....	182
Figure 6.5: Hypothesised structural model of HAG.....	188
Figure 6.6: Hypothesised structural model of LG.....	188
Figure 7.1: A process model of heritage tourism management.....	209

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations	Full Term
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CR	Construct Reliability
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CTA	China Academic
DID	Destination identification
DAT	Destination attachment
DS	Destination satisfaction
DI	Destination image
DL	Destination loyalty
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
HTM	Heritage tourism management
HAG	Humble Administrative Garden
ICOMOS	International council on monuments and sites
ICCROM	International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Culture Property
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources
LG	Lingering Garden
NFI	Normed Fit Index
RMSEA	Standardised Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Model
TIA	Travel Industry Association
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
WH	World heritage
WHC	World heritage committee
WHL	World heritage list
WHO	World heritage organisation
WHS	World heritage site
WHSD	World heritage site designation
χ^2/df	Chi-square/Degrees of Freedom

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Introduction

Heritage tourism has been popular in academic research fields (Ashworth et al., 2000), as progressively, it has become "a powerful commercial force" (Henderson, 2002,P:338). Fyall and Garrod (1998) contended that heritage tourism is an economic activity that deploys socio-cultural assets to attract tourists. Therefore, it plays an integral part in providing certain ritualised circumstances. As a result, social memory can be collectively unified within specific heritage settings (yu Park, 2010).

Heritage tourism differs from other types of tourism by its unique heritage, acting as an economic and cultural resource (Graham et al., 2016). The former needs to be developed for economic development while the latter needs to be preserved. The dual role of heritage (Li et al., 2008) reveals an ultimate variance regarding ideological and institutional contexts between heritage tourism and general tourism (Garrod and Fyall, 2001).

The most developed heritage site is the one with a World Heritage (WH) status awarded by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (Cassel and Pashkevich, 2014). Such a phenomenon of heritage tourism at the WHS is prevailing in China. Heritage tourism tends to deploy heritage as a tool for economic development, especially after receiving the WH status (Cassel and Pashkevich, 2014).

Heritage tourism development often involves negotiating different interests and interpretations regarding a heritage resource and its potential use. Therefore, heritage is constantly exposed to exploitation or unforeseen critical disaster, such as the well-known Egyptian Abu Simbel Temples under the threat of rising water. However, in 1978, the World Heritage Site Designation (WHSD) was introduced to identify, sustain, and preserve the WHS (Poria et al., 2011). Since then, the WHSD has gradually advanced from a practical measure to a broadly valued brand used by nations to attract heritage tourists.

Based on the assumption of Boyd and Timothy (2006) that the title WHS is viewed as a sign representing a brand name. Kotler et al. (1991) stated that a brand could distinguish the product or service from its competitors by its unique names and terms. The WHS, with its designated position is a brand name, as the name and its logo are in congruence with the brand definition (Timothy and Boyd, 2006, Ryan and Silvano, 2009a, Poria et al., 2011). However, the WHS brand lacks the vital destination branding process, which must combine brand components to increase tourist visitation and create loyalty (Balakrishnan, 2009a). Thus, the WHS brand has low brand equity.

Furthermore, despite the outstanding value of WHS, there is a sceptical relationship between the WHS brand and successful tourism development. Given the original purpose of preserving the unique heritage, the WHS's outstanding quality must be guaranteed (Ryan and Silvano, 2009a). However, the status of WHS also exposed the heritage destination to global competition for heritage tourists (Cassel and Pashkevich, 2014). It is vital to address the issue of how to

cope with the competition. Like branding products and services, a destination can be branded to attract tourists (Poria et al., 2011). Thus, an effective destination brand can be built to tackle competition.

A strong brand with good brand awareness and a positive brand image is tactically seen as an asset for an organisation. Such a brand is effective at making consumers willing to select the brand and pay a premium price. However, in terms of tourists' behaviours, the heritage site performance indicator of brand awareness is considered deficient (Petr, 2009, Keller, 2003). A destination must consistently present the tourists with a distinctive image to reinforce brand strategy (Balakrishnan, 2009a).

However, a change in the WHS image may make the WHS brand less effective (Poria et al., 2011). Heritage tourism development involves stakeholders such as the state, the local community, and the site management, focusing on increasing tourists to engender economic revenue (Hall, 2006). Such creates an urgent issue in heritage tourism management (HTM) in line with sustainability. HTM needs to have an effective WHS brand through WHS branding to attract sufficient tourists for revenue and to preserve the heritage. However, little is known about how to increase the effectiveness of the WHS brand via destination branding.

It is imperative to have an effective WHS brand. It can build a positive image in the targeted tourists' mind by choosing combinations of brand components to attract more tourists and retain destination loyalty (Balakrishnan, 2009a). However, little

known knowledge is available on how to find the most effective WHS brand components to enhance the WHS image and loyalty.

1.2. Key Concepts in WHS Destination Branding

Destinations must have unique identities to survive the competitive market (Morgan et al., 2003). Such a branding strategy can give the organisation a long-term competitive advantage (Sun and Ghiselli, 2010), achieving its intangible element (Rita et al., 2004). WHS is a primary path between academic knowledge and professional practice to enable model validity testing (Mitchell, 2013). Therefore, this study focuses on WHS in heritage tourism. Branding the WHS to engender an enhanced destination image (DI) and destination loyalty (DL), enabling effective management in heritage tourism is critical. Previous scholars such as Hultman et al. (2015) and Qu et al. (2011) pointed out that destination branding research was conducted on traditional branding literature. Therefore, brand and brand theory will be investigated to deploy the destination branding strategy in heritage tourism management.

1.2.1 Destination Image & Destination Loyalty

Branding is associated with a marketing process. It adds value derived from using the brand of products and services between the customers and the service providers (Berry, 2000, Cai, 2002). A branding concept involving visitor experience can be applied to a destination (Blain et al., 2005, Lim and Weaver, 2014). A brand image refers to the understandings and perceptions associated with the consumer's memory regarding a brand replicated by brand associations (Keller and Kotler, 2015, Liang and Lai, 2022). Branding as a dominant method in

developing dynamic tourism strategies (Baker and Cameron, 2008) has been deployed by countries such as Singapore and New Zealand in enhancing tourism and economic development. Since then, the popular trend of destination branding has attracted various scholars (Zenker et al., 2017). Therefore, developing a solid destination brand has been implemented worldwide as a strategic tool to counter competition from other destinations. Furthermore, destination branding can be adopted to produce a positive DI (Risanto and Yulianti, 2016).

Crompton (1979) defined destination image as “an attitudinal concept consisting of the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a tourist holds of a destination” (Hosany et al., 2006, P:638). In the tourism industry, paying attention to the destination image is vital, which will impact the tourism marketing strategies aiming at the targeted tourists (Lee and Kim, 2017, Liang and Lai, 2022). Destination branding can be defined as “selecting a consistent element mix to identify and distinguish it through positive image building” (Cai, 2002, P:722). A destination must consistently present the tourists with a distinctive image to reinforce brand strategy (Balakrishnan, 2009a).

Destination image consists of cognitive and affective dimensions. The former refers to the elements related to nature, culture, social conditions, and economic environment which attracts the tourists to the destination; the latter is associated with tourists’ feeling and emotional reaction toward the destination (Pike, 2002, Beerli and Martin, 2004, Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997, Liang and Lai, 2022). Despite the difference between branding product and destination, destination branding scholars have been adopting brand theories into destinations due to their

similarities (Balakrishnan, 2009a), such as Konecnik and Gartner (2007), Lim and Weaver (2014), and Chen and Myagmarsuren (2010). They transferred the concept of customer-based brand equity to destination branding from a tourist's perspective. An effective brand will empower consumers' willingness to select the brand and pay a premium price (Keller, 2003, Petr, 2009). However, such an influential brand requires enhanced image and loyalty.

Some scholars deployed brand theory in destination branding to increase competitiveness and attract more visitors (Poria et al., 2011). However, no previous studies have engendered an empirical framework to enhance the less effective WHS brand. This study intends to fill this gap by including residents in destination branding, as Zenker et al. (2017) recommended. Therefore, this study intends to increase the effectiveness of the WHS brand by combining residents included internal branding and tourists incorporated external branding in WHS branding. Doing so enables this research to fill the gap and benefit the marketers seeking to enhance the WHS image and loyalty.

A practical component is associated with the emotional evaluation of the features and the surrounding environments (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999, Sohn and Yoon, 2016). Arguably, DI contains two cognitive and affective components (Qu et al., 2011, Hosany et al., 2006, Sohn and Yoon, 2016). Nevertheless, Qu et al. (2011) recommended a unique DI in forming an overall image. This study will include the cognitive, affective, and conative dimensions of DI by focusing on tourists and residents.

Li (2010) defines brand loyalty as a customer's preference for specific goods or service providers. By being the key to good progress and a vital instrument in building company-customer relationships (Reichheld, 2006), brand loyalty will increasingly contribute to companies' long-term dominant position in the marketplace. In addition, brand commitment will align with long-term customer retention (Amine, 1998).

Destination loyalty is defined as tourists' intention to return to the destination and willingness to recommend it to others (Vinh et al., 2017, Bigne et al., 2001). However, little literature is known concerning enhanced WHS loyalty in China's HTM. This study intends to find the practical components of WHS branding and explore their effects on DL based on prior literature on destination branding. Therefore, this study aims to establish a novel conceptual framework of WHS branding to enhance DI and DL by deploying brand and branding theory to find the most practical destination branding components.

A well-known brand can boost extra market share through increased brand loyalty and enhanced brand image (Aurand et al., 2005). Nevertheless, previous scholars contended that DI alone is not branding in destination branding (Cai, 2002). Effective branding requires a unique set of integrated brand associations to unify the entire image formation and building process. Such alternatively contributes to brand identity's strength and uniqueness (David, 1996, Keller et al., 2011, Cai, 2002).

Given the difference in branding product and destination, previous scholars suggested it will benefit destination marketers to consider destination personality, identification, and satisfaction (Hultman et al., 2015). The variance between a product and a destination implies that destination branding is not the same but more complicated than product branding. However, little literature focused on the critical components of transforming the product branding strategy into an effective destination branding.

To build a positive DI, the destination brand needs to incorporate a mixture of reliable components (Risanto and Yulianti, 2016). Chen and Myagmarsuren (2010) proposed that brand equity components, satisfaction and loyalty, can be combined into a relationship model to determine the correlations with DI. Their study also revealed that a positive DI could enhance satisfaction and loyalty (Chen and Myagmarsuren, 2010).

Furthermore, previous scholars advised that DL can be affected by destination attachment (DAT) based on visitors' unforgettable experiences in the study of tourism marketing (Vada et al., 2019). However, no previous study evaluated the strategy of enhancing DI and DL by including destination identification, satisfaction, and attachment in WHS branding. This study aims to fill that gap by obtaining a theoretical concept to combine residents in internal branding and tourists in external branding.

1.2.2 Destination Identification, Attachment and Satisfaction in WHS Branding

Given the strategic importance of destination branding in producing a characteristic DI, it is vital to position the destination constructively. The previous scholars claim that an exceptional destination brand is regarded as an asset, adding value to the destination (Kim and Malek, 2017, Kumar and Kaushik, 2017, Rather et al., 2020). Therefore, increasing importance in destination branding is crucial, which substitutes brand image.

Previous scholars proposed that one of the vital factors in establishing an effective brand is to develop brand identification (Aaker, 1997, Rather and Hollebeek, 2019). Furthermore, Pike (2005) argued that destination branding is more challenging and complex (Zenker et al., 2017) than goods and services because destinations' multidimensions are greater than consumer goods and services. Therefore, the theory of consumer-based brand equity scholars adopts in destination branding often lacks a balance between community consensus and brand theory (Pike, 2005). Such will lead to the failure of the local tourism community's actual delivery of brand promise (Pike, 2005). Thus, this research deployed social identity theory, which previous research considered an essential theoretical foundation (Berrozpe et al., 2019, Rather et al., 2020).

This research adopted social identity theory to include identification in WHS branding. Despite brand identification features in tourism, destination identification (DID) is more or less entangled with the identity associated with residents and tourists. Unlike a product or service, destination identification bears more comprehensive elements, associated with more factors such as relation, symbol,

culture, and history that shaped the destination (Rather, 2020, Berrozpe et al., 2019).

Furthermore, DID links a destination with stakeholders, including tourists and residents. Such implies it is more complicated to develop DID in enhancing WHS image and loyalty. There is a considerable lack of literature on deploying DID in WHS branding, and this research will fill this gap by further including attachment and satisfaction in the branding process.

Destination branding is a strategy to recognise a destination's identification to differentiate itself from its competitors (Qu et al., 2011). In other words, destinations must have their own unique identity to survive the competitive market (Morgan et al., 2003). When a person attaches meaning to a destination, that place may become part of one's identity (KILINÇ, 2006). Moreover, Yuksel et al. (2010) considered the process of forming emotional bonds to destinations as destination attachment. Qu et al. (2011) further indicate that DAT helps differentiate its brand from competitors. It has been deployed in destination branding to evaluate image and loyalty (Yuksel et al., 2010, Zenker et al., 2017).

Previous scholars contended that brand attachment is associated with robust emotions such as desire, fitting together, and fondness. Attachment is understood to identify emotional connections between the consumers, the organisation and its brand. At the same time, identification is a perceptive association concerning the realisation of social identity-related demands. Therefore, the more robust visitors' attachment to the destination, the more influential the destination brand will be

(Huang et al., 2017, Rather and Hollebeek, 2019, Thomson et al., 2005b, Rather et al., 2020). It is crucial to enable the branding process to transpire. In other words, it is essential to transfer the original brand identification, such as brand attributes and stories, to the brand. As a result, satisfaction takes place through the brand process.

Given the complicated nature of China's WHS challenges, this study also extends social identity theory in improving the WHS brand's effectiveness. Therefore, this study will deploy DID as an antecedent of WHS branding to investigate the branding effects on HTM in China. DID with multidimensions will be explored in this study to investigate the relationships between residents, tourists and the WHS. This antecedent will impact the attachment and satisfaction that occurred at the WHS. No study evaluated the strategy of enhancing DI and DL by incorporating DID, DAT and DS in WHS branding. This study aims to fill that gap by establishing a conceptual framework to combine residents in internal branding and tourists in external branding.

1.3 An Overview of HTM in China

1.3.1 The Economic Perspective

Research on heritage tourism often naturally focuses on the cultural scope, which pays little attention to economic dimensions. However, the production and consumption of heritage tourism are also affected by economic/political prospects (Su et al., 2018); as the previous scholar stated, China, ruled by the Chinese Communist Party, has a socio-economic system containing capitalism and socialism (White, 1993). The central government are dominant in policy making. However, the local government can inspire the governance courses (Yan and

Bramwell, 2008) and promote China's emerging market economy with authority to control a more significant proportion of tax revenue. Therefore, the local government plays a prime role in regional economic development and in determining China's built-up landscape (Wu, 2002, Zhang, 2002, Shin, 2010).

Heritage is deployed as an economic resource in regional revitalisation structures, a strategy in the universal capitalist economy (Harvey, 2005). It is vital in China's national policy to alleviate poverty through tourism development. Heritage conservation without economic development through heritage tourism would be probably impossible in China, as the funding needed to maintain the local heritage resources must be engendered through the commercial use of heritage (Chhabra, 2009).

Heritage conservation policies and practices are highly likely validated by economic justification, mainly considered vital by the community members and regional governors (Timothy, 2017). Furthermore, heritage protection involves collective coordination between economic, political, social, and cultural activities and communities. However, the economic impact of China's heritage tourism development has a critical effect on other socio-cultural and political prospects (Wang and Bramwell, 2012).

Previous research contended that the wider society is governed by economic and political settings (Jessop, 2007). China also experiences a developing trend while transitioning to a more market-oriented economy within a socialist society (Harvey, 2005). Due to China's growing socio-economic and political system, it is vital to

understand how HTM in China is affected from a political and economic perspective. Heritage tourism in China attracts large volumes of tourists, which was encouraged by the rising autonomy of the city government in China. As a result, fierce competition between China's cities to attract tourists to gain capital accumulation serves the purpose of economic development, which provides funds for heritage conservation.

Given that the economic and political scopes are intertwined, the state plays a critical role in intervening in the relative priorities concerning heritage conservation and economic development at the heritage site. However, almost certainly, the latter is dominant in the preferences of the local government's policymakers, pursuing a nearly entrepreneurial economic agenda. The political impact of heritage tourism development maintains a give-and-take relation between heritage, tourism, the state, economy and socio-cultural values. Therefore, the heritage site tourism development in China can be seen to reshape the heritage for economic profits and political gains (Wang and Bramwell, 2012).

1.3.2 Involving Residents in Heritage Tourism

Heritage tourism can be defined as "tourism centred on what we have inherited, which can mean anything from historic buildings to artworks, to beautiful scenery" (Yale, 1991,P:21). It is one of the ancient forms of travel. It is among the most prominent and prevalent types of tourism, categorised under the purview of cultural tourism (Timothy and Boyd, 2006). Such an inclination toward tourism comprises visitors touring historical sites with fascinating cultures. The locations are often

situated within built environments, ancient monuments, and urban and rural landscapes (Timothy and Boyd, 2006).

According to the World Tourism Organisation (WTO), 37% of the total international tourism journeys came from cultural heritage tourism (McKercher and Du Cros, 2002, Timothy and Boyd, 2003, Chiu et al., 2013, Nyaupane et al., 2006). The outstanding economic outcome generated from heritage tourism transformed it into one of the most influential tourism industries. The revenue from heritage tourism can be achieved by consuming accommodation, food, admission fees, and shopping. As a result, heritage tourism contributes enormous money yearly to the global economy. It provides jobs to millions of people (Timothy and Boyd, 2003).

Nevertheless, despite the recognised economic power heritage tourism generated in some nations, the number of heritage tourists has decreased over the last few years. For example, the heritage tourist numbers in Malaysia were lower than predicted (Chiu et al., 2013). It could be caused by poor DI or other factors, such as the residents' resistance to tourists. However, little research has been conducted to address such a problem. This study intends to investigate how to enhance the WHS image via the factor of residents.

Moreover, the declining number of tourists could lead to poor economic outcomes. Consequentially, tourism sustainability will be affected. In other words, the minimal fund will be generated from negative heritage tourism to preserve the heritage. Furthermore, public funding is limited due to government restrictions (Garrod and Fyall, 2000). It is vital to have an adequate DL to keep tourists returning and

recommend to new tourists. Therefore, HTM needs to have a strategy to increase DAT and DS to enhance destination image and loyalty. Little is known in previous literature regarding such a strategy. Therefore, this study will examine the relationship between residents, tourists and the WHS for engendering practical attachment and satisfaction. Such can prevent the drastic situation regarding the lack of funds for conservation and keep the heritage site sustainable (Garrod and Fyall, 2000).

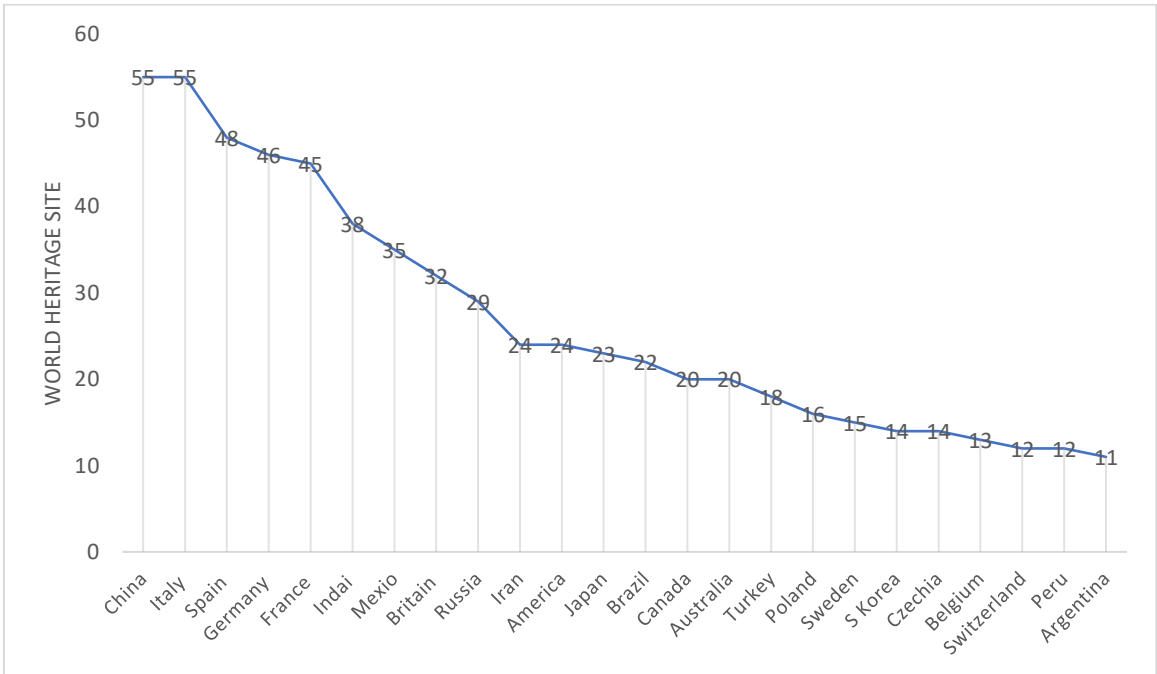
1.3.3 The Complications in China's HTM

The previous scholar declared that "in little more than a quarter of a century, China has changed from being a country with minimal conventional tourism to becoming a leader in global tourism" (Wall, 2014a,P:185). However, the rapid tourism development and robust economic stress have laid enormous pressure on tourism resources (Wall, 2014a). Such contributed to many social, cultural, and environmental problems (Tsang and Hsu, 2011). Given the rising sophistication of the planning, marketing, and product development in the tourism industry, academic research on tourism in the context of China is critical in finding solutions (Tsang and Hsu, 2011).

After the 1972 Convention, the World Heritage Committee (WHC) set a difference between cultural and natural heritage. Both fit into a criterion created by the International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) and the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN). The former has six criteria. The latter has four guidelines for accepting the nation's potential heritage site.

Each qualified WHS has to meet at least one of the criteria. Cultural heritage has enlisted in World Heritage List (WHL) over the past three decades since WHL promoted WHS. Although each WHS entails different complexity of human life, the concept of UNESCO believes that every nation's cultural heritage is equal under the umbrella of world diversity (Shepherd, 2006). Currently, China has 55 WHSs (see Table 1.1), topping the WHS list with Italy.

Table 1.1 WHS List with Nations Having More than 10 WHS



Source: <https://whc.unesco.org/en/list/stat> Accessed on 10th June 2020

Heritage tourism development in China has been contributing to the rising economic status of China. However, such has been linked to the decline of the physical and cultural environment. Consequently, there is a danger that the outstanding WHS can be delisted or placed on the list of Danger. As of June 2020, 1121 WHS were delisted, which was caused by a lack of conservation funds. Such failed to keep the “outstanding universal value” (UNESCO, 2017). It implies the

critical role of HTM in establishing a vibrant strategy for long-term sustainability. How to prevent China's WHS from its outstanding value degrading needs more urgent attention as HTM in China is more complicated, differing from the Western approach.

Regardless of WHSD's message of protecting WHS's outstanding value, it is often viewed as a development strategy (Li et al., 2008). China has 55 WHS (see Appendix 1) with exceptional universal value. Nevertheless, "due to the economic interests' orientation and the weak enforcement of administrative regulations, China's WHS is facing the threat of over-exploitation and dislocation" (Dong, 2011b,P:6532). However, little is known regarding the role of HTM in China in line with the sustainability between China's heritage tourism development and conservation. This study intends to investigate the vital role of China's HTM. Therefore, the findings of this study can "benefit and be used in other mass tourism heritage destinations, particularly those that are in the developmental stage" (Dewar, 2010,P:250).

1.3.4 Understanding the Role of DID in WHS Branding in China's HTM

It is assumed that heritage is an industry incorporated into everyday activity to generate a marketable product. In other words, "heritage is a contemporary commodity purposefully created to satisfy contemporary consumption" (Ashworth, 1994,P:14). The status of WHS tended to recognise the economic aspects of heritage while paying no attention to the political. However, the political control issues transformed into technical preservation queries, protecting cultural substances and practices from economic force.

In China, WHS is associated with the claim that it is a command to preserve culture in development expression. Such converted WHS into foundations in clarifying Chinese culture and civilisation. It grew even more complicated with various state players involved, including political and planning authorities, residents, the tourism bureau, China Travel Service officials, China International Travel Service officials, the Nationalities Affairs Council officials, and the State Cultural Bureau officials (Shepherd, 2006).

The rapid heritage tourism development also brought cultural, local identity and a sense of place. For example, the locals swiftly learned to connect the tourist experience with destination identity. It is not because social and cultural forces empower heritage tourism. Instead, residents are accustomed to the historical process, such as commercial trade and political campaigns, informing their sense of place. Therefore, destination-based DID can be defined according to political, economic, and cultural developments.

Furthermore, in China, residents have adapted to take in a place identity within the broader political economy. It predominantly affects their daily life. The government determines heritage tourism development due to the overwhelming authority in the political-economic context. Such a state-sponsored tourism development led to commercial integration in line with local economic and social prospects, significantly affecting the WHS DID. Therefore, the policy inherited in this state-sponsored tourism development involves preserving the local culture. The new place identity influenced by such a tourism development continues its formality in China (Oakes, 1997).

Furthermore, heritage tourism development in China often combines modernity, tradition, and socialism within a space of identity. Specifically, the government has been deploying heritage tourism as a tool to build a national identity to accelerate China's modernisation. Moreover, heritage tourism bears the most intense manifestation of these broader forces, adapted by the local cultural identity and meaning. It plays an important cultural and social role, even in some remote, deprived areas. The developing process helps residents and tourists realise the vital mission of cultural heritage preservation. They benefit immensely as a continuation of civilisation (Oakes, 1997).

Nevertheless, China's heritage tourism development is associated with a political process. Its national policies do not relate to environmental and cultural concerns (Nguyen, 2017). For instance, the Old Town Lijiang attempted to balance the rising economic power and the negativities of heritage tourism. Heritage is deployed as a critical development element, such as in Pingyao, Yangzhou, Lassa. Apart from adapting to the problems derived from mass tourism, residents had to consider it a resource in line with economic development and cultural revival (Dewar, 2010).

Moreover, despite a considerable expense in finally making the heritage site enlisted in WHL, the economic benefit expected from WHS tourism is not guaranteed, such as the Longmen Grottoes in Luoyang. Additionally, adverse effects could damage the heritage site to become one of the WHS on the Danger List, such as the Old Town Li Jiang. The above problems might be shared amongst the global WHS. However, the WHS status deployed in China emphasises the national identity. On the other hand, the predominant consideration in improving

WHS quality is to expand professional practices in heritage conservation instead of prioritising economic development.

Nevertheless, a conflict resulted from the two separate government bodies representing the intangible heritage and managing the tangible heritage. The former strived to protect the heritage undermined by the latter during HTM. Such a phenomenon perhaps caused different WHS in China to have other HTM models. For instance, Xidi is managed by local villagers, while external private companies manage Hongcun; Suzhou, Danyan, and Tulou are under the direct management of government agencies. Therefore, an adequate, effective HTM is needed to include the local characteristics and keep the WHS up to the international standards set in the policy of UNESCO (Wang and Zan, 2011).

WHS has been seen as a bridge linking different cultures from different geopolitical environments, contributing to the meaning of cultural diversity. Since China joined the WHC in 1985, China opened up to the world to preserve Chinese culture and its national identity through the enlisted WHS. Given the importance of WHS in China, it is crucial to maintain heritage sites by adopting effective HTM via external and internal branding.

Apart from the tangible physical heritage that needs preservation to attract visitors, it is vital to incorporate the intangible cultural meaning of heritage in China's HTM. That process is considered significant in China's WHS branding, which involves culture-related identity. Therefore, effective HTM develops the WHS brand to attract travellers and culturally combines residents to protect or preserve the WHS.

The importance of cultural identity implies that WHS branding needs to incorporate preserving the local culture. Therefore, the intangible heritage has been deployed as an influential tool to boost national identity. Moreover, the tangible physical attraction of the WHS has been put into commercialisation to generate tourism profits. Due to the extra complication of China's HTM, involving national, cultural and community identities, it is crucial to inject the relevant dimensions into the WHS branding. Therefore, the role of DID needs to be investigated in line with an effective HTM. Such knowledge in the literature is not available. Thus, this study will extend social identity theory in investigating the role of DID, acting as an antecedent in the WHS branding in HTM of China. However, little is known regarding the role of DID in enhancing DI and DL. This study intends to examine the relationships of DID, DAT and DS with DI and DL in searching for a process model of HTM suited in China.

1.4 Research Aims and Objectives

The main aim of this research is to enhance the WHS destination image and loyalty by combining residents included internal branding and tourists incorporated external branding in HTM in China.

Objectives

- ❖ To establish a conceptual framework of WHS branding by deploying DID, DAT and DS to predict DI and DL
- ❖ To identify the dimensions of DID in WHS destination branding
- ❖ To determine the challenges of involving residents in HTM in China
- ❖ To investigate the role of residents in enhancing DI and DL
- ❖ To explore the role of residents in improving DAT and DS

- ❖ To examine the benefits of combining residents and tourists in WHS branding
- ❖ To investigate the relationships between the WHS branding components
- ❖ To explore the role of WHS branding on DID

The aim and objectives will be explored in the study with the following questions:

1. Whether combining internal branding (residents included) and external branding (tourists incorporated) in heritage tourism will increase the effectiveness of the WHS brand?
2. What is the relationship between the WHS brand and the enhanced DI after increasing the brand effectiveness?
3. What is the connotation between the WHS brand and the enhanced DL in the WHS branding?
4. What are the impacts of the WHS branding components?

1.5 The Significance of This Research

Heritage tourism is used to revitalise the region or alleviate poverty. The former is often adopted in developed countries, while the latter occurs in developing countries. Heritage has been deployed as an economic tool in heritage tourism development. From the supply side, heritage is considered a resource for revenue in heritage tourism. However, the demand side requests heritage be maintained, so its unique image can be preserved to attract tourists. Such a contradiction needs to be balanced by HTM. Nevertheless, heritage is easy to use when passed down to the present day by the ancestors. It has many challenges in preserving heritage

for authenticity to be appreciated by the generations. Therefore, the role of HTM is significant in protecting heritage sites.

Given its importance, the knowledge about HTM is not sufficient. Such is because every heritage site is different. As a result, there is no benchmark in practice which can be used to compare newly developed heritage tourism. Additionally, the team of HTM involves varied stakeholders whose interests are different. In developed countries, HTM may encounter fewer challenges as the public fund are probably available to cover heritage conservation costs. However, it is scarce to have public funds to repair the heritage in developing countries like China. Instead, the priority of heritage tourism in China is to develop the regional economy. Such needs to generate enough profit to cover the tourism operation and the heritage maintenance fee. Therefore, it is vital for heritage sites as a money-generating source to attract sufficient tourists.

However, China's emerging heritage tourism development urgently requests an effective HTM strategy to sustain heritage conservation and economic development. The less effective HTM in China caused overcapacity in heritage tourism, producing harmful environmental and social-cultural prospects. Such will damage the image of the heritage site. Consequently, DL might be negatively affected. Heritage tourism might jeopardise being terminated for lack of visitors, especially when the regional and international competition is fierce for heritage tourists. Therefore, this study is urgently requested to explore HTM in China to enhance the DI and DL of the heritage site.

Nevertheless, there is little literature regarding improving DI and DL in China's heritage tourism. This study needs to adopt brand and branding theory, combined with destination branding theory, to establish a conceptual framework of WHS branding to predict WHS image and loyalty. A quantitative methodology is adopted in this study. Additionally, this study selected a case of two Classic Gardens HAG and LG, with WHS status in Suzhou, China. This study's findings can help HTM in other countries with mass tourism-related heritage tourism.

Analytically, most previous studies only incorporated tourists in destination branding. Zenker et al. (2017) suggested that including residents in destination branding enhances DL, understanding that residents can influence tourists' visiting experience. Such can have effects on satisfaction. However, residents' behaviour and attitudes toward tourists can negatively impact attachment and satisfaction. Consequentially, the image and loyalty will be negatively affected. However, little is known about managing the relationship between the residents, tourists, and destinations to produce positive DAT and DS.

This study extends social identity theory to explore the role of DID. Empirically, DID is still in its infancy. There is no known knowledge regarding the effect of DID on DI, except DID is not a guaranteed predictor of loyalty. There is no knowledge of DID in the context of heritage tourism in China. Aiming to fill those gaps, this study deployed brand and branding theory, destination theory, and social identity theory to establish a novel conceptual framework of WHS branding involving DID, DAT, DS, DI and DL.

Furthermore, there is little knowledge of combining residents and tourists in destination branding in heritage tourism. No previous research studied the relationship between the residents, the tourists and the WHS. This study needs to address China's heritage tourism development challenges to identify the dimensions of DID. They include national identity, cultural identity, community identity, and political element. Based on internal branding and external branding literature, this study combines residents included internal branding and tourists incorporated external branding in WHS branding. This study collected data from the two WHS in Suzhou, China, HAG and LG. AMOS 25 and SPSS 25 are used to analyse the data. HAG and LG structural models are tested with the validated data. Based on the structural model, the findings reveal that DID is an antecedent of WHS branding.

1.6 Research Outline

This study aims to enhance the less effective WHS brand by including residents in the WHS branding process. It will construct a conceptual framework of WHS branding based on brand, branding, destination branding, and heritage tourism literature. Furthermore, previous scholars Poria et al. (2011) followed the recommendation of Fyall and Rakic (2006,P:173) that the need for research of WHS "at the microsite level" is to focus on a particular heritage site. Thus, this study selects the Classic Gardens Suzhou as a case of China's WHS. Suzhou is also a critical tourist city with a more mature local economy, which is suitable for evaluating the effect (Xu, 2013). The selection of Classic Gardens was made based on their internationally distinct cultural heritage (Taylor and Altenburg, 2006)

and residents' availability and participation in heritage tourism (Ming Ming and Wall, 2010).

The most appropriate components of destination branding need to be investigated to enhance the WHS's image and loyalty to achieve this study's aims. Apart from including DAT and DS, this study also incorporated DID based on social identity theory. Due to the lack of literature regarding DID in WHS branding concerning attachment, satisfaction, image and loyalty, this research will examine the relevant factors to form the dimensions of DID. This study needs to understand the political, social-cultural, and environmental challenges in China's HTM.

Following the above, hypotheses and the conceptual framework will be established. Furthermore, a survey-based questionnaire administered to tourists and residents in the selected Classical Gardens of Suzhou will be developed based on the literature. This research paradigm is a philosophical framework. It incorporates a set of constructs drawn from the essential nature of knowledge, reality, and existence to guide scientific research (Collis and Hussey, 2013). Additionally, this study conducts research based on an objective perspective and will not be influenced by investigating it. Thus, the paradigm of inquiry is Positivism. Consequently, this study will adopt a quantitative method.

Regarding engendering the enhanced image and loyalty, the following chapters will examine each destination branding component's effectiveness, including DID, DAT and DS. The relevant effect each component has on the other will also be explained. The review of pertinent literature starts in **Chapter 2**. This Chapter

introduces HTM and its essential role in sustaining economic development and heritage conservation. It includes a brief review of the heritage management plan, heritage and the relationship between heritage and identity in heritage tourism, concerning the value of heritage, the distinctiveness of WHS in HTM, and the need to include residents and tourists in HTM of China, which had some issues and conflicts between heritage and tourism.

Consistent with the objectives, **Chapter 3** introduces brand and brand theory, the need to enhance DI and DL, and the need to include DS, DAT and DID in destination branding. This study intends to establish a novel conceptual framework to fill the research gap. This chapter dedicated a section to social identity theory, based on which this study will include DID in destination branding to increase the effectiveness of the WHS brand. This study aims to find a strategy to improve the image and loyalty of a heritage site to thrive in heritage tourism, so this chapter includes a section on the need to combine residents and tourists in destination branding.

Chapter 4 presents the conceptual framework with internal and external branding combined with WHS branding. This study needs to deploy brand and branding theory due to the lack of literature on destination branding in heritage tourism. This chapter starts with a brief review of brand attributes and traits to understand building and protecting its reputation. This chapter further introduces internal branding in destination branding. After explaining the hypothesis development, this chapter demonstrates the proposed conceptual framework, including the evaluations of each component, such as DI, DL, DID, DAT and DS.

Chapter 5 discusses the research methodology. This chapter starts with philosophical position, research approach, and research strategy, followed by research methods, addressing the need for a quantitative investigation; the reason for the structural equation modelling technique and a case study method are deployed in this study are also included. Following this, the research procedure in this study is introduced, including questionnaire survey and measurement scales, validity and reliability, and the issues related to data collection. The last section in this chapter focuses on the research population and sampling, including sampling frame, size, and data analysis for the questionnaire survey. Such led to a pre-analysis process model for this research. Following this, **Chapter 6** discourses data analysis. It consists of the data analysis of WHS HAG and LG in Suzhou, China. Whether the WHS brand's effectiveness was enhanced through the WHS branding is discussed in the sections on measurement model test, SEM and testing of hypotheses.

Chapter 7 discusses this research's findings in response to this study's aims and objectives. It highlights the impacts of internal branding in enhancing the image and loyalty of the WHS. The relationship between the constructs of the conceptual framework, DID, DS, DAT, DI, and DL, are evaluated based on the data analysis findings. Additionally, the role of DID in WHS branding and the mediating role of DAT and DS are explained in this chapter.

Chapter 8 concludes this study. This chapter discloses the contribution of this study to destination branding theory and heritage tourism and the benefit of the established novel conceptual framework, in which DID, DAT, and DS are deployed

to predict DI and DL. The chapter shed light on how the dimensions of DID were identified, and the challenges of involving residents in WHS branding to achieve the aim of enhancing WHS DI and DL. Additionally, the objective of exploring the role of WHS branding on DID is explained. Following this, the theoretical and practical implications in line with the findings of this research are clarified. Such leads to limitations of this study and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Heritage Tourism Management

2.1 Introduction

Garrod and Fyall (2001) argued that when the tourism activity involves the character of heritage, it is heritage tourism. Given the nature of heritage tourism in exploring the past tangible and intangible heritage, previous scholar Park (2013) identified that heritage is not simply an unchanged product from the past. When heritage is requested to fit into tourism development, it often goes through reconstruction or reinterpretation. The aim is to satisfy the targeted tourists, which echoes the modern world's social and cultural transformation. Such phenomena revealed that it is complicated to associate heritage with tourism.

However, the outstanding quality of heritage makes it unique in HTM. It is vital to comprehend the conflicting matters of heritage in HTM, which concerns the past meaning and the purpose of developing heritage tourism. Furthermore, heritage tourism focuses on the inspirations and insights of heritage, which attract visitors to participate in tourism instead of merely presenting site traits and detailed artefacts. Therefore, managing heritage as a resource to develop tourism evolves within political, economic, and social-cultural settings (Park, 2013).

Moreover, the unique heritage in heritage tourism is often marketed as “a visitor attraction” (Henderson, 2007a,P:36) from the demand side to generate economic benefit (Timothy and Nyaupane, 2009). Tourism from the supply side is the driving force for preservation (Adams, 2010). Such a phenomenon resulted in a convergence between tourism and heritage activities (Apostolakis, 2003).

Therefore, heritage tourism involves the relationship between supply and demand. However, it is “not so much the attributes themselves, but the perceptions of them which is critical” (Poria et al., 2003, P:249). The discussion above implies HTM unquestionably concerns heritage and tourism. How to manage them is complicated.

Furthermore, the meanings incorporated in heritage contain the prospects, extending from cultural, historical implications and political inferences to intellectual associations. Heritage as a resource in heritage tourism requests effective management and conservation as the meanings of heritage diverge over time in a different context. It is because tourism has been notoriously considered to be a threat to heritage.

Nevertheless, heritage is a social and cultural repetition that desires constant re-evaluation and re-positioning to suit the social needs in practice. Besides, heritage and tourism cannot be homogenous. They tend to be involved in continuous conciliation, either globally or locally. Such a process arguably demands effective HTM (Park, 2013). To pursue managing heritage tourism, this study will first shed light on the heritage management plan.

2.2 Brief Review of Heritage Management Plan

Although every nation has its heritage, by 2018, only around 160 countries had approved WHS. The fundamental difference between a WHS and a national heritage site is that the former was entitled to outstanding universal value, which requires superior protection. The unique character of WHS turned the international

community into both an intellectual and a stakeholder. However, managing WHS is a question without a fixed answer, which can be clarified from the following cases of renowned WHS Bath and Edinburgh. Bath was inscribed in WHSL in 1987 and the Old and New Towns of Edinburgh in 1995. However, the management plans were only published in 2003 and 2005.

While the management guidelines for WHS were issued, they were not considered a universal template for holistic heritage management due to the complexity of each site. The UNESCO guidelines were revised in February 2005 to simplify them by extending several crucial concepts and topics, focusing on preserving the authenticity and integrity of the WHS. It highlighted that the distinctive character of the WHS should be conserved or enhanced in the future. How to achieve that depends upon both directly or by association. However, no thorough guidance in terms of scope and content was provided (Rodwell, 2006).

The management plan for WHS Bath included considering relative site responsibilities from national, local government, and non-governmental organisations and incorporating representatives from amenity societies, residents, and businesses. By 2004, the plan was implemented, and the stakeholders were expanded to embrace community, education, environmental, housing, public transport, tourism, and the police. However, the Old and New Towns of Edinburgh only comprised stakeholders from the local and national governments. Both management plans adopted an inclusive approach, containing the built heritage, the natural environment, and the intangible associations and traditions. Despite the

difference between the two management plans, the intention was to have sustainability between conservation and development (Rodwell, 2006).

However, the management gets more complicated when heritage involves tourism to generate the conservation fund or develop tourism. The funding problem can be resolved if heritage tourism, as a source of sustainable regional development, is established to be profitable. However, developing and marketing tourist destinations often comes with human costs, which involve changing residents' social history and their inhabitation of the place. The questions related to such concerns mostly were left unanswered. As a result, additional research is needed to respond to the long-term impacts of heritage tourism on emerging tourism destinations (Ringer, 1996).

2.3 Defining Heritage in HTM

Many people imprecisely associate heritage with history. Such is the copy in an imbalanced accurate version. Heritage existed in our past, associated with language, culture, identity and locality, which were assumed with some degree of importance (Timothy and Boyd, 2003). Heritage can be defined as “commonly seen as embracing both the material or tangible-natural landscapes and the settlements, building monuments and the like of the built environment - the intangible” (Graham and Howard, 2008,P:2).

Nevertheless, in UNESCO's criteria for WHS, the intangible heritage is thought to be an outstanding cultural heritage that affords people a sense of identity and continuity (Graham and Howard, 2008). Heritage is deemed fundamentally crucial

in linking the interests of modern culture and ancient sites, replicating the critical significance of identity. Therefore, as one attribute that differentiates one place from another, heritage enables specific contributions to the identity and identification of individuals and groups within the area (Graham et al., 2016).

Such a multifaceted, complex notion transformed heritage into an essential tool in classifying national identity (Graham and Howard, 2008) and cultural identity (Henderson, 2002). Given the hegemonic agenda and the connection between heritage and identity, a relationship occurs when involving tourism. Such interconnection noticeably involves heritage tourism in the subject of politics. As a result, the value of heritage attraction should be fully appreciated within a broader framework that integrates the destination's political, economic, and social attributes (Henderson, 2002).

2.3.1 Heritage versus Identity in HTM

Previous researchers associated identity with the sense of belonging. Such is essential to politics, debated within a global frame. However, heritage is more suited to be contested on a national scale. Moreover, previous scholars urged the research on heritage to avoid focusing on the past heritage. Instead, it is more required by the present to examine the meanings associated with the intangible history of heritage through consumption (Ashworth et al., 2007, Graham and Howard, 2008).

Graham and Howard (2008, P:2) further pointed out “meanings are marked out by identity and are produced and exchanged through social interaction in various

media". Hence, how people observe and behave is manipulated by interpreting the past intangible heritage, offering assistance in shaping the regulation and rules by the foremost politics. Therefore, heritage can be interpreted to influence the present and be managed to solve social conflict (Graham and Howard, 2008).

Heritage incorporates the tangible physical form and the intangible meaning. It is questioned that the critical content of heritage is moulded by meaning, which is mirrored by the recognised identity. Despite being attached to the values and moralities, identity links the visitors to the tangible heritage site. However, these meanings can be easily altered in different social settings, where perceptions of rules are changed.

Nevertheless, the shared understanding of the past can be meaningful in defining communities. The sense of inclusion and exclusion can be expressed by identity through valued membership. While the other can recognise self-identity, the exclusion is likely due to plausible distrust. Therefore, creating identities involves the interpreted meaning of the past attached to heritage, which can be implemented via social and economic benefits (Douglas, 1997, Graham and Howard, 2008). Therefore, it is critical to pay attention to the meaning of identity in internal branding, which targets the regional or residents, while external branding aims at tourists.

2.4 The Critical Role of HTM

When tourism takes advantage of what we have inherited, including historic structures, artefacts, and beautiful scenery, it is considered heritage tourism (Yale,

1991). Previous scholars often complained about the lack of management awareness of sustainable heritage tourism development, which utilises the financial gain in conserving the heritage (McKercher, 1993, Hunter, 1997, Fyall and Garrod, 1998).

However, the ultimate difference, which separates heritage tourism from general tourism, is heritage management instituted in heritage tourism. In other words, HTM must combine tourism development with the mission of heritage preservation. Nevertheless, many heritage managers do not intend to associate heritage management with financial gain resulting from tourism (Croft 1994). Consequently, their lack of attention to economic management can cost a high in repairing heritage when government funding becomes limited (Garrod and Fyall, 2000).

It is vital to have heritage conservation maintained through the financial profit of heritage tourism. Thus, several elements must be paid attention to in HTM. Apart from conservation and economic expansion, they include education, relevance, recreation, local community, and quality. Most importantly, visitors need to understand the significance of heritage conservation via education. Furthermore, the notion of conservation should be associated with residents and tourists.

When heritage management involves the local community, it will give the residents a sense of place and pride. Through education, residents and tourists can better perceive the inner connection between them and their heritage. It is necessary to provide recreation for them to enjoy spending time at the heritage site. At the same time, harmony can be formed between the tourists and the local community.

Nevertheless, to attract returning tourists to gain profit, it is vital to provide quality facilities to enhance the image of the heritage site (Garrod and Fyall, 2000).

Heritage managers are often discreet in taking advantage of natural resources to yield economic benefit. This possibility could leave conservation funds in shortage once a public fund is cut. As a result, the repairing work will be affected, leading to the physical decline of the heritage. Understanding the importance of heritage in generating successful profit to preserve the heritage is vital. It is argued that heritage managers are often reluctant to accept the idea of having wider groups of visitors.

The cost of admission price can be deployed to prevent potential visitors from experiencing the heritage site (Leask and Goulding, 1996). Nevertheless, it is critical to have an acceptable admission price. It needs to have a crucial strategy in having enough tourists to sustain the heritage tourism development and preservation. In other words, effective admission pricing can help managers accomplish the number of visitors. Such can create funds for better preserving heritage value to become more self-reliant (Garrod and Fyall, 2000).

2.4.1 WHS in HTM

Millar (1989a) argued that heritage tourism is not just any industry. It includes the irreplaceable heritage, incorporating a paradox between 'preservers' and 'users' (Cochrane and Tapper, 2006). Specifically, heritage as part of cultural tradition needs to be passed down by generations (Li, 2003, Cochrane and Tapper, 2006). Alternatively, heritage is being developed as a prime economic commodity in

tourism (Graham et al., 2016, Nasser, 2003). However, to enable sustainability, heritage site requires HTM, guaranteeing heritage resources are preserved, and their appearance to the public presented (Glasson et al., 1995, McArthur and Hall, 1993, Hall and McArthur, 1996, Alazaizeh et al., 2016).

Heritage tourism has been deployed to promote WHS and the destination's communal distinctiveness to international markets (Butler et al., 2014). As a result of globalisation (Herbert, 1995), heritage tourism has been fierce competition among nations and regions for heritage tourists (Balakrishnan, 2009a). To avoid the loss of tourists to competitors, destination marketers must consider creating loyalty and a unique image in destination branding (Balakrishnan, 2009a). Such requires an effective destination brand. However, regarding the destination brand in WHS, one concern is whether it is a brand.

Scholars indicate that WHSD acts as an effective, economical tool in heritage tourism to attract tourists (Timothy and Boyd, 2003) and sustain targeted economic growth from visitation (Hall, 2006). Furthermore, the endurance of its outstanding quality is requested in line with the WHSD. This exceptional quality enabled WHSD to become “a coveted brand and seal of approval” (Ryan and Silvano, 2009a,P:291). Scholars indicate WHS's designated position is a brand name (Timothy and Boyd, 2006, Ryan and Silvano, 2009a, Ryan and Silvano, 2010). It can deploy the brand value to attract tourists to the destination (Poria et al., 2011).

WHSD is associated with “the name UNESCO and its logo” (Poria et al., 2011, P:482) is in congruence with the brand definition by Kotler et al. (1991) (Ryan and

Silvanto, 2009a, Ryan and Silvanto, 2009b). In other words, the WHS brand fits into the meaning of the brand. Thus, it can be used to distinguish the product or service from its competitors by its unique names, terms, symbols, and designs (Kotler et al., 1991). However, the effectiveness of the WHS brand is still in doubt as most previous heritage tourism researchers merely focused on external branding. Therefore, the proposal of combining tourists included external branding and residents incorporated internal branding needs to be investigated to enhance WHS brand effectiveness.

2.4.2 The Need to Include Residents and Tourists in HTM

Balakrishnan (2009a) states that a destination must combine brand components to increase tourist visitation and create loyalty. Such a destination branding process is vital to improve the destination brand's effectiveness. However, the WHS brand is less effective in brand strength (Poria et al., 2011). How to tackle the less effectiveness of the WHS brand depends on whether the brand bears a unique and positive image in the targeted customers' minds. Given the branding process is viewed as a means to form a strong brand (Vallaster, 2004), it needs to choose combinations of brand components, attract customers, and help them in decision-making (Kotler and Gertner, 2002, Ryan and Silvanto, 2009a).

Nevertheless, it is essential to create loyalty (Balakrishnan, 2009a). This study combines internal and external branding to include residents and tourists in WHS branding to achieve the above. Although most research in heritage tourism only incorporated tourists, residents are regarded as destination ambassadors. They are the direct recipient of tourism development's positive/negative impacts. They

are inevitably involved in creating the tourists' experience (Sharpley, 2014, Palmer et al., 2013, Zenker et al., 2017).

Furthermore, Kerala's successful case proved that incorporating residents in the region's tourism development (internal branding) is vital. Understanding the internal stakeholders' hopes, fears, concerns, and aspirations is crucial for regional tourism (Vasudevan, 2008). Additionally, in-service industry, internal branding is "built on the premise of service orientation, where service employees represent the brand qualities at the time of customer interaction" (Itam and Singh, 2017,P:673). When employees directly engage with external clients and internal customers (Chun and Davies, 2006), such behaviour from the "internal customer" is "on-brand" behaviour (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2017).

Moreover, Choo et al. (2011) applied the brand theory to destination branding. They contended that when tourists interact with employees and the residents ("on-brand"), internal branding can help tourism employees and residents improve their brand visions. Based on the above, Choo et al. (2011) suggest that the future heritage tourism study should incorporate residents and tourists to avoid disadvantages. It could be caused by a less effective brand strategy targeted at only one audience (Zenker et al., 2017). Therefore, in terms of enhancing the effectiveness of the WHS brand in HTM, it is critical to involve residents and tourists in HTM.

2.5 HTM in China

As one of the world's most culturally appealing countries, China has drawn many visitors to its great heritage sites, such as Beijing's Forbidden City and the Great Wall, Xian's Terracotta Army, Hangzhou's West Lake, and Suzhou's Classic Gardens. Despite heritage management being established in the Western country during the 1980s, China, as a developing nation, only started to pay great attention to HTM around the 1990s. As a result, China's cultural and natural heritage management policy has become a worldwide hotspot for Accademia.

People become familiar with cultural and natural heritage through discovery, history, science, and authentic values, measured by managerial technique. In addition, heritage management was supported by the government and relevant charity funds. Therefore, traditional heritage management did not involve a complicated system. However, since the 1980s, heritage value has been expanded into social, economic, and political ranges due to the increasingly listed types and numbers of heritage. Therefore, the new consuming demand from the heritage perspective engendered a new heritage economy. Nevertheless, the government cannot afford to provide the fund independently to sustain the heritage. Under such a circumstance, managing heritage is no longer a merely culture-involved affair. Instead, it was practised in line with economic, social, and political entities (Xu Song Ling, 2005).

Scholars suggest a relevant system must be built when involving irreplaceable heritage. However, effective heritage management is unlikely feasible without any challenges. Given that the heritage management system in developed countries is often non-profitable within a market economy, HTM in China is comparatively more

complicated. It is due to China's economic system, which was previously based on ration instead of market-oriented. Therefore, HTM in China must first transform into a market economy. Inevitably, this will not be easy as it needs to incorporate Chinese culture, natural heritage and social-economic perspectives (Xu Song Ling, 2005).

Nevertheless, apart from international tourists, the domestic trend of going to China's WHS is soaring. However, managing the equilibrium between monetary gain and conservation damage has proved to be a big challenge in China. The developed nation started to research HTM much earlier. China's earlier enlisted WHS, such as Mountain Huang and Pingyao Ancient Town, were only beginning HTM experiments (Wu Bi Hu et al., 2002).

However, with more research focusing on China's heritage tourism, the management's problems are unfolding. WHS Gulangyu in Xia Men China is a typical example that can explain China's struggle in HTM. The historic town of Gulangyu, is located on an island facing the city of Xia Men. It was enlisted in WHL in 2017. The attraction of the heritage site was so popular that there could be over 100,000 visitors per day at peak times.

However, the capacity of visitors was controlled at 35,000 under the conservation and management plan. The aim was to oversee commercial activities. As a result, the residents, whose livelihood depended upon heritage tourism, suffered financial loss. Some would end up moving away when they could not afford the cost in line with their decreased income. The case of WHS Gulangyu revealed the dilemma in

China's HTM, which struggled to identify the balance between heritage tourism economic gain and preserving the heritage site and its local culture.

Nevertheless, China's growing economy prompted more Chinese tourists to visit the WHS. In 2018, China's population rose to 1.415 billion. Scholars pointed out that the ratio between WHS numbers in a region or a nation and its population affects the extent of pressure on preservation. The more people, the harder to protect the WHS. China's WHS averagely takes 45 million people compared to other countries with listed WHS. Therefore, the pressure ratio is much higher than in other WHS nations. In other words, there is more pressure when preserving WHS in China (Wu Bi Hu et al., 2002).

Furthermore, the leading heritage tourists in China are from the urban city area. There are proximately 41 medium cities located around per WHS in China. The average distance between China's WHS and its surrounding city is 326.2 km, and the urban population is 29.11 million. These figures revealed that China's WHS in either the range of a whole country or a region faces higher population pressure. Moreover, the distance between the two closest China's WHS is 220.1km. Such exposes the high-density distribution of China's WHS, primarily near Beijing, the middle bottom of the Yellow River Yangtze River, and the southwest part of China. The spatial division of China's WHS brought more convenience and choices for tourists, which suggests a high demand for visiting WHS in China (Wu Bi Hu et al., 2002).

The above evidence suggests that China's HTM faces more challenges than developed countries. Furthermore, the burden from the growing visiting population is also added to the management struggle. Therefore, HTM in China needs to cope with the distribution and spatial division of the WHS, the regional cities' economic development, the increasing demand for visitation (Wu Bi Hu et al., 2002), and the ultimate demand for preserving the source of regional economic development. Such a complexity involves different identities, including the national, the regional, the global, the local, the tourists, and the residents. Integrating them to accommodate the community's interests, business, political, and public sectors appear vital in HTM in China.

2.5.1. Identity in HTM in China

Individual stakeholders often seem reluctant to participate in any tourism activities, which might be contributed to their disagreement over roles, functions, or funding (Jenkins and Dredge, 2000). However, heritage tourism has "a critical socio-political function and is involved in issues of identity, legitimisation and power structures" (Su and Wall, 2015, P:592). Distinguishing the difference between two contrasting perspectives is associated with identity, which can be utilised to diminish the significant incongruity by finding an alternative substitute (Weaver, 2014). Therefore, tourism organisations often take advantage of destination identity to attract tourists and expand market share from global and local scales, national and regional levels. The above purpose leads to a collective image and a competitive complexity (Dredge and Jenkins, 2003).

Given that all identities are associated with other groups, the local identity can be constructed within the realm of tourism (Tuulentie, 2006). However, tourism scholars often consider the residents of tourism as a passive subject. They also assume the cause of a decline in pre-existing local identities is tourism (Mowforth and Munt, 1998). Despite the subjective connotations and authenticities constructed by the tourists and the residents (Morgan and Pritchard, 1998), their identity boundaries have blurred (Desforges, 2000). Previous scholars argued that the relationship between tourists and residents could be viewed more as reciprocal (Abram, 1996, Tuulentie, 2006). Therefore, such a local identity significantly affects local responses at different scales.

Heritage is a source for attracting tourists. It is also a tool for articulating people's identity and functions in social and political progressions. The uniqueness of heritage becomes the characteristic of heritage tourism (Henderson, 2002), which undoubtedly has a role in promoting the nation (Palmer, 1998). In addition, it can capture and articulate national identity (yu Park, 2010, Balmer and Chen, 2016, Henderson, 2002).

Furthermore, the power of national identity can be investigated from the internal and external functions of individuals and groups. The former refers to individuals in communities, while the latter refers to territorial, economic and political (Smith, 1991). Therefore, the identity of a nation in heritage tourism integrates the past, the present, and the future, which often helps individuals and groups to define and strengthen a feeling of community and belongings (Palmer, 1998, Smith, 1991, Henderson, 2002).

Compared to other nations, China's cultural heritage has three distinctive characteristics: continued ancient Chinese civilisation, Chinese cultural influences, and extended contemporary Chinese culture. Previous scholars claimed heritage is the most incredible resource of culture due to its history in the past. However, modern civilisation is equally vital regardless of the past of the heritage in China. Therefore, Chinese scholars stated that China's heritage is regarded as a symbol, representing each Chinese dynasty's intelligence (Xu Song Ling, 2005). Thus, China's HTM often deploys a particular way to communicate using national heritage attractions. It can act as a mediator due to its intrinsic uniqueness of identity (Henderson, 2002).

Furthermore, this identity empowers people to perceive, visualise and collect their sense of belongings to the nation (Palmer, 2005, Yu Park, 2010). The case of WHS Chende was positioned to demonstrate how China's national identity is being integrated into China's HTM. Apart from the spatial establishment of the WHS to attract visitors, it is entwined with cultural heritage and national identity by incorporating imperial patronage of Tibetan Buddhism, Genghis Khan's confederacy's triumphs, and the Qing Dynasty's subsequent ruler in the various sets of WHS Chengde. It revealed that the HTM had incorporated identities at the WHS to develop heritage tourism, promoting China's national identity internationally through historical significance (Hevia, 2001).

2.5.2. The Cultural Element in HTM in China

The previous scholar argued that culture involves product creativity in the generation (Throsby, 2001). Domestic tourism mainly features around the

traditions throughout China's long history, involving travel and heritage sites shaped over 4000 years. Such a phenomenon has since been ingrained in the Chinese spirit. From the start of the Shang dynasty (ca 1350 – 1050 BC) to the end of the Qing dynasty, the Declaration of a Republic of China in 1912, the ancestral worship resided in mountains, rivers, and other natural features. Over centuries, such sites were increased, and more were built following the establishment of Buddhism. Thus, the dominant travel pilgrimage in ancient China was primarily for the beliefs of the god-kings (Sofield and Li, 1996). Until ca 660 BC, the emerging Confucianism formed the core Chinese tradition. The Confucian ethic adopted the Mandarins to pursue the fundamental authenticity of the landscapes (Petersen, 1995, Sofield and Li, 1998).

Furthermore, during those ancient periods in China, famous poets and artists were inspired by the landscapes through their travel to create renowned poetry, paintings, and calligraphy. Such a Chinese culture associated with those historical sites had extraordinary impacts on generations of the Chinese from ancient times until today. Those who have never witnessed the actual location would be spiritually empowered merely by reading those poems and artefacts entrenched with philosophical ideals.

Nevertheless, since tourism was considered influential in empowering China's economy after 1978, it inevitably incorporated heritage, such as those historically built sites (Sofield and Li, 1998). Alternatively, the substantial part of the heritage in Chinese culture was for the visual purpose and representing Chinese culture in that history, contributing to the built environment with its unique cultural identity

(Zhao, 2017). Therefore, Zhao (2017) proposed integrating heritage and culture in China's HTM.

Despite economic development being only part of the practices, the culture needed to be incorporated as a crucial element. It is because both are intertwined and mutually inclusive, along with environmental conservation in humanity's development (Hoff, 1998, Wai-Yin and Shu-Yun, 2004). However, cultural evolution is often overlooked when economic growth has priority. Furthermore, in developing countries such as China, cultural concerns are often neglected due to its improvement's long-term progression. At the same time, economic achievement can be noticed at a minimal cost within less timeframe (Wai-Yin and Shu-Yun, 2004).

The rapid economic growth and the less attention on the cultural aspect in HTM brought a challenge to heritage conservation. For instance, Beijing's ancient heritage of siheyuan and hutong was almost wiped out. The townscape of WHS Chengde was artificially damaged by adding modern buildings, and the WHS Temple of Confucius in Qufu Shangdong was destroyed during the clean-up (Wai-Yin and Shu-Yun, 2004). Regardless of the ever-increasing economic profit generated from heritage tourism, the loss or damage of the irreplaceable cultural heritage implies that cultural development is indispensable in HTM in China.

2.5.3 Heritage Tourism Policy and Practices in HTM in China

The notion of universality is one of the primary challenges to the concept of WHS with universal heritage value. UNESCO's 1972 Convention Concerning the

Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage adopted a set of Euro-American ideas of tangible cultural heritage, involving creating universal preservation practices and consent in community life on local and national agendas. Nevertheless, the case of China is quite different from the modes under Western circumstances (Evans and Rowlands, 2014).

China boasts a long tourism history as one of the most ancient countries. Culture, tradition, and pilgrimage were themed from 2000 BC to 1900 AD. However, due to social disturbances, traditional cultural activities were at a standstill during the 20th century. Following the “open door” policies in 1978, tourism started to recover its glory by contributing to China’s modernisation. Moreover, the varied objectives amongst the forces of socialism, modernisation, globalisation and traditional culture showed conflict during the prioritised economic development by 2000. Hence the ultimate issues occurred in line with politically driven power goals, preserving the cultural heritage, protecting the environment, and developing the tourism economy (Sofield and Li, 1998).

Nevertheless, heritage has been adopted in China to transform localities’ social, economic, and cultural lives and reform China’s national identity domestically and globally. However, the political, economic, and commercial gain is often overpowered when heritage is linked with competition, conflict, and new power hierarchies. Such often involve government policies and local communities.

However, countries such as Singapore, Israel, and other East European countries adopted the politicisation of the nation’s heritage. Following these examples, China

tried to redefine its culture to serve the national ends by reinforcing the national identity, which was encouraged by the government to accelerate its economy. Nevertheless, the Chinese situation absorbed some external economic and market forces. Scholars focused on cultural policy and tourism in China pointed out that the domestic rules are much stronger than external ones. Such alternatively serve to shape and form the cultural tourism product of China. In addition, it continued to be obstructed by the internal political, social and cultural movements to develop China's tourism development policy (Sofield and Li, 1998). Therefore, China's heritage tourism policy and practice are inevitably vastly dominated by political and developmental influences (Evans and Rowlands, 2014).

2.5.4 The Involvement of Residents in China's HTM

Heritage tourism often involves experiencing another culture by visiting the historical site, participating in community festivals and ceremonies, or seeing the local artefacts. Apart from bringing cultural benefits to the tourists, this tourism also assists residents in sharing their culture. Furthermore, acting as the cultural host enables residents to feel a strong sense of community pride in their ethnic identity, providing more tolerance to the tourists (Driver et al., 1991, Besculides et al., 2002). Therefore, the Western model of HTM often includes residents. The reason is that they consider tourism as a means of providing jobs and helping them share and preserve their culture. In such a way, the cultural heritage might survive tourism development.

However, the Western context often considered residents' involvement a precondition for obtaining the benefit. Comparatively, developing countries such

as China often adopt a top-down, passive approach to tourism development without direct community participation (Li, 2006). Nevertheless, involving residents in heritage tourism development is vibrant to maximise the benefit of long-term sustainability. In addition, residents should have information on the development process and the level of involvement. Furthermore, the impact on the community lives of the residents, mirrored by a combination of the local knowledge, experience, and understanding of tourism development, enables a higher acceptance of tourists from the residents (Timothy and Tosun, 2003, Aas et al., 2005).

Nevertheless, previous scholar Simpson (2008) pointed out that residents' involvement in decision-making does not necessarily guarantee the benefit of tourism development. Some internal conflicts might occur due to residents' participation, which would become setbacks in creating services. Additionally, China's unusual feature determines how much involvement the residents can be considered in HTM decision-making. China's economic, social-cultural, and political conditions and property rights are different from those in other countries. In China, the land and natural resources are usually owned by the state or the collective, which may be the main reason that discourages the residents' participation in China's HTM process (Li, 2006).

2.5.5 Combining Tourists and Residents in China's HTM

Although tourists and residents share many WHS, most research on China's WHS ignored the residents' perspective (Li et al., 2008, Su and Wall, 2015). Nevertheless, it is vital to understand the tourists' motivations, preferences, and experiences. Doing so could help HTM plan in line with tourism products, services,

and facilities. As one of the most critical stakeholders, the residents are part of the WHS setting. Based on their knowledge of the local heritage surroundings, on the other hand, residents are more well-intentioned heritage users in terms of the meaning of education and authenticity. Tourists are unavoidable as guests to meet and socialise with the host. The interaction between the tourist and the resident forms part of the heritage tourism experience, influencing their attitudes and behaviours (Su and Wall, 2015, Aas et al., 2005, Ashworth, 2009).

Residents and tourists are the shared users of the WHS in HTM. However, the previous study revealed they do not follow the same temporal and spatial use patterns. Likewise, they appeared to have different perceptions regarding the heritage value and the level of access to the heritage resources (Oh et al., 2010). However, these matters are critical in heritage protection, part of HTM. For this reason, it is vital to incorporate both tourists and residents in heritage tourism development. However, most research studies on China's HTM lack investigation from tourists' and residents' perspectives. Zuo and Bao (2008) called for more future research in China's heritage tourism context. Such will be beneficial in integrating the theories and empirical cases into fitting China's WHS (Su and Wall, 2015). Therefore, this study fills this gap by combining tourists and residents in China's heritage tourism development in response to such a demand.

2.6 Brief Review on Impacts of HTM on China

2.6.1 Tourism Development Impacts in China

Tourism is an instrument for creating business activity for financial gains and providing employment opportunities in a region or country. However, the

developing process is often prolonged and involves inevitable costs, which must be recognised regardless of unforeseen factors. Tourism strategies often result in social changes and impacts which should not challenge the community, such as demeaning its traditions or creating stress for the community. Without any doubt, such problems can cause adverse effects (Walle, 2011).

In addition, it is often proved to be less effective when a tourism organisation deploys the strategy of “promotion” based on tourists' perspectives without considering the community (Walle, 2011). Heritage tourism is expected to be the fastest-growing kind of tourism in developing countries under the urge to reduce poverty and create a community economy (Timothy and Nyaupane, 2009). In the past 30 years, tourism development in China has transformed this nation into the fourth most visited land on earth. This fast growth of the tourism industry in China has brought mixed impacts on its economy, society, culture, environment, and national identity. Such a country under the government of the communist party set itself far from any other developed Western nations.

However, it is also different from other communist countries in the world. China underwent a dual transformation from progressive modernisation, including a centrally planned economy, to a more market-oriented economy with Chinese characteristics. Secondly, from a traditional agricultural to modern industrial society. During such changes, China increased its tourism status to a pillar industry acknowledged by its government as of prime importance. While emerging as the world's economically fast-growing nation, China faced environmental pollution, an obstacle to sustainable tourism development (Sofield and Li, 2011).

Furthermore, different regional economies in China vary from extreme poverty to relative prosperity. For example, China's rural folks struggle on the margins of subsistence. At the same time, Shanghai, Beijing, and Guangdong enjoy a modern economic system. A previous study considered it more complicated when China transformed from bureaucratic socialism to a market economy and rural to an urban one. With such a Chinese characteristic, the process of economic development left China today an identity with mixed complexity, which involves part of the traditional, the socialist, the modern, and the market (Naughton, 2007). Nevertheless, China's tourism policy, planning, and development are designed and transformed from socialism to a market-oriented economy. As a result of such, fast-growing tourism development is emerging.

However, China's tourism planning traditionally deployed its Chinese style of top-down policymaking associated with intense government domination and limited involvement from other stakeholders. Previous scholars further added a devolution of power from the central government of Beijing to the regional government. The latter would result in policymaking being formulated by various values and interests. Nevertheless, the central authorities are likely to alter and develop modified planning (Sofield and Li, 2011).

2.6.2 Issues in HTM in China

Tourism has been contributing considerably to China's rising economy. WHS has been the dominant contributor to lifting poverty in some less developed areas (Wei, 2005). The unique character of China's WHS under the complicated Chinese circumstances attracted various researchers to investigate the problems stemming

from the conflict between economic development and conservation (Wang and Bramwell, 2012, Li et al., 2008, Guo and Sun, 2016). According to the previous research on heritage tourism in China (Du Cros et al., 2005, Baraldi and Zan, 2013, Leung, 2001, Chan and Ma, 2004, Li and Shao, 2005, Guo and Sun, 2016, Sofield and Li, 1998, Partin et al., 2006, Wall, 2014b, Su and Wall, 2014, Su et al., 2016, Su and Wall, 2015, Chen et al., 2012), the problems from China's WHS mainly include:

- The conflict between commercialisation and authenticity
- Lack of a long-term coordinated vision and associated set of policies from the public sector
- Extreme congestion on public holidays
- Human damage, such as littering, touching of exhibits, and malicious vandalism
- Low quality of the tourism facilities and services
- Short of a conservation fund
- Lack of cooperation between stakeholders
- Little involvement of residents
- Lacking professional knowledge in cultural protection
- Increasing local prices drove residents out of the community
- No funds to improve public facilities
- The conflict between cultural heritage authorities and tourism operators

Furthermore, scholars focusing on China's WHS HTM, such as Dong (2011a), pinpointed the conflict between conservation and WHS development and the struggle between preserving heritage and enhancing the residents' living

standards. The fight for individual benefit is aroused by different stakeholders' interests (Dong, 2011a). Yan (2017) argued that heritage tourism in China is often determined by the state of China's government and local authorities to carry out the heritage site's development plan. However, different stakeholders are unlikely to reach an agreement. As a result, there might be potential conflicts regarding their expected benefits.

2.6.3 The Conflicts between Heritage and Tourism in HTM in China

Previous scholars argued that tourism and cultural heritage management could not be compatible. A negative relationship might be caused by the management's attitude toward sharing the resources. Additionally, the intangible cultural heritage can be utilised to prevent the local history, culture and religion from being reformed (McKercher et al., 2005). Therefore, there is some conflict between heritage and tourism when the latter is deployed as a facilitator to take advantage of the former for economic development (Zhang et al., 2015). Based on the above, Zhang et al. (2015) suggested the following conflicts existed between heritage and tourism:

- Resource/Use
- Commercialisation/Authenticity
- Modernity/Tradition
- Interest/Collaboration
- Cultural/Ethnic
- Conceptual/Value
- Human Rights/World Heritage

(McKercher et al., 2005, Zhang et al., 2015)

Given the above factors mentioned in heritage tourism development in other countries, previous scholars argued that heritage as a historic resource could be manipulated to increase economic growth through tourism. On the other hand, merely focusing on the distress triggered by fearing conservation damage under the conflicts between heritage and tourism would overlook heritage resources. As a result, it would diminish the opportunity of tackling regional poverty (Wang and Bramwell, 2012). However, previous scholar White (1993) argued that the system of China has a combination of socialism and capitalism. Therefore, the tension between heritage conservation and tourism development can be mitigated under the political-economic approach. In other words, China's state is positioned to regulate the economic and political system when a heritage-tourism contradiction occurs (Wang and Bramwell, 2012).

Nevertheless, it is feasible that different WHS in China took different approaches depending on the urgency of reducing regional poverty. For instance, WHS West Lake was impacted by Hangzhou's property development. The growth of the city attracted massive numbers of tourists. Such resulted from the city's accelerating tourism development. The local government urged West Lake Management Committee and Hangzhou tourism Committee to issue a draft, protecting the WHS West Lake from the pressure. The case of West Lake proved the central government's importance in balancing heritage conservation and tourism development (Wang and Bramwell, 2012).

However, when the WHS requires urgent repairing or conservation, the relationship between heritage and tourism in China's HTM can be seen as a crisis

depending on how powerful the local authority is. Moreover, conflicts derived from a contradiction between commercialisation and authenticity, modernity, and tradition are typical. Such disputes occurred when the WHS West Lake Leifeng Pagoda underwent conservation. To resume the booming heritage tourism, the local government decided to repair the Pagoda, which was part of a legendary story.

The modernised pagoda, which lacked authenticity by ignoring the residents' involvement (Wang and Bramwell, 2012), is typical in China's HTM. The state stakeholder can be dominant in achieving financial benefit by overlooking the conflicts between heritage protection and tourism development. Furthermore, the added construction in a protected area of the WHS is another typical issue in China's HTM. Such a practice highlighted the conflict derived between commercialisation and authenticity. For instance, the increased urbanisation in Zhangjiajie had an elevator built in Wu Ling Yuan. A cableway was built in WHS Tai Shan Mountain, Le Shan Mountain, and Huangshan Mountain City (Zhang et al., 2015). Such demonstrates the system of HTM in China was designed to focus on individual conservation instead of broad cultural heritage protection (Ruan Yi San and Sun Meng, 2001).

2.7 Conclusion

Given the importance of sustainable development in heritage tourism, there is insufficient evidence in the literature regarding a unified HTM. However, effective management in heritage tourism requires different interpretations to achieve the equilibrium between preserving heritage and economic development. Education

and communication must be essential in building a harmonious relationship between the internal and external stakeholders.

Without safeguarding the outstanding heritage, heritage tourism cannot be sustainable. Moreover, HTM must understand the relevance of heritage to the local community. Excluding the residents from the heritage, a tourism plan will terminate their opportunities to be a pertinent part of their heritage. Furthermore, it is vital to understand heritage in association with identity. Such can enhance the perception of residents involved in internal branding in HTM. Therefore, it is critical to combine internal branding with external branding in HTM.

Given the difficult financial times with less funding, HTM needs to adopt an appropriate admission fee. Such can control the numbers of tourists and create an effective means of generating economic profit for conservation. That strategy will inevitably have an impact on the image of the heritage site. When there is a practical HTM, heritage can be managed to maintain its uniqueness to attract tourists. Despite the less effectiveness of the WHS brand, HTM must incorporate the residents in strategic decision-making, boosting the residents' sense of responsibility in preserving the heritage. Otherwise, narrowly including only external branding will conceivably lead heritage towards the danger of losing its relevance and meanings (Garrod and Fyall, 2000).

As Garrod and Fyall (2000,P:704) explained, “sustainable heritage management will not be achieved by maintaining the status quo”. Effective HTM needs to adapt novel practices. Heritage tourism is deployed to commercialise heritage to

generate an innovative surrounding. Heritage can be interpreted differently according to diverse spectators' demands. Therefore, it is crucial to enhance the heritage site's image constantly. Such is vital when HTM involves cultural, social, economic, and political aspects (Park, 2013).

However, scholars proposed that the management challenges and impacts that HTM is associated with within developing nations are far from the same in developed countries. The differences are primarily interpreted in economics, politics, preservation, cultural life, socio-economic gaps, urbanisation, and governmental engagement (Timothy and Nyaupane, 2009, Timothy and Boyd, 2006).

In heritage tourism in a developing country, such as China, various types of HTM and sustainable development complications exist. They mainly involve the different levels of participation in decision-making, economic benefit-sharing, authorisation and permission. Furthermore, the difficulty also connects with the shortage of funds, required skills, and involuntary relocation in heritage tourism development. Therefore, keeping the heritage preserved is proved to be rather delicate in line with people's morality (Hampton, 2005, Mattsson and Praesto, 2005, Timothy and Boyd, 2006).

Given that heritage is utilised by many countries to develop the economy, alleviate poverty or revitalise the region, China is no exception. However, it is more complicated to manage heritage tourism in China. It concerns issues related to identity, culture and environmental, economic, social, and political impacts.

Nevertheless, the special charismatic features of China, a communist country with thousands of years of civilisation and 55 WHS, made a difference from other Western countries in terms of HTM. Furthermore, China's top-down policy implies that the central government is the dominant power in building national identity. Such is seen as a soft power in China's HTM to generate a political impact globally and nationwide, on the regional and the local.

However, different stakeholders in China's HTM have other interests. Consequentially, conflicts were generated, such as preserving heritage and local culture and developing the economy. Furthermore, China's vast population and the density of the WHS location exposed the contradiction between the rising heritage tourists and the urgent need for conservation sustainability within the WHS region.

Nevertheless, it is vital to identify these problems derived from China's HTM. It will be beneficial to consider producing effective HTM. Branding the heritage site is critical to overtake those conflicts and present residents and tourists with a positive image of the heritage destination. Therefore, the following chapter investigates destination branding in HTM to explore what constructs can be included in the conceptual framework proposed in this study.

Chapter 3: Destination Branding in HTM

3.1 Introduction

Given heritage tourism is associated with tourists' expected visiting experience, varied consumption, scenery, presentation, food, craft, and event arrangements, the supply-side involves local government and private commerce (Chhabra et al., 2003). However, heritage tourism cannot thrive in economic development without tourists or fewer tourists. Therefore, attracting tourists to visit and keep returning relies on an effective destination branding strategy.

Although tourists' return can be explained for various reasons, it is vital to enhance destination loyalty, which requires an effective HTM (Fyall and Garrod, 1998, McKercher and Du Cros, 2002, Poria, 2001, Chhabra et al., 2003). However, as mentioned in the previous chapter, some conflicts existed in China's HTM concerning heritage tourism development. The WHS represents a sign that recapitulates the narrative about the heritage site and ensures the range of economic development options. When finding an approach to the problems of HTM in China, it is critical to brand the WHS to engender an enhanced DI, enabling effective HTM. Therefore, (WHS) destination branding in HTM is regarded as "a strategy that opens up new possibilities for attracting investors and visitors by distilling, capturing and shaping what is distinctive about a place" (Stern and Hall, 2010, P:209).

Destination branding can be defined as "selecting a consistent element mix to identify and distinguish it through positive image building" (Cai, 2002, P:722).

Therefore, destination branding is a strategy to recognise a destination's identification to differentiate itself from its competitors (Qu et al., 2011). In other words, destinations must have their own unique identity to survive the competitive market (Morgan et al., 2003). Such a branding strategy can give the organisation a long-term competitive advantage (Sun and Ghiselli, 2010), achieving its intangible element (Rita et al., 2004).

Furthermore, a well-known brand can boost extra market share through increased brand loyalty and enhanced brand image (Aurand et al., 2005). Nevertheless, previous scholars contended that destination image alone is not destination branding (Cai, 2002). Effective branding requires a unique set of brand associations integrated consistently to unify the entire image formation and building process. Such alternatively contributes to brand identity's strength and uniqueness (David, 1996, Keller et al., 2011, Cai, 2002).

Additionally, previous scholars considered destination branding fundamental in terms of economic transformation. Given the successful branding cases in product markets, tourism practitioners increasingly utilise branding strategies to significantly differentiate the branded destination (Hultman et al., 2015). Therefore, branding has become a passway for stakeholders to transform or even re-construct parts of the heritage site. Thus, the monetary fund can be accomplished (Stern and Hall, 2010).

Developing a solid destination brand has been implemented worldwide as a strategic tool to counter competition from other destinations. Nevertheless, to have

a positive DI and increased DL, the destination brand needs to incorporate a mixture of reliable components (Risanto and Yulianti, 2016). However, no study evaluated the strategy of enhancing DI and DL by incorporating destination identification, satisfaction, and attachment in destination branding. This study aims to fill that gap by obtaining a theoretical concept to combine residents in internal branding and tourists in external branding.

This study will include DID, DAT and DS in the conceptual framework of destination branding to predict DI and DL. Since there is little knowledge in the literature regarding this framework, the following sections aim to identify the issues and factors associated with the dimensions of the five constructs in the conceptual framework. Previous scholars such as Hultman et al. (2015) and Qu et al. (2011) pointed out that destination branding research was conducted on traditional branding literature. Therefore, to deploy the destination branding strategy in HTM, brand and branding theory need to be investigated.

3.2 Brand and Branding Theory

A brand differentiates a product according to the consumer's perception (Bagarić and Žitinić, 2013). The concept of a brand is increasingly available globally. It is also seen as icons of the local culture. Many people often express themselves by selecting a specific brand. Various companies try their hardest to create a distinctive brand image to attract targeted customers (Kim et al., 2001). Consumers can select brands based on their preference for their particular function, symbol, identity, and value (Davvetas and Diamantopoulos, 2016). Therefore, brand management is critical to marketers today (Taylor et al., 2004).

A brand is a name, term, icon, symbol, or mixture of identities to differentiate its competitors' branded product or service (Kotler, 1991, Keller, 1993). However, branding is associated with a marketing process. It adds value derived from using the brand of products and services between the customers and the service providers (Berry, 2000, Cai, 2002). Previous scholars focused on short-term branding performance despite most marketers demanding a long-term value-generated process (Berry, 2000). In this case, brand equity was investigated by various scholars to assess the long-run impact of marketing decisions (Leuthesser, 1988, Simon and Sullivan, 1993).

3.3 The Need to Enhance DL

Brand equity is associated with a product's or service's added worth (Chaudhuri, 1995). Keller (1998,P:45) defined brand equity as "the differential effect that brand knowledge has on consumer response to the marketing of that brand" (Cai, 2002, Chang and Liu, 2009, Berry, 2000). Brand knowledge incorporates two components: brand awareness and brand image. Brand equity is the result of consumer behaviour. Therefore, it is vital to pay attention to brand equity's four critical dimensions: brand association, brand awareness, brand loyalty, and perceived quality (Chang and Liu, 2009). As a result of the great extent of each of the dimensions, higher brand equity can be achieved (Kotler and Armstrong, 1999)

Given the emerging position of brand equity as a business priority and marketing imperative, it is essential to understand and manage the brand associations (Grace and O'cass, 2002), such as product-related & non-product-related attributes, functional & symbolic featured benefits, and attitudes (Keller, 1998). It is vital to

have positive customer-based brand equity, which could increase brand loyalty (Lim and Weaver, 2014) via behavioural loyalty (Palumbo and Herbig, 2000, Yoon and Uysal, 2005)(Li, 2010, Dick and Basu, 1994), and attitudinal loyalty (Dick and Basu,1994).

3.4 The Need to Enhance DI

The Great Brand Theory of Brymer (2003) suggests it is critical to consistently deliver the organisation's promise to customers and increase brand loyalty. Such can pave a vital way to align commitment from both residents and customers. To be able to achieve that, WHS destination branding must incorporate internal branding and external branding. So far, studies on destination branding and studies involved WHS brand in heritage tourism (Catrina, 2016, Balmer and Chen, 2016, Ryan and Silvano, 2014, Chuntao et al., 2014, Cassel and Pashkevich, 2014, Dewar et al., 2012, Adriana, 2012, Leaver and Schmidt, 2011, Ryan and Silvano, 2010, King and Prideaux, 2010, Connell and Rugendyke, 2010, Ryan and Silvano, 2009a, Hawkins, 2004), have paid little attention to the combination of branding method in enhancing the effectiveness of WHS brand. This study intends to fill the gap to establish a conceptual framework of destination branding by deploying DID, DAT, and DS to predict DI and DL.

However, there is a difference between branding a product and a destination (Anholt, 2004, Kemp et al., 2012). The former is more related to brand associations, consisting of brand reputation and image (Foroudi et al., 2016b), whilst a destination must consistently present the tourists with a distinctive DI to reinforce brand strategy (Balakrishnan, 2009a). In destination branding, DI often includes

the cognitive, affective, and overall image and conative image (Lim and Weaver, 2014) (Konecnik and Gartner, 2007) (Gartner, 1994). Conative refers to how one acts on the information and feels about the destination (Konecnik and Gartner, 2007). Cognitive image is about the beliefs and knowledge of the physical attributes of a destination.

Concurrently, a practical component is associated with the emotional evaluation of the features and the surrounding environments (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999, Sohn and Yoon, 2016). Thus, previous studies adopted cognitive and affective aspects in the construct DI (Qu et al., 2011, Hosany et al., 2006, Sohn and Yoon, 2016). Following the previous study, this study focusing on WHS will include the cognitive and affective image in the dimensions of DI.

3.5 The Need to Include DS In Destination Branding

Previous scholars in the literature on product branding pointed out a strong trend for consumers to personalise and recognise the brand in terms of customer-brand identification. Furthermore, according to their investigation, branding is vital for a successful brand (Aaker, 1997, Fournier, 1998). However, the difference between a product and a destination implies that destination branding is not the same but more complicated than product branding.

However, little literature focused on the critical components of transforming the product branding strategy into an effective destination branding. Given the difference in branding product and destination, previous scholars suggested it will benefit destination marketers to consider destination personality, identification, and

satisfaction (Hultman et al., 2015). Furthermore, based on brand theory, DS can be combined into a relationship model to determine the correlations with DI (Chen and Myagmarsuren, 2010).

3.6 The Need to Include DAT in Destination Branding

The construct of attachment to a place is multidimensional, including place memory from the past, present dimensions of affective attachment, social bonding and satisfaction, and place expectation from the future (Chen and Dwyer, 2018). It is suggested that reflection on personal experiences from a destination can engender a certain level of attachment, called place memory (Lewicka, 2011, Chen et al., 2014). Additionally, a possible attachment to the destination will occur when there is a desired visiting experience in the future. That is called place expectation (Milligan, 1998, Chen et al., 2014), the most difficult to achieve in DAT.

However, it is the least difficult to achieve destination satisfaction among the three dimensions. Furthermore, social bonding and affective attachment are in the middle level, the practical part of the attachment, connecting to the destination socially and individually (Chen and Dwyer, 2018). Therefore, DAT is multifaceted emotional connections built between residents, tourists and the destination through self or social bonding.

Previous scholars advised that DL can be affected by destination attachment based on visitors' unforgettable experiences in the study of tourism marketing (Vada et al., 2019). Brand attachment is associated with robust emotions such as desire, fitting together, and fondness. Attachment is understood to identify

emotional connections between the consumers, the organisation and its brand. At the same time, identification is a perceptive association concerning the realisation of social identity-related demands. Therefore, the more robust residents' and tourists' attachment to the destination, the more influential the destination brand will be (Huang et al., 2017, Rather and Hollebeek, 2019, Thomson et al., 2005b, Rather et al., 2020).

3.7 The Need to Include DID in Destination Branding

A previous study claimed that tourists are often “mindful” of searching for authenticity when visiting the heritage site. In essence, mindfulness is a cognitive concept. It further implied that the “visitors who are active, interested, questioning and capable of reassessing the way they view the world” (Moscardo, 1996). McIntosh and Prentice (1999) discovered in their survey that tourists are more than cognitive in their response, which required a broader concept.

However, researchers often imagine tourists are passively affected by the symbolic environment they actively engage (Mellor, 2005). As mentioned, different tourist has diverse visiting experiences at the heritage site. Regardless of the tourists searching for an authentic cultural experience, achieving the expected original or unspoiled experiences might be challenging. A previous study argued that accomplishing the exact feeling depends on the degree of authenticity, interpreted via the displays and the viewer's genuine sensation. Furthermore, the level of authenticity can be superficial or deeper. The former plays with the idea of period, dwelling between the past and the present. The latter, urged by the need for identity, finds its true self through the commodification of pastness.

Nevertheless, previous scholars highlighted that self-realisation incorporated authenticity searching when fully developed. Such can be expressed as identity and individuality (Berman, 1970, Handler, 1986, McIntosh and Prentice, 1999). Therefore, visiting heritage sites is considered to be connected with the past. The construction of being associated with the past enables the formation and re-endorsement of identity. In this case, identities are shaped through build-up insight related to cultural emergence based on tourists' authentic experiences (McIntosh and Prentice, 1999).

Like a product brand, a destination brand also incorporates two essential functions: identification and differentiation (Qu et al., 2011). However, a destination is not a single product. Instead, it consists of various components, including accommodation, hospitality, attraction, arts, entertainment, culture, heritage, and the natural environment (Crouch and Ritchie, 2003, Morgan et al., 2003).

Furthermore, Pike (2005) argued that destination branding is more challenging and complex (Zenker et al., 2017) than goods and services because destinations' multidimensions are greater than consumer goods and services. Therefore, the theory of consumer-based brand equity adopted by scholars in destination branding often lacks a balance between community consensus and brand theory (Pike, 2005). Such will lead to the failure of the local tourism community's actual delivery of brand promise (Pike, 2005).

3.8 Social Identity Theory

Branding is viewed as a process of reduction. Compared with brands in the commercial domain, DI should incorporate complexity instead of a simple image. However, the complexity of DI seems unlikely to be resolved by simply applying the brand theory in destination branding (Anholt, 2009). Marketers often underestimate the above issue and cannot foresee the complication (Zenker et al., 2017). Thus, this study adopts the social identity theory to reduce lower brand identification (Zenker et al., 2017).

Tajfel (1978, P: 63) defines social identity as "... part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership". Tajfel and Turner (2004) contended that social identity theory articulates the sense of self-worth, and self-pride, relies on its belonged group, and the importance of social identity to form community cohesiveness (Ukpabi and Karjaluoto, 2017).

In social identity theory, there is a process of self-categorisation or identification, in which the self is insightful and can identify itself in association with other social groups (Turner et al., 1987, McCall and Simmons, 1966). As a result of the identification, identity is produced (Stets and Burke, 2000). Abrams and Hogg (2006) regarded a social identity as an individual's knowledge of belonging to the same social group, which motivates them to distinguish themselves from different social categories (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Thus, social identity theory can be helpful when investigating the connections between individuals and the significant social structure (Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2012).

The components of social identity incorporate identification, self-esteem and commitment (Turner et al., 1987). In social identity theory, self-categorisation or identification is associated with two types of inclinations: the perceived similarities between the self and other members in the social group and the variance between the self and members out of the group. They can be reflected by different properties related to the categorisation, for instance, attitudes, beliefs, values and affections. A social identity can interact with other members to achieve the expected responsibilities, such as better protecting the environment (Stets and Burke, 2000).

Social identity researchers argued that individuals who identify with the social group feel attached to the group. This identification process can motivate the group more (Hogg and Hardie, 1992). And this can be extended to the macro-level social approach in the commitment in social movements when the dimensions involve the group, the individual and the role of the social identity (Stets and Burke, 2000).

Furthermore, when the individual identity is associated with the emotional aspect of social identification, the group attachment is enhanced due to the increased commitment (Ellemers et al., 1999). Social identity theory suggests that the identification process related to an individual inspires them to participate in a brand community (Algesheimer et al., 2005, Muniz and O'guinn, 2001). Brand identification arises when a brand is perceived as associated with the consumer's self-identity (Brakus et al., 2009). Thus, social identity theory can help understand consumer behaviour and the reason for their actions (Zenker et al., 2017). It has been deployed in tourism research (Palmer et al., 2013) and destination branding

research (Zenker et al., 2017), which found that tourism development is more supported when residents identify themselves with the destination (Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2012).

3.9 Tourists in Destination Branding

Before the destination branding process, it is critical to understand the varied reasons affecting tourists' perception of heritage site attractions, their visiting experiences, and authenticity at visiting the heritage site. Therefore, tourists should keep coming back to the destination. Whether it is linked through culture, political power, or heritage, it is vital to know how tourists perceive their preferred WHS.

Previous scholars claimed that tourists must understand the history and significance of events, people, and objects as part of destination branding. However, how to transform their choice of destination for future returning is vital to provide interpretation. Therefore, the visitor's preference for on-site interpretation should not be ignored in HTM (Poria et al., 2009, Alderson and Low, 1996).

Nevertheless, tourists' travel behaviour and experience vary, according to Cohen (1974). He further identified the characteristics of the tourists as "a voluntary, temporary traveller, travelling in the expectation of pleasure from the novelty and change experienced on a relatively long and non-recurrent trip" (Cohen, 1974,P:533). In this study, the targeted tourists are the ones who would be attracted to WHS.

Furthermore, this study focuses on WHS despite heritage on national, local, and personal scales. WHS provokes solid feelings and prompts many tourists to visit (Timothy, 1997). Tourists could discover a difference between the on-site presentation and interpreted version. As a result, they felt that the information presented was not the truth, which challenges the possibility of whether objective reality exists (Reisinger and Steiner, 2006).

Nevertheless, this conflict was triggered because the display justifies and validates the version of history, which those in power saw to attract tourists and generate more financial benefits. Furthermore, when tourists seek different experiences at the same heritage site, different interpretations affect how they perceive the heritage destination (Poria et al., 2009). Therefore, the varied perception of tourists visiting heritage sites can be summarised as the following (see Table 3.1):

Table 3.1 Heritage Tourist's Perception

Expect to feel the heritage	(Poria et al., 2004)
Expect to learn	(Poria et al., 2009)
Influenced by the site attribute and personal cultural background	(McIntosh, 1999)
Pursuit of knowledge	(Chen, 1998)
Personal benefit (e.g., relaxation, sightseeing, recreation).	(Chen, 1998)
The interest in searching for family history	(McCain and Ray, 2003)
Expect other experiences	

The previous study suggests that heritage implies different meanings to each tourist (Poria et al., 2009). To meet diverse tourists' needs, HTM must distinguish their differences before considering varied perspectives. Previous scholars further stated that each tourist's willingness to be educated or entertained in WHS settings differs (Moscardo, 1996). Therefore, a link or bridge can respond to the diversity

of tourists with different perceptions or preferences on WHS attributes. Furthermore, despite the tourists looking for different experiences at the WHS, the interpretation often is slow to attract all types of tourists. It usually tends to present one narrative only to suit the political agenda (Hall, 1994).

The literature often associates heritage tourism with nostalgia elements with positive memories. That appeared to be invoked by discontent with present living experiences or conditions. This dissatisfaction prompts tourists to immerse in the past through experiencing the heritage site. Such promoted heritage tourism to suit the “being nostalgia” heritage tourism experience. Nevertheless, such promotion based on the nostalgic theme reflected a designed DI. The transformed image is more than likely favoured by the tourists, who want past life experience (Vesey and Dimanche, 2003,P:54, Caton and Santos, 2007).

Furthermore, the early understanding of heritage tourism merely associated heritage tourists’ experience with history learning. However, more recent literature extended the nostalgia narratives. They explained that tourists’ heritage tourism experiences are multifaceted due to their varied motivations. According to Poria et al. (2009), the experiences can be described as the following:

- Tourist’s experiences at a heritage site
- Nostalgic experience of living in the past
- Learning the history
- Enjoy nature, the local flora and fauna
- Enjoy the scenery of heritage site attraction
- Having the opportunity to adventure

- Sharing experiences with others
- Spending time with friends or family
- Interacting with local people
- Endorse local culture
- To search for the better self

Given that tourists' experiences at heritage sites are monolithic instead of the sole naïve nostalgic, HTM needs to consider those elements during destination branding. The aim is to attract different types of tourists by suiting their needs. Doing so will have a better implementation of heritage preservation and effective HTM. However, it often assumes that "interpretation at heritage sites usually represents and supports the interests and ideologies of groups and individuals who established the site as a heritage tourist attraction" (Poria et al., 2009,P:102, Tunbridge and Ashworth, 1996).

3.10 The Need to Combine Residents and Tourists in Destination Branding

Understanding tourists' perceptions, expected visiting experiences, and authenticity at the heritage site is vital. The fundamental question is how the targeted audiences see the heritage site regarding the destination branding strategy in heritage tourism. Tourists are not the sole audience who visit the heritage site. The residents are also part of the heritage site visitors, and their visiting motivation can be explained according to Poria et al. (2004). They proposed the following reasons for visiting a destination where heritage is presented:

- Learning the physical nature of the site and its historical background

- Recreational experience
- No specific reason, but having a day out
- The cost of entrance
- To be entertained
- Wanting to see the world-famous site
- Desire to relax
- Desire to be emotionally involved
- Heritage experience
- A sense of obligation
- Concerning the visitors' individual heritage

They also contended that the reasons above could be categorised into three: a willingness to learn, entertain, and heritage experience concerning visitors' unique heritage. The first two reasons are prevalent in heritage tourism as part of cultural tourism and in leisure and recreation literature. Such an approach perceives heritage tourism in the presence of tourists in historic places without clarifying the nature of the phenomenon. For instance, visiting a museum or industrial heritage park is purely for learning or leisure without focusing on heritage (Poria et al., 2004).

Garrod and Fyall (2001) further associated the reasons tourists visit heritage with learning and entertaining. However, heritage experience concerning tourists' own experience is based on the relationship between the individual and the heritage (Poria et al., 2004). This approach highlights heritage as the centre point. It acts as a link between the individual tourist and the heritage site. Such a theory makes more sense if it can be extended to involve residents as a portion of the visitors. It

is argued that when residents visit the heritage site, they perceive the heritage site as part of their unique heritage. As a critical component in heritage tourism destination branding, heritage connects the internal and external stakeholders. Therefore, heritage is the bridge and the link, driving the external tourists and the internal residents to be reckoned with the heritage site.

When considering residents as part of the visitors touring the destination, residents' experience was already there, which can help HTM define an authenticity-suited interpretation for both residents and tourists. Therefore, WHS branding needs to incorporate both residents and tourists. In other words, the effectiveness of the WHS brand is more than likely achieved through the combination of internal and external branding.

However, the relationship between the residents included in internal branding and the tourists incorporated in external branding is unknown. There is no available knowledge from the previous literature. Nevertheless, heritage is the bond that connects the residents and tourists in heritage tourism. Given that heritage in WHS has tangible and intangible parts, knowledge associated with the heritage is considered critical in combining the residents and tourists.

Furthermore, heritage as a multifaceted, diverse knowledge integrates heritage, identity, and the local community in heritage tourism. Besides, residents' and tourists' experiences and perceptions of heritage sites play a critical role in heritage tourism development. However, residents' and tourists' most common perception is to learn through entertainment, forming a positive association between the

residents and the tourists. Nevertheless, from being nostalgic, heritage tourism also grants residents and tourists perception of heritage experience, especially when the heritage is linked to their heritage.

Heritage is classified to be tangible and intangible. However, as an essential link, the overall meaning of heritage enables tourists and residents to be clustered under one umbrella. Therefore, it is vital to learn what heritage is as knowledge in destination branding. Furthermore, a previous study concluded heritage is “conceptualised as the meanings attached in the present the past and is regarded as a knowledge defined within social, political and cultural contexts. Heritage is “a knowledge that constitutes both economic and cultural capital” (Graham, 2002,P:1003).

Nevertheless, heritage does not interact directly with the study of the past. Instead, it can be interpreted differently within one culture at that time or between cultures through time. Therefore, as a more diverse knowledge, the contents and meanings of heritage change through time and space to become resources for the present, for instance, artefacts, mythologies, memories, and traditions. Such resources would be interpreted and represented to suit the present needs (Graham, 2002).

Nevertheless, policy execution and management are likely to be conducted in the region or city. Therefore, heritage is a disputed topic in line with the localised scale. Heritage as a piece of knowledge is utilised in modern-day globalisation. Furthermore, in demand for regional economic regeneration, other institutions and agencies joined in the destination branding strategies of collaboration,

outspreading the pool of heritage knowledge (MacLeod, 2000). Therefore, tourists and residents must be combined to perceive heritage as existing knowledge in shaping the power networks (Graham, 2002).

3.11 Conclusion

This chapter has investigated the critical factors affecting whether DI can be enhanced in destination branding through the tourists' perception and experience. Given the importance of destination branding in producing a characteristic DI, it is vital to position the destination constructively. The previous scholars claim that an exceptional destination brand is regarded as an asset, adding value to the destination (Kim and Malek, 2017, Kumar and Kaushik, 2017, Rather et al., 2020). Therefore, increasing importance in destination branding is crucial, which substitutes brand image.

However, there is a significant lack of literature on enhancing DI in heritage tourism. This research aims to find the most effective brand components to enable the destination branding process, generating an effective destination brand to fill this gap. Therefore, it seems vital for this study to incorporate the most effective brand components to achieve an enhanced DI and overall DL.

Previous scholars proposed that one of the vital factors in establishing an effective brand is to develop brand identification (Aaker, 1997, Rather and Hollebeek, 2019). Previous research also considered social identity theory an essential theoretical foundation (Berrozpe et al., 2019, Rather et al., 2020). Therefore, this research adopted this theory to include DID in WHS branding. However, despite brand

identification features in tourism, destination brand identity is more or less entangled with residents' and tourists' identities. Comparatively, DID bears more comprehensive elements than a product or service. It associates with more factors such as relation, symbol, culture, and history that shaped the destination (Rather, 2020, Berrozpe et al., 2019).

It is crucial to enable the branding process to transpire. In other words, it is essential to transfer the original brand identification, such as brand attributes, and stories, to the brand. As a result, DS takes place through the branding process.

Having an enhanced DI and DL in generating influential destination brands is supremely critical in HTM, which requires understanding the nature and dynamics characterising destination branding in the context of heritage tourism.

Based on supply and demand in line with heritage tourism, it is vital to understand why tourists visit the destination. It is indispensable to continue destination branding and enhance DL to strengthen the less effective WHS brand. However, the causes stimulating the tourists to visit the heritage site are not enough to improve DI and DL. Combining residents and tourists in destination branding is vital. Several factors impact the pre-visiting decision of the residents and tourists. They include perception, experience, authenticity, the association between residents and tourists, heritage as knowledge to residents and tourists, political element, and identity.

Perception is likely a crude factor that is supported by the image of the destination. Tourists have to search for knowledge concerning the WHS to decide whether it is

their preferred destination to visit. Such is critically essential for a WHS to consider in destination branding. When tourists' perception of the physical site and the intangible heritage hidden in legends or stories appears positive, it indicates a promising destination branding in heritage tourism.

Furthermore, enabling a positive experience for tourists' on-site visits is vital. Such can vary depending on the interpretations and expectations the tourists intrinsically search for. Therefore, HTM needs to understand tourists' desires so that the destination products can meet tourists' needs. Providing a positive WHS visiting experience will benefit perception and a better relationship between the tourists and the residents.

Furthermore, heritage settings and meaning can be interpreted through time. However, there is a shared decree concerning heritage as knowledge in heritage tourism. It gets complicated when heritage knowledge involves the elements of culture, identity, and political factors. Nevertheless, the unique character of the system in China is quite different from other nations. It is vital for WHS branding in China to take in the complication of heritage knowledge. It is because heritage as cultural and economic capital is a central focus that clusters all elements in HTM and connects the internal and external stakeholders to be included within one spectrum, the WHS. In other words, culturally and politically, it is critical to include residents and tourists in destination branding to obtain an enhanced DI and DL at the WHS.

Chapter 4: A Conceptual Framework of Destination Branding

4.1 Introduction

This research aims to determine whether combining internal branding and external branding will enhance the WHS brand effectiveness. To fill the research gap, this study needs to establish a conceptual framework of destination branding to predict DI and DL. However, there is no previous evidence on incorporating residents and tourists into heritage tourism to increase DS and DAT, which may strengthen DI and DL. There was no known conceptual framework to prove such a strategy. This research aims to develop one based on the previous literature review.

Previous scholars proposed that one of the critical components in destination branding involves stakeholder management. As widely discussed, stakeholders are considered to be in line with a group of factors influenced by a progression of exploitation. Nevertheless, previous scholars argued that “starting with an inward focus, governments must ensure that their aspirations are in harmony with local community needs and expectations” (Balakrishnan, 2009a, P:616). Moreover, the previous chapter mentioned that heritage tourism destination branding involves the element of politics. Therefore, building destination branding needs to identify the varied interests of diverse public and private stakeholders.

Although branding is a potential success factor that can be implemented in developing effective heritage tourism strategies, the heritage destination contains more challenges than product branding. It involves many stakeholders with limited management control (Morgan et al., 2003, Pride, 2002, Baker and Cameron, 2008).

However, it is plausible to integrate the internal residents and external tourists via the link of heritage.

Nevertheless, few successful cases are available to combine internal and external branding in heritage tourism. It is because “for all tourism brands, internal branding will remain the toughest change of all” (Vasudevan, 2008, P:335). Therefore, it is critical to recognise some factors related to the internal stakeholders, including their expectations and concerns regarding destination branding (Vasudevan, 2008). Given the previous study deployed brand and branding theory in the research of destination branding, brand attributes and traits will be investigated before establishing the proposed conceptual framework of destination branding.

4.2 Brief Review on Brand Attributes and Traits

The visual distinctiveness of a brand includes “name, letters, numbers, a symbol, a signature, a shape, a slogan, a colour, a particular typeface” (Blackett, 2004,P:13). Amongst the above-combined features of the brand, the name is the most significant as its use in language is considered a universal reference point. The rest can vary from time to time. However, all stakeholders must communicate and understand the name change following mergers.

Given the unique character of a brand in differentiating between companies, the brand equity of a product involves the product’s characteristics, pricing, distribution, and availability. It is considered a critical asset because those elements symbolise a promise to meet customers’ expectations. Furthermore, the brand gives customers the confidence to purchase. When brands contain robust equity, it is

probable to conquer the hearts and minds of customers. As a result, consumers will become loyal by returning regularly. Therefore, brands can produce significant earnings that can directly impact the business's overall performance, which can be achieved via enhanced brand loyalty (Blackett, 2004)

Furthermore, a successful company aims to differentiate its product from its competitors. The process is called branding. As a significant source of value, a brand needs investment and devoted management to develop it, grow its value and assess its performance. However, many customers would prefer to benefit from the regularity of the product or service being reachable and consistently delivered. Influential brands can compete amongst rivals to differentiate themselves from others by meeting people's particular needs. Therefore, leading brands often have three attributes, a persuasive idea, a core purpose, and a central organising principle.

A compelling vision can capture customers' attention and loyalty, through which their unfulfilled needs can be met. In other words, brand identification is vital, which will critically impact brand loyalty. Regardless of the revises or changes of any business strategy, a core purpose can firmly support the values. A central organisational principle can be deployed to direct decision-making when determining the brand position, purpose, and values (Hilton, 2003). Similarly, destination identification will be vital in leading a successful destination branding.

Besides giving direction to the whole company, influential brands encourage consumers to buy their products and service by delivering their promises. The

brand's original commitment is proved when consumers evaluate, trial, purchase, and finally accept the product or service. However, to keep consumers' loyalty, brand leaders must provide them with more superior products or services to stay satisfied. Therefore, influential brands would impress the targeted consumers with their unique offering and encourage them to experience it. Besides focusing their strategies on consumers, branding managers also need to train employees in line with the brand values and the awareness of the latest marketing campaign. Such can be tactically valuable in supporting the brand strategy. The internal aligning method is arguably more effective in delivering a consistent but distinguished experience (Hilton, 2003).

Hilton further contended that building a company's brand culture and core purpose involves an internal and external commitment to the brand. However, assessing a brand's effectiveness depends on whether employees' loyalty is high. The stronger the employees' commitment to the brand, the more advanced consumers' commitment to the brand can be achieved. Furthermore, to keep the trust and loyalty of the consumers, successful brands need to regularly maintain their relevance to the targeted consumers to fill their unsatisfied needs in the competitive world.

Brands also reflect five characters apart from giving direction to the whole company. They consist of having superior products, reliably delivering brand promises, distinguished marketplace and consumer experience, combining commitments from employees and consumers to the brand, and keeping ongoing relevance in response to consumers' particular needs (Hilton, 2003). Similarly, given that WHS

is a superior product, how to enhance DL relies on the commitment of the residents and tourists. It is plausible that DID can be deployed to influence the commitments triggered by their attachment to the WHS.

4.3 Build and Protect Brand's Reputation

A company's business behaviour, good or bad, can be revealed through its brand. Therefore, the bad can be eliminated while the good is favoured. Protecting this brand value involves how companies behave to meet customers' expectations. Companies are advised to take responsibility for building an effective brand to avoid social and environmental damage. Brands can help to deal with the negative effect in their capacity to push for positive social change.

However, this change comes along with economic development. Comparatively, the social value of brands weighs more than the pressure created for companies to be more accountable. Branding enables a company to make a direct business contribution to curb social and environmental issues. Such can be achieved by undergoing direct activities, such as employee treatment and community commitment. In return, the company benefits from such a branding process.

Furthermore, the company is responsible for ensuring its social and environmental impact is as positive as possible. In other words, the company's products should not despoil the environment nor cover any environmental risks to damage the local communities. Additionally, companies should not exploit their employees or mislead customers to make a quick profit. The harmful activities will damage their brand's reputation. In other words, the brand image will be decreased. Therefore,

it is critical to build and protect a brand's image. Such is the practice of active brand by most companies. Therefore, a company needs to target three areas: its responsibility, brand quality, and financial performance (Hilton, 2003). In terms of building a successful brand, the contribution percentage of the three factors is as the following (see Table 4.1):

Table 4.1 The Ratio in Building a Successful Brand's Reputation

	Activity	Ratio
Company's responsibility	Employee treatment,	56%
	Community commitment	
	Ethics	
	Environment	
Brand Quality		40%
Business/financial performance		34%

Source: (Hilton, 2003)

A brand is a source of value for a company. When generating the actual value, it is vital to realise brand positioning in the market and customers' minds. In other words, having a top place in the product categories is critical. Exposing the market leadership and vision on how the brand promise will meet customers' needs and expectations is imperative. In other words, it is essential to value the brand image. Brand identification is critical in achieving an enhanced brand image. During the process, the role of employees cannot be ignored in terms of obtaining a competitive advantage. Employees are the unavoidable force to bring the brand alive, from the product design to the final delivery to the customers.

In addition to the vital role of the employees, brand positioning also identifies the rest stakeholders. By assessing the different stakeholders, the brand positioning process defines the idyllic relationship required with each stakeholder. However, various stakeholders will represent the brand differently. Thus, it is not easy to

determine the degree of significance of each stakeholder, especially when the brand is not a product. However, brand satisfaction may be a factor in reflecting the relationship between the brand and the stakeholders.

Nevertheless, the branding position should focus on shared perceptions to meet the goals and objectives. In other words, brand identification is a vital factor in leading the brand to be successful. Therefore, building a brand strategy that can create long-term value is crucial. This brand strategy will enable its brand positioning to grow more robust than its competitors and shape long-term relationships with consumers, employees, and the marketplace. As a result, the framework of long-term brand management will be assembled (Thompson, 2003).

Similar to product/service branding, it is also vital to deliver the brand promise to protect the reputation of the destination brand. Apart from enhancing DI, it is critical to strengthen DL through internal branding. This study aims to create a conceptual framework for WHS destination branding to enhance DI and DL to fill the research gap. However, finding the most effective components in destination branding is imperative. Given the importance of brand identification and satisfaction concerning enhanced brand loyalty and brand image, it is also vital for this study to investigate the residents' included internal branding.

4.4 Internal Branding in Destination Branding

Most previous studies related to destination branding focused on the external audience. It is because those prior scholars and practitioners considered internal branding to be far more from being easy. Vasudevan contended that the people,

who reside in that place, have no obligation to internalise the brand. A destination's brand image reflects its values, attributes, and personality, connecting the visitors with the site. In other words, internal branding is indispensable to sending the brand's communication (Vasudevan, 2008).

Moreover, incorporating internal branding can benefit the residents when they have a conventional awareness of the destination brand, especially when engaging in hotels, resorts, and tour operators. Likewise, when the local population participates in destination branding in heritage tourism, it will benefit their community. The maximum internal branding can be achieved when the prevalent media, literature, and broadcasting convey the destination brand's message (Vasudevan, 2008).

Furthermore, destination branding is seen as cooperation amongst the stakeholders, which implies the internal stakeholders must collaborate with the external stakeholders in branding. In other words, the goodwill of the hosting residents is critical in leading to positive brand experiences for tourists. Incorporating residents in internal branding is more beneficial given the importance of delivering the brand promise in branding. The brand promise can be completed in the interaction between residents and tourists. Therefore, the participation of residents in destination branding reflects the alignment of internal branding and external branding when there is an economic gain to be achieved through 'living the brand' (Vasudevan, 2008).

Marketing internally with the same effort as going into marketing is essential. Communication is key to ensuring everyone knows what consumers these brand targets and what the brand promises are. Communication or “on-brand” training equips employees with the knowledge and attitude to emotionally engage in their commitment and skills to deliver the brand promise. When the organisation is ready to provide the experience by going live, it is crucial to communicate how best the brand is to its targeted consumers. Such can be achieved by combining internal branding and external branding (Smith, 2003). However, the communication process is vital. It can impact peoples’ behaviour by collaborating, making awareness & involvement, and generating associations that influence behaviour.

Furthermore, effective brand communications, which ensures any communications distinctly linked to the brand, can accelerate brand integration. It will be reflected tangibly. Brand activities contribute to its unique identity by integrating its value, tone of voice, and the kind of relationship it seeks to have with targeted consumers. This effective brand communication can create distinctive associations and meanings through multiple channels or messages such as TV, direct mail, internet promotions, and outdoor campaigns. As a result, the brand will be more well-known, attractive, and marketable (Feldwick, 2003). In other words, a brand identity can pave a means of communication to achieve an enhanced brand image.

Despite the communication in destination branding being mainly directed outwardly, the previous scholar argued that the internal stakeholders are critical in defining the brand and providing the tourists with a brand experience. Furthermore, it will be more advantageous to communicate to the residents regarding enhanced

brand experiences for tourists. Such can be achieved by utilising the local media, effectively exposing the residents' national pride and DAT (Vasudevan, 2008).

However, a prevailing compromise has often been demonstrated with harmful conflicts and different interests. Mostly, the communication will be dominated by a brand champion, such as government agencies, which force other stakeholders to exchange their participation. In this case, destination branding's integrity and strategic operation will require cooperation from the stakeholders involved. Therefore, it is vital to communicate internally and externally to engender a shared awareness.

The above phenomenon indicates that there is a common interest between the internal stakeholder (residents) and the external stakeholders (tourists) in enhancing the destination brand (Balakrishnan, 2009a). In other words, it is vital to connect the residents, the tourists and the destination brand in a successful destination branding. Based on the above brand and brand theory, the five components of the conceptual framework will include identification, satisfaction, attachment, image and loyalty to the destination brand.

4.5 Hypothesis Development and Conceptual Framework

Most of the previous studies in destination branding only incorporated the tourists, involving external branding. In this research, based on the recommendation of Zenker et al. (2017), residents and tourists are included in the destination branding stakeholders. The goal of destination branding stakeholders is to enhance destination image and loyalty from effective destination branding. Balakrishnan (2009a) contended that destination branding must have a branding process. As

mentioned previously, the WHS brand may lack a branding process. It needs to find the most effective branding components to enhance the image and loyalty of the destination. This study proposed a conceptual framework not available in previous literature: to deploy DID, DAT, and DS to predict DI and DL. The five constructs of the destination branding conceptual framework will be identified as the following.

4.5.1 Destination Identification

Thompson (2003) mentioned different stakeholders associate with the destination brand differently because a destination brand is not a product brand. This research proposes utilising DID to connect the rest of the stakeholders. In other words, DID will play a critical role in achieving an effective destination brand. The concept of identification has been used in various disciplines. Destination identification can be defined as “creating a meaningful connection between the self and the target of identification” (Zenker et al., 2017,P:17). In brand literature, the ‘identification’ is associated with clarifying the source of the product to consumers. Furthermore, it can be easily modified because the term ‘product’ is generally a physical offering (Qu et al., 2011).

Choo et al. (2011) claimed that in destination branding, a person might express identification with a place, fitting into a place-related social category (Uzzell et al., 2002). People associate themselves with unique personalising & collective attributes to have a sense of belonging (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2010). However, Lalli (1992) argued that a place’s identity is not given objectively but is perceived

by individuals or groups. Destination identification is associated with the place's attributes that instil a distinctive identity in residents' minds (Schneider, 1986).

Furthermore, destination identification reflects the membership of a group defined by location (Uzzell et al., 2002). Such is supported by the physical dimensions of the destination and the social environment (Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996). Tourism destination marketing organisations often deploy historical images to form part of the community identity, encouraging emotional attachment between the residents and the tourist destination (Ollins, 2000; Adrian Palmer et al., 2013). Therefore, the component DID can be deployed to attract tourists and expand market share to enhance DI (Dredge and Jenkins, 2003).

Previous scholars proposed that the self in identity theory assembles various identities, reflecting the interactions connected to different factors. The concept of 'self' consists of two types of identities, including a personal one and a social one. The former involves elements such as abilities and interests. Simultaneously, the latter is associated with the social environment. People can connect to their organisation and engender a sense of belonging. In other words, social identity helps build attachment between people and their communities (Arnett et al., 2003, Hultman et al., 2015).

Furthermore, previous studies considered customer-company identification one of the most active elements in defining consumers' selective progression. Thus, constructive identification amongst the targeted stakeholders is vital, which can benefit the operational strategy. Moreover, identification can impact how

customers' emotions are influenced by individual behaviour. Individual needs are satisfied through identification when the attachment is built between the customers and the companies (Pérez and del Bosque, 2013, Su et al., 2017, Su and Swanson, 2017).

Furthermore, it seems that consumers often get involved more with responsible companies. Doing so could help them to recognise their self-identification to enhance self-worthiness. In return, the character related to competence, compassion, and authenticity, derived from the company's identity, can be linked to similar factors in self-identification (Keh and Xie, 2009). Previous scholars defined an attachment as the emotional bond between an individual and a particular spatial setting (Williams et al., 1992). Destination attachment is bonded to the destination to associate with the self and evoke strong emotions that affect a person's behaviour (Yuksel et al., 2010).

Furthermore, Greening and Turban (2000) argued that the residents in a destination could be motivated by observing the moralities and responsibilities which formed part of the community identities. As a result, their self-esteem can be enhanced in terms of the positive feeling attached to their community under the effect of destination identification (Su et al., 2017). Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H1a Destination identification has a positive influence on destination attachment.

In brand theory, identification can be used to determine the consumer-company relationship. Doing so can help companies satisfy the consumers' self-identified needs (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). However, in tourism, tourists are prone to identify themselves with different factors in self-identification in a destination setting. Previous scholars argued that tourists must re-examine their identities with positive feelings and emotions. That may lead to satisfaction, which is beneficial for developing identities (Arnett et al., 2003). Thus, tourists' satisfaction is associated with a general assessment of their visiting the destination.

Furthermore, previous scholars contended that self-identification needs could be achieved via destination identification to engender emotional positiveness (Hultman et al., 2015). As a result of their positive emotional state, it is plausible that tourists are satisfied and feel bonding and a sense of belongingness toward their visited destination (Hou et al., 2005). Furthermore, tourist satisfaction plays a vital role in predicting destination identification. On the other hand, a higher identification with a destination will increase destination satisfaction (Fleury-Bahi et al., 2008, Uzzell et al., 2002). Thus, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H1b Destination identification has a positive influence on destination satisfaction.

4.5.2 Destination Image

Destination image is defined as “the affinity and connection visitors or potential visitors have with the place, its values, attributes, and personality” (Vasudevan, 2008,P:331). Previous scholars such as Ambler and Barwise (1998,P:370) pointed out that “a Brand = A holistic combination of Product, Packaging and Added values”.

They further argued that the added value is a synonym for brand image. However, other scholars suggest that brand image can be perceived via favourability, strength, uniqueness, and types of brand association apprehended by the consumers (Grace and O'cass, 2002).

Strategically, a brand's long-term success relies on the brand's strength to meet the critical attributes and customers' demand for products, services, and images (Rita et al., 2004). Cai (2002,P:723) further claimed that "a brand image is not a brand but a source of its equity, and a critical one for destination branding". Therefore, DI plays a vital part in building a destination brand, tourist's trust, and loyalty, and forming emotional bonds between tourists and the destination (Chen and Phou, 2013).

Furthermore, a well-known brand can boost extra market share through increased brand loyalty and enhanced brand image (Aurand et al., 2005). Nevertheless, previous scholars contended that DI alone is not branding in destination branding (Cai, 2002). Effective branding requires a unique set of integrated brand associations to unify the entire image formation and building process. Such alternatively contributes to brand identity's strength and uniqueness (David, 1996, Keller et al., 2011, Cai, 2002).

Aaker (1992) associated brand image with consumers' memory, in which brand associations are shaped into one set. He further argued that brand image could help consumers recognise the differences other products do not have. That could enable consumers to develop a positive feeling toward the brand image (Aaker,

1992). However, it is more complicated for tourists to engender a positive destination image before pre-purchasing in destination branding. It is because a destination image is perceived through the tangible and intangible elements related to a destination. The former includes the infrastructures, transportation, and environmental site; the latter involves the characters of the site, such as local culture, residents' attitudes, and the purpose of visiting the destination (Souiden et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, when tourists perceive a sense of connection with a destination's tangible and intangible factors, previous scholars argued that belonging would enable them to define themselves in line with the feeling (Mael and Ashforth, 1992). In other words, tourists' self-identification is reflected by perceiving the destination image. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H2a Destination identification has a positive influence on destination image.

4.5.3 Destination Loyalty

Loyalty is defined as "a deeply held commitment to rebuy or patronise a preferred product /service consistently in the future" (Oliver, 1999a,P:34). Destination loyalty refers to tourists' intention to revisit and recommend the destination to other people (Lee et al., 2007). Oliver further suggested that purchasing behaviour with loyalty will be less likely affected by similar branded settings regardless of varied market situations. Therefore, absolute loyalty means perceived product superiority, personal resilience, and a social connection that can only be measured via repurchase reflection. However, Robinson and Baldinger (1996) advised that

loyalty derived from attitudinal and behavioural components will be greater than that only stemmed from behavioural construct.

Additionally, Morgan (1999) interpreted effective loyalty as “what I feel” and behavioural loyalty as “what I do”. Furthermore, Keller (1998) associated brand loyalty with repeat purchase behaviours. However, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) anticipated that purchase loyalty is prone to better market share, and attitudinal loyalty is inclined to higher brand pricing. Such loyalty is viewed as a function of perceived brand performance, including customer satisfaction, perceived value, and quality. Therefore, loyalty can help a successful brand overcome competition (Dick and Basu, 1994, Kotler and Makens, 1999).

Furthermore, Li (2010) defines brand loyalty as a customer’s preference for specific goods or service providers. By being the key to good progress and a vital instrument in building company-customer relationships (Reichheld, 2006), brand loyalty will increasingly contribute to companies’ long-term dominant position in the marketplace. In addition, brand commitment will align with long-term customer retention (Amine, 1998). Nevertheless, destination loyalty is defined in destination branding literature as tourists who intend to return to the destination and are willing to recommend it to others (Vinh et al., 2017, Bigne et al., 2001).

Previous scholars in marketing stated the consumers tend to impress others with their self-identity, which can be reflected in the selection of the brand. In other words, branding can take advantage of self-identification as a vital strategy in terms of brand loyalty. They further argued that when self-identification is significant, it

can impact branding. Identification can influence brand associations in line with identifying the psychological demand of the consumers (Escalas, 2004, Alrawadieh et al., 2019). This psychological association between the consumers and the brand could lead to a positive attitude and loyalty. Such is crucial to consumers' brand satisfaction and loyalty (Escalas, 2004). Therefore, previous scholars concluded that self-identification positively impacts brand loyalty (Alrawadieh et al., 2019).

However, the effect that destination identification has on destination loyalty remains unknown. The previous scholar in destination study proposed that destination identification is vital in tourists' revisit intention (Hultman et al., 2015). Additionally, the study of Alrawadieh et al. (2019) on heritage tourism argued that self-identification is vital in enhancing the tourists' experiences and increasing satisfaction. As a result, tourists will engage in more in-destination activities. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H2b Destination identification has a positive influence on destination loyalty.

4.5.4 Destination Attachment

In brand literature, Pedeliento et al. (2016) argued that when brand attachment has a positive and direct effect, it indirectly impacts brand loyalty through the mediating effects of brand attachment. This phenomenon revealed that attachment is a crucial component of enhancing brand loyalty. Destination attachment could be vital in stimulating overall brand loyalty in destination branding based on the similarity between product branding and destination branding (Balakrishnan, 2009a).

Previous research defined destination attachment as the emotional bonds between a destination and tourists & residents (Hidalgo and Hernandez, 2001). When a person attaches meaning to a destination, that place may become part of one's identity (KILINÇ, 2006). Moreover, Yuksel et al. (2010) considered the process of forming emotional bonds to destinations as DAT. Furthermore, a tourist may develop an attachment to a destination through social interaction, personal experience from holiday activities and scenery watching (Yuksel et al., 2010).

However, tourists often evaluate DAT based on perception instead of reality (Chon, 1992, Baloglu and McCleary, 1999), resulting in ambiguity in strategically building the DI. Thus, scholars suggest it is essential to understand the attachment perception to a specific destination (Yuksel et al., 2010). Qu et al. (2011) further indicate that DAT helps differentiate its brand from competitors. Thus, this construct is an essential predictor of tourists' loyalty (Brocato, 2007, Yuksel et al., 2010). It has been deployed in destination branding to evaluate image and loyalty (Yuksel et al., 2010, Zenker et al., 2017).

The previous study by Morgan et al. (2003) proposed that brands contain social, emotional, and identity value to consumers. In other words, brands have a personality that can increase desirability, quality, and perceived value. When consumers select a brand of products or destinations, they buy not only the image but also into an emotional relationship (Fleury-Bahi et al., 2008). Furthermore, in tourism, the reflection of the destination image is linked to the tourist's perception (Cai, 2002). Specifically, the destination image is associated with how tourists

interact with the destination concerning their emotions, motives, and evaluation (Tasci and Gartner, 2007).

Moreover, tourists tend to connect their feelings with the destination image within phases, including before and after the visit. The former is reacted before the visitation when searching for the image through resources, such as TV travel programmes and magazine advertisements. The latter occurs when tourists visit the destination to gain visiting experiences (Gunn, 1988). The visiting experience testifies to the accumulated emotional feeling towards a destination. Such can be derived from the overall quality. Tourists might develop some destination attachment if the destination image's dynamic texture is not harmful (Song et al., 2017). Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H3a Destination attachment has a positive influence on destination image.

Furthermore, previous scholars proposed that destination attachment is a significant predictor of tourists' loyalty toward destination holidays (Brocato, 2007, Yuksel et al., 2010). This study focuses on investigating whether destination attachment has a positive effect on destination loyalty. Destination attachment is described as the psychological connection between tourists and the touristic site (Morgan, 2010, Wang et al., 2020). Scholars further argued that the attached bond could be built up in environmental fitting with destination experience, which can be engendered from engaging in community activities or social movements (Scannell and Gifford, 2010).

Nevertheless, when tourists' travel experience is derived from a destination in a long-term span, the revisit behaviour associated with the same destination leads to destination loyalty (Oppermann, 2000). Furthermore, Morgan (2010) pointed out that the interactive elements involving emotion, cognition, and behaviour contribute to destination attachment. In other words, tourists tend to develop a certain level of a bond with the visited destination, making it plausible for them to be loyal to the destination (Patwardhan et al., 2020). Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H3b Destination attachment has a positive influence on destination loyalty.

4.5.5 Destination Satisfaction

Destination satisfaction refers to tourists' overall visiting experience with the destination (Vetitnev et al., 2013). Destination satisfaction plays a crucial role in effective destination branding (Jani and Han, 2014). In brand literature, a well-perceived brand not only differentiates itself from its competitors but also becomes a competitive asset to meet the needs of the consumers practically and emotionally by delivering the promised value (Aaker, 1992, Kotler and Gertner, 2002) and reducing consumer risk (King and Grace, 2005). However, "if brands are not actively supported or used, they become simple markers of Identification" (Simeon, 2006,P:467). In other words, that brand has no competitiveness and will be less effective. Thus, it is vital to enable the branding building process to shift the original identification (e.g., attributes, stories, symbols) (Southgate, 2003). The outcome of the branding process will lead to high satisfaction, which scholars consider to be a critical factor in evaluating a brand's performance (O'Neill and Mattila, 2004).

Furthermore, previous scholars Su et al. (2011) defined destination satisfaction as an emotion assessed by tourists. Kozak and Rimmington (2000) further indicate that tourist satisfaction is critical in successful destination marketing. DS can impact tourists' choice of destination, the consumption of tourism products and services, and the decision to return (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). However, scholars argued that satisfaction fits a consumer's post-purchase expectations and perceived brand performance (Bitner, 1990). It is likely an antecedent to loyalty (Dick and Basu, 1994). Yoon and Uysal (2005) further clarified that satisfaction is crucial for destination branding loyalty. Based on the evaluation above, destination branding has adopted satisfaction to analyse the tourists' experiential behaviour (Zenker et al., 2017). Additionally, Chen and Tsai (2007) and Sohn and Yoon (2016) investigated the impact of DI on satisfaction. They concluded that the former improves the latter. The above argument indicates that DS is a crucial component when evaluating the image and loyalty of a destination.

Previous scholars considered destination satisfaction as a crucial role in successful destination branding. It can be deployed to anticipate the future trend of travelling (Jani and Han, 2014). However, it is challenging to understand tourists' perceived meaning of satisfaction. Oliver (1999b) further explained that destination satisfaction could be measured according to the emotional reaction recognised by tourists. Such an affecting response could be resulted from a high level of delightfulness after consuming what is offered in a destination (Oliver, 1999b, Al-Ansi and Han, 2019). Nevertheless, studies in destination branding often use destination images to predict the level of satisfaction, such as in the work of Bui

and Le (2016), Al-Ansi and Han (2019), Veasna et al. (2013), Chen and Myagmarsuren (2010).

Most previous studies indicated that tourism image affects satisfaction positively. It is because image enables tourists' expectations that stimulate them to visit. However, satisfaction tends to be developed based on comparing the expectations with the visiting experience (Font, 1997). Veasna et al. (2013) proposed that destination image could influence how tourists perceive destination satisfaction. Furthermore, Chen and Tsai (2007) pointed out that destination image seems to significantly affect behaviour intentions, such as an intention to revisit and willingness to recommend. When individuals have a preferred destination image, their on-site experiences will be perceived positively. Alternatively, it would lead to greater satisfaction levels (Lee et al., 2005, Chen and Tsai, 2007) and enhanced brand loyalty. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H4a Destination satisfaction has a positive influence on destination image.

While satisfaction is argued to be an antecedent to loyalty (Bitner, 1990), previous marketing scholar Fornell (1992) claimed that consumers' satisfaction with brand loyalty varies depending on the industry type. However, tourists tend to express positive feedback on their visited destination in tourism after their visiting experiences exceed their initial expectations. In other words, their satisfaction after having positive feelings toward the destination, would be demonstrated by spreading positive word-of-mouth (Weaver et al., 2007). Therefore, the chance for satisfied tourists to revisit the destination is highly likely (Chi and Qu, 2008).

Most of the previous studies in marketing literature stated that satisfaction could lead to returning tourists. However, Hultman et al. (2015) revealed it is not always the same positive inclination in terms of the effect between destination satisfaction and tourists' return intention. Destination loyalty is possibly affected by other factors, such as destination identification and destination attachment, apart from destination image and tourism experience. However, the study of Alrawadieh et al. (2019) presumed that "satisfaction with the heritage site tourism experience will foster destination loyalty" (Alrawadieh et al., 2019, P:545). Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H4b Destination satisfaction has a positive influence on destination loyalty.

4.6 Conceptual Framework

Based on the above, five destination branding components have been identified: destination identification, destination attachment, destination satisfaction, destination image and destination loyalty. Each component's definition can be seen in Table 4.2. To fill the gap in increasing the effectiveness of the WHS brand, this study proposed a novel conceptual framework (see Fig. 4.1). It aims to predict destination image and loyalty by deploying three destination branding components, including destination identification, attachment and satisfaction. The relationships between each component will be hypothesised based on the knowledge from the literature, as the following in table 4.3:

Table 4.2 Definition of Constructs

Construct	Definition
Destination identification	"Creating a meaningful connection between the self and the target of identification" (Zenker et al., 2017,P:17)

Destination attachment	The emotional bonds between a destination and tourists & residents (Hidalgo and Hernandez, 2001).
Destination satisfaction	An emotion is assessed by tourists (Su et al., 2011). The overall experience tourists have with the destination visited (Vetitnev et al., 2013).
Destination image	“The affinity and connection visitors or potential visitors have with the place, its values, attributes, and personality” (Vasudevan, 2008,P:331).
Destination loyalty	Tourists’ intention to revisit and recommend the destination to other people (Lee et al., 2007).

Table 4.3 Proposed Hypotheses

No.	Hypothesis
H1a	Destination identification has a positive influence on destination attachment
H1b	Destination identification has a positive influence on destination satisfaction
H2a	Destination identification has a positive influence on destination image
H2b	Destination identification has a positive influence on destination loyalty
H3a	Destination attachment has a positive influence on destination image
H3b	Destination attachment has a positive influence on destination loyalty
H4a	Destination satisfaction has a positive influence on destination image
H4b	Destination satisfaction has a positive influence on destination loyalty

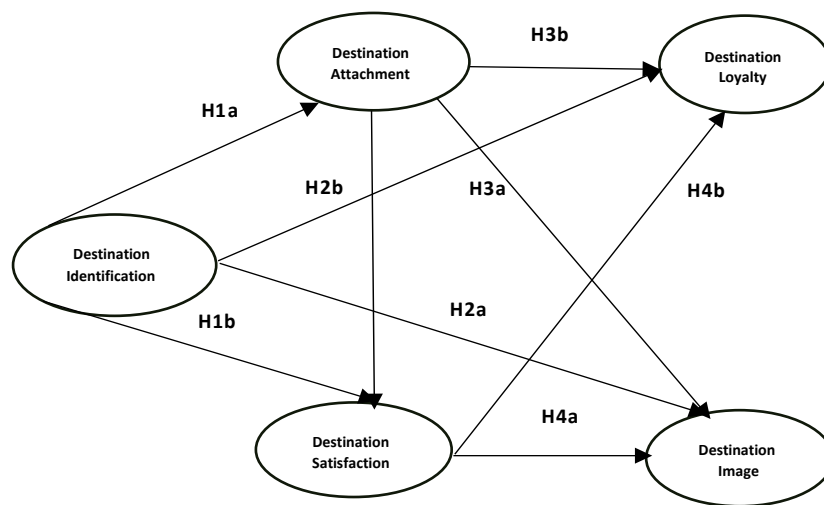


Fig 4.1. Proposed Conceptual Framework

4.7 Conclusion

This study investigates the effect of branding on HTM in China by combining residents included internal branding and tourists incorporated external branding. Given the importance of the destination branding process, it is imperative in this research to investigate the involvement of residents in WHS branding. However, previous studies had little investigation of the technique requested in this research concerning two branding methods under one umbrella, particularly destination branding. Therefore, this chapter mainly explained how to combine internal branding and external branding in the WHS destination branding process. The aim is to increase the WHS brand's effectiveness; thus, destination image and loyalty will be enhanced.

Furthermore, this chapter investigated the basic knowledge of brand attributes and traits in brand theory. This study further extended such knowledge to heritage tourism destination branding in line with the effectiveness of the WHS brand. This chapter highlighted the importance of a strong brand's substantial equity, delivering its consumers' promises. Taking brand theory into WHS destination branding, an effective WHS brand can attract external tourists to return to visit the WHS. Therefore, DL will be augmented.

Most previous destination scholars only focused on tourists. Internal destination branding, including the resident, is not easy. In particular, branding a destination is far more complicated than a product or service branding. Based on brand theory, the brand will be more effective when the employees commit to the brand. However, consumers will commit more to this brand when a strong brand impresses them

with high brand value and a better reputation. Nevertheless, combining the commitments of both employees and consumers requires effective communication. Therefore, communication is vital in combining internal and external branding in WHS branding.

Additionally, communication can enhance the beliefs and values of residents, which can influence residents' attitudes towards the tourists and their commitments to preserving the WHS. In other words, the effective WHS branding process needs to include residents. Their involvement in internal branding is crucial in producing a positive visiting experience for tourists. Therefore, it is more sensible to communicate information to the residents, which will provide a positive experience for tourists. With this branding method, conflicts between the internal and external stakeholders will be reduced or avoided. The brand literature suggested that combining the employees' commitments and the consumers can engender a strong brand. Furthermore, this integrating strategy can increase brand culture and core purpose. Following the previous scholars, this chapter deployed brand theory to destination branding to establish a conceptual framework for WHS branding: to deploy DID, DAT, and DS to predict DI and DL.

Furthermore, this chapter demonstrated the importance of preserving a brand's reputation by consistently delivering its brand promises and taking responsibility to ensure positive social and environmental impacts. By doing so, the brand image and brand value will be protected in the long term. However, combining residents and tourists in WHS branding is critical instead of focusing only on tourists, as most previous studies did.

Nevertheless, heritage tourism can contribute to the social-cultural, environmental, and economic impacts on the WHS either positively or negatively. Therefore, it is vital to ensure the residents feel a great sense of belonging and attachment to the heritage site (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2019). When residents become more attached to the destination, they might be motivated to positively perceive the impacts by supporting the WHS branding process.

Moreover, following previous scholars, this chapter extended social identity theory searching for the relationship between DID and DAT & DS. Previous research in marketing claimed that there is a positive trend in the branding process when identification is deployed to influence the attitude and loyalty of consumers. This signifies that DID is a vital factor affecting visitors' visiting experiences. Therefore, this chapter hypothesised that DID has a positive impact on DL. However, previous scholars argued that it is less likely to engender loyalty without attachment. This study hypothesised that DAT has a positive influence on DL. Based on previous literature, the relationship tends to be positive when visitors feel attached to the destination image. Thus, this study hypothesised that DAT has a positive influence on DI.

Nevertheless, it is not easy to perceive the satisfaction expressed by visitors towards the WHS. The previous study recommended the possible measurement in line with visitors' emotional reactions. Moreover, when visitors' perception of the DI is positive, the visitors' level of satisfaction might be encouraging. Therefore, this study hypothesised that DS has a positive influence on DI. Accordingly, it only makes sense to hypothesise that DS positively influences DL. In this conceptual

framework, DS and DAT are mediators in the relationship between the independent variable DID and the dependent variables DI and DL.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methodology. It begins with the philosophical position of ontological and epistemological assumptions, which led to the methodology in this study. It also presents the arguments of this study that would choose a quantitative approach. The following section will shed light on the research approach and research strategy. Then, the data collection methods, sampling design, questionnaire development, pilot study, proof of validity and reliability, data collection, and making sense of quantitative data and coding will be discussed in detail.

5.2 Philosophical Position

Previous scholars suggested it is essential to consider philosophical issues before researching as they can critically influence the quality of the research (Bahari, 2010, Easterby-Smith et al., 2021). In social science, research philosophy is associated with the nature of the knowledge developed in the social world and embraces critical orientations on how this social world is viewed. It involves epistemological assumption and ontological orientation, which affect the researcher in choosing the appropriate methods before considering the research process (Bahari, 2010).

Deciding the right research approach does not merely rely on the researcher's preference. Instead, it can be determined through research paradigms to obtain the appropriate method. Research can be conducted under shared assumptions, values and practices. However, it needs to be guided by a research paradigm,

which is a worldview (Johnson and Christensen, 2019), and determines the choice of research approach (Mulisa, 2021). In other words, it can aid the researcher in determining the method for a research problem and providing suggestions on how to discourse the issue in line with the acknowledged worldview (Shannon-Baker, 2016). Given this study's specific methods and research procedures, it is critical to identify philosophical assumptions to transfer the technique into practice (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). Amongst the main philosophical assumptions, ontological and epistemological assumptions will be given a brief review in this section before developing an appropriate research design.

Ontology is defined as a theory of the nature of social entities (Bryman, 2012,P:16). Concerning the essence of reality or truth, Ontology discourses the “question of the meaning of being” (Farrell, 2020, P:3). Specifically, ontology identifies what the truth is and how it can be explained. The ontological assumption is often associated with positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism. Positivism is regarded as a scientific paradigm (Fagan, 2010, Mack, 2010). It is an ontological worldview based on the presence of a universal, measurable and objective reality (Howitt and Cramer, 2007, Johnson and Christensen, 2019, Sale et al., 2002). This study adopts positivism principles that the researcher believes a single objective reality exists (Levers, 2013, Sale et al., 2002, Mulisa, 2021). Thus, quantitative research is adopted in this study.

Like other quantitative researchers, this study focuses more on measurement and less on concepts. Given statistical models need data, the quantitative approach in this study focuses on the nature and quality of quantitative measures, spending

more time on operationalisation, aggregation and resulting datasets. Often quantitative approach would adopt an unmeasured or latent variable, which is assumed to have a causal relationship with the identified indicators. It is challenging without 'error'; therefore, it is vital to produce helpful knowledge in a context where 'error' occurred (Goertz and Mahoney, 2012).

Some quantitative researchers focus more on data and measurement issues and less on meaning when discussing concepts; some don't have a concept section at all. Instead, it pays attention to the concept's 'operationalisation' and 'measurement'. The operationalisation process includes finding 'indicators', which are numerical data correlated with each other and the unmeasured, latent variables. The measurement procedures can be deployed in coding data following the indicators. The process of coding data involves using the indicators, which must be interpreted to fit the concept's definition. The process from concept to tangible data encompasses simplification, in which a limited number of dimensions redefine the concept. The quantitative approach has a causal relationship between the indicators and the latent variable. The latter causes the former (Bollen, 1989, Goertz and Mahoney, 2012).

Epistemological assumption denotes how to attain reality or knowledge, focuses on deploying the appropriate ways to search for fact or truth, involves the relationship between the researcher and the knowledge or truth (Åkerblad et al., 2021, Mack, 2010, Levers, 2013). Given ontology is related to the essence of truth, epistemology bears how to investigate the existing reality. Specifically, the question of ontology involves "what", and the question of epistemology is

associated with “how” (Morgan, 2007). Therefore, epistemology can be regarded as the process of discovering knowledge related to the phenomena (Mulisa, 2021).

Epistemology is “a theory of knowledge and concern of what is considered acceptable knowledge in a particular discipline” (Bryman, 2012,P:11). Amongst the several epistemological assumptions, empiricism and social constructivism are the fundamental epistemological orientations. Empiricism highlights the standing of the visual proofs as a validation of truth or reality (Brinkmann et al., 2014, Johnson and Christensen, 2019, Khaldi, 2017). It underpins the methods that support the testing of hypotheses and theories, representative sampling, adequate data collection, analysis, and conjecturing generalisation (Hodkinson, 2004, Mulisa, 2021). Therefore, the epistemological assumption suggests that the primary source of reality or truth comes from empirical evidence collected via human senses (Ejnavarzala, 2019). Under the epistemological assumption, the developing tendency of research is towards more objectivity than subjectivity (Hodkinson, 2004). Therefore, the findings will have less influence on the researcher, and the reality will not be impacted by the researcher’s experience (Allwood, 2012, Sale et al., 2002).

Ontological and epistemological assumptions shape the research approach in this study. As the quantitative approach depends on positivism's ontological assumption, the researcher and reality or truth are separate beings (Shannon-Baker, 2016, Mulisa, 2021). Accordingly, the researcher can investigate existence without inducing or being affected by it (Sale et al., 2002). As a result, research inclines toward empiricism epistemology, and quantitative analysis can be

considered more appreciated than qualitative research (Åkerblad et al., 2021, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

5.3 Research Approach

Research is generally associated with searching for knowledge. The definition of research can be understood as a scientific and methodical search for appropriate evidence in an explicit area. In other words, research is a form of scientific evaluation. Furthermore, research is a term which is used through academic activity. Therefore, it needs to be utilised in the sense of technique. That involves determining the problems, proposing a hypothesis, collecting and analysing data, deciding on justification and achieving the conclusions. Eventually, place the decision in testing to identify whether they fit the projected hypothesis. This way, the research contributes to the previous pool of knowledge through examination, assessment, and testing (Kothari, 2004).

Furthermore, apart from deploying scientific procedures to find the solutions, the primary purpose of different research types is to identify the fact concealed and undiscovered. They can be summarised as the following: exploratory research, which is in line with a phenomenon to accomplish new understandings; descriptive research, which describes the features of a singular or group of objects; diagnostic research, which identifies the occurring frequency related to the studied object; hypothesis-testing research which involves examining the relationship between variables via hypothesis testing. However, in social science and business research, descriptive research is that the variables are not under the researcher's control. It is because the study has to report only based on the fact. Nevertheless, analytical

research can deploy presences or evidence to produce a critical assessment (Kothari, 2004).

Other types of research include applied, fundamental, conceptual, empirical, quantitative, and qualitative. The purpose of applied research is to investigate issues within a society or organisation. When the aim of research involves the formulation of a theory through generalisation, it is fundamental research. Moreover, the researcher often deploys conceptual analysis to discover new concepts based on extending the previous one.

However, empirical research involves manipulating data to find a conclusion. Qualitative research is associated with qualitative phenomena, deployed to determine hidden reasons and requirements through depth interviews. However, quantitative research is linked to quantity measurement, which applies to the study better articulated in terms of quantity. Therefore, empirical research is regarded as the most influential study of a proposed hypothesis (Kothari, 2004).

Creswell (2013) contended that research approaches include quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. It is vital to select the appropriate research approach to guide the research procedures, which can help the researcher adopt the right research strategy and practices (Saunders, 2014, Williams, 2007). Apart from being determined by the philosophical assumptions of the research, a researcher would adopt quantitative analysis instead of qualitative or mixed research, based on the following factors: the nature of the data, data availability in

numbers, the intention of quantifying the problem (Johnson and Christensen, 2019).

Concerning the relationships between variables, the quantitative research approach intends to produce the quantification and statistical analysis of data and test hypotheses or theories (Creswell, 2013, Neuman, 2003). However, when research wants to have good internal validity, which is to have the ability to reflect the phenomenon accurately, the qualitative research approach is best suited. This study selects a quantitative method, which intends to have good external validity, namely, the ability to be generalised (Neuman, 2003).

Quantitative research focuses on objectivity (Allwood, 2012), in which the unbiased researcher agrees on the existence and characteristics of the reality or truth (Antwi and Hamza, 2015, Johnson and Christensen, 2019, Cohen et al., 2002). Quantitative research generally follows the positivist research philosophy and the deductive approach (Bryman, 2012). Conversely, qualitative research is associated with depth and detail to develop a theory or pattern via ethnographic or observation research (Saunders, 2014, Creswell, 2013). Under the constructivist research philosophy, qualitative research mainly adopts the inductive approach. When a process involves collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, it is mixed methods research (Creswell, 2013). The mixed research approach highlights the philosophical paradigm of pragmatism, focusing on the strengths of quantitative and qualitative research to lessen their weakness (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Regarding why this study chose a quantitative research approach, it can be justified by the following reasons. Previous scholars contended selecting the most appropriate research approach can be determined by the philosophical assumption of the paradigm (Collis and Hussey, 2013, Denscombe, 2017). As mentioned previously, the philosophical assumption of the paradigm in this research is positivism. It made this study opt for a quantitative research approach. Furthermore, this study aims to establish the precise circumstances in which the researcher is interested in problems specified in a set of constructs when adequate and representative data are accessible. Additionally, this research aims to compare participants/phenomena. Thus, quantitative analysis is more suitable (Johnson and Christensen, 2019, Amaratunga et al., 2002).

Additionally, the study design of this research involves a comparative survey, deploying a deterministic approach to establish a causal-effect relationship between two or more groups. This circumstance also prompts the researcher to choose a quantitative research approach (Techo, 2016, Johnson and Christensen, 2019). Lastly, this research involves a representative sample, a random selection of participants, controlled study variables, and even phenomena distribution. Given that the characteristics of the chosen two WHS are more likely to represent the WHS in China, which are located in either urban or rural areas, the findings of the quantitative study can be generalised from the selected study area to represent the WHS of China (Mulisa, 2021). Generalizability enables finding or hypothesis in a context instead of the one empirically confirmed (Lee and Baskerville, 2003), which is a vital factor in quantitative research and is another reason for this study to select the quantitative research approach.

5.4 Research Strategy

It appeared difficult for researchers to choose between two types of research strategies, which include intensive and extensive research. The former is associated with qualitative, and the latter concerns quantitative research. Creswell and Creswell (2017) contended qualitative research often considers knowledge claims based on constructivist perspectives. Strategies deployed in qualitative research include inquiry, such as narratives, phenomenology, ethnographies, ground theory studies or case studies. Thus, qualitative research usually focuses on words instead of quantification in data collection and data analysis. However, quantitative research mainly deploys post-positivist claims for developing knowledge, for instance, considering cause and effect, reducing explicit variables, formulating hypotheses and questionnaires, using measurements and observations, and testing the theories. A quantitative research strategy often involves experiments, surveys, and predetermined data collection instruments, producing statistical data (Creswell and Creswell, 2017, Bahari, 2010).

Bryman (2012) proposed research strategy needs to focus on the connection between theory and research, epistemology and ontology. Qualitative research often adopts an inductive approach, whilst quantitative research strategy is featured a deductive approach. The deductive approach is regarded as “an approach to the relationship between theory and research in which the latter is conducted concerning hypotheses and ideas inferred from the former” (Bryman, 2012,P:8). Quantitative research uses theory deductively, which is then developed into a framework for the complete analysis. Following the framework, this study forms a model for the research questions or hypotheses and sets up the data

collection process (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). Thus, the quantitative research strategy deploys a deductive approach to test or verify a theory through exploring research questions or hypotheses stemming from the theory and finally approve or disconfirm theories (Bahari, 2010).

Similar to other quantitative research, this study adopts a research strategy with a view of positivism, believing that this research is a neutral, technical process through which this researcher can discover knowledge (Jean Lee, 1992). It is because positivism can help recognise causal clarifications and explicate regularities in human social behaviour (Easterby-Smith et al., 2021). Quantitative research often uses objective measurements and quantitative analysis to clarify the causes of changes in social facts (Firestone, 1987). Following this strategy, this study can use statistical analysis of observation about the accessible truth to generalise that developed knowledge. Based on the above quantitative research strategy, the research process of this study is shown in Fig. 5.1.

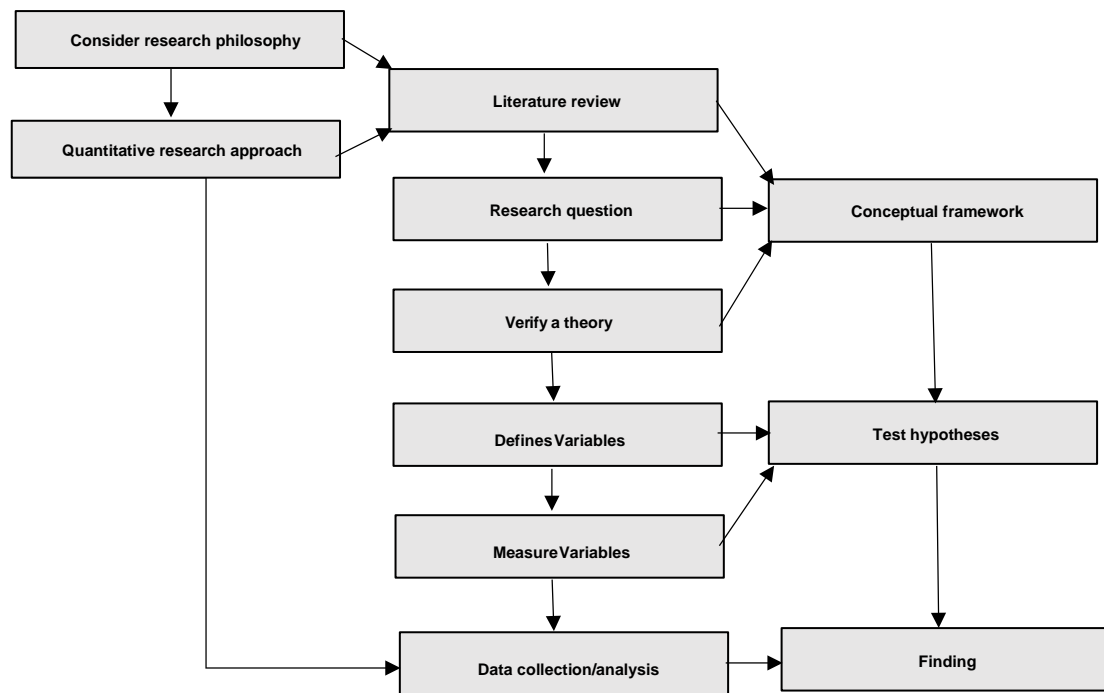


Figure 5.1: Research Process

Source : Adapted from (Creswell and Creswell, 2017, Bahari, 2010)

5.5 Research Methods

5.5.1 Understanding the Type of Research

Previous scholars proposed that methodology helps the researchers collect, analyse, and interpret data to depict the statistics yield. In other words, a methodology is not merely the research method adopted in statistical analysis. Furthermore, a methodology is a dynamic part of establishing the likeness of the natural world. The techniques of statistics are generated. The procedure decides how and why the proposed research questions are constructed and how data is collected and investigated. The remaining information is evaluated before using them. Therefore, it is crucial to consider how statistics are generated and utilised in qualitative or quantitative research (Walter and Andersen, 2013).

Nevertheless, statistics represent a scientific collection of numerical evidence. Statistics are not simply the generalisations of the natural world with numbers. Instead, they are more complicated. Statistics can be deployed to help understand reality precisely in line with social, cultural, economic, and political perceptions. For example, statistics can influence government decisions and social services. Furthermore, as an essential lens in engagement with reality, statistics are powerful tools to construct the relationship between the government and the countries' population. Therefore, statistics can interpret reality and impact how the interpretation is being explained (Walter and Andersen, 2013).

Furthermore, conducting research is associated with theoretical conceptualisations while taking practical considerations. As aforementioned, several approaches apart from quantitative and qualitative methods are considered the most common. The quantitative approach often includes an experimental proposal with a hypothesis, followed by the quantification of data and statistical data analysis. On the other hand, qualitative methods are generally more interpretive with the data that cannot be quantified.

Furthermore, quantitative research involves controlled measurement, while qualitative research is associated with controlled observation. In addition, quantitative research includes confirmatory analysis with verified data, in which partial data is removed. Therefore, the quantitative approach, which involves "hard" and replicable data, is reliable to generalise in a supposed unchanged pragmatism. Nevertheless, qualitative research often utilises "soft" data to discover non-generalised conclusions suitable for single case studies (Mackey and Gass, 2015).

Moreover, Grotjahn (1987) further proposed that different constraints can distinguish the types of research. They deploy different data types, such as quantitative or qualitative, the analysing method such as interpretative or statistical, and the means of collecting data such as experimental or non-experimental. Six mixed forms can be summarised as the following (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Different Types of Research

	Experimental -qualitative interpretative	Experimental -qualitative- statistical	Experimental -quantitative- interpretative	Exploratory -qualitative- statistical	Exploratory - quantitative -statistical	Exploratory - quantitative - interpretative
Form of Data	Qualitative	Qualitative	Quantitative	Qualitative	Quantitative	Quantitative
Method of Analysis	Interpretative	Statistical	Interpretative	Statistical	Statistical	Interpretative
Manner of Data Collection	Experimental /Quasi- Experimental	Experimental /Quasi- Experimental	Experimental /Quasi- Experimental	Experimental	Experimental	Experimental

Source: (Grotjahn, 1987, Mackey and Gass, 2015)

Furthermore, the quantitative approach, the qualitative approach, and the mixed approach of quantitative & qualitative are constructed on a most critical re-assessment of social science that started in the 1960s. The three main types of research are considered to be the fundamental ideas extracted from many specific arguments. In practice, they demonstrate the fundamental transformations with varied viewpoints and assumptions regarding social science research. These approaches contribute to studies through a lens of social reality on how the world is observed, assessed, and understood. Given that the three approaches are adopted to investigate the same, they explore different positions. Therefore, the three types of research are positivism, interpretive social science, and critique social science (Neuman, 2007).

Nevertheless, the qualitative research design is based on the naturalistic philosophy. Quantitative is associated with positivistic philosophies. Accordingly, qualitative research is more prone to a specific phenomenological standpoint. In contrast, quantitative research often focuses on a phenomenon generalised, which can be agreed upon commonly. However, the argument between qualitative research and quantitative one is “based upon the differences in assumptions about what reality is and whether or not it is measurable. The debate further rests on a difference of opinion about how we can best understand what we “know”, whether through objectives or subjective methods” (Newman et al., 1998, P:2). However, the approach of qualitative can be deployed to observe and interpret reality. The aim is to generate a theory which will be able to give an explanation of the previous phenomena experienced. Nevertheless, the approach of quantitative is adopted following a hypothesis. The purpose is to testify the hypothesis to confirm or disconfirm the theory (Newman et al., 1998).

5.5.2 Quantitative Investigation in WHS Branding

This research explores the effects of branding on HTM in China by including residents and tourists in the WHS branding process. The relationship between destination identification, attachment, and satisfaction can be explored by investigating how residents and tourists perceive the WHS brand concerning the image and loyalty. Previous research about destination branding is primarily a mixture of qualitative and quantitative investigation with one single period of data. The previous scholar in brand literature proposed that a single period of data does not permit a test of cross-directional hypotheses. Therefore, it might be challenging to evaluate brand value (Prahalad, 2004). Additionally, it is essential to adopt

multiple data periods to investigate consumers' impacts (Brodie et al., 2009). Following the recommendation of the previous study, this research will adopt quantitative inquiry involving a case study with multiple period dates to examine the effect of branding on HTM in China.

Furthermore, the methodological approach selected in this research is quantitative. A survey consists of a questionnaire that will be distributed to the survey applicants. Previous scholars considered this approach as widely recognised in earlier literature. The key benefit of a quantitative approach is that it can explore the feedback from a large set of people based on a controlled number of questions. As a result, comparison and statistical evaluation of the data can be facilitated (Bell, 2014, Preece, 1994, Robson, 2002, Veal, 2017, Haley et al., 2005). Nevertheless, this approach does not include an interview. Hence it is plausible to cause misapprehension or misunderstanding. This research avoids this drawback by adopting a shortened, simple questionnaire constructed with validated measurement items in previous literature (Madrigal, 1995, Perdue et al., 1990, Haley et al., 2005).

According to Morgan and Smircich (1980) study, whether a research method is appropriate depends on the nature of the research problem. They further contended that the authentic aptness of a research method stems from the nature of social phenomena to be investigated (Morgan and Smircich, 1980). In social science, positivism and post-positivism or phenomenology are the foundations of methodological research. The traditional research method of Positivism contributes to the knowledge in social science by focusing on the natural science

model, in which the researchers objectively examine the social world based on the collected facts. Therefore, the social phenomenon can be interpreted through the interconnections shaped by the facts' elements (Noor, 2008). However, unlike the approach of positivism, which focuses on determining the occurrence of patterns, post-positivism does the opposite by creating a certainty without being objectively identified (Easterby et al., 1991). Therefore, positivism is seen as a natural science model of studying the facts, mainly involving a quantitative investigation (Noor, 2008).

5.5.3 Deploying Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

The previous scholar considered structural equation modelling (SEM) an effective statistical technique in multivariate analysis concerning theory testing and causal modelling in social science research. The purpose of using SEM is to “explain the pattern of a series of interrelated dependence relationships simultaneously between a set of latent (unobserved) constructs, each measured by one or more manifest (observed) variables” (Reisinger and Turner, 1999, P:71). SEM has been increasingly deployed in tourism studies to identify a causal relationship via testing a set of hypothesized inter-related dependency relationships between the latent constructs in a model (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2007). This study followed the previous suggestions to apply SEM in this research to test the theory and validation of constructs (Anderson, 1989, Anderson and Gerbing, 1988).

The observed variables in SEM have a predetermined value whilst the measured variables are obtained via data collection or from a published source, characterised by the numeric responses to a rating scale item on a questionnaire. The

unobserved variables, such as satisfaction and attitudes, have an inestimable number of values. SEM is deployed to show the linear causal relationship between two types of latent constructs, which are independent and dependent constructs. In other words, SEM expresses linear regression equations of how the dependent constructs depend on the independent constructs (Reisinger and Turner, 1999). This study intends to find the causal relationships between latent constructs measured by observed variables. However, there is an issue that latent construct such as satisfaction has low reliability. When the measurement reliability is lower, it is more problematic to identify the relationships between the latent constructs and other variables. However, when using SEM, the vital latent constructs can be modelled despite the untrustworthiness of the indicators. SEM considered the unreliability of the measures and ranked them based on their importance (Bacon and Bacon, 2001).

This study focuses on heritage tourism, investigating how destination identification, satisfaction, and attachment (independent variables) can affect destination loyalty and image (dependent variables) with different effects. Given that “other multivariate techniques do not address these questions within a single comprehensive method” (Reisinger and Turner, 1999, P:73), it can be resolved by SEM analysis, which makes it viable for determining the dimensions of the unobserved constructs can cause other sets of measurements. The variables in this study include destination identification, satisfaction, and attachment, which cannot be directly measured, as the multiple regressions and analysis variance technique can only examine one relationship at a time (Hair, 2009). However, they can be put into a hypothesized relationship with the help of SEM analysis to test

multiple interrelated dependence associations in a single model (Reisinger and Turner, 1999). Through the SEM approach, structural and measurement models can be developed (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2007, Diamantopoulos, 2008, Henseler et al., 2009).

The hypothetical relationships between the unobserved variables can be expressed in the structural model, whilst the associations between the latent variable and the indicators are displayed in the measurement model (Diamantopoulos et al., 2008, Edwards and Bagozzi, 2000, Henseler et al., 2009, Kling, 2001). The first stage of the SEM approach focuses on developing a theoretical model with the hypothesized causal relationships between the latent constructs and the measurable variables, namely, a structural model. It is hypothesized that there is a positive relationship between the latent constructs, for instance, in this study, between destination identification and destination image. The second stage involves the development of a measurement model, which is built upon the association between the latent constructs and the measured variables, characterised by the empirical indicators. This stage also shows information regarding the validity and reliability of the variables. The aim is to determine the extent to which the proposed model is reliable with the empirical data (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2007).

5.5.4 Case Study Method

Previous research defined a case study as an empirical inquiry investigating a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life framework. When boundaries between phenomenon and context are not apparent, multiple sources of evidence

are used (Yin, 2009). In this study, the methodological issues involved a case study. The researcher's objective is to build and test a theoretical theory related to the social world based on two WHS. As a research methodology, a case study can elucidate, reconnoitre or express a phenomenon of interest. It needs a methodologically laborious and truthful depiction of empirical data (Yin, 2009, Ellram, 1996). However, a case study is often depicted to only connect with exploratory and qualitative research. Previous scholar Yin proposed three case studies: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory (Yin, 2017).

An exploratory case study is often adopted as a research method to formulate questions and test hypotheses in social science. A case study may not perform the expected generalisability due to its lack of scientific stringency (Johnson, 1995). However, other scholars favoured the strengths of the case study to gain a holistic view of a specific area (Gummesson, 2000), which can produce an outlined conclusion from the factual evidence analysed. Moreover, research must incorporate the increasing inherent feature to follow their developing inclination (Cassell and Symon, 2004). A case study helps generalise a finding that can be replicated (Noor, 2008). A case study is regarded as a unique experiment instead of a single observation. When a case study is expected to produce good results, it needs appropriate research design, implementation and data analysis (Ellram, 1996).

Research methodology can be differentiated based on the data type, such as empirical data and the analysis executed on the data. When the data is obtained from the real world through a survey or case study, it is empirical data, which can

be performed with quantitative analysis, qualitative analysis, or a mixture of both. A case study can be deployed to form a theory, which will be tested with surveys in depth. However, it is the researcher's goal and the nature of the research question to decide the appropriate research method for the research (Ellram, 1996).

Previous qualitative scholars often consider case studies mainly highlighting qualitative with one or multiple cases (Mentzer and Kahn, 1995, Larsson, 1993). However, likely, a case study can also operate with quantitative data. Furthermore, quantitative case research usually involves a limited number of cases concerning the essential depth (Yin, 2009). A case study methodology can suit the how or why questions in exploratory research, as it can insightfully investigate the little-known phenomenon with the depth requested. However, when some activity occurs, which needs to be studied, a quantitative method is better suited (Ellram, 1996).

The understanding of case study research in the literature is often misleading as a "single technique", for instance, the structured interview. Thus, mistakenly, it appeared to be a norm that a case study is one of the data collection and analysis methods of qualitative inquiry. Nevertheless, the case study process incorporates the data collection and analysis technique. An alternative approach to investigate the same phenomenon is triangulation, offering validity within the case study method. The standard techniques used in qualitative inquiry as part of the case study method include direct observation, recording and interview. However, quantitative data can be obtained with the "qualitative" case study research method by observing the number of incidences of the particular phenomenon, determining the extent of the occurring activity, and using questionnaires or scales

administered to the phenomenon. Therefore, quantitative research can deploy the case study methodology (Ellram, 1996).

When using a case study, one of the issues that troubles the researcher is whether the research design adopts a single case study or multiple case studies (Yin, 2009). Once the latter is chosen, the issue will focus on how many cases are appropriate to engender a good result of generalisation, which should be solved in the research design before collecting data. Seawright and Gerring (2008, P:296) recommended two objectives regarding the case selection technique. They are “(1) a representative sample and (2) useful variation on the dimensions of theoretical interest”. When selecting the cases, the researcher is motivated by the means along the dimensions within the population of interest. As part of the research strategy, it follows methodological purposes (Seawright and Gerring, 2008).

It is vital to understand that each case study is a self-contained experiment. The researcher needs to consider the context of the case study as part of the experiment, which will help the researcher to observe how the context of the concerned phenomenon influences the finding (Yin, 2009). The researcher needs to be familiar with the background to reduce the possible misrepresentation caused by poor results. However, a single case study or multiple case studies are incorporated into the research design according to different goals (Ellram, 1996). Multiple case studies, similar to multiple experiments, convey imitations that enable the research to develop a meaningful theoretical framework. Thus, multiple case studies can be deployed to envisage similar results through imitations or to demonstrate conflicting outcomes (Yin, 2009).

Furthermore, the decision to use a case study in this study was made because this research intends to investigate how the combined internal and external branding would affect HTM in China. This study aims to understand the practice of destination branding in HTM rather than breadth (Simpson, 2001, Tovar and Lockwood, 2008). Most previous studies have targeted only tourists, one of this research's most pressing concerns regarding residents' involvement in heritage tourism. Thus, this study will adopt the case study method to find a generalised conclusion on the effects of branding on HTM in China.

Previous scholar Yin claimed the term a case could be explained as an event, an entity, an individual, or a unit. The empirical research trend often adopts multiple sources of evidence in line with the demand for investigating a present-day phenomenon (Yin, 2017). Anderson et al. (1998) further pointed out that the case study method can be used to provide solutions to how and why issues occur. As a result, the gap between what is being planned and the actual practice can be identified. However, the case study does not cover the whole organisation but a precise investigation unit.

Nevertheless, a case study is proved in previous literature to be helpful. The research is concerned with issues or problems in great depth with plentiful information (Patton, 1987). Thus, this study follows the case study technique; selecting two WHS destinations of Suzhou to examine an area of interest in complexity is deemed suitable for this research method. This study chose two cases because it's more plausible to produce generalisation when deploying

multiple case studies than a single case study, which is prone to be specific (Ellram, 1996).

Given the population of cases included in the study, generalisation is needed regarding a particular or similar matter. This request for representativeness shows that the target case needs to be described appropriately. Thus, when the indispensable resemblances to cases of interest are in demand, it establishes the trend for naturalistic generalisation. However, it is vital for research to distinguish the boundaries of what is and is not “the case” first, which is critical in determining what the study is about (Stake, 1978). This study stated at the beginning that two destination sites would be selected. Yet, they are not just usual destinations but two WHS in China.

Furthermore, this study focuses on combining residents incorporated internal branding and tourists included external branding in destination branding. The selected cases have to fit into this boundary that residents are included in the practice of HTM. In this case, the data collected from the two Gardens of Suzhou, China, can be deployed to test the conceptual framework. As the previous scholar explained that selected cases need to be representable in line with the populations of cases, the WHS in China is mainly located in either rural or urban areas. It is one of the justifying reasons for this research’s case study method in selecting HAG, an urban WHS, and LG, a rural WHS.

5.5.5 Issue Related to Data Gathering

When conducting research involving humans, an ethical issue needs to be explained. It is crucial to take ethical considerations in line with the publicly available international documents. Hence, the understanding of scholarly consensus in the involvement of human subjects in conducting the research is a cornerstone of ethical practice. In addition, informed consent is a form that gives human subjects the right to agree or disagree on what will happen to them. However, this can only take place when three conditions are met. They include the entire disclosure of information involved in the research, a detailed explanation of the subject, and no forced participation in any pressure or intimidation (Mackey and Gass, 2015).

An independent ethics committee must review detailed Ethical Applications before undertaking the research (Polonsky, 1998). It helps the researcher reflect on the extent to which their intended research process will account for potential ethical issues. This research responded to the requirements of the University of Plymouth. Before the commencement of data collection in this project, an Application for Ethical Approval of Research under the Faculty Research Ethics Committee of the University of Plymouth was submitted for ethical approval. It is essential to scrutinise the potential for harm. If it is identified, mechanisms can be put in place to alleviate its impact.

5.6 Research Procedure

This study investigates the effect of combined internal and external branding on HTM in China. Xu (2013) argued that any research investigating the impact of heritage tourism needs to choose an appropriate region. For example, WHS Lijiang

provides a case study of a less developed local economy. WHS Beidaihe allows the study of the effects of domestic tourism on local structural changes. Among 'the key tourist cities', Suzhou is suitable for assessing the impact involving a more mature local economy (Xu, 2013). Given this study's investigation on enhanced WHS image and loyalty, a region with a mature local economy, mainly resulting from heritage tourism, will be better suited. For the above reason, China's WHS Suzhou is selected to investigate the effects branding has on China's HTM.

Fyall and Rakic (2006,P:173) recommended that WHS "at the microsite level" research needs to focus on a particular heritage site. Furthermore, WHS is often either located in rural or urban areas. This study selected WHS Suzhou's Humble Administrator's Garden (HAG) and Lingering Garden (LG) to represent China's WHSs in urban and rural areas, based on their internationally distinct cultural heritage (Taylor and Altenburg, 2006) and the availability and participation of residents in heritage tourism (Ming Ming and Wall, 2010).

Most economical and business researchers deployed quantitative research methods (Kothari, 2005). Furthermore, quantitative research tests theories by investigating the relationships between variables, using statistical procedures to analyse data, and generalising the findings (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, this research design also adopts quantitative methods. Quantitative data is crucial in measuring the effectiveness of the proposed variables (Hughey et al., 2005).

5.6.1 Questionnaire Survey

Following the positivism philosophy and deductive approach mentioned in the previous sections, one of the vital parts of this research is to construct a questionnaire and conduct a survey (Ryan, 2018). In quantitative research, the questionnaire survey can be deployed to gather information on the feelings, behaviour and opinions of the survey participants, which can assist the researcher in investigating and identifying the causal relationships between the independent and dependent variables (Creswell and Clark, 2017, Saunders et al., 2009). Given that it is impossible to have a perfect questionnaire, it is vital to know the following information to construct an effective questionnaire survey.

In literature, it is advised to consider some critical elements for building active questionnaires. Appropriate information needs to be recognised before commencing questionnaire design, such as “research aims and objectives, data collection methods, clarity and writing style of questionnaire, question structure, look and feel, the flow and questionnaire pretesting” (Ikart, 2019, P:2). This study focuses on the effect internal branding and external branding has on HTM in China. The objective is to investigate whether combining residents and tourists in destination branding can enhance DI and DL. Whilst paying attention to the research aims and objectives, it is also critical to collect the appropriate information and ensure each question is explicit, objective and understandable.

The questions included in questionnaires can be mutually exclusive multiple-choice questions, rating or ranking scales, and closed-ended questions. They may engender different kinds of responses based on the three options, which are very helpful when collecting information on preferences, attitudes, opinions and

behaviour. The closed-ended questions are helpful when involving demographic and other fact-based knowledge, which can be used to classify people or situations. Even though the survey requests no errors, it is near impossible to avoid zero mistakes. It is vital to reduce it if errors occur. Therefore, it is crucial to pre-test the questionnaire before starting the survey to diminish the impact caused by the errors (Ikart, 2019).

Furthermore, when constructing the questions for the survey, it is a good practice to structure the questionnaire with the “funnel” technique. That is to add the broad general interest questions at the start, making the participant feel much easier to answer. Placing the difficult questions or the less public interest in the middle, and putting those comparatively more straightforward and broad interest questions at the end, such as demographic. It is also helpful to provide instructions and meanings of keywords to ensure a smooth flow when jumping from one topic to another in questionnaires.

The researcher needs to be aware not to overuse open-ended questions as they can cause survey fatigue or include unnecessary questions in the questionnaire, which may freak out the participants (Synodinos, 2003, Ikart, 2019, Ikart, 2018). The influential survey questionnaire often deploys information found from the literature review regarding secondary data. The timing limit is also essential in keeping the participant interested in the questionnaire. The best practice is to keep the survey questions short and simple, to the point and appealing without ambiguous language in the survey. It is because a participant will likely complete around three multiple choice questions in one minute (Ikart, 2019).

Moreover, the contents and styles of the questions should be evaluated and verified to ensure the questionnaire incorporates the research objectives. Thus, it is better to keep a simple writing style (Synodinos, 2003). Nevertheless, it is vital to pre-test the questionnaire to find out whether a questionnaire holds problems for the correspondents (Babonea and Voicu, 2011). It is essential to ask for feedback, such as “was the survey appealing?”, “did the question flow reasonably?”, “were there any blurred questions?”, “did any question make you upset?”. Following the above instructions in the questionnaire survey design, the researcher will conduct a pilot study as a pre-test to identify the problems related to the questionnaire. In this research, the secondary data from literature were deployed in constructing the questionnaires. The measurement scales will be revealed in the following section.

5.6.2 Questionnaire Design and Measurement Scales

A questionnaire is a series of questions presented to individual respondents to attain statistical data regarding a pre-arranged theme. Quantitative research often deploys questionnaires, considered a critical tool in generalising a statement about a specific or entire population. The success of a survey relies on the appropriate questionnaire construction, including good questions, precise ordering of questions, suitable scaling and a proper questionnaire format. Thus, a good questionnaire can reflect the sights and thoughts of the respondents. It is vital to have a good questionnaire design as the success of the survey relies on it (Roopa and Rani, 2012).

A questionnaire empowers quantitative data to be collected in a standardised way to enable the data to be internally consistent and comprehensible for analysis. In questionnaire design, it is crucial to remember that it needs to fit the purpose related to the research objectives. The researcher also needs to know how the findings will be used when starting the questionnaire design. There are four types of questionnaire design for a survey, including contingency questions/cascade format, matrix questions, closed-ended questions and open-ended questions (Roopa and Rani, 2012, De Vaus and de Vaus, 2013).

In this study, questionnaires will be closed-ended questions for the participants to give answers limited to a fixed set of responses. There are several close-ended questions, including Yes/No questions, multiple choice, and scaled questions. Responses to scaled questions are categorised on a range, including Likert and semantic differential scales. The Likert scale is a psychometric scale that appeared in research questionnaires to rate social attitudes. For instance, do you like WHS? (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) don't know, (4) agree, (5) strongly agree. Additionally, the semantic differential scale refers to a list of opposite adjectives to rate the psychological connotation of an item to an individual (Roopa and Rani, 2012, De Vaus and de Vaus, 2013).

Generally, a questionnaire should be written in simple and explicit language, request one answer on one dimension, and yield an honest and correct answer. The researcher needs to consider a good questionnaire design, as the survey's success depends on it (Roopa and Rani, 2012). Before starting the questionnaire design, this researcher read abundant literature. Following the objectives of this

research, this study designed six parts in the questionnaire, including ten dimensions of DID, four dimensions of DAT, four dimensions of DS, four dimensions of DL, and 21 dimensions of DI. Lastly, the questions contain the participants' demographic status, such as age, education and gender.

The questionnaire in this study asked the respondents to rate the dimensions of the DID, DAT and DS as independent variables and DI and DL as dependent variables using a five-point Likert- scale rating: 1 = strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree. However, the 18th, 19th, and 20th dimensions of DI regarding whether the Garden is peaceful, pleasant, or peaceful will be rated with a semantic differential scale as it is designed to ask the participant to choose an adjective to describe the garden. The dimensions of DID in the questionnaire of this study were recommended in previous research, for example, from previous literature Zenker et al. (2017)(Lalli, 1992).

As mentioned before, this study extended the research of Zenker et al. (2017), which included residents in destination branding. Thus, the dimensions of DS and DAT were adapted from the survey by Zenker et al. (2017), in which item validity was tested. The dimensions of DL were adapted from the research by Konecnik and Gartne (2007), Qu et al.(2011), Chen and Phou (2013), San Martín and Del Bosque (2008), Chen and Tsai (2007). The dimensions of affective DI were adapted from the research by Russell et al.(1981). The dimensions of DI related to economic, social and cultural impacts were adapted from the previous literature of Su and Wall (2014). The specific items and scales are shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Measurement Scales

Constructs	Items	Sources
Destination Identification (1-5 scale; 1=strongly disagrees, 5=strongly agree)	1) This Garden is a global Heritage 2) This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity 3) The WHS status made this Garden famous 4) The people are trustworthy 5) I would like to be part of heritage conservation. 6) I look forward to witnessing this Garden's future conservation 7) There are a lot of things that keep me in this place	(Lalli, 1992); (Zenker et al., 2017); (Balmer and Chen, 2016)
Destination Attachment (1-5 scale; 1=strongly disagrees, 5=strongly agree)	1) I would like to be involved in this Garden's related activities 2) In general, I like seeing this Garden 3) Availability of travel information 4) Hotels/restaurants provide quality service	(Zenker et al., 2017)
Destination Satisfaction (1-5 scale; 1=strongly disagrees, 5=strongly agree)	1) Helps tourism development 2) Increases international reputation 3) Brings more tourists 4) Helps to protect heritage 5) Chinese culture 6) The Garden has quality infrastructure	(Zenker et al., 2017)
Destination Loyalty (1-5 scale; 1=strongly disagrees, 5=strongly agree)	1) This Garden is one of the preferred places to visit 2) Recognise the WHS brand 3) Visit in the future 4) Recommend this WHS to friends 5) Easy access to the area	(Konecnik and Gartner, 2007); (Qu et al., 2011); (Chen and Phou, 2013); (San Martín and Del Bosque, 2008, Chen and Tsai, 2007);
Destination Image (1-5 scale; 1=strongly disagrees, 5=strongly agree)	1) Scenery/natural wonders 2) Improves local economic development 3) Helps to build a friendly community atmosphere 4) Improves the awareness of cultural heritage in local people 5) Made local people like to work and live at their home town 6) Produced a clean/unspoiled environment 7) Improves local public facilities 8) Cause more traffic jams, difficult to go out 9) The Garden is 1 Peaceful 2 Less Peaceful 3 not Peaceful nor noisy 4 Less noisy 5 Noisy 10) The Garden is 1 Pleasant 2 Less Pleasant 3 not Pleasant nor unpleasant 4 Less unpleasant 5 Unpleasant 11) The Garden is 1 Relaxing 2 Less relaxing 3 not relaxing nor distressing 4 Less distressing 5 Distressing	(Russell et al., 1981); (Su and Wall, 2010)

5.6.3 Validity and Reliability

As mentioned previously, this study adopts quantitative research. It is vital to provide reliability and validity to ensure the developed measurements are suitable for this research (Brotherton, 2015, Veal, 2017). The measuring instrument contains two essential features, which are reliability and validity. A study without those two features will not produce valuable results. Validity concerns whether the measuring instrument intends to measure the behaviour or quality and how well it accomplishes its purpose (Anastasi and Urbina, 1997). Given the measuring instrument leads to the meaningful and appropriate interpretation of the data in the data analysis process, the obtained data determine validity. Thus validity is regarded as “obtaining data that is appropriate for the intended use of the measuring instruments” (Sürücü and MASLAKÇI, 2020, P:2696, Whiston, 2016).

Research must deploy a validated measuring instrument to produce a valid analysis finding. There are different types of validity, including predictive validity. This study adopts convergent validity, which refers to “ the expressions related to the variables are related to each other and the factors they create, and this means that the measuring instrument designed to measure particular construct measures this intended construct correctly” (Sürücü and MASLAKÇI, 2020, P:2701).

Convergent validity displays the extent of the relationship between the observed variables used to measure the latent variables. Thus, convergent validity conveys the expressions associated with each other, and the factor claimed to measure the same concept (Hair, 2009). To ensure convergent validity, the value of AVE needs to be less than the composite reliability (CR) but greater than 0.5. AVE resulted from dividing the sum of squares of the covariance loadings of the expressions

related to the factor by the number of expressions. CR concerns the reliability of the relationship between observed and latent variables of a measurement instrument and is vital for shaping the scale's reliability. Alternatively, identifying convergent validity can rely on the square root value of AVE being smaller than the CR, Cronbach's alpha and AVE. The scale is regarded as reliable when the value of CR and the Cronbach's alpha is greater than 0.7. In this study, a separate evaluation for each factor construct is adopted to determine the convergent validity (Sürücü and MASLAKÇI, 2020).

Reliability shows the stability of the measuring instrument and its consistency throughout the process. When there is a positive association between the results of the measuring instrument, it indicates reliability. Research needs to ensure the measuring instrument deployed in the study is reliable, which can lead to a strong result. A few methods are used to identify the reliability of the scales, including test-retest, alternative forms, and internal consistency tests. This study will adopt an internal consistency test to determine reliability. However, the internal consistency test can be used in three ways: split-half, item-total correlations, and alpha reliability coefficient. This study adopts the method of alpha reliability coefficient as it is the most prevalent internal consistency test in literature. When the scale has the value of Cronbach's alpha coefficient between 0.7 and 0.9, it is considered the scale has internal consistency. When a reliability coefficient is low, it signifies the researcher used the wrong scale. To avoid this issue, the previous scholar suggested using scales with previously tested validity and reliability (Cronbach, 1951, Sürücü and MASLAKÇI, 2020). Thus, this study will follow this suggestion regarding scale validity and reliability.

5.6.4 Ethical Protocol

Following REIC and the FFREIC's request regarding the research ethics application, the researcher has completed and passed the online General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) training on 1st February 2019. This research will collect and manage the data compliant with the GDPR, the University's Code of good research practice, and the Research Ethics Policy. This researcher aims to follow the below principles of ethical research:

- This project would be designed, reviewed and undertaken to ensure integrity, quality and transparency.
- When gaining access to participants to conduct the survey, ethical considerations will be communicated to each participant. The researcher will strictly follow the research ethics guidelines, explaining the purpose, methods and intended possible uses of the research.
- The confidentiality of the information supplied by research participants and the anonymity of respondents must be respected, following the Plymouth University privacy notice guideline.
- Research participants are all voluntary, free from any coercion.
- This research would not cause any harm to any party. The independence of study and any conflicts of interest or partiality must be explicit.
- Research data management would be compliant with legal, ethical, contractual requirements. Data must be well organised and documented to ensure its integrity. When storing the data, it will be password-protected until it is securely destroyed. Individual identities such as names and organisations would be anonymised and not identifiable in any research output.

5.6.5 Informed Consent

Every participant in this research will be informed about what project they are invited to complete. Thus, an informed consent form (see appendices 4) is prepared for the participants. Each participant has the full right to withdraw at any time without penalty. A university email account is provided for all participants in case they want to contact. Before handing out the questionnaires, the researcher will introduce herself and explain the purpose of this research being conducted at Plymouth University UK. All questionnaire items would be explained individually, ensuring no hidden features within the research process. All participants are voluntary and will be ensured at the beginning that they have no obligation and can withdraw at any stage with no disparagement.

Each participant will be fully briefed on how to complete the survey. When the volunteer says they do not fit the age criteria, they will not be asked to complete the survey. Every volunteer will be informed of the complaint procedure and fully aware of the nature and content of this project. The survey will remain confidential. There will be no personal information involving any individual participant in the final work of this study.

5.6.6 Questionnaire Survey and Data Collection

The initial questionnaire contains two parts. The first part was derived from 38 individual measurement items of five constructs, DID, DAT, DS, DL, and DI. The second part contains five demographic information items, including age, education, monthly income validated by Choo et al. (2011), gender and region of residence validated by Dewar et al. (2012) to differentiate residents from tourists. All items

were written in English, translated into Chinese, and then back-translated to ensure accuracy.

5.6.7 Pilot Study

Before producing the complete questionnaire, it is necessary to pre-testing or conduct a pilot study (De Vaus and de Vaus, 2013). A pilot study is considered to be a vital step in achieving research work. Researchers often deploy a pilot study before a full-scale study involving a questionnaire survey to avoid the likelihood of failure. Thus, a pilot study is a pre-testing experiment (Baker, 1993). Following a pilot study, it is possible to recognise the potential practical problems within the research procedure, which can help the researcher take precautionary measures to complete the questionnaire survey.

However, a successful pilot study doesn't guarantee the success of the full-scale survey due to the differences in the response rate size (Van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2002). In quantitative research, one of the crucial characteristics of a pilot study is that "data are not used to test a hypothesis or included with data from the actual study when the results are reported" (Peat et al., 2020, P:57). To avoid inaccurate data, adjustments need to be made concerning the findings of the pilot study. Despite a pilot study being likely time-consuming and costing a great deal of energy and money, it is critical to complete the pilot study. A pilot study can enhance the internal validity, and a questionnaire can ask the participants for feedback to discard the ambiguity questions (Peat et al., 2020, Van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001, Mason and Zuercher, 1995).

The objective of the pilot study in this research is to test the survey instrument and increase its efficiency by conducting a small-scale trial before the full-scale questionnaire survey (In, 2017, Lancaster et al., 2004).

This research will conduct a pilot study on WHS of Suzhou in China. It aims to test questionnaire wording, questionnaire design outline, fieldwork planning, responding rate estimation, and the survey procedure (Veal, 2017). Additionally, the pilot study in this research will provide primary quantitative measurement of the scales to identify the validity and reliability (Moser and Kalton, 2017). There were 25 respondents in the pilot study of this research. Since this study incorporated residents to fill the research gap in heritage tourism, the pilot study involves residents and tourists. When focusing on heritage tourism, the dimension of variables needs to include residents and other social participants, whose stories and lived existence are highly likely intertwined with the tourists' interactions (Jamal* and Hill, 2004).

Among the 25 participants were 13 (52%) residents and 12 (48%) tourists. The reason can be justified as the following. The previous study involved residents and tourists in city image investigation, half of the correspondents of the pilot study were residents and half were tourists (Jutla, 2000). Furthermore, in a previous study of heritage tourism, equal numbers of residents and tourists were incorporated in the full-scale survey (Garrod, 2007). This study chose comparatively more residents than tourists because one of the aims of this study is to focus on the role of residents. In a previous study Garrod (2007) differentiated residents from tourists from the outset. Given both residents and tourists targeted

in this survey need to at least have visited the WHS once, this study differentiates residents from tourists based on the region of residence validated by Dewar et al. (2012). For instance, if the participant lives in Suzhou, where the case study was selected, they will be considered residents. Living outside of Suzhou, the respondents of the pilot study will be categorised as tourists.

A pilot test was conducted at the end of June 2017 to ensure content validity and an adequate length of time. The sample survey was emailed to 25 pre-testing participants, friends currently living in Suzhou and friends of friends from different cities who had already visited the two selected Classic Gardens. Thus, the pilot test involved internal and external stakeholders (residents and tourists). The former spent around five minutes, while the latter took eight to ten minutes to complete the questionnaire. Therefore, approximately ten minutes would be enough to complete the survey regarding the time length for tourists and residents.

5.7 Research Population and Sampling

Research population refers to the target population that the study intends to investigate. However, it is not feasible to recruit the entire population of interest. Thus, a sample derived from the research population will be taken into the study, which leads to the generalisation of the population based on the findings resulting from the sample (Broeck et al., 2013). Nevertheless, it is vital in research to include the demographic characteristics of the population of interest, such as age, education level, employment and socioeconomic status. With the help of the features of the expected participant, it is highly likely to conceptualise the research population, eligibility criteria and sampling strategies (Landreneau and Creek,

2009). To generalise the survey population, quantitative researchers often take a sample (Graue, 2015, Finn et al., 2000)

A sample is a subsection of the research population selected in the study (Landreneau and Creek, 2009). Thus, a sample is 'a representative group amongst a given population' (Ryan, 1995, P:163). When a sample statistically represents the research population in answering the research questions, it is considered to be effective (Browner et al., 1988). However, the collected data from a sample are likely to be repeatable or reliable. To minimise the potential bias and error, a sampling framework needs to be developed (Finn et al., 2000).

Sampling refers to choosing the representative participants from the research population for generalisation in the research. The types of sampling incorporate convenience, accidental, snowball, quota sample, purposive sampling, simple random sampling, and cluster sampling (Landreneau and Creek, 2009). It is more than likely to increase accuracy in the collected data via sampling instead of the whole population. Additionally, the researcher can have more time to design, test the data and collect more detailed information to reduce errors (Barnett, 2002).

Nevertheless, it is critical to have a sampling strategy, the researcher's plan to draw the target sample from the research population (Landreneau and Creek, 2009). In quantitative research, the sample must represent the population of interest. However, biased samples can likely cause errors in the data collected from the samples. Such can be estimated through statistical procedures regarding the margin of error. Thus, a sampling design is critical in minimising or controlling

error. The main types of sampling designs include probability and non-probability (Landreneau and Creek, 2009, Etikan et al., 2016, Saunders et al., 2018).

Probability sampling methods include simple random, stratified random, cluster and systematic. In this method, the population has an equal and independent chance of being selected. A non-probability method is non-random. It mainly includes convenience, quota and purposive. This research follows the quantitative research literature to decide the sampling design and sample size, following the steps of sample strategy by selecting the research population, selecting the available population, working out the eligibility criteria, drawing a sampling plan and recruiting the sample (Landreneau and Creek, 2009).

5.7.1 Sampling Frame

The sampling frame refers to the list of elements in the research population from which the sample can be drawn (Landreneau and Creek, 2009). The research questions and objectives will determine the appropriate sampling frame. Given the errors caused by the incomplete individual database, it is viable to use the probability method to enhance the generalisation and minimise the amount of error (Edwards and Lambert, 2007). This study deploys the convenience sampling of the non-probability method to collect data from the target population in a nonspecific way. The accessibility justifies this, the availability and willingness of the participants incorporated in the sample and the similarity of the population members (Etikan et al., 2016, Palinkas et al., 2015). Due to the difficulty in collecting data from the total WHS in China, in this study, the population of interest

are heritage tourism residents in Suzhou and heritage tourism tourists who are visiting Suzhou.

Previous literature suggested that estimating the probability of including any population element in the non-probability sampling is not feasible. Thus, most non-probability sampling depends on personal judgement instead of the probability of selecting the sample elements (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Therefore, it is unlikely to produce precise sampling results following the objective evaluation. Furthermore, the sampling errors caused may not be identified (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Nevertheless, it is more than likely the characteristics of the sample population can be estimated (Schmidtlein et al., 2006). Thus, this research will only include the residents and tourists who visited HAG Garden and LG Garden in Suzhou, as stated in this research's pilot study.

As mentioned before, it is difficult to estimate the availability and willingness of the participants. This research followed the previous study to choose several local sites for administering the questionnaire survey, including Suzhou train station, restaurants and convenience stores near the selected Gardens. The most critical element is that those chosen locations must have tables and seats for the participants to sit in an air-conditioned environment as the survey took place in scorching summer in Suzhou, China. This study followed the literature and adopted a next-to-pass sampling method to guarantee secure randomness (Tourism et al., 1983).

Specifically, the researcher would go to one of the locations to hand in the questionnaire. When spotting a potential participant entering and sitting down comfortably, the researcher would introduce herself and ask whether this person would like to spare 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire survey. Once this participant completed and left, the researcher would repeat the act when a new participant came in to sit down. However, due to the ethical issue, only 18 plus aged participants can continue the survey.

5.7.2 Sampling Size

Before collecting data, it is vital to determine the sample size. Sample size refers to the number of participants who will complete the questionnaire survey in the research. As aforementioned, this study is quantitative research. Considering the appropriate sample size is critical in achieving the statistical significance of the data analysis. If it's too small, there will be a risk of not having enough data to support the hypothesis. Such can cause the relationships between the variables to appear not statistically significant.

However, large samples can be more representative of the research population. The issue with having a large sample size is that the researcher needs to collect data randomly, and the target population is homogenous. The last section stated that this study's method of sampling is non-probability, including convenience sampling. This research adopts this method as the researcher can easily access the target participants and volunteers. However, sampling bias will occur when the research uses a particular over-representative or under-representative population (Fowler and Lapp, 2019).

As mentioned before, this research deploys SEM in data analysis. Considering the above, the sample size in this study will be justified based on the literature to avoid undermining the validity of this study. A previous study claimed that suitable sample size is critical irrespective of the size of the entire population (Veal, 2017). It is also essential to consider the cost, time and efficiency in requiring the expected complete questionnaire survey. Without considering the above elements, it is more than likely that the research will fail.

Previous researchers pointed out that the issue with sample size under non-probability sampling is vague (Saunders et al., 2018). And it appears to be unlikely to determine the best sample size (Finn et al., 2000). However, this study will determine the sample size based on the research questions and objectives of this study and the availability of resources suggested by the previous scholars (Patton, 2002, Saunders et al., 2018). Furthermore, the SEM technique will be used to conduct data analysis. Previous literature suggested that the sample size should be over 100 (Kline, 2011). This is because SEM is sensitive to sample size in line with the magnitude of differences in covariance matrices (Yuksel et al., 2010). Thus, considering the sample size more representation of the research population and the deploying of SEM technique, this research would consider a sample size of over 300 for LG WHS due to its remote location and over 700 for HAG WHS due to its easy access in Suzhou.

5.8 Data Analysis for the Questionnaire

The initial questionnaire contains two parts. The first part was derived from 38 individual measurement items of five constructs, DID, DAT, DS, DL, and DI. The

second part contains five demographic information items, including age, education, monthly income validated by Choo et al. (2011), gender and region of residence validated by Dewar et al. (2012). All items were written in English (see appendices 2), which has to be translated into Chinese (see appendices 3). According to Saunders et al. (2018), the translation needs to be precise. Previous scholar Usunier (1998) proposed four techniques: direct translation, back translation, parallel translation and mixed techniques. This study deployed the back-translated process to translate the questionnaire to Chinese, then back to English. Following the back-translate technique, the researcher asked two peers fluent in English and Chinese to translate and compare the two questionnaires in the original language to ensure accuracy.

Data collection was conducted in two phases. The first time was in July 2017, and the second time was in July 2018. HAG is the most renowned. Its location can be accessed quickly. Such competitiveness made it No. 1 on tourists' Classic Garden visiting list. LG seemed to be less favourable to the tourists than HAG due to its remote location. The residents primarily visit with their annual ticket, which costs 120 Chinese Yuan and could allow 100 times to see any Classic Gardens. Due to the disadvantage of location and being comparatively less famous, Gardens such as LG are relatively less crowded, so the residents tend to be the key source of tourists.

Such a phenomenon indicates that HTM in China's Suzhou has already adopted combining internal and external branding. In other words, the data collected from the case of Suzhou WHS is appropriate for this research. Thus, analysing the data

from HAG and LG enables more accurate explanations of the above research questions and reveals the unknown elements, including residents, tourists, and WHS in WHS branding.

Given this research aims to investigate the causal and effect relationship involving an independent and dependent variable, the literature suggested the multivariate statistical correlation analysis is appropriate for this study (Johnson and Wichern, 2014, Braun et al., 2014, Hair, 2009, Ong and Puteh, 2017). As the previous section mentioned, this research would deploy the SEM technique, which the literature considers this method the best in concurrently examining the causal and effect relationships (Byrne, 2013, Hair, 2009).

The SEM statistical analysis includes covariance-based SEM and variance-based SEM. Due to the comparatively large sample size and the normally distributed data in this research, this study deploys covariance-based SEM to confirm theories through hypothesis testing. This research utilises convergent and discriminant validity to assess the measured items' validity. Following covariance SEM statistical analysis, the study will deploy the technique of Maximum Likelihood estimation to measure the significance of the causal and effect relationships between independent and dependent variables (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010)(Ong and Puteh, 2017).

5.8.1 Statistics Package for Social Science (SPSS) and AMOS

When selecting the suitable statistical software for data analysis, this research will choose the Statistics Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and AMOS. SPSS

can take on both comparison and correlational statistical tests in multivariate analysis, whilst AMOS can be used to confirm a theory (Byrne, 2013, Hair, 2009). The SPSS statistical software enables performing the normality test and frequency analysis. Thus, SPSS is the best statistical analysis software for this research to perform data analysis. As aforementioned, this research deploys the SEM method to examine the causal and effect relationships between constructs with multiple measurement items (Hair et al., 2011). This study's conceptual models can be tested via the SEM technique. Accordingly, AMOS will assist in covariance-based SEM analysis to confirm or reject the theories (Ong and Puteh, 2017).

Previous literature contended that SEM and AMOS could examine the relationships between multiple variables and the effect and verify theories (Byrne, 2013). This study will deploy SEM and AMOS 25 to analyse and test the hypothesis. Furthermore, Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) will be utilised in this study to identify the internal reliability of the measures. Following the literature, this study will conduct factor loadings in CFA to determine the dimensions of the latent variables (Hair et al., 2011).

Following the literature, this study will deploy the following indicators to evaluate the model's goodness of fit. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSE) assesses the error estimate of the population, sensitive to the degree of freedom. Thus, the value of RMSE needs to be between 0.05 and 0.08. The comparative fit index (CFI) compares the existing model with the null model and needs to be near 0.9. The Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) refers to the comparison of the normal χ^2 (Chi squared) values for the null and specified models. The value of TLI cannot be less

than 0.9. The normed-fit index (NFI) reflects the ratio of the differences in χ^2 value for the null model, which needs to be near 0.95 (Kline, 2011, Hair et al., 2011, Byrne, 2013).

5.8.2 The Trustworthiness of the Collected Data

It is critical to maintain reliable data in a research study, which will ensure the quality of the research findings. Traditionally, there is a difference when describing trustworthiness between qualitative and quantitative research. For instance, validity, reliability, and generalisability are common concepts in examining quantitative data trustworthiness (Shields and King, 2001, Graneheim and Lundman, 2004).

It is critical to select the most appropriate data collection method and quantity (Polit and Hungler, 2005). Furthermore, it is also crucial for the researcher to be qualified and trained, which will help the research findings be trustworthy. The researcher will be alone in the data collection and analysis process (Patton, 1990, Graneheim and Lundman, 2004).

This study sought quantitative data trustworthiness by adopting a case study approach, which can offer a scientific indication base for empirical applications through discovering the authenticity and policy interrogations (Zucker, 2001, McGloin, 2008). This research method enables the flexibility of obtaining quantitative data (Pegram, 1999, Vallis and Tierney, 1999, McGloin, 2008) to stimulate hypotheses and form the conceptual framework. It is vital to engendering a conceptual framework to direct data collection and analysis. With this

methodology, this study will investigate the facets identified by the collected quantitative data and generate the findings (Eisenhardt, 1989, Yin, 1994, McDonnell et al., 2000, McGloin, 2008).

Furthermore, previous scholar Guba (1981) proposed four criteria for trustworthiness: truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality. Truth value involves the confidence of the researcher regarding the truth of the research findings (Lincoln and Guba, 1985a). The case study of this research takes place in a real-life situation. By this means, the truth value of the findings will fundamentally increase the reliability to maintain trustworthiness (Mitchell, 1983, Polit and Hungler, 2003), which suggests the research findings can be pragmatic to other situations (Lincoln and Guba, 1985a)(Krefting, 1991).

5.8.3 Making Sense of Quantitative Data and Coding

Process research requires the researcher to understand the changes over time and why the progress was made (Ven de Ven & Huber, 1990). However, Langley (1999) pointed out that process data mainly concerns activities in real life, although the process is messy. It faces an ongoing trial to make sense of it. The data in actual organisational contexts have dynamic features, making it more difficult to scrutinise and operate. Furthermore, pro-analyse data needs a set of conceptualising measures and finding the patterns amongst them. Therefore, it is vital to identify ways to process data.

However, the route from raw data to conceptual models is complicated, commonly going through different phases before a specified outcome is detected (Van de Ven

and Poole, 1995, Burgelman, 1983, Rogers, 2010, Langlely, 1999). Following the request from the successful analysis of data in processual case research, this study implements a specific approach at the earliest stages of data collection, as shown in Figure 5.2

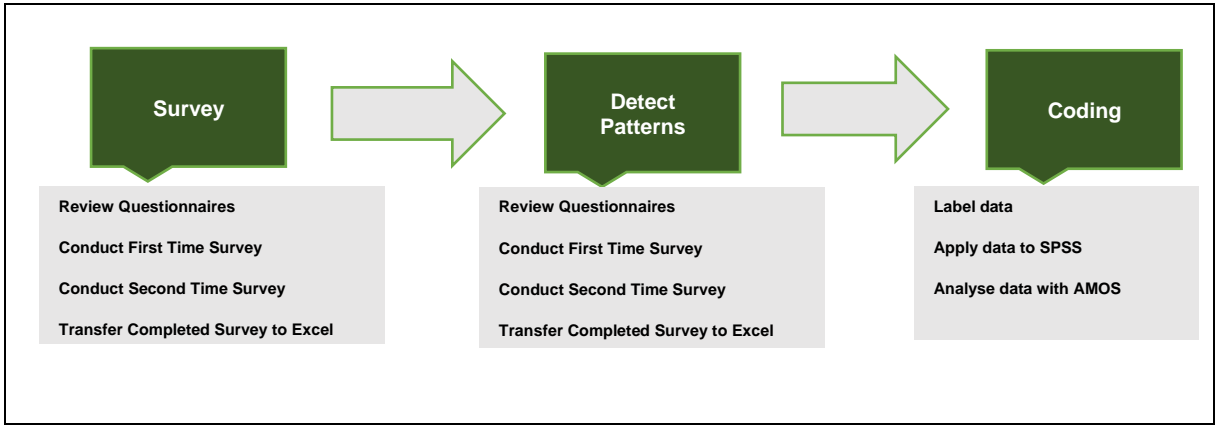


Figure 5.2: Pre-Analysis Process

Empirical monotonies could be generated from data, while abstract conceptualisation requests “sensemaking” in propagative mechanisms (Tsoukas, 1989, Langlely, 1999). Diffident strategies may engender different systems of theory, which only reveal it is more or less effective instead of being taken for better or worse. Despite the challenging data processing stage, it is significant that data analysis can produce a novel theory. Such can help understand the conduct of individuals and the dynamic qualities of organisational life in line with diverse perspectives (Pettigrew, 1990). The stages of analysis adopted were gradually identified through a tremendous amount of literature review to achieve this. After numerous trials following the previous data analysis, this study finally understood the pre-analysis process. As shown in Fig. 5.2, raw data, which was surveyed with questionnaires, needed to be labelled and transferred into files, see the descriptive

items and labels in Table 5.3. Additionally, the labelled data can then be transferred to the software of SPSS and be analysed for the base of a conceptual framework.

Table 5.3 Descriptive Items and Labels

	Descriptive Items	Label	Mean	S.D.
	<i>Destination Identification</i>	<i>DID</i>		
1	This Garden is global heritage	DID1	4.51	0.74
2	This WHS brand is important at understanding Chinese identity	DID2	4.28	0.97
3	WHS status made this Garden famous	DID3	3.94	1.08
4	The people are trust worthy	DID4	3.27	1.15
5	I would like to be part of heritage conservation	DID5	4.27	0.90
6	Look forward to witnessing the WHS's future conservation	DID6	4.25	0.93
7	There are a lot of things that kept me in this place	DID7	3.28	1.20
	<i>Destination Attachment</i>	<i>DAT</i>		
8	I would like to be involved in Classic Gardens related activities	DAT1	4.09	0.93
9	In general, I like seeing this WHS garden	DAT2	4.07	0.99
10	Availability of travel information	DAT3	4.03	0.99
11	Hotels/restaurants provide quality service	DAT4	3.53	1.10
	<i>Destination Satisfaction</i>	<i>DS</i>		
12	Helps tourism development	DS1	4.22	0.89
13	Increase international reputation	DS2	3.40	1.27
14	Brings more tourists	DS3	3.70	1.10
15	Helps to protect heritage	DS4	4.32	0.90
16	Chinese culture	DS5	4.23	0.95
17	The Garden has quality infrastructure	DS6	4.05	0.99
	<i>Destination Loyalty</i>	<i>DL</i>		
18	This Garden is one of preferred place to visit	DL1	3.96	0.98
19	Recognise the WHS brand	DL2	3.20	1.39
20	Visit in the future	DL3	4.03	1.10
21	Recommend this Garden to friends	DL4	4.20	1.00
22	Easy access to the area	DL5	4.03	1.07
	<i>Destination Image</i>	<i>DI</i>		
23	Scenery / natural wonder	DI1	4.18	0.92
24	Improves local economic development	DI2	3.48	1.19
25	Helps to build a friendly community atmosphere	DI3	4.02	0.94
26	Improves the awareness of cultural heritage in local people	DI4	4.10	1.08
27	Made local people like to work and live at their home town	DI5	3.62	1.20
28	Produced Clean/unspoiled environment	DI6	4.37	0.88
29	Improve local public facilities	DI7	4.22	0.88
30	Cause more traffic jams, difficult to go out	DI8	4.28	0.91
31	The Garden is 1 Peaceful 2 Less Peaceful 3 not Peaceful nor noisy 4 Less noisy 5 Noisy	DI9	4.14	0.98
32	The Garden is 1 Pleasant 2 Less Pleasant 3 not Pleasant nor unpleasant 4 Less unpleasant 5 Unpleasant	DI10	4.21	0.91
33	The Garden is 1 Relaxing 2 Less relaxing 3 not relaxing nor distressing 4 Less distressing 5 Distressing	DI11	3.92	1.10

34	Gender	Gen	1.49	0.50
35	Place to Live	PTL	1.47	0.50
36	Age	Age	2.73	1.08
37	Education	Edu	2.51	0.80
38	Income	Income	2.41	1.36

5.9 Conclusion

The research literature has called for knowledge, an essential foundation for producing scientific principles in solutions critical to varied business, governmental and social setbacks. It is crucial to understand research methodology while conducting research work. This chapter has described how an appropriate research tool was developed to capture a snapshot of WHS branding in HTM in China. It explained why this research deploys a case study, SEM technique, and quantitative research method to capture the dynamics of WHS branding. The case study staged in one setting aims to transform practice and contribute to the broader indication. The findings can be extended and generalise theories (Burns and Grove, 1997, Yin, 1994, McGloin, 2008).

As a researcher, it is valuable to know the standing of research methodology, which is different from research methods, to equip better and comprehend the changes in the researched area. Researchers utilise research methods or techniques to conduct their research processes, where research problems occur along the study journey. The research method will deal with problems. In this study, the collected data was proved insufficient after attempting to analyse the first data collection. The research method requires a solution to such a problem.

Additionally, this study encountered statistical techniques when using SPSS and AMOS due to insufficient data. It is rather challenging to work out the constructs' relationships based on the first data collection. To solve that, this study organised the second data collection the following year. Moreover, investigating the conceptual model's accuracy required this study to examine the validity of the model testing results. Therefore, this study used research methods to analyse this research's performance (Kothari, 2004).

Nevertheless, research methodology aided this research in systematically finding solutions to research problems in this study. Furthermore, it helped this study see the right direction instead of becoming lost in working out the appropriate sampling frame and size before collecting data to establish a valid conceptual framework. It is critical to have a research methodology in this study. It covers many dimensions, such as shedding light on destination branding strategy in this study to enhance the effectiveness of the WHS brand. In the request to achieve so, this study suggested combining internal and external branding, which had little previous literature available. Therefore, the research methodology offers the appropriate research methods and guides this study in explaining why this particular research technique is deployed in this research work (Kothari, 2004).

Given the importance of dynamic research methodology, the research method investigates the facts under logical reflections. Such can achieve the purpose of research methodology to accomplish a methodical rapport of points. Therefore, it is vital to understand research methodology when doing research. It requires the researcher to obtain relevant research skills and learn scientific knowledge from

previous literature (Kothari, 2004). For instance, this study read a considerable amount of literature and attended many research skill training programmes before compiling questionnaires to meet the quantitative method's request in this research. Following the guideline of research methodology, the next chapter will use appropriate research methods to analyse data and test hypotheses in discovering the relationships amongst the constructs.

Chapter 6: Data Analysis

6.1. Introduction

This chapter analyses the data collected from 714 HAG and 338 LG completed survey questionnaires to determine the causal relationships between the independent and dependent variables. The analysis will take the recommended approach from previous scholars, using CFA and SEM techniques (Qu et al., 2011, Chen and Phou, 2013, Shen et al., 2009, Hultman et al., 2015, Zenker et al., 2017, Balmer and Chen, 2016, Maghsoodi Tilaki et al., 2016, Chen and Tsai, 2007). Data analysis deploys SPSS version 25 and Amos version 25. CFA would be conducted to test how well the measured variables represent the constructs and to assess whether the goodness-of-fit indices are significant for the model. Furthermore, a test of discriminant validity was done before finally deploying the SEM technique to identify the relationships among the five constructs. After performing the structural model fit, the final step would test the research hypotheses.

6.2 Data Analysis

6.2.1 Characteristics of Samples

Following the previous research Zenker et al. (2017), this study will conduct two separate data analyses, including HAG data analysis and LG data analysis, based on the questionnaire surveys completed by the combined participants, including tourists and residents. Among the 714 HAG respondents, 55 per cent are tourists, while 45 per cent are residents. Furthermore, 38 per cent of them are male, while 62 per cent of them are female. Around 80 per cent of them are aged between 18 and 24. More details about income and education are shown in Table 6.1

Since this study aims to examine the effect of residents-included internal branding and tourist-incorporated external branding on HTM in China, following the previous research of Zenker et al. (2017), the data analysis of LG will deploy the combined data collected from the residents and the tourists. However, the numbers of residents are more than the number of tourists. The purpose is to find out whether there is a noticeable improvement in enhancing DI and DL when more residents are involved in HTM, whilst HAG involves more tourists than residents. The characteristics of 338 data collected at LG, 48 per cent of them are tourists, while 52 per cent of the participants are residents. Furthermore, 33 per cent of them are male, while 67 per cent of them are female. Around 83 per cent of them are aged between 18 and 24. More details about income and education are shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Characteristics of Data Collected at HAG and LG

	Frequency (HAG)	Percent (%)	Frequency (LG)	Percent (%)
Participants				
Tourists	391	55.0	161	47.6
Residents	323	45.0	176	52.1
Gender				
Male	270	38.0	113	33.4
Female	444	62.0	225	66.6
Age (years old)				
18-24	601	84.2	282	83.4
25-34	64	9	32	9.5
35-44	32	4.5	15	4.4
45-54	16	2.2	9	2.7
Above 54	1	0.1	-	-
Education				
High School	91	12.7	35	10.4
Undergraduate/College	617	86.4	289	85.5
Degree				
Postgraduate Degree	5	0.7	13	3.8
PhD	1	0.1	1	0.3
Income				
Less than 3000 Yuan	555	77.7	265	78.4
3000 - 4900 Yuan	73	10.2	29	8.6
5000 – 5999 Yuan	42	5.9	22	6.5
Above 6000 Yuan	44	6.2	22	6.5
Total	714	100.0	338	100.0

6.2.2 Measurement Model and Validity

Following the literature, the measurement model will be first evaluated before conducting SEM. Based on Maximum Likelihood Estimates, this research adopted a two-step method recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). This study first would test the liability of 33 measurements of the five constructs DID, DAT, DS, DL and DI (see Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Measurements of the Five Constructs

Construct	Code	Measurement
Destination Identification	DID1	This Garden is a global heritage
	DID2	This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity
	DID3	The WHS status made this Garden famous
	DID4	The people are trustworthy
	DID5	I would like to be part of heritage conservation
	DID6	I look forward to witnessing this Garden's future conservation
	DID7	There are a lot of things that keep me in this place
Destination Attachment	DAT1	I would like to be involved in this Garden's related activities
	DAT2	In general, I like seeing this Garden
	DAT3	Availability of travel information
	DAT4	Hotels/restaurants provide quality service
Destination Satisfaction	DS1	Helps tourism development
	DS2	Increase international reputation
	DS3	Brings more tourists
	DS4	Helps to protect heritage
	DS5	Chinese culture
	DS6	This Garden has quality infrastructure
Destination Loyalty	DL1	This Garden is one of the preferred places to visit
	DL2	Recognise the WHS brand
	DL3	Visit in the future
	DL4	Recommend this Garden to friends
	DL5	Easy access to the area
Destination Image	DI1	Scenery/natural wonders
	DI2	Improves local economic development
	DI3	Helps to build a friendly community atmosphere
	DI4	Improves the awareness of culture heritage in local people
	DI5	Made local people like to work and live at their home town
	DI6	Produced a clean/unspoiled environment
	DI7	Improves local public facilities
	DI8	Cause more traffic jams, difficult to go out
	DI9	The Garden is 1 Peaceful 2 Less peaceful 3 Not peaceful nor noisy 4 Less noisy 5 Noisy
	DI10	The Garden is 1 Pleasant 2 Less pleasant 3 Not pleasant nor unpleasant 4 Less unpleasant 5 Unpleasant
	DI11	The Garden is 1 Relaxing 2 Less relaxing 3 Not relaxing nor distressing 4 Less distressing 5 Distressing

Table 6.3 Skewness and Kurtosis of the Constructs

Constructs	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	S.E.	Statistic	S.E.
Destination Identification	4.26	0.87	-1.08	0.18	1.00	0.37
Destination Attachment	4.27	0.98	-1.29	0.18	1.25	0.37
Destination Satisfaction	4.30	0.91	-1.33	0.18	1.68	0.37
Destination Loyalty	4.25	0.86	-1.24	0.18	1.97	0.37
Destination Image	4.44	0.87	1.68	0.18	2.85	0.37

Before testing the measurement model, it is vital to test the normality of the factors (Bryman, 2012, Hair, 2009). Thus, this study conducted a multivariate normality test for the dimensions of the constructs. According to the literature, Kurtosis and Skewness need to be ranged between 2 and -2 (Field, 2013). Table 6.3 shows the Skewness and Kurtosis of the constructs DID, DAT, DS, DI and DL are all between 2 and -2. Thus, SEM is considered a suitable technique to be deployed in the data analysis of this research.

After testing with SPSS, among the 33 measurements, some items were discarded due to the scale reliability test (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). It is because their estimates are lower than 0.5. According to the previous studies of Qu et al. (2011) and Chen and Phou (2013), poor factors/variables need to be removed when processing factor loading in estimating factor scores. The baseline for discarding the measured variables of each construct was factor loading communality score. Therefore, all the remaining measurements have a factor loading higher than 0.5 (Chen and Phou, 2013). Such action was to ensure the coefficient of the factor loading, Cronbach's α over 0.7. The statistically significant HAG variables are shown in Table 6.4, LG variables are shown in Table 6.5.

Furthermore, CFA in this study will be conducted to determine the validity and reliability of the model. Amos 25 will be used to test the model and calculate

estimates. A preliminary CFA via a standardised factor loading will then be conducted to analyse the reliability and validity of the proposed structural model. This research adopted Varimax loading based on factors that can be correlated to each other. Factor Analysis Extraction Method of Maximum Likelihood Method was selected while Varimax with Kaiser Normalization was deployed in Rotation.

Table 6.4 Results of Measurements after Factor Loading (HAG)

Measurement	Factor Loading	Mean	Std. Deviation
Destination Identification (DID)			
This Garden is a global heritage	.628***	4.33	.976
This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity	.612***	4.22	1.024
I would like to be part of heritage conservation	.651***	4.20	.991
I look forward to witnessing this Garden's future conservation	.627***	4.17	1.050
There are a lot of things that keep me in this place	.643***	4.00	1.050
Destination Attachment (DAT)			
In general, I like seeing this Garden	.593***	4.13	1.027
Availability of travel information	.716***	3.99	1.060
Hotels/restaurants provide quality service	.655***	4.12	1.017
Destination Satisfaction (DS)			
Helps tourism development	.702***	4.15	.996
Increases international reputation	.635***	4.04	1.053
Brings more tourists	.682***	3.84	1.097
Helps to protect heritage	.708***	4.19	.692
Destination Loyalty (DL)			
This Garden is one of the preferred places to visit	.712***	4.19	.995
Visit in the future	.716***	4.14	.995
Recommend this WHS to friends	.670***	4.18	1.005
Destination Image (DI)			
Helps to build a friendly community atmosphere	.663***	3.89	1.093
Improves the awareness of cultural heritage in local people	.628***	4.10	.982
Made local people like to work and live at their home town	.615***	3.95	1.076
Improves local public facilities	.591***	4.02	1.016

Table 6.5 Results of Measurements after Factor Loading (LG)

Measurement	Factor Loading	Mean	Std. Deviation
Destination Identification (DID)			
This Garden is a global heritage	.809	4.34	.924
This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity	.804	4.29	.956
Destination Attachment (DAT)			

I would like to be involved in this Garden's related activities	.723	4.14	.982
In general, I like seeing this Garden	.606	4.13	.989
Hotels/restaurants provide quality service	.685	4.12	1.014
Destination Satisfaction (DS)			
Helps tourism development	.578	3.97	1.145
Chinese culture	.631	3.89	1.041
Increase international reputation	.588	4.05	1.003
The Garden has quality infrastructure	.606	3.89	1.076
Destination Loyalty (DL)			
Recognise the WHS brand	.652	4.14	.927
Visit in the future	.645	4.09	1.006
Easy to access the area	.680	4.13	1.047
Destination Image (DI)			
Helps to build a friendly community atmosphere	.691	4.12	1.023
Improves the awareness of cultural heritage in local people	.701	4.10	.996
Made local people like to work and live at their home town	.689	3.97	1.052
Improves local economic development	.677	4.12	.971
Produced a clean/unspoiled environment	.625	3.82	1.104

Table 6.6 KMO and Bartlett's Test (HAG)

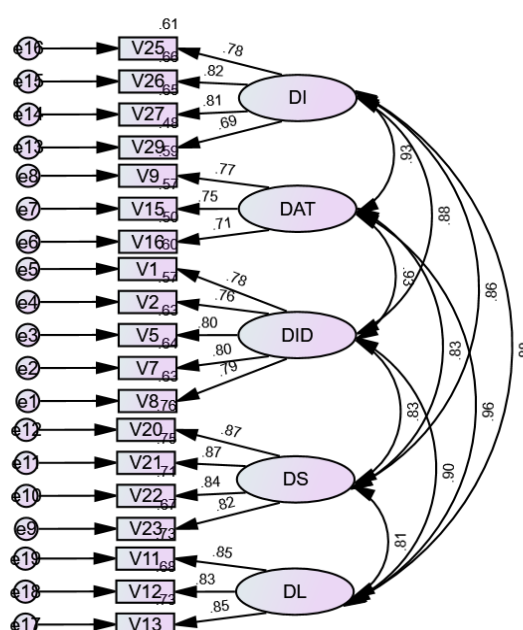
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.961
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	18559.118
	df	703
	Sig.	.000

Table 6.7 KMO and Bartlett's Test (LG)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.951	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9280.219
	df	528
	Sig.	.000

Table 6.6 & 6.7 reveal that KMO and Bartlett's test statistics are good enough while the p value < .001 is significant. Therefore, it is appropriate to use factor loading to find essential variables.

The following step evaluates whether the remaining variables can be tested to create five effective components. A first-order CFA was conducted to obtain a first-order measurement model (see Fig 6.1 HAG and Fig 6.2 LG). The overall goodness-of-fit indices are as the following (see Table 6.8), in HAG: Chi-square/Df = (539.958/142) = 3.8 < 5; GFI=.928, AGFI=.903, NFI=.949, CFI=.962, all above 0.9; RMR=.029 and RMSEA=.063; in LG, Ch-square/Df= 2.698, GFI=.912, AGFI=.9, NFI=.941, CFI=.962, RMR=.036, RMSA=.071. The two models are a good model fit with significant validity and reliability (Gerbing and Anderson, 1992, Hair et al., 1998).

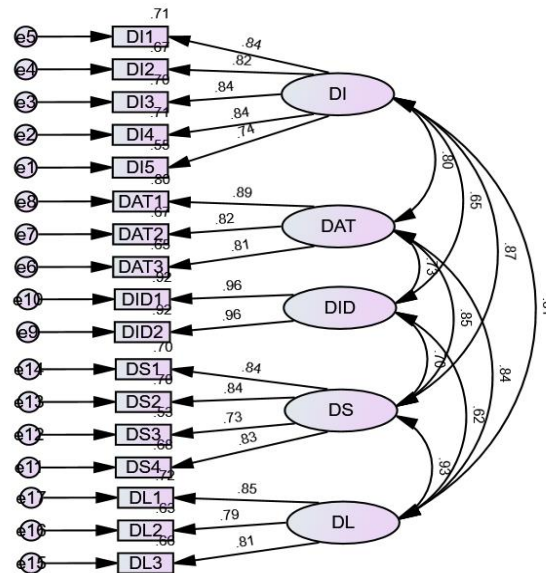


Note: Chi-square=539.958, Df=142, chi-square/Df=3.803, RMR=.029, GFI=.928, AGFI=.903, NFI=.949, CFI=.962, RMSEA=.063, DI=destination Image, DAT=destination Attachment, DID=destination identification, DS=destination satisfaction, DL=destination loyalty

Fig 6.1. First Order of HAG Measurement Model

Table 6.8 Goodness-of-Fit Indices of HAG and LG Measurement Model

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Observed Value (HAG)	Observed Value (LG)	Recommended Threshold
NFI (Normed Fit Index)	0.949	0.941	> 0.90 (Byrne, 1994)
GFI (Goodness of Fit Index)	0.928	0.912	>0.90 (Byrne, 1994, Hoyle, 1995)
CFI (Comparative Fit Index)	0.962	0.962	>0.93 (Byrne, 1994, Bentler, 1992)
RMSEA (Standardized Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	0.063	0.071	≤ 0.08 (Hu and Bentler, 1998)
χ^2/df (Chi-square/Degrees of Freedom)	3.803	2.698	≤ 5 (Kline, 2015, Hair et al., 1998)



Note: Model=Standardised estimates, Ch-square=294.031, Df=109, Ch-square/Df= 2.698, GFI=.912, AGFI=.9, NFI=.941, CFI=.962, RMR=.036, RMSA=.071, P=.000. DID= Destination Identification, DAT=Destination Attachment, DS=Destination Satisfaction, DL=Destination Loyalty, DI=Destination Image

Fig 6.2. First Order Measurement Model of LG

6.2.3 Validity

The measurement model's overall fit can be identified in three steps, including convergent validity, discriminant validity, and nomological validity. The validity of the statistics after CFA can be seen in the model in Fig 6.1 and Fig 6.2. Table 6.9

and Table 6.10, reveal every item in HAG model and LG model had factor loading score above 0.5. When conducting convergent validity, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) needs to be greater than 0.5. In contrast, Construct Reliability (CR) needs to be greater than 0.7.

In the first-order factor measurement model of HAG, the results of the index of AVE (see Table 6.9), including 0.616 (DID), 0.714 (DAT), 0.721 (DS), 0.554 (DL) and 0.602 (DI) exceeded 0.5; the results of CR of each construct, including 0.897 (DID), 0.896 (DAT), 0.913 (DS), 0.733 (DL) and 0.862 (DI) exceeded 0.7. In the model of LG, the index of AVE (see Table 6.10), the results, including 0.918 (DID), 0.706 (DAT), 0.655 (DS), 0.668 (DL), 0.668 (DI) exceeded 0.5. The results of CR of each construct, including 0.921 (DID), 0.741 (DAT), 0.702 (DS), 0.711 (DL), 0.711 (DI) exceeded 0.7. The above results of AVE and CR of each construct in HAG model and LG model indicate that the reliability and validity of the two models are established (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Internal consistency is regarded as the extent to which the individual items that constitute a scale correlate with one another or with the overall test (Koufteros, 1999, Suyan et al., 2009). Chen and Phou (2013) deployed Cronbach's α to specify the reliability coefficients of model constructs and establish internal consistency. The results of Cronbach's α of the five constructs of HAG model (see Table 6.9), including 0.889 (DID), 0.789 (DAT), 0.907 (DS), 0.883 (DL) and 0.855 (DI) exceeded 0.7. In LG model, the results of Cronbach's α of the five constructs (see Table 6.10), including 0.95 (DID), 0.876 (DAT), 0.875 (DS), 0.858 (DL) and 0.908 (DI) exceeded 0.7. According to the recommendation of Cronbach (1951), when

the index of Cronbach's α is above 0.5, it indicates a good result. When the index of Cronbach's α is above 0.7, it designates high-reliability coefficients in the model of HAG and LG. The Cronbach's α index results all exceed 0.7, indicating the internal consistency and reliability coefficients of model constructs are established (Koufteros, 1999; Suyan et al., 2009). Additionally, all t-values (see Table 6.9 and Table 6.10) of the loadings of measurement variables on the individual latent variables are statistically significant. Thus, the convergent validity of the HAG measurement model and LG measurement model is supported.

In the HAG measurement model and LG measurement model, the index of AVE exceeded 0.5; the result of CR of each construct exceeded 0.7, indicating the reliability and validity of the two models are established (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Table 6.11 shows the results of the HAG and LG model's validity statistics. The index of AVE of the five constructs DID, DAT, DS, DL and DI are all above 0.5; Cronbach's α and CR of the five constructs DID, DAT, DS, DL and DI in the two models are all above 0.7. The significant statistics of the two models indicate high-reliability coefficients, and the internal consistency and reliability coefficients of model constructs are established (Koufteros, 1999, Suyan et al., 2009).

Table 6.12 (HAG) and Table 6.13 (LG) display that the statistics of AVE are higher than the squared correlation of the two constructs, indicating discriminant validity. Furthermore, the statistics of Tables 6.14 & 6.16 and 6.15 & 6.17 reveal that the correlation of constructs of the two models is significant. Therefore, discriminant validity of the HAG measurement model and LG measurement model is established. Furthermore, a discriminant validity test has been completed to reveal

the value of each construct's AVE is greater than the squared inter-correlations (SIC) between constructs, signifying the validity reliability of the model is significant at internal consistency. The individual items constitute scale correlate with one another or with the test total. The model fit and its proven validity and reliability indicate that the HAG measurement model and LG measurement model are statistically consistent with the reliable measurement, which can investigate the structural correlations between constructs. As a result of a good model fit, based on the first order measurement model, the following step is to test the structural equation model and assess hypotheses (Schreiber et al., 2006).

Table 6.9 The Validity of Constructs of HAG Measurement Model

Factors/Items	Standardised Factor	t-Value	CR	AVE	Cronbach's α
Destination Identification (DID)			0.897	0.616	.889
This Garden is a global heritage	.777***	22.840			
This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity	.758***	22.139			
I would like to be part of heritage conservation	.796***	23.588			
I look forward to witnessing this Garden's future conservation	.798***	23.680			
There are a lot of things that keep me in this place	.795***	A			
Destination Attachment (DAT)			0.896	0.714	.789
In general, I like seeing this garden	.769***	19.807			
Availability of travel information	.754***	19.425			
Hotels/restaurants provide quality service	.709***	A			
Destination Satisfaction (DS)			0.913	0.721	.907
Helps tourism development	.869***	27.764			
Increases international reputation	.867***	27.685			
Brings more tourists	.843***	26.565			
Helps to protect heritage	.816***	A			
Destination Loyalty (DL)			0.773	0.554	.883
This Garden is one of the preferred places to visit	.853***	29.112			
Visit in the future	.882***	27.610			
Recommend this WHS to friends	.855***	A			
Destination Image (DI)			0.862	0.602	.855

Helps to build a friendly community atmosphere	.784***	19.411			
Improves the awareness of cultural heritage in local people	.815***	20.131			
Made local people like to work and live at their home town	.805***	19.907			
Improves local public facilities	.700***	A			

Note: *** $p < .001$, CR= Construct Reliability, AVE= Average Variance Extracted, A regression weight was fixed at 1

Table 6.10 The Validity of Constructs of LG Measurement Model

Factors/Items	Standardised Factor	t- Value	CR	AVE	Cronbach's α
Destination Identification (DID)			0.921	0.918	.950
This Garden is a global heritage	.958***	31.567			
This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity	.950***	A			
Destination Attachment (DAT)			0.741	0.706	.876
I would like to be involved in this Garden's related activities	.893***	19.012			
In general, I like seeing this Garden	.819***	16.981			
Hotels/restaurants provide quality service	.807***	A			
Destination Satisfaction (DS)			0.702	0.655	.875
Helps tourism development	.838***	18.825			
Chinese culture	.839***	18.534			
Increase international reputation	.812***	15.153			
The Garden has quality Infrastructure	.825***	A			
Destination Loyalty (DL)			0.711	0.668	.858
Recognise the WHS brand	.846***	17.83			
Visit in the future	.794***	16.344			
Easy to access the area	.812***	A			
Destination Image (DI)			0.711	0.668	.908
Helps to build a friendly community atmosphere	.844***	15.803			
Improves the awareness of cultural heritage in local people	.818***	15.270			
Made local people like to work and live at their home town	.838***	15.675			
Improves local economic development	.840***	15.714			
Produced clean/unspoiled environment	.714***	A			

Note: *** $p < .001$, they were significant at t-value > 1.96 / A regression weight was fixed at 1.

Table 6.11 The Validity Statistics of HAG Model and LG Model

Constructs	AVE	AVE	CR	CR	Cronbach's α	Cronbach's α
	HAG	LG	HAG	LG	HAG	LG
DID	0.616	0.918	0.897	0.921	0.889	0.95
DAT	0.714	0.706	0.896	0.741	0.789	0.876
DS	0.721	0.665	0.913	0.702	0.907	0.875
DL	0.554	0.668	0.773	0.711	0.883	0.858
DI	0.602	0.668	0.862	0.711	0.885	0.908

Table 6.12: Discriminant Validity (HAG)

Validity	Correlation	Squared Correlation r^2	AVE1 AVEs should >	AVE2 r^2	Discriminant Validity
DID<--> DAT	.626	.392	.616	.714	Established
DID<--> DS	.593	.352	.616	.721	Established
DID<--> DL	.666	.443	.616	.554	Established
DID<--> DI	.540	.292	.616	.602	Established
DAT<--> DS	.527	.278	.714	.721	Established
DAT<--> DI	.511	.261	.714	.602	Established
DAT<--> DL	.637	.406	.714	.554	Established
DS<--> DI	.496	.246	.721	.602	Established
DS<--> DL	.566	.320	.721	.554	Established
DI<--> DL	.526	.277	.602	.554	Established

Table 6.13: Discriminant Validity (LG)

Validity	Correlation	Squared Correlation r^2	AVE1 AVEs should >	AVE2 r^2	Discriminant Validity
DID<--> DAT	.546	0.298116	.918	.706	Established
DID<--> DS	.491	0.241081	.918	.655	Established
DID<--> DL	.499	0.249001	.918	.668	Established
DID<--> DI	.485	0.235225	.918	.668	Established
DAT<--> DS	.532	0.283024	.706	.655	Established
DAT<--> DI	.532	0.283024	.706	.668	Established
DAT<--> DL	.602	0.362404	.706	.668	Established
DS<--> DI	.542	0.293764	.655	.668	Established
DS<--> DL	.620	0.3844	.655	.668	Established
DI<--> DL	.579	0.335241	.668	.668	Established

Table 6.14: Correlation Matrix of Constructs (HAG) (N=714)

Construct	Mean	Std. D	DID	DAT	DS	DL
DID	4.183	1.026	1.00			
DAT	4.003	1.059	.626	1.00		
DS	4.175	0.989	.593	.527	1.00	
DL	4.087	1.024	.666	.637	.566	1.00
DI	3.99	1.042	.540	.511	.496	.526

Table 6.15: Correlation Matrix of Constructs (LG) (N=338)

Construct	Mean	Std. D	DID	DAT	DS	DL
DID	4.36	.94	1.00			
DAT	4.13	.995	.546***	1.00		
DS	4.08	1.031	.491***	.532***	1.00	
DL	3.94	1.721	.499***	.602***	.620***	1.00
DI	4.026	1.029	.485***	.532***	.542***	.579***

Table 6.16: Correlation Matrix (HAG) (N=714)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Suzhou HAG Garden is a global heritage	1.00																		
This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity	.683**	1.00																	
I would like to be part of heritage conservation	.610**	.618**	1.00																
I look forward to witnessing this Garden's future conservation	.612**	.594**	.661**	1.00															
There are a lot of things that keep me in this place	.576**	.546**	.606**	.661**	1.00														
In general, I like seeing this Garden	.542**	.532**	.576**	.594**	.622**	1.00													
This Garden is one of preferred place to visit	.591**	.577**	.634**	.621**	.657**	.643**	1.00												
You will visit this Garden in the future	.569**	.499**	.570**	.558**	.644**	.594**	.720**	1.00											
You will recommend this Garden to friends	.593**	.573**	.631**	.605**	.634**	.652**	.699**	.728**	1.00										
The travel information on this Garden is available	.553**	.549**	.590**	.550**	.571**	.559**	.586**	.570**	.678**	1.00									
Hotels/restaurants provide quality service	.438**	.443**	.497**	.469**	.553**	.527**	.607**	.565**	.545**	.581**	1.00								
This WHS brand helps tourism development at site	.557**	.556**	.551**	.566**	.564**	.551**	.600**	.574**	.599**	.543**	.526**	1.00							
This WHS brand increases international reputation	.601**	.543**	.579**	.587**	.570**	.534**	.588**	.556**	.604**	.544*	.482**	.772**	1.00						
This WHS brand brings more tourists	.536**	.543**	.575**	.548**	.567**	.544**	.608**	.517**	.615**	.532**	.469**	.708**	.743**	1.00					
This WHS brand helps protecting heritage	.586**	.501**	.546**	.536**	.524**	.547**	.555**	.598**	.590**	.536**	.464**	.728*	.677**	.690**	1.00				
Heritage tourism helped building friendly community atmosphere	.510**	.484**	.532**	.517**	.609**	.537**	.581**	.549**	.545**	.547**	.604**	.538**	.551**	.596**	.568**	1.00			
Heritage tourism improved the awareness of cultural heritage in local people	.568**	.580**	.547**	.583**	.576**	.596**	.652**	.597**	.606**	.562**	.522**	.586**	.596**	.599**	.593**	.647**	1.00		
Heritage tourism made local people like to work and live at their home town	.529**	.549**	.557**	.528**	.596**	.575**	.633**	.567**	.566**	.522**	.560**	.596**	.578**	.616**	.543**	.637**	.674**	1.00	
Tourism development improved local public facilities	.479**	.489**	.469**	.508**	.559**	.479**	.546**	.507**	.544**	.475**	.506**	.560**	.548**	.535**	.491**	.553**	.515**	.552**	1.00

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 6.17 Variables Correlation Matrix (LG) (N=338)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Suzhou Lingerling Garden is global heritage	1.000																
This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity	.918**	1.000															
I would like to be part of heritage conservation	.613**	.603**	1.000														
I look forward to witnessing this Garden's future conservation	.534**	.551**	.757**	1.000													
There are a lot of things that keep me in this place	.636**	.632**	.698**	.651**	1.000												
In general, I like seeing this Garden	.523**	.507**	.674**	.546**	.662**	1.000											
You will visit this Garden in the future	.523**	.501**	.660**	.573**	.600**	.635**	1.000										
It is easy access to the Garden	.502**	.491**	.580**	.517**	.531**	.500**	.668**	1.000									
Hotels/restaurant s provide quality service	.442**	.478**	.638**	.562**	.517**	.544**	.673**	.668**	1.000								
The Garden has quality Infrastructure	.545**	.548**	.603**	.533**	.528**	.535**	.684**	.662**	.628**	1.000							
The Garden impresses you with traditional Chinese culture	.529**	.547**	.633**	.585**	.571**	.595**	.678**	.586**	.628**	.727**	1.000						
This WHS brand helps tourism development at site	.593**	.582**	.620**	.537**	.567**	.607**	.617**	.601**	.607**	.675**	.733**	1.000					
This WHS brand helps protecting heritage	.570**	.572**	.620**	.568**	.572**	.548**	.570**	.589**	.589**	.616**	.574**	.700**	1.00				
Heritage tourism helped building friendly community atmosphere	.533**	.533**	.598**	.538**	.567**	.549**	.583**	.559**	.577**	.633**	.586**	.636**	.715**	1.00			
Heritage tourism improved the awareness of cultural heritage in local people	.472**	.473**	.522**	.521**	.507**	.529**	.561**	.528**	.535**	.580**	.594**	.632**	.688**	.690**	1.00		
Heritage tourism made local people like to work and live at their home town	.522**	.527**	.594**	.552**	.639**	.524**	.495**	.545**	.549**	.563**	.550**	.621**	.677**	.596**	.710**	1.00	
Tourism development produced clean/unspoiled environment	.413**	.411**	.503**	.421**	.478**	.503**	.468**	.510**	.498**	.519**	.474**	.518**	.598**	.599**	.590**	.685**	1.00

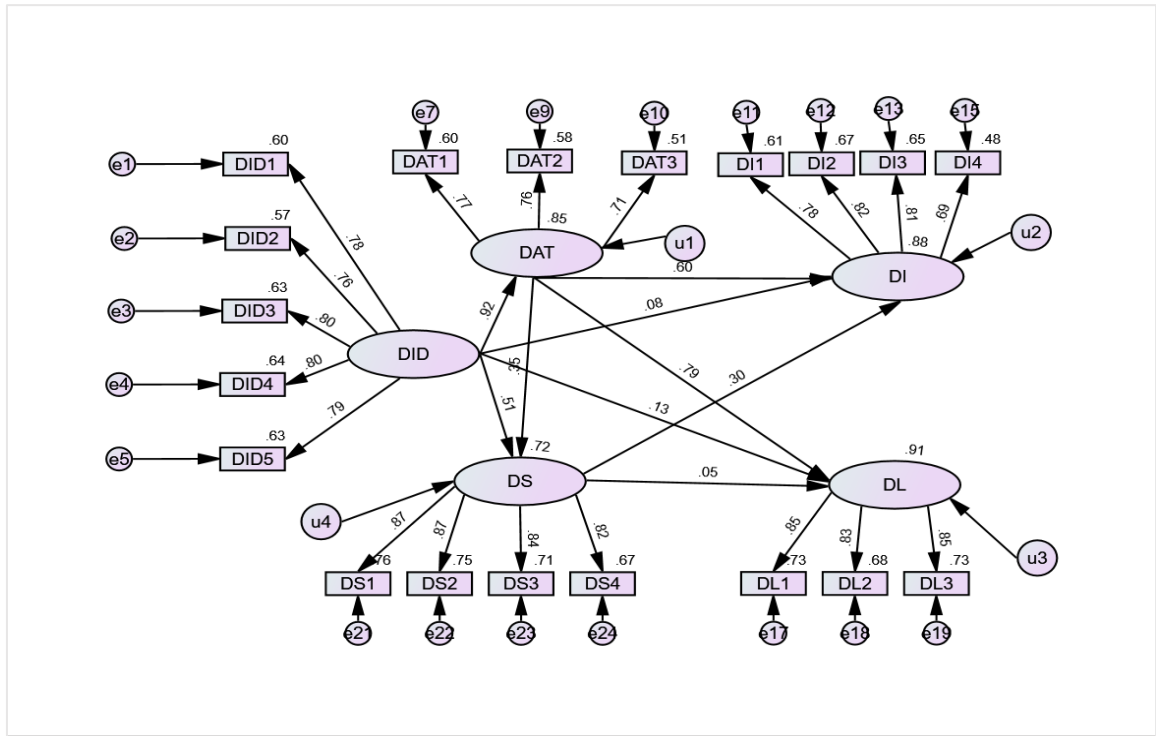
6.2.4 Structural Equation Model and Hypotheses Test

A previous study contended that the validity of the structural model results relies on apprehending and finding the causal constructs' reliability. Testing SEM involves estimating the degree to which a hypothesized model fits the data (Schreiber et al., 2006). In this study, the Structural Equation Model HAG can be seen in Fig 6.3, and the Structural Equation Model LG can be seen in Fig 6.4.

Furthermore, the previous study proposed that the SEM technique has been widely used in Social Science. It enables researchers to test the conceptual model and modify relationships between constructs to develop further the proposed theory (Baumgartner and Homburg, 1996). Furthermore, SEM provides researchers with a means to assess the proposed hypotheses and modify the theoretical models (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). A maximum likelihood estimation was used to evaluate the anticipated model's proposed relationships amongst the constructs.

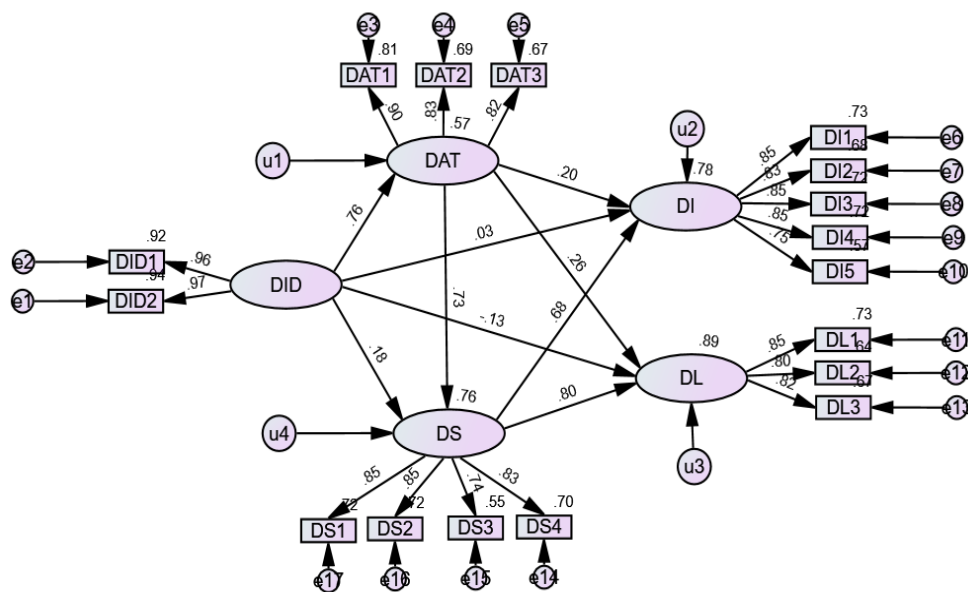
Table 6.18-HAG and Table 6.19-LG show the results of CFA analysis. All standardised factor loading is higher than 0.7, indicating the models are statistically significant. All t-values of the loadings of measurement variables on the individual latent variables are statistically significant. Thus, convergent validity is supported.

All standardised factor loading is higher than 0.7, indicating the model is statistically significant.



Note: Model=Standardised estimates, Ch-square=542.461, Df=143, Ch-square/Df= 3.793, GFI=.927, AGFI=.903, NFI=.948, CFI=.961, RMR=.029, RMSA=.063, P=.000. DID= Destination Identification, DAT=Destination Attachment, DS=Destination Satisfaction, DL=Destination Loyalty, DI=Destination Image

Fig 6.3. Structural Equation Model (HAG)



Note: Model=Standardised estimates, Ch-square=298.272, Df=111, Ch-square/Df= 2.687, GFI=.91, AGFI=0.9, NFI=.94, CFI=.961, RMR=.07, RMSA=.071, P=.000. DID= Destination Identification, DAT=Destination Attachment, DS=Destination Satisfaction, DL=Destination Loyalty, DI=Destination Image

Fig 6.4. Structural Equation Model (LG)

Table 6.18. Result of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (HAG)

Factors/Items	Standardised Factor	t-Value	CR	AVE	Cronbach's a
Destination Identification (DID)			.889	.616	.889
This Garden is a global heritage	.777***	22.837			
This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity	.758***	22.136			
I would like to be part of heritage conservation	.796***	23.588			
I look forward to witnessing this Garden's future conservation	.799***	23.678			
There are a lot of things that keep me in this place	.795***	A			
Destination Attachment (DAT)			.793	.561	.789
In general, I like seeing this garden	.773***	21.462			

Availability of travel information	.760***	A			
Hotels/restaurants provide quality service	.712***	19.542			
Destination Satisfaction (DS)			.912	.721	.911
Helps tourism development	.869***	30.947			
Increases international reputation	.868***	A			
Brings more tourists	.843***	29.307			
Helps to protect heritage	.816***	27.686			
Destination Loyalty (DL)			.882	.714	.883
This Garden is one of the preferred places to visit	.854***	29.089			
Visit in the future	.827***	27.552			
Recommend this WHS to friends	.853***	A			
Destination Image (DI)			.858	.602	.855
Helps to build a friendly community atmosphere	.782***	A			
Improves the awareness of cultural heritage in local people	.816***	23.586			
Made local people like to work and live at their home town	.803***	23.202			
Improves local public facilities	.712***	19.387			

Note: *** $p < .001$, CR= Construct Reliability, AVE= Average Variance Extracted, A regression weight was fixed at 1

Table 6.19. Result of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (LG)

Factors/Items	Standardise d Factor	t- Value	CR	AVE	Cronbach's α
Destination Identification (DID)			.932	.929	.950
This Garden is a global heritage	.960***	37.266			
This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity	.968***	A			
Destination Attachment (DAT)			.754	.723	.876
I would like to be involved in this Garden's related activities	.900***	A			
In general, I like seeing this Garden	.830***	20.514			
Hotels/restaurants provide quality service	.818***	19.937			
Destination Satisfaction (DS)			.712	.672	.875
Helps tourism development	.848***	A			
Chinese culture	.849***	19.850			
Increase international reputation	.742***	16.054			
The Garden has quality Infrastructure	.835***	19.311			
Destination Loyalty (DL)			.722	.682	.858
Recognise the WHS brand	.853***	A			
Visit in the future	.803***	17.823			
Easy to access the area	.821***	18.811			
Destination Image (DI)			.722	.682	.908
Helps to build a friendly community atmosphere	.852***	19.023			
Improves the awareness of cultural heritage in local people	.827***	A			
Made local people like to work and live at their home town	.846***	18.811			

Improves local economic development	.848***	18.878			
Produced a clean/unspoiled environment	.752***	15.824			

Previous scholars claimed SEM technique encompasses five comprehensive steps, including model specification, identification, parameter estimation, model evaluation and modification (Kline, 2015, Hoyle, 2011, Byrne, 2013, Fan et al., 2016). The model specification identifies the hypothesized relationships among the variables, whilst model identification aims to check whether the model is just-identified instead of over- or under-identified. Model evaluation estimates model performance or fits with quantitative indices premeditated for the overall goodness of fit. The process of validation intends to improve the reliability and stability of the model. Modification corrects the model to improve model fit (Fan et al., 2016). The estimated coefficients were added to the improved first-order measurement model to improve the overall fit. Therefore, the results of an acceptable illustration of the hypothesised constructs are supported and improved by the various estimates of the overall model goodness-of-fit index, including comparative fit index (CFI), Adjusted Goodness Fit Index (AGFI) (Reisinger and Turner, 1999) (Hair et al., 1995).

Nevertheless, to assess whether the model is reliable for the final test of hypotheses, previous literature suggests combining the assessment result of Cronbach's α (Cronbach, 1951), CR and AVE (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). AVE is the average amount of variance in indicator variables that a construct can explain, which can be calculated by sums of squared standardised factor loadings divided by the number of items involved.

In the improved first-order factor measurement model results (HAG), all constructs' Cronbach's α is greater than 0.5 (DID=0.889, DAT=0.789, DS=0.911, DL=0.883, DI=0.855), CR is calculated by using the sums of standardised factor loading squared divided by this sum plus total error variance. AVE and CR of five constructs are 0.616, 0.889 (DID), 0.561, 0.793 (DAT), 0.721, 0.912 (DS), 0.714, 0.882 (DL) and 0.602, 0.858 (DI) (see Table 6.18). The statistical figures show that all the values of Cronbach's α , AVE and CR of each construct met the minimum critique value of 0.5. Additionally, all the value of CR is above 0.7, indicating this research model has good convergent validity and all indicators included in the analysis are reliable (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988).

In the improved first-order factor measurement model results of LG, all constructs' Cronbach's α is greater than 0.5 (DID=0.950, DAT=0.876, DS=0.875, DL=0.858, DI=0.908). AVE and CR of five constructs are 0.929, 0.932 (DID), 0.723, 0.754 (DAT), 0.672, 0.712 (DS), 0.682, 0.722 (DL) and 0.682, 0.722 (DI) (see Table 6.19). The statistical figures revealed that each construct's values of Cronbach's α , AVE, and CR are reliable (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988).

The hypothesized structural model of HAG (see Fig. 6.3) results have the following statistically significant goodness-of-fit indices (see Table 6.20): $P < 0.01$, RMSEA (Standardized Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.063 in the accepting range (RMSEA < 0.08) (Hu and Bentler, 1999); $\chi^2/df = 3.793$ (Chi-square=542.461, $df=142$) is significantly lower than 5 (Hair et al., 1998); Goodness-Of-Fit Index (GFI) = 0.927, Non-normal Fit Index (NFI) = 0.948, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.961, are all greater than 0.9 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). All the fit measures

exceed the recommended level of a minimum of 0.90 to support acceptance of the proposed model (Hair et al., 1995). The statistically significant goodness-of-fit indices revealed the hypothesized measurement model fits the data reasonably well.

The hypothesized structural model of LG (see Fig. 6.4) results had the following statistically significant goodness-of-fit indices (see Table 6.20): $P < 0.01$, RMSEA (Standardized Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.071 in the accepting range (RMSEA < 0.08) (Hu and Bentler, 1999); $\chi^2/df = 2.687$ (Chi-square=298.272, $df=111$) is significantly lower than 5 (Hair et al., 1998); Goodness-Of-Fit Index (GFI) = 0.91, Non-normal Fit Index (NFI) = 0.94, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.961, are all greater than 0.9 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). The statistically significant goodness-of-fit indices revealed the hypothesized measurement model fits the data reasonably well.

Table 6.20 Goodness-of-Fit Indices of HAG and LG Model

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Observed Value (HAG)	Observed Value (LG)	Recommended Threshold
NFI (Normed Fit Index)	0.948	0.940	> 0.90 (Byrne, 1994)
GFI (Goodness of Fit Index)	0.927	0.910	>0.90 (Byrne, 1994, Hoyle, 1995)
CFI (Comparative Fit Index)	0.961	0.961	>0.93 (Byrne, 1994, Bentler, 1992)
RMSEA (Standardized Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	0.063	0.071	≤ 0.08 (Hu and Bentler, 1998)
χ^2/df (Chi-square/Degrees of Freedom)	3.793	2.687	≤ 5 (Kline, 2015, Hair et al., 1998)

However, to assess whether the model is reliable for the final test of hypotheses, previous literature suggests combining the assessment result of Cronbach's α (Cronbach, 1951), CR and AVE (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). In the Structural

Models of HAG and LG, the statistical figures (see Table 6.21) show that all the values of Cronbach's α , AVE and CR of each construct met the minimum critique value of 0.5, indicating the models have good convergent validity and all indicators included in the analysis are reliable (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The relationships amongst the components of the WHS branding can be seen from the hypothesised HAG Structural Model (see Fig. 6.5).

Table 6.21 The Validity Statistics of Second-order Models of HAG and LG

	AVE	AVE	CR	CR	Cronbach's α	Cronbach's α
	HAG	LG	HAG	LG	HAG	LG
DID	0.616	0.929	0.889	0.932	0.889	0.95
DAT	0.793	0.723	0.561	0.754	0.789	0.876
DS	0.721	0.672	0.912	0.712	0.911	0.875
DL	0.714	0.682	0.882	0.722	0.883	0.858
DI	0.602	0.682	0.858	0.722	0.855	0.8908

However, in HAG, DID does not have a positive relationship with DI or DL. It implies that without effective DAT & DS, it is unlikely to achieve a positive DI. Nevertheless, DL is highly positively related to DAT, but not DS. Therefore, the more the residents and tourists are attached to the WHS, the higher its overall loyalty. Furthermore, DID is an antecedent in WHS branding. It is vital to stimulate the connection between residents and tourists through internal branding and external branding. As a result, attachment to the WHS HAG was enhanced directly at 0.853 effects. DID directly impacted at 0.504 and an indirect influence at 0.326 in line with DS, which highly achieved destination satisfaction.

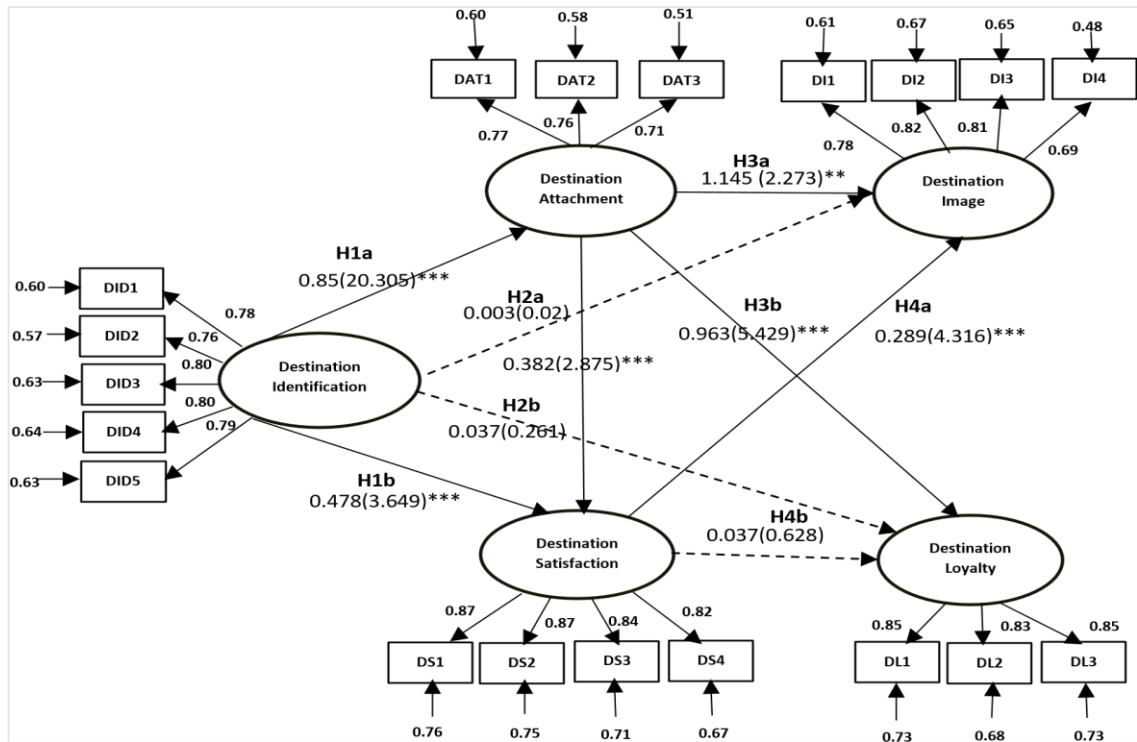


Fig. 6.5. Hypothesised Structural Model of HAG

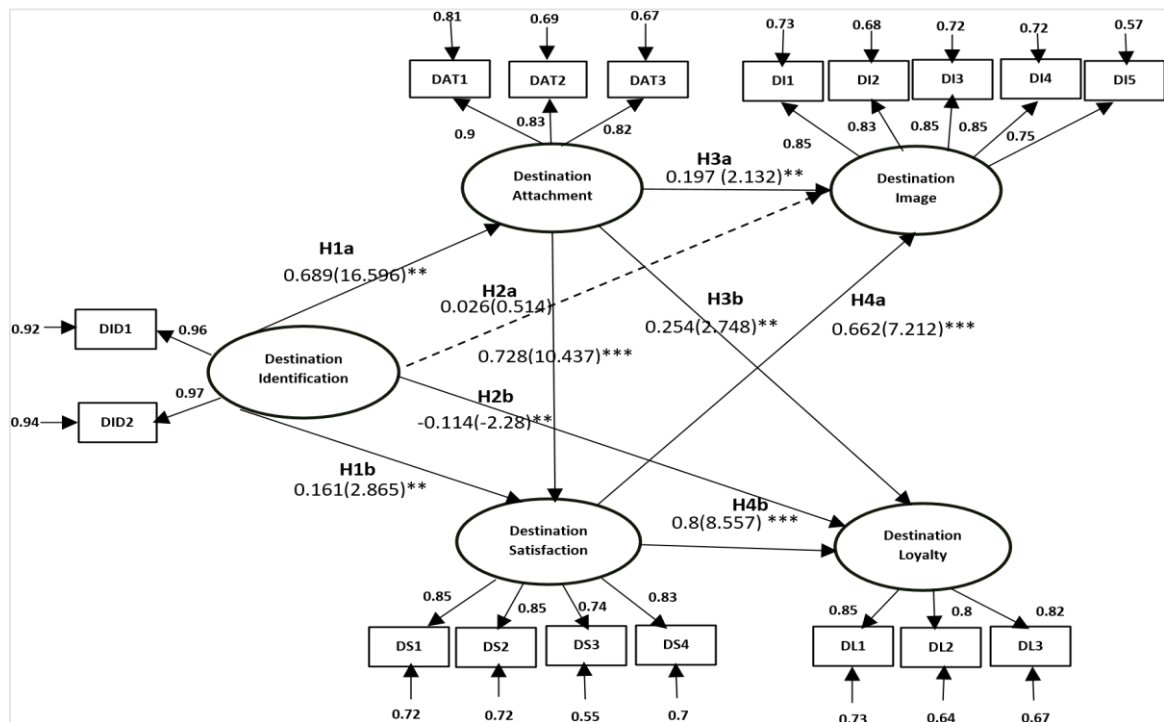


Fig. 6.6. Hypothesised Structural Model of LG

The results of the hypothesised LG Structure Model (see Fig 6.6) exposed DID positively impacts DAT, DS and DL. However, there is no positive relationship between DID and DI. Nevertheless, DAT has a total of 0.679 on DI, while DS has a 0.662 direct effect on DI. Therefore, the WHS image is enhanced but not directly through DID.

The high level of attachment to LG from residents and tourists and more satisfaction experienced by residents and tourists from visiting this WHS stimulated the enhanced DI. However, without DID, this will not be possible. DID has a direct effect of 0.689 on DAT and a 0.663 total immediate effect on DS. Moreover, the three components of WHS LG branding all have a positive relationship with DL. DL was achieved by 0.591 from DID, 0.836 from DAT and 0.8 direct effects from DS.

However, despite only two validated factors in DID, this WHS branding component is proved to be critical in LG. Residents and tourists to LG appeared to be very aware of the knowledge related to this WHS brand and that Suzhou LG is a global heritage. Furthermore, the interpretation of this Classic Garden under the world status as a WHS incorporated the element of identity and politics. Residents and tourists recognised that this WHS brand is essential for understanding Chinese national identity.

Without deploying DID as an antecedent of LG destination branding, residents and tourists could not feel strongly they would like to be involved in WHS LG-related activities. That positively impacted the commitment and attachment of residents and tourists to this WHS. They look forward to witnessing this WHS' future conservation which keeps them in that place. In return, residents and tourists were

satisfied with what this WHS brand provided. They believed this WHS brand interpreted with traditional Chinese culture was beneficial to the community of residents in line with heritage tourism development. Furthermore, residents and tourists appeared satisfied with the high-quality infrastructure in the destination and liked visiting the Classic Garden of LG.

Furthermore, as aforementioned, it is vital to know the knowledge of heritage in WHS branding, which the HAG Model verifies. For instance, the remaining factors of DID, including Suzhou HAG is a global heritage. This WHS brand is vital for understanding Chinese national identity. It proved it is essential to interpret this WHS associated with its world status and Chinese national identity. Moreover, other factors in DID reveal that residents and tourists like to be part of heritage conservation and look forward to witnessing heritage preservation. Many factors kept residents and tourists in that WHS. The effectiveness of DID explains that it is vital to incorporate the residents into heritage tourism, which would form part of tourists' experience. As a result, from the positive force of internal stakeholders, the external stakeholder will be influenced to preserve the heritage.

6.2.5 Hypotheses Testing

Using SPSS 25 and AMOS 25, the results of the tested hypotheses of the HAG model can be seen in Table 6.22, and the results of the tested hypotheses of the LG model can be seen in Table 6.23.

Table 6.22 Research Hypotheses (HAG)

	Constructs			Estimate	T-value	P	Supported
H1a	Destination	<-	Destination	0.853	20.343	***	Yes
	Attachment	-	Identification				
H1b	Destination	<-	Destination	0.504	4.173	***	Yes
	Satisfaction	-	Identification				
H2a	Destination	<-	Destination	0.080	0.753	0.452	No
	Image	-	Identification				
H2b	Destination	<-	Destination	0.125	1.105	0.269	No
	Loyalty	-	Identification				
H3a	Destination	<-	Destination	0.639	5.440	***	Yes
	Image	-	Attachment				
H3b	Destination	<-	Destination	0.84	6.375	***	Yes
	Loyalty	-	Attachment				
H4a	Destination	<-	Destination	0.295	5.47	***	Yes
	Image	-	Satisfaction				
H4b	Destination	<-	Destination	0.053	0.97	0.332	No
	Loyalty	-	Satisfaction				

Table 6.23 Research Hypotheses (LG)

	Constructs			Estimate	T-value	P	Supported
H1a	Destination	<-	Destination	0.689	16.596	***	Yes
	Attachment	-	Identification				
H1b	Destination	<-	Destination	0.161	2.865	0.004	Yes
	Satisfaction	-	Identification				
H2a	Destination	<-	Destination	0.026	0.514	0.607	No
	Image	-	Identification				
H2b	Destination	<-	Destination	-0.114	-2.280	0.023	Yes
	Loyalty	-	Identification				
H3a	Destination	<-	Destination	0.197	2.132	0.033	Yes
	Image	-	Attachment				
H3b	Destination	<-	Destination	0.254	2.748	0.006	Yes
	Loyalty	-	Attachment				
H4a	Destination	<-	Destination	0.662	7.212	***	Yes
	Image	-	Satisfaction				
H4b	Destination	<-	Destination	0.800	8.557	***	Yes
	Loyalty	-	Satisfaction				

HAG H1a: DID had a positive influence on DAT (Accepted)

LG H1a: DID had a positive influence on DAT (Accepted)

Table 6.22 shows the hypothesis testing results of HAG model. H1a postulated a positive relationship between DID and DAT, was accepted at 0.853 Estimates, T-value equals 20.343, $p < 0.001$. In the hypothesis testing results of the LG model (see Table

6.23), H1a demonstrates a positive relationship between DID and DAT, was accepted at 0.689 Estimates, T-value equals 16.596, $p < 0.001$. Thus, DID in both HAG and LG positively influenced DAT.

Previous scholars proposed that the self in identify theory assembles various identities, reflecting the interactions connected to different factors. The concept of 'self' consists of two identities, including a personal one and a social one. The former involves elements such as abilities and interests. Simultaneously, the latter is associated with the social environment. People can connect to their organisation and engender a sense of belonging. In other words, social identity helps build attachment between the people and their communities (Arnett et al., 2003, Hultman et al., 2015).

Furthermore, previous studies considered customer-company identification one of the most active elements in defining consumers' selective progression. Thus, forming a constructive identification amongst the targeted stakeholders is vital, benefiting the operational strategy. Moreover, identification can impact how customers' emotions are influenced by individual behaviour. Individual needs are satisfied through identification when the attachment is enhanced between the customers and the companies (Pérez and del Bosque, 2013, Su et al., 2017, Su and Swanson, 2017).

Furthermore, it seems that consumers often get involved more with responsible companies. Doing so could help them to recognise their self-identification to enhance self-worthiness. In return, the character related to competence, compassion, and authenticity, derived from the company's identity, can be linked to similar factors in the self-identification (Keh and Xie, 2009). However, studies in place attachment

emphasised that identification in tourism is associated with the degree to which a visitor can be defined by a sense of connection (Low and Altman, 1992).

Previous scholars defined an attachment as the emotional bond between an individual and a particular spatial setting (Williams et al., 1992). Place attachment is bonded to the destination to associate the self and evoke the strong emotions that affect a person's behaviour (Yuksel et al., 2010). Furthermore, Greening and Turban (2000) argued that the residents in a destination could be motivated by observing the moralities and responsibilities which formed part of the community identities. As a result, their self-esteem can be enhanced in terms of the positive feeling attached to their community under the effect of DID (Su et al., 2017).

HAG H1b: DID had a positive influence on DS (Accepted)

LG H1b: DID had a positive influence on DS (Accepted)

The HAG model testing results in Table 6.22 unveil H1b is accepted at 0.504 Estimates, T-value equals 4.173, $p < 0.001$; the LG model hypothesis testing results in Table 6.23 show H1b is accepted at 0.161 Estimates, t-value equals to 2.865, $p (0.004) < 0.05$. Thus, DID in both HAG and LG positively influenced DS.

In brand theory, identification can be used to determine the consumer-company relationship. Doing so can help companies satisfy the consumers' self-identified needs (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). However, in tourism, tourists are prone to identify themselves with different factors in self-identification in a destination setting. Previous scholars argued that tourists must re-examine their identities with positive feelings and emotions. That may lead to satisfaction, which is beneficial for developing identities

(Arnett et al., 2003). Thus, tourists' destination satisfaction is associated with a general assessment of their visiting the destination.

Furthermore, previous scholars contended that self-identification needs could be achieved via DID to engender emotional positiveness (Hultman et al., 2015). As a result of their positive emotional state, it is plausible that the tourists are satisfied and feel bonding and a sense of belongingness toward their visited destination (Hou et al., 2005). Furthermore, tourist satisfaction plays a vital role in predicting DID. On the other hand, a higher identification with a destination will increase DS (Fleury-Bahi et al., 2008, Uzzell et al., 2002).

HAG H2a: DID had a positive influence on DI (Not accepted)

LG H2a: DID had a positive influence on DI (Not accepted)

The HAG model testing results disclose that H2a is not accepted at 0.080 Estimates, T-value equals 0.753, P (0.452) >0.01, whilst the LG model testing results show that H2a is not accepted at 0.026 Estimates, T-value equals to 0.514, P (0.607)>0.01.

The results from the two models indicate that DID from either HAG or LG did not positively influence DI.

Aaker (1992) associated brand image with consumers' memory, in which brand associations are shaped into one set. The brand image could help consumers recognise the differences other products do not have. That could enable consumers to develop a positive feeling toward the brand image (Aaker, 1992).

However, it is more complicated for tourists to engender a positive DI before pre-purchasing in destination branding. It is because DI is perceived through a destination's tangible and intangible elements. The former includes the infrastructures, transportation, and environmental site; the latter involves the characters of the site, such as local culture, residents' attitudes, and the purpose of visiting the destination (Souiden et al., 2017). Nevertheless, when tourists perceive a sense of connection with tangible and intangible factors, previous scholars argued that belonging would enable them to define themselves according to their feeling (Mael and Ashforth, 1992). In other words, the tourists' self-identity is reflected by perceiving the destination's image.

HAG H2b: DID had a positive influence on DL (Not accepted)

LG H2b: DID had a positive influence on DL (Accepted)

The HAG model testing results show that H2b is not accepted at 0.125 Estimates, T-value equals 1.105, $P(0.269) > 0.01$. Thus, DID didn't positively influence DL. However, the LG model testing results show that H2b is accepted at -0.114 Estimates, T-value equals -2.28, $p(0.023) < 0.05$. Thus, DID in LG has a positive influence on DL.

Previous scholars in marketing stated that consumers tend to impress others with their self-identity, which can be reflected in the selection of the brand. In other words, branding can take advantage of self-identification as a vital strategy in terms of brand loyalty. They further argued that when self-identification is significant, it can impact branding.

Identification can influence brand associations in line with identifying the psychological demand of the consumers (Escalas, 2004, Alrawadieh et al., 2019). This psychological association between the consumers and the brand could lead to a positive attitude and loyalty. Such is crucial to consumers' brand satisfaction and loyalty (Escalas, 2004). Therefore, previous scholars concluded that self-identification positively impacts brand loyalty (Alrawadieh et al., 2019).

However, the effect that DID has on DL remains unknown. The previous scholar in destination study proposed that DID is vital in visitors' revisit intention (Hultman et al., 2015). Additionally, the study by Alrawadieh et al. (2019) on heritage tourism argued that self-identification has a vital role in enhancing visitors' experiences and increasing satisfaction. As a result, tourists will engage in more in-destination activities.

HAG H3a: DAT had a positive influence on DI (Accepted)

LG H3a: DAT had a positive influence on DI (Accepted)

The HAG model testing results reveal H3a is accepted at 0.639 Estimates, T-value equals 5.44, $p < 0.001$; the LG model testing results show H3a is accepted at 0.197 Estimates, T-value equals 2.132, $p (0.033) < 0.05$. Thus, in both models, DAT had a positive influence on DI.

The previous study by Morgan et al. (2003) proposed that brands contain social, emotional, and identity value to consumers. In other words, brands have a personality that can increase desirability, quality, and perceived value. When consumers select a brand of products or destinations, they buy the image and into an emotional relationship (Fleury-Bahi et al., 2008). Furthermore, in tourism, the reflection of DI was

linked to the tourists' perception (Cai, 2002). Specifically, DI is associated with how tourists interact with the destination concerning their emotions, motives, and evaluation (Tasci and Gartner, 2007).

Moreover, tourists tend to connect their feelings with DI within phases, including before and after the visit. The former is reacted before the visitation when searching for the image through resources, such as TV travel programmes and magazine advertisements. The latter occurs when tourists visit the actual destination to gain visiting experiences (Gunn, 1988). The accumulated emotional feeling towards a destination is testified by the overall quality of the visiting experience. If the DI's dynamic texture is not harmful, the tourists might develop some DAT (Song et al., 2017).

HAG H3b: DAT had a positive influence on DL (Accepted)

LG H3b: DAT had a positive influence on DL (Accepted)

The HAG model test results show H3b is accepted at 0.84 Estimates, T-value equals 6.375, $p < 0.001$; in the LG model, H3b is accepted at 0.254 Estimates, T-value equals 2.748, $p (0.006) < 0.01$. Thus, in both the HAG model and LG model, DAT had a positive influence on DL.

Previous scholars proposed that DAT predicts tourists' loyalty to destination holidays (Brocato, 2007, Yuksel et al., 2010). This study focuses on investigating whether DAT has a positive effect on DL. DAT is described as the psychological connection between the visitors and the touristic site (Morgan, 2010, Wang et al., 2020). Scholars further argued that the attached bond could be built up in environmental fitting with destination

experience, engendered by engaging in community activities or social movements (Scannell and Gifford, 2010).

Nevertheless, when tourists' travel experience is derived from a destination in a long-term span, the revisit behaviour associated with the same destination leads to DL (Oppermann, 2000). Furthermore, Morgan (2010) pointed out that the interactive elements involving emotion, cognition, and behaviour contribute to place attachment. In other words, tourists tend to develop a certain level of a bond to the visited destination, making it plausible for them to be loyal to the destination (Patwardhan et al., 2020).

HAG H4a: DS had a positive influence on DI (Accepted)

LG H4a: DS had a positive influence on DI (Accepted)

The HAG model testing results expose that H4a is accepted at 0.295 Estimates, T-value equals 5.47, $p < 0.001$; the LG model testing results show H4a is accepted at 0.662 Estimates, T-value equals 7.212, $p < 0.001$. Thus, DS in both HAG and LG had a positive influence on DI.

Previous scholars considered DS as a crucial role in successful destination branding. It can be deployed to anticipate the future trend of travelling (Jani and Han, 2014). However, it is challenging to understand tourists perceived meaning of satisfaction. Oliver (1999b) further explained that DS could be measured according to the emotional reaction recognised by tourists. Such an affecting response could be resulted from a high level of delightfulness after consuming what is offered in a destination (Oliver, 1999b, Al-Ansi and Han, 2019).

Nevertheless, studies in destination branding often use DI to predict the level of satisfaction, such as in the work of Bui and Le (2016), Al-Ansi and Han (2019), Veasna et al. (2013), Chen and Myagmarsuren (2010). However, little research investigated the effect DS has on DI. Most previous studies indicated that destination image affects satisfaction positively. It is because the destination image enables tourists' expectations that stimulate them to visit. However, satisfaction tends to be developed by comparing the expectations with the visiting experience (Font, 1997). Veasna et al. (2013) investigated destination branding and proposed that DI could influence how tourists perceive DS.

Furthermore, Chen and Tsai (2007) pointed out that DI significantly affects behaviour intentions, such as an intention to revisit and willingness to recommend. When individuals have a preferred DI, their on-site experiences will be perceived positively. Alternatively, it would lead to greater satisfaction levels (Lee et al., 2005, Chen and Tsai, 2007) and enhanced brand loyalty. Thus, DS is argued to be an antecedent to DL (Bitner, 1990).

HAG H4b: DS had a positive influence on DL (Not accepted)

LG H4b: DS had a positive influence on DL (Accepted)

The HAG model testing results depict that H4b is not accepted at 0.053 Estimates, T-value equals 0.97, $p(0.332) > 0.01$. Thus, in the HAG model, DS did not positively influence DL. The LG model testing results show that H4b is accepted at 0.8 Estimates, T-value equals 8.557, $p < 0.001$. Thus, DS in the LG model had a positive influence on DL.

Previous marketing scholar Fornell (1992) claimed that consumers' satisfaction with brand loyalty varies depending on the industry type. However, tourists tend to express positive feedback on their visited destination in tourism after their visiting experiences exceed their initial expectations. They often spread positive word-of-mouth when satisfied and had positive feelings toward the destination (Weaver et al., 2007).

Furthermore, the chance for satisfied tourists to revisit the destination is highly likely (Chi and Qu, 2008). Most of the previous studies in marketing literature stated that satisfaction could lead to returning tourists. However, the empirical findings of Hultman et al. (2015) revealed that the effect between DS and tourists' return intention is not always the same positive inclination. DL is possibly affected by other factors, such as DID and DAT, apart from DI and tourism experience. However, the study of Alrawadieh et al. (2019) presumed that "satisfaction with the heritage site tourism experience will foster destination loyalty" (Alrawadieh et al., 2019, P:545).

Further Inspection of the Interrelations

Table 6.24. Mediation Relations (HAG)

Path	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Destination Loyalty <-- Destination Identification	0.125	0.760	0.885
Destination Loyalty <-- Destination Attachment	0.840	0.020	0.860
Destination Image <-- Destination Attachment	0.639	0.113	0.752
Destination Image <-- Destination Identification	0.080	0.790	0.870
Destination Satisfaction <-- Destination Identification	0.504	0.326	0.830

The HAG Model shows DID had a direct effect of 0.125 and an indirect effect of 0.76 on DL (see Table 6.24). It is perceived that the relationship between DID and DL is mediated by DAT. The HAG Model reveals DAT has a direct effect of 0.84 and an indirect effect of 0.02 on DL, DAT has a direct impact of 0.639 and an indirect effect of 0.113 on DI (see Table 6.24). It is detected that DS mediates the relationship between DAT and DL, and the relationship between DAT and DI is mediated by DID and DS. Additionally, the HAG Model demonstrates that DID had a direct effect of 0.504 and an indirect effect of 0.326 on DS (see Table 6.24). It is noticed that the relationship between DID and DS is mediated by DAT.

Table 6.25. Mediation Relations (LG)

Path	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Destination Loyalty <-- Destination Identification	-0.114	0.705	0.591
Destination Loyalty <-- Destination Attachment	0.254	0.582	0.836
Destination Image <-- Destination Attachment	0.197	0.482	0.679
Destination Image <-- Destination Identification	0.026	0.575	0.600
Destination Satisfaction <-- Destination Identification	0.161	0.502	0.663

The LG model results display that DID has a direct effect of -0.114 and an indirect effect of 0.705 on DL (see Table 6.25). It is perceived that DS and DAT mediate the relationship between DID and DL. The LG model also shows DAT has a direct effect of 0.254 and an indirect effect of 0.582 on DL; DAT has a direct effect of 0.197 and an indirect effect of 0.482 on DI (see Table 6.25). It is presented that the relationship between DAT and DL is mediated by DS and DID, whilst the relationship between DAT and DI is also mediated by DS and DID. Furthermore, the model shows DID have a

direct effect of 0.026 and indirect effect of 0.575 on DI. It is perceived that the relationship between DID and DI is mediated by DAT & DS. Additionally, DID has a direct effect of 0.161 and an indirect effect of 0.502 on DS. It is perceived that DAT mediates the relationship between DID and DS.

Previous scholars consider mediation a psychological process and are regarded as the typical standard for testing theories (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Furthermore, previous literature claimed DAT is a mediator in the relationship between DID and DI (Prayag and Ryan, 2012). They also contended that DS mediates the relationship between DID and DL (Nam et al., 2011, tom Dieck et al., 2018). However, this study's HAG model and LG model test results revealed that DID doesn't have a positive influence on DI. In the HAG model and LG Model, DAT is a mediator in the relationship between DID and DL and between DID and DS. Additionally, the LG Model test results reveal that DAT and DS play a role as a mediator in the relationship between DID and DL and in the relationship between DID and DI, which have not been investigated in the previous literature.

6.2.6 The Effectiveness of WHS brand

In the model of HAG, it is proved that having DID in destination branding is vital in line with combining the residents and tourists to increase the WHS brand's effectiveness. More importantly, there needs to be a positive relationship between DID and DAT. As a result, the great extent of the positive effect will encourage internal and external stakeholders to become more attached to this WHS brand. DAT had a total effect of 0.752 on DI. Although the direct impact of DS on DI is 0.295, there is still a positive

relationship in enhancing DI. Therefore, the WHS image is enhanced. Furthermore, the improved DI factors revealed that heritage tourism helped build a friendly community atmosphere and improve residents' awareness of cultural heritage. As a result, residents like to work and live in their home town. In addition, heritage tourism development improved local public facilities.

Given that the WHS image is enhanced in this study, it fits into the previous branding literature. It is vital to build a positive brand reputation. Such will inevitably stimulate higher destination attachment and satisfaction. In HAG, tourists generally like seeing the WHS due to the travel information on the destination, and hotels/restaurants provide quality service. Furthermore, the residents are satisfied with the WHS brand, encouraging heritage tourism development at HAG. Additionally, they believed the WHS brand of this Garden could increase the destination's international reputation and attract more tourists. Moreover, the WHS branding process helps to protect the heritage. In other words, the positive DI was achieved due to the residents' participation in the WHS (HAG) branding process.

Given the importance of involving residents in heritage tourism development, the tourists' loyalty is vital to measure whether the WHS brand's effectiveness was increased. The model test results show that the total effect of DAT on DL is 0.86, which means an exceedingly positive relationship between DAT and DL. The tourists of HAG considered the WHS Garden one of the preferred places. They would visit in future as well as recommend it to friends. Although DS does not positively impact DL, residents' involvement helped boost DID, and engendered more positive DAT from tourists. In other words, overall loyalty was enhanced.

According to previous literature, it is considered effective when a brand has an improved image and loyalty. Likewise, the effectiveness of this WHS brand is increased. This enhancement's condition is to include residents and tourists in the WHS branding. Furthermore, combining internal and external branding in the HAG model proved that HTM had significant social-cultural, economic, and environmental impacts on Suzhou.

The results of the LG Model disclose the five factors of the enhanced DI. Residents and tourists who visited this WHS believed heritage tourism helped build a friendly community atmosphere and improved residents' awareness of cultural heritage. Moreover, they considered that the WHS brand helps to protect the heritage. As a result, the area's environment is better and cleaner, making the residents enjoy working and living in their hometowns. Such a positive WHS image of LG was enhanced through a combination of effects from destination attachment and satisfaction in WHS branding. Local Chinese culture and national identity played an important part in interpreting the tangible heritage, the exquisite physical Garden, and the intangible heritage, Ping Tan and Gu Qin music.

Most visitors to LG are residents because of the rural location and the benefit from the local government. The policy of an annual ticket for numerous times' entrances promotes and encourages the residents to visit WHS Suzhou. Furthermore, the more insightfulness of local Chinese culture in the Classic Garden of LG's setting brought more national identity elements. Such explained why LG identification focused more on the component of culture and identity. As a result, residents become more attached and committed to LG.

Moreover, the strong attachment within internal branding positively influenced external branding. In other words, tourists' visiting experiences were positively impacted by the behaviour and emotion of the residents towards this WHS. As a result of combining residents included internal branding and tourists incorporated external branding, destination loyalty was enhanced. For instance, the results of the LG Model revealed that tourists to LG would like to visit in the future. Based on the previous brand literature, this brand is effective when a brand's image and loyalty are enhanced. Therefore, the LG WHS brand's effectiveness was increased with the improved WHS image and loyalty.

6.3 Conclusion

The chapter analysed HAG data and LG data with the help of software SPSS 25 and AMOS 25, with CFA and SEM techniques. Hypotheses were tested. Given that LG involved more residents than HAG, the destination loyalty of LG is due to the positive impact of DID and the positive effect of DS. The more involvement of residents, the more brand loyalty seemed to be attained, consistent with the research by Zenker et al. (2017).

The results showed a lack of a positive relationship between DID and the WHS image in both Gardens. However, DID of LG positively impacted the LG destination brand, engendered more attachment and satisfaction from LG residents and tourists. It is owing to the more effective internal branding. In other words, proportionally more residents were incorporated in HTM in LG. As a result, the visiting experiences of tourists can be positively influenced. Therefore, combining residents-included internal branding and tourists-incorporated external branding will engender effective DID.

The data analysis results signify heritage tourism development has a powerful social impact on the region when residents are included in the WHS destination branding process. Thus, an effective destination branding strategy must contain policies that blend culture to create distinctive attributes (Balmer, 2001). As a result, it will contribute to economic benefits (Pike, 2005, Rangan et al., 2006, Balakrishnan, 2009a). Such a strategic branding practice is reflected in the case of Suzhou Classic Gardens. Furthermore, Suzhou China's HTM proved that combining internal branding (residents) and external branding (tourists) enhanced the WHS brand effectiveness. The strength of HAG and LG brands is improved due to the deployment of DID. This construct acts as an antecedent in WHS branding, positively impacting DAT and DS. As a result, the image and loyalty of HAG and LG are enhanced.

Destination identification includes place, community, cultural, and national identity, effectively linking residents, tourists, and the WHS. Tourists and residents are the targeted receiver regarding the city's WHS development on economic and cultural sides. Jamal and Goode (2001) pointed out that customers favour brands with more symbolic characters as symbolic values bring a more justifiable competitive advantage (Mowle and Merrilees, 2005). Therefore, the less effective WHS brand can be enhanced by combining internal branding (residents included) with external branding (tourists incorporated). Regardless of the effectiveness of a WHS brand, it is vital to have a solid branding process. The more tourists and residents become aware of the WHS brand, the more positive impact the WHS brand will have on DI and DL.

Chapter 7: Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This study aims to enhance the WHS image and loyalty by combining residents included internal branding and tourists incorporated external branding in HTM in China (Aim 1). This study established a conceptual framework of WHS destination branding with five components: destination identification, attachment and satisfaction, image and loyalty (Aim2). The previous research suggested that the WHS brand is less effective (Poria et al., 2011), which needs to be enhanced. Due to the gap in the literature on how to enhance DI and DL, this study deployed DID, DAT and DS to predict DI and DL in the novel conceptual framework. The data analysis results were attained in the last chapter, with data collected from the HAG and LG.

The structural model revealed the relationships between the destination components and how they impacted the image and loyalty of the destination. This chapter will discuss the findings, including the benefits and challenges of incorporating residents into WHS branding. Additionally, this chapter will further discuss the vital role of DID as an antecedent and how this construct influences attachment and satisfaction directly, without having a positive relationship with the WHS image.

7.2 The Conceptual Framework of WHS Destination Branding in HTM

This study established a novel conceptual framework for WHS branding. With this model, it is possible to identify whether destination image and destination loyalty were improved. When both were enhanced, it implied that the effectiveness of the WHS

brand was increased. With a strong WHS brand, the WHS will likely attract more tourists, which is the key for heritage tourism development to generate more income.

The conceptual model of WHS branding, engendered in this study, provides empirical evidence to examine the effects of DID, DAT, and DS on DI and DL. Therefore, this study contributes to destination branding theory with this theoretical model in the pursuit of enhancing WHS image and loyalty. Given the various challenges in increasing the effectiveness of the WHS brand, this research incorporated the residents in the range of stakeholders based on their double identity as hosts and tourists. It proved that involving residents in heritage tourism is vital to increasing attachment and satisfaction. Such is one of this research's contributions to the theory of destination branding.

Furthermore, it is critical to combine the elements requested by the demand side of tourists, the community identity of the residents, and the other factors such as the place identity and national identity. Such will engender a high level of DAT and DS. This study extended the social identity theory to add the component DID into destination branding. Thus, this study further contributes to the theory of destination branding by discovering DID acting as an antecedent in the branding process.

Residents becoming involved in heritage tourism development will give them a sense of belonging and pride. Such is crucial in HTM. When residents are bestowed with that host-like feeling, they will positively affect tourists, stimulating an unforgettable experience. Under the combined influence of the residents and the tourists, an effective DID emerged. With the help of education, the strategy of interpretation and

presentation via the media and information board, communication involving the appreciation of heritage can be easily carried on.

Particularly in China, the unique national identity and local Chinese culture are potent elements associated with politics and culture, connected with China's heritage. All of the mentioned factors are considered to be effective ingredients in HTM. Based on the above discussion, a process model of HTM is established (see Fig 7.1).

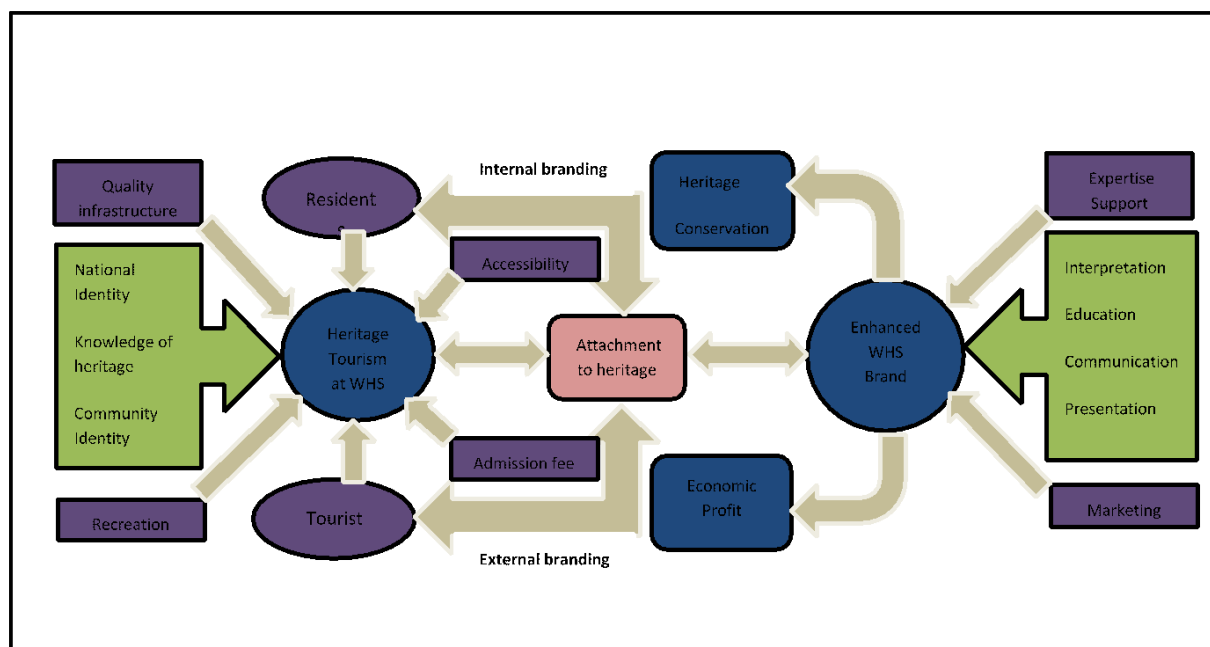


Fig. 7.1. A Process Model of Heritage Tourism Management

Assuming residents' involvement in WHS development can be categorised within the mild effect range, destination attachment is considered a strong emotional bond (Park and MacInnis, 2006, Brakus et al., 2009). This research agreed with the previous study that successful destination branding needs to build a positive image. It can be engendered by providing residents and tourists with a unique brand experience (Qu et al., 2011). Such brand experiences should affect consumers' satisfaction and loyalty in the long term (Brakus et al., 2009). As a result, a positive DI and DL will be formed.

Furthermore, this study contributes to the theory by adopting an unconventional way when placing the two critical components, DAT and DS, in destination branding. This study's conceptual model shows a statistically significant relationship between destination attachment and destination satisfaction. However, the previous study's standard method often places satisfaction as a factor contributing to attachment (Halpenny, 2006, Yuksel et al., 2010). Such needs to be reconsidered, as the latter can predict the former in examining the relationship links between tourists and destinations, as proved in this study.

Additionally, the findings of this research revealed that DAT and DS are critical in building an effective destination branding, which is consistent with the previous study by Chen and Phou (2013). However, previous studies only incorporated external branding (tourists) in the branding process. This study included internal branding (residents) and external branding (tourists) for effective destination branding. Such a strategy was proved to be applicable by the data analysis in this study.

Given the importance of customer brand identification in marketing regarding consumer behaviour (Hultman et al., 2015), little knowledge is available concerning deploying identification to cultivate more attachment and satisfaction. This research discoursed this limitation based on the literature on branding, destination branding, and heritage tourism. Such enabled this study to develop a conceptual model. The result exposed DID can be projected with multidimensions to enhance the effectiveness of the WHS brand.

The HAG model result explained that DID positively impacts DAT with a direct 0.853 effect and is positively associated with DS creating a total of 0.83 effects (0.504 direct, 0.326 indirect). DID did not have a positive relationship with DI or DL. However, LG's result showed DID supported DAT with a direct 0.689 effect and positively affected satisfaction with a total 0.663 effect (0.161 direct, 0.502 indirect). Contrary to HAG, LG analysis revealed DID had a positive 0.591 effect on DL. However, similar to HAG, the image of LG was not positively impacted by DID. Based on the findings, DID is a predictor of destination attachment and satisfaction. Furthermore, DID alone cannot enhance DI. Nevertheless, it is feasible that DID can directly contribute to DL.

Comparing the effects on the urban WHS, DID engendered a higher level of attachment and satisfaction. As a result, the WHS image was enhanced. However, DL was not positively supported by DS. Instead, DL was improved by DAT, and strengthened by DID. Nevertheless, in rural LG, there was a comparatively lower level of attachment and satisfaction prompted by DID. Both constructs cooperatively enhanced the WHS image.

Furthermore, LG loyalty was positively impacted by DID, moderated by attachment and satisfaction. Based on the above discussion, this study suggests DID is an essential antecedent in increasing the WHS brand's effectiveness. Such can be achieved by either triggering a very high level of attachment or a lower level of attachment & satisfaction. Additionally, DID will need to add its direct effect to enhance loyalty when both DAT and DS effects are minor.

7.3 The Relationship Between DID and DS

The tested result from LG revealed DS had a positive relationship with DL, consistent with the previous study by Chi and Qu (2008). However, based on the HAG findings, satisfaction does not positively affect DL. In other words, satisfaction does not always positively influence loyalty, as supported by the previous study by Hultman et al. (2015). It is suggested that tourists are prone to follow a pattern of discovering new destinations. Such will not keep them returning to the previous one regardless of the high level of satisfaction. Nevertheless, it is critical to highlight the importance of DS. It can encourage tourists' word-of-mouth and recommendations and leave a positive review to attract new tourists. In reassessing the meaning of satisfaction, DID plays a crucial role in better evaluating the conduct of tourists (Hultman et al., 2015).

The relationship between satisfaction and loyalty is consistent with the previous study that the role of destination identification can predict tourists' satisfaction and loyalty (Alrawadieh et al., 2019). DID is a multidimensional construct concerning the scope where individuals distinguish the connection with the destination reflected in themselves (Bosnjak et al., 2016). Such can be deployed to gain insight into how tourists behave regarding their visiting activities.

Additionally, DID can empower the destination to strengthen its appeal, drawing more visiting interest from the tourists (Ashworth, 2002). When immersed in the self-feeling, connected to the destination, tourists can perceive their visiting experiences differently. Such a process is reflected in DID. As a result, tourists may find the shared collective meaning from the heritage site with residents. This meaningful experience will possibly trigger tourists' satisfaction with the destination (Alrawadieh et al., 2019). Additionally, tourists might engage in culture or history-related activities (McDonald, 2011) involving

the residents related to heritage in heritage tourism. Such will increase destination satisfaction.

7.4 The Relationship Between DID and DAT

HAG and LG structural model results displayed that DAT positively impacts DI and DL. On the contrary, satisfaction does not always hold the position to support loyalty. Unlike the previous literature, which only deployed satisfaction to predict loyalty, this study incorporated DAT, consistent with Chen et al. (2016). However, this study extended to combine DID and DAT in the conceptual framework. The tested results from both HAG and LG revealed a positive relationship between DID and DAT. Therefore, DID is a predictor of DAT.

Furthermore, in heritage tourism, residents' and tourists' self-identity can be reflected by the tangible features of the WHS, which act as an emotional link between the visitors and the destination (Raymond et al., 2010). Such is vital in leading to a high attachment. In other words, the level of affection from residents and tourists toward a destination can be influenced by the features identified at the destination (Scannell and Gifford, 2014).

In particular, when the characters of the destination trigger the feeling of pride, a strong bond will be involved to enable residents and tourists to engender a sense of relevance concerning the destination (Yuksel et al., 2010, Ramkissoon et al., 2014). As a result, a high level of attachment will be produced to achieve great loyalty and an enhanced image. For instance, in HAG and LG, residents had an incredible feeling of pride when talking about the WHS. When residents have a strong positive sense of heritage, they

will become highly attached to the destination. Accordingly, tourists will be influenced to respect the community's social-cultural and environmental factors positively. In other words, they will more than likely have a positive on-site experience, which is beneficial in enhancing DI and DL.

7.5 The Relationship Between DID and DL

Previous scholars contended that satisfaction could only occur after some interaction, either through communication or by activities. Tourists feel more connected to the destination after understanding the knowledge of the intangible heritage at visiting the physical heritage. As a result, they tend to experience a higher level of satisfaction (Jewell and Crotts, 2002). The data analysis can explain such a phenomenon, showing high satisfaction, especially from the urban WHS.

It is also suggested that DL will be engendered when tourists have a high level of satisfaction, especially in heritage tourism. In HAG, DID did not influence DL directly. Still, it acted as a predictor of satisfaction, consistent with the previous study by Alrawadieh et al. (2019). Additionally, DID is regarded as a predictor of DAT based on the last chapter's findings. However, only DAT has a positive relationship with DL. Furthermore, DID directly influenced DL in LG and positively related to satisfaction and attachment. The results of LG showed that the three constructs positively impacted DL.

In marketing literature, identification has a complicated relationship with satisfaction (Arnett et al., 2003). However, a high level of satisfaction does not guarantee a positive impact on DL based on the results of HAG. It is critical to have a functional DID, which

must influence residents and tourists to be attached to the WHS to engender greater loyalty. In other words, it is vital to include DID in the WHS branding aims to meet the residents and tourists identified psychological needs. The above argument refers to the marketing movement. It promotes the destination's identity with meaningful messages or contents (Alrawadieh et al., 2019). For instance, in HAG and LG, DID was instilled in national, community, and Chinese cultural identity.

It is proposed that retaining tourists who participate in cultural activities are popular due to the low cost (Chen and Chen, 2010). Whether the tourists are satisfied with the cultural experiences, satisfaction alone will not guarantee their return to the destination. However, the strategy of having residents and tourists engage in the activities concerning the local culture and cross-cultural exchanges has been proved to be reciprocally beneficial. Organising cultural activities, such as educational assemblies, live performances, and guided excursions, is crucial to forming tourists' visiting experience. Such would positively influence revisit and recommendations from the tourists (Chen and Rahman, 2018). Therefore, DID reflecting varied identities in the psychological need of the tourists will pave the way to produce a satisfying experience, which will lead to enhanced DL.

Nevertheless, DS does not always have a positive relationship with loyalty. On the contrary, attachment is vital in producing great DL, as confirmed in HAG. It is because attachment can be prompted through tourists' engagement in heritage tourism. In other words, tourists can connect emotionally to the destination through their experience (Yuksel et al., 2010). As aforementioned, satisfaction is a low level of attachment. When satisfaction occurs in heritage, it could lead to attachment (Hou et

al., 2005). However, to achieve a high level of attachment for pursuing great loyalty, it is crucial to add symbolic meanings to DID (Chen et al., 2016). As a result, a high level of attachment can be achieved, leading to improved DL, as confirmed in HAG.

7.6 The Relationship Between DID and DI

The previous literature review explained that DI represents a collection of beliefs, concepts, and imitations tourists expect from their visiting experiences (Crompton, 1979). Alternatively, destination image affects tourists' attitudes and behaviour (Ahmed, 1996). Given that DID is a relatively new construct in destination branding, few studies investigated the relationship between DID and DI.

However, the limited knowledge involving DID claimed that this construct positively correlated with attachment and satisfaction (Zenker et al., 2017), which is consistent with the findings of this study. Furthermore, the previous research claimed DI is positively associated with satisfaction (Sohn and Yoon, 2016, Su et al., 2020), consistent with the finding in this research. Nevertheless, this study extended the previous research by discovering a novel theory. DID is the antecedent in destination branding to increase WHS brand effectiveness. It is because deploying DID can reinforce attachment and satisfaction, leading to an enhanced DI.

Given the importance of DI in destination branding, the success of heritage tourism relies on the image to attract tourists. Therefore, DI directly affects how tourists perceive the destination (Remoaldo et al., 2014). The higher the perceived image in tourists' minds, the higher the level of satisfaction resulting from such an image (Su et

al., 2020). Therefore, DI plays a vital role in helping tourists choose which destination to visit (Haahti, 1986).

It is suggested that not all tourists would be attracted to a destination based on the tourism resources alone, regardless of the excellent attractiveness. However, the destination's perceived image and the tourist's attitude towards the destination may be able to solve the above issues (Ahmed, 1996). Furthermore, the growing competition in heritage tourism implies that promotion strategy needs more apparent evidence regarding the diversity of response to DI. Under such a complicated request, DID can classify the relevance in heritage tourism development (Ahmed, 1996). The marketed promotion can help justify DI perceptively, targeting varied tourists with an enhanced image (Perry et al., 1976, Goodrich, 1978, Gartner and Hunt, 1987).

The overall image perceived by the likely tourists might not be consistent with the engendered image derived from the promotion. Such a cause is mainly due to the discrepancy of different factors of DI. Therefore, it is essential to recognise the destination's overall image factors to form a marketing strategy targeting different audiences. Based on the above reasons, DID is not enough to meet the general persistence in promotion (Ahmed, 1996). This reason can explain why DID was not directly and positively associated with DI in HAG and LG.

7.7 The Role of DID in WHS Branding

In brand literature, brand identification has been widely investigated to identify consumers' behaviour. However, there is a significant lack of knowledge about DID's function in (heritage) tourism (Rather et al., 2020). In extending the application of

social identity theory, this study adopted DID in WHS branding to increase the effectiveness of the WHS brand. As aforementioned, when a brand's image and loyalty are enhanced, it implies improved strength. The findings of this study revealed that DID has a positive relationship with DAT, which is consistent with the previous research of Rather et al. (2020). The LG findings further agreed with the claim earlier that DID positively impact DL (Rather et al., 2020, Alrawadieh et al., 2019). However, there is no positive relationship between DID and DL in HAG. Therefore, this study suggests that DID is not a predictor of DL.

Nevertheless, DID is vital to act as an antecedent in WHS branding, engendering a high level of attachment and satisfaction. Such will reinforce the image and loyalty of the destination. DID can help the marketed promotion correct the destination image, enhance tourists' intention to revisit (Hultman et al., 2015), and inspire word-of-mouth recommendations (Zenker et al., 2017). Given that the feature of DID reflects the association between the residents & tourists and the destination (Japutra et al., 2018)(Japutra et al., 2018), it is critical to meet the needs of both residents and tourists to foster a robust DID (So et al. (2017).

Additionally, a previous study regarded identification as a dimension of attachment (Yuksel et al., 2010), which is not confirmed in the findings of this research. DID in heritage tourism is viewed as a multidimensional construct in this study. It acts as an influential antecedent in destination branding, collecting the strong identities associated with the destination, residents, and tourists to meet the primary needs of heritage preservation.

The literature did not reveal the relationship between DID and DI in (heritage) tourism. Theoretically, this study adopted a novel method by including destination identification, attachment and satisfaction as the most practical components to engender an enhanced image and loyalty. The findings of HAG and LG in this study revealed that DID plays a vital role in effective HTM.

DID incorporates varied identities in line with the destination, the residents, and the tourists to form part of the WHS settings that distinctively empowers the emotional perspective. For instance, residents and tourists genuinely feel proud to be part of the WHS. Such a feature makes heritage tourism different from other tourism types, revealing why DID plays a vital role in heritage tourism destination branding. Therefore, the most crucial part of HTM is incorporating residents and tourists in heritage tourism development to form an effective DID.

7.8 The Mediating Role of DAT and DS

Previous research argued a positive relationship exists between DID and DS and between DS and DL (Jawahar et al., 2020). Does this mean that identification has a positive relationship with loyalty? In brand theory, there is an apparent association between brand identification and loyalty due to positive word of mouth (Sutikno, 2011). However, this study reveals that it depends on the level of satisfaction in the context of heritage tourism. If a high level of satisfaction occurs, for example, in LG, DS has a direct effect of 0.8 on loyalty.

This study will use the test of Baron and Kenny (1986) to identify whether DS is a mediator in the relationship between DID and DL. According to Baron and Kenny

(1986), a variable is regarded as a mediator if the level of variations occurs in three equations involving the independent variable and the mediator (first equation), the independent variable and the dependent variable (second equation), the mediator and the dependent variable (third equation). When the independent variable levels significantly account for variations in the acknowledged mediator, the earlier relationship between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant. When the third equation appears to be 0, it implies the most substantial mediation effect occurs (Zhao et al., 2010).

To establish mediation, it needs to meet the following criteria: "First, the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation; second, the independent variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable in the second equation; and third, the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the third equation" (Baron and Kenny, 1986, P:1177). Based on this method, in the LG model, DS is a mediator in the relationship between independent variable DID and dependent variable DL, which was approved by the previous study (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008, Japutra, 2022).

Previous research Nam et al. (2011) on brand study claimed brand satisfaction partially mediated the effects of brand identification on brand loyalty, confirmed in this study. The SEM results revealed that DS partially mediated the impact of DID on DL. However, DS is not a mediator of DID and DL in HAG, as DID and DS do not affect the dependent variable DL, although DID has a 0.504 direct effect and 0.326 indirect effects on DS.

Previous literature contended that satisfaction is an indicator of loyalty (Cardozo, 1965, Madadi et al., 2022, Oliver, 1999). Although loyalty was formed after satisfaction with a product or service, it is argued that satisfaction alone is not enough to build a lasting relationship with a brand. Thus, an emotional bond is required to produce loyalty after the perceived satisfaction. As Oliver (1999) argued that satisfaction and loyalty often are in an unbalanced relationship. It is because loyalty is not guaranteed after the satisfaction from the loyal consumers. Thus, because satisfaction is not a good predictor of loyalty (Oliver, 1999), attachment needs to be considered (Jones and Sasser, 1995, Kotler, 1997).

According to Kotler (1997), an emotional attachment to a brand can occur after a high level of satisfaction, together leading to a high level of loyalty. Thus, attachment built upon satisfaction is a drive to loyalty (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006). Such explains why in HAG, DS does not have a positive relationship with DL. Merely satisfaction cannot enhance loyalty. DAT and DS mediate in the relationship between DID and DL. However, in LG, DS is a mediator in the relationship between DID and DL. It is perhaps because more residents are involved in LG, which engenders a higher level of satisfaction and leads to increased destination loyalty (Jones and Suh, 2000, Madadi et al., 2022).

In brand theory, attachment fully mediates the relationship between identification and loyalty when there is a commitment to the brand. Emotional constructs such as attachment can mediate transitioning from satisfaction to loyalty (Madadi et al., 2022). In LG, DAT is a mediator in the relationship between DID and DL, but not in HAG. The

independent variable DID do not positively impact the dependent variable DL, although DID positively impacts DAT whilst DAT positively affects DL.

A previous study proposed that satisfaction with a destination can be affected by destination attachment. DAT often transpires when residents and tourists are emotionally involved with a destination. Such is due to the increased satisfaction of residents and tourists to trigger an emotional bond with the destination (Lewicka, 2011; Hummon, 1992). When DAT reaches a high level, loyalty is enhanced (Chen et al., 2011); confirmed by the findings of LG in this study. The SEM model depicts DAT and DS as mediators in the relationship between destination identification and loyalty.

This study's data analysis revealed that DID does not have a positive influence on DI. The nature of this construct may cause this. As a social product, the interaction between nostalgia, perception, and accurate understanding of uniqueness, permanency, and self-worth (Breakwell, 2015), DID requires time and constancy in its development (Song et al., 2017). Such a point may explain why DID does not significantly affect DI, as revealed in this study. However, in both HAG and LG, DAT and DS are mediators in the relationship between the independent variable DID and the dependent variable DI. DID positively impacts DAT and DS, while DAT and DS have a significant effect on DI. Thus, DI is enhanced.

7.9 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the findings from the novel conceptual model of HAG and LG in China. It evaluated the strategy of combining residents included internal branding, and tourists incorporated external branding to improve the WHS brand's effectiveness.

Such a theory aims to establish a higher level of destination attachment and satisfaction, vital in destination branding to enhance destination image and loyalty.

The data analysis results revealed that DID did not have a positive influence on DI in both HAG and LG. Instead, it engendered a higher level of destination attachment and satisfaction, which enhanced DI. A high level of DAT positively influenced HAG loyalty. Nevertheless, the rural WHS findings presented a comparatively lower level of attachment and satisfaction. LG loyalty was improved by the direct effects of identification, attachment, and satisfaction. Therefore, DID is not a guaranteed predictor of DL.

The research findings from HAG and LG imply that DID varies in different WHS branding. When deploying identification as the antecedent in destination branding, it can effectively evaluate the relationship between the residents and the WHS. Such can help transform the less effective WHS brand. The participation of residents in internal branding significantly impacts tourists' visiting experience, affecting the destination's overall level of satisfaction and attachment.

The selected case in China discovered that HTM needs to take advantage of DID as an antecedent of WHS branding. However, simply including residents in HTM without the projected DID is less inspiring in motivating the residents to engender attachment and enhance destination image and loyalty. DID is not a direct predictor of DI. However, it can combine the emotional essence of cultural, national, community, and self-identity, linking the residents, tourists, and the WHS. Hence, DID is a predictor of destination attachment and satisfaction. DAT and DS mediate in the relationship between the

independent variable DID and dependent variable DI in both HAG and LG findings. However, DAT and DS mediate in the relationship between the independent variable DID and dependent variable DL only in LG structural model. The reason may be that more residents were involved in HTM in LG WHS.

DID may occasionally directly influence DL, confirmed in LG. It is perhaps because tourists' destination attachment and satisfaction from LG WHS branding are not high enough. Including residents in HTM strengthened the effectiveness of DID, as confirmed in LG in this study. On the contrary, the HAG model engendered much higher attachment and satisfaction, which is enough to improve DI and DL without the direct effect of DID.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This study investigates the effect of branding on HTM in China. The purpose is to fill the research gap of whether combining residents and tourists in WHS destination branding could enhance destination image and loyalty in HTM. Chapter one in this study explained that WHS destination branding might lack a destination branding process, which caused the ineffectiveness of the WHS brand. Previous literature clarified that when DI and DL are enhanced, it implies the brand's strength is increased.

However, there is little knowledge in the literature regarding how to predict DI and DL in destination branding. This research filled this gap by establishing a novel conceptual framework of destination branding, in which DID, DAT, and DS are deployed to predict DI and DL. However, to achieve that, residents-included internal branding needs to be combined with tourists-incorporated external branding, which no available knowledge can be found in the literature. This study filled the gap by combining residents and tourists in destination branding.

Based on the objectives of this research, this study adopted a positivist philosophy, and quantitative methodology, with an approach of a case study. The study area is in Suzhou, China, including an urban WHS HAG and a rural WHS LG. A questionnaire survey was conducted over two different years. The data analysis was carried out with the completed 714 surveys from HAG and 338 from LG, intending to explore the effect of branding on HTM in China.

Before this chapter, this study shed some light on the background of HTM in China. It covered a literature review on brand and branding theory and destination branding in heritage tourism. In order to fulfil the aim of this study, a conceptual framework was established, and research methodology and data analysis were completed. After the last chapter on the discussion of the data analysis findings, this chapter will make a conclusion based on the results of this study. Additionally, theoretical and practical implications, limitations and recommendations for future research will be covered.

8.2 Key Findings

This research aims to enhance the WHS brand image and loyalty by combining residents included internal branding and tourists incorporated external branding in HTM in China. Nevertheless, most previous studies focused only on tourists in heritage tourism research. This study highlighted the importance of incorporating residents in the WHS branding process. Therefore, this research combined internal branding and external branding in WHS branding. It led to one of these research findings: deploying the combination of residents and tourists in branding strategy may increase the effectiveness of the WHS brand. Another aim of this study is to establish a conceptual framework of destination branding in which destination identification, attachment and satisfaction can be deployed to enhance the image and loyalty of the WHS. The final aim was to identify the impacts the WHS brand has on destination identification.

The study aims, the benefits and challenges related to residents' participation in internal branding were discussed in the previous chapters based on the structural model results of HAG and LG in Suzhou. It contributes to the existing literature on

destination branding, heritage tourism, and destination identification research. They can be summarised as the following.

8.2.1 Contribution to Destination Branding Theory

This study combined internal branding (residents included) and external branding (tourists incorporated) in destination branding. A new conceptual framework of WHS branding was established, including DID, DAT, DS, DI and DL. This study showed how brand and branding theory and social identity theory could be adopted in destination branding to deploy DID, DAT and DS to predict DI and DL via the novel destination branding conceptual framework.

This study deployed a case study of China and a quantitative methodology to explore the effect of branding on HTM in China. The selected WHS in this study included an urban WHS and a rural one. The data analysis results revealed that DID did not have a positive relationship with DI. Instead, it engendered a higher level of DAT and DS, which enhanced the image of the WHS. However, the attachment triggered by DID after including residents and tourists in WHS branding was very high, which alone enhanced DL, based on the findings in HAG. Nevertheless, unlike the previous study, DS in HAG did not positively impact DL.

Furthermore, the findings from LG displayed that a comparatively lower level of attachment and satisfaction was generated by DID, enough to enhance the image but not the loyalty. DL was improved by the direct effects of destination identification, attachment, and satisfaction. Therefore, this study contributes to the following

contextual theory in WHS heritage tourism in China by claiming that DAT is a predictor of destination image and loyalty.

DID didn't positively influence DI based on the data analysis findings in this study; this construct positively affects DAT and DS. In contrast to DID, destination attachment and satisfaction are positively associated with DI. Additionally, either DID or DS is not a guaranteed predictor of DL. When there is a low level of destination attachment and satisfaction, it is vital to add DID to engender an enhanced DL.

8.2.2 Contribution to Heritage Tourism

This study revealed that combining residents and tourists in heritage tourism can positively impact the region's heritage tourism development. HTM can be effective when WHS branding incorporates DID. An effective HTM involving the residents' participation can maintain sustainability in heritage tourism. Heritage tourism is one of China's essential strategies for lifting poverty, especially in rural areas. The proposed process model of WHS branding in HTM shows the vital strategy of combining internal and external branding. In other words, it is a model to transform the WHS brand to suit the version of the Chinese WHS brand.

It is vital to identify the different elements/issues concerning heritage tourism development, including the local level, instead of only following the broad context (Richter, 1983, Richter, 1989). Previous studies often ignored the risks of developing heritage tourism sustainably without paying attention to residents. Instead, they only focused on the macro scale. However, it is risky to investigate tourism development without considering the power of the residents and local community in China. Thus, it

is imperative to include the residents in WHS branding to ensure heritage tourism development success in the long term.

It is critical to put the Chinese value in perspective when developing heritage tourism in China, especially in rural areas, as it needs to be reflected in tourism development. Therefore, heritage tourism in China is likely prompted by a Chinese cultural trend. It is to experience and feel by reflecting on the ancient Chinese poets or great heroes' temperament when they lived in the ancient past. This cultural tradition is deeply rooted in Chinese civilisation. Perhaps that can be used to explain the likely cause of mass tourists in China. Therefore, it is essential to include national and cultural identity in heritage tourism in China.

8.2.3 To Establish a Conceptual Framework of WHS Branding by Deploying DID, DAT and DS to Predict DI and DL

Previous literature suggested that the WHS brand may lack a branding process. This study adopted brand and branding theory to find the branding components attachment and satisfaction may have a positive relationship with brand image and loyalty. Following previous researchers, this study incorporated DAT and DS as two practical destination branding components.

This study combined residents and tourists in heritage tourism management to incorporate destination identification as an independent variable in the novel conceptual framework established in this study. It is because a destination is more complicated than a product or service. This study extended social identity theory to achieve the objective of this study. Therefore, DID was deployed to increase

destination attachment and satisfaction. In this case, effective destination branding will engender an enhanced image and loyalty of the WHS. The data analysis results in this study revealed that the conceptual framework was effective in predicting DI and DL. Thus, according to the findings in this research, to enhance DI, effective destination branding can follow the path including $DID \rightarrow DAT \rightarrow DI$; $DID \rightarrow DS \rightarrow DI$; $DID \rightarrow DAT \rightarrow DS \rightarrow DI$; $DID \& DAT \& DS \rightarrow DI$. To enhance DL, HTM can select the path including $DID \rightarrow DAT \rightarrow DL$; $DID \& DAT \& DS \rightarrow DL$.

8.2.4 To Identify the Dimensions of DID in WHS Destination Branding

As this study focuses on WHS in China, which has different characteristics from the developed nations and other developing countries, the complication in HTM in China was requested to evaluate before delving into obtaining the appropriate dimensions of DID. The unique national identity and local Chinese culture are compelling elements connected with China's WHS. Given the challenges in enhancing WHS loyalty and image, the previous study only focused on tourists. This study filled the gap by combining internal and external branding in the destination branding process.

This research revealed that adequate dimensions of DID need to be considered to enable DID to impact DAT and DS significantly. However, DID varies in different destinations. For instance, the significant dimensions of DID in LG included the Suzhou LG being a global heritage, and the WHS brand is vital for understanding Chinese national identity. The considerable dimensions in HAG are essential for understanding Chinese national identity, being part of heritage conservation, witnessing WHS' future protection, and many things that keep me in this place. Thus,

to achieve the objective of identifying the dimensions of DID in destination branding needs to be associated with the factors related to national identity, community identity, and cultural identity.

8.2.5 To Determine the Challenges of Involving Residents in HTM in China

It is noticeable that heritage tourism development will affect both tourists and residents. While the previous studies often narrowly focused on tourists, the effectiveness of such a strategy excluding residents will mostly be damaged. It is vital not to overlook the complicity of destination branding, which differs from product or service branding. It is essential to understand that the attitude and behaviour of tourists will be influenced by the residents, who have perplexing knowledge of the destination and their heritage (Zenker et al., 2017). In other words, the relationship between the residents and the destination image is interrelated.

Additionally, residents appeared to be an inseparable part of tourism development. They are part of the integration of the heritage site. Accordingly, the perception of the heritage site's image will also affect their attitude towards tourists, aggravating their perception of the entire heritage site. Both HAG and LG heritage tourism developments incorporated residents and tourists concurrently. Thus, this study achieved the purpose of combining residents and tourists in the WHS branding in HTM.

This study suggested that it is vital to combine residents-included internal branding with tourists-incorporated external branding to improve the effectiveness of the WHS brand. Although the case of WHS in Suzhou, China, is a positive example of China's HTM, achieving an effective HTM is not as simple as it appears. It is essential to realise

the challenges concerning involving residents in WHS destination branding. The residents' needs and feelings should be considered in HTM.

However, the excessive amount of tourists will possibly damage the infrastructure and resources of the destination (Gursoy et al., 2002). The negative impacts will change the attitude of residents towards tourists (Jeon et al., 2016). When residents do not feel satisfied, it is more than likely that their attachment to the WHS will be reduced. Consequentially, DL will not be enhanced. To avoid the above issues, all stakeholders should collaborate and pay attention to the residents' well-being, which is a challenge in HTM.

8.2.6 To Investigate the Role of Residents in Enhancing DI and DL

When combining residents included internal branding in the WHS branding, DAT was more influential in engendering the enhanced image and loyalty. The findings from the previous chapter revealed that DAT had a positive impact on DI. The previous research claimed DAT could be deployed to predict satisfaction and loyalty (Yuksel et al., 2010), which is consistent with the findings of this study. The data from both HAG and LG revealed that DAT positively influenced DS and DL.

Furthermore, the data exposed that DAT from HAG had a total of 0.86 effects (0.84 direct, 0.02 indirect) on DL, 0.639 immediate effects and 0.113 indirect effects on DI. However, in LG, the attachment had a total of 0.836 effects (0.254 direct, 0.582 indirect) on loyalty, 0.197 direct effects and 0.482 indirect impacts on the WHS image. The rural location of LG can explain such a difference. It is also partly due to residents'

emotional attachment and attitude towards the tourists when interacting with them can be discrete (Thomson et al., 2005a).

The difference between the WHS urban and rural locations might cause a varying degree of attachment, impacting the image and loyalty of the WHS. It is plausible that a robust DAT influenced tourists. Such could be stemmed from the understanding that residents had a more positive attitude toward DI and became more loyal to the WHS.

8.2.7 To Explore the Benefits of Residents in Improving DAT and DS

Previous studies claimed that supporting residents in tourism development is beneficial, mainly when participating in heritage tourism planning. It is because their attitude and behaviour will directly influence the level of DAT and Ds. The amount of attachment needed to engender the enhanced image and loyalty is vital. The HAG data discovered a total of 0.752 effects (0.639 direct, 0.113 indirect) that the attachment had on the HAG image. Additionally, LG data exposed a total 0.679 effect (0.197 direct, 0.482 indirect) the attachment had on the LG image. Both model results clearly showed that DAT positively affected DI and DL. Previous studies deployed DI to predict the attachment mediated by authenticity (Jiang et al., 2017) or utilised DI as the antecedent of attachment and satisfaction. Such only involved external branding targeted tourists (Prayag and Ryan, 2012, Kani et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, HAG attachment had 0.382 effects on satisfaction, while LG attachment had 0.728 effects on satisfaction. This finding demonstrates that DAT is a predictor of DI, moderated by DS. It also shows an interesting result that HAG findings engendered a higher level of attachment with less satisfaction. In contrast, LG branding was

opposite in line with the level of attachment and satisfaction. DAT is often connected to DS as its predictor in the context of tourism. Such a finding is consistent with the previous studies (Veasna et al., 2013, Yuksel et al., 2010). However, it differs from Kani et al. (2017), who claimed DAT mediates the relationship between DI and DS.

The tourist's attachment to the destination can be deployed to evaluate how strong the bonded connection is, whilst satisfaction can be achieved with less bond. Therefore, DAT is more associated with place-related perception than DS. It is more feasible that residents have more attachment than first-time visiting tourists. The latter could have a varied level of satisfaction in that short period. Based on the findings of this study, HTM needs to include residents. Their attitude and behaviour affect tourists' visiting experiences, from pre-visiting searching and on-site consumption.

8.2.8 To Examine the Benefits of Combining Residents and Tourists in WHS Branding

Given the attachment's multidimensions in a destination, especially with an outstanding physical heritage in the residing environment, a robust emotional bond dominates residents' attachment. Such is the essence of this WHS branding component, accumulating the needed attachment to the physical heritage. When living in an environment bestowed with a WHS, the psychological bond created initially by the unique heritage can give residents a strong sense of identity and emotional attachment to the destination. Residents often have great pride in the WHS cultural heritage and an indebted feeling towards heritage preservation at the request of a WHS brand (Vong, 2015). Such a finding is consistent with this study.

A product or service can attract more consumers, so competing with a similar product or service is challenging. Often the winning brand is effective due to the employees' factor, making a big difference. Similarly, when the functional component of DI cannot be improved further, it has to enhance the emotional part associated with the residents. For instance, tourists ask local people to recommend purchase choices when they first visit the destination. After the positive experiences, an unspoken trust is more than likely built between the tourists and the residents.

Some tourists would keep returning or even relocate to live and work in the community. This psychological perception triggered by the residents can influence the tourists' willingness to interact with the local groups. Furthermore, tourists can be motivated by the factor of the residents through communication and interaction. The previous study considered this effect of the residents vital in engendering tourists' satisfaction (Freire, 2009) and destination loyalty, as confirmed in the findings of this study.

8.2.9 To Investigate the Relationships Between the WHS Branding Components

This study deployed CFA and SEM techniques in analysing the data collected from HAG and LG study areas. After obtaining confirmatory models, the hypothesised structure model was tested, validity was investigated, and the hypotheses were tested. The summary of the findings regarding the relationships between the WHS branding components are as the following (see Table 8.1):

Table 8.1 Findings

Hypothesis		HAG Results	LG Results
H1a	DID has a positive influence on DAT	Supported	Supported

H1b	DID has a positive influence on DS	Supported	Supported
H2a	DID has a positive influence on DI	Not supported	Not supported
H2b	DID has a positive influence on DL	Not Supported	Supported
H3a	DAT has a positive influence on DI	supported	Supported
H3b	DAT has a positive influence on DL	Supported	Supported
H4a	DS has a positive influence on DI	Supported	Supported
H4b	DS has a positive influence on DL	Not supported	Supported

8.2.10 To Explore the Role of WHS Branding on DID

One of the dimensions of place attachment is place identity, demonstrating the relationship between self-identity and the destination (Proshansky, 1978). When different identities associated with place identities, such as national identity and community identity, are instilled into a construct, it is called the process of destination identification.

However, given the importance of customer brand identification in marketing regarding consumer behaviour (Hultman et al., 2015), little knowledge is available concerning deploying identification to cultivate more attachment and satisfaction. This research discoursed this limitation based on the literature on branding, destination branding, and heritage tourism. Such enabled this study to develop a conceptual model. This novel conceptual model has been tested using HAG and LG data. The result exposed DID can be projected with multidimensions to enhance the effectiveness of the WHS brand.

The HAG model result explained that DID positively impacts attachment with a direct 0.853 effect and is positively associated with satisfaction creating a total of 0.83 effects (0.504 direct, 0.326 indirect). DID did not have a positive relationship with DI or DL. However, LG's result showed DID supported attachment with a direct 0.689 effect and positively affected satisfaction with a total 0.663 effect (0.161 direct, 0.502 indirect). Contrary to HAG, DID from LG model positively impacted DL at a total 0.591 effect. However, similar to HAG, the image of LG was not positively supported by DID. Based on the findings, DID is a predictor of DAT and DS. Furthermore, DID alone cannot enhance DI. Nevertheless, it is feasible that destination identification can directly contribute to DL.

Comparing the effects on the urban WHS, DID engendered a higher level of DAT and DS. As a result, the WHS image was enhanced. However, DL was not positively supported by DS; instead, it was enhanced by DAT, and strengthened by DID. Nevertheless, in the rural LG, there was a comparatively lower level of attachment and satisfaction prompted by DID. Both constructs cooperatively enhanced the WHS image.

Furthermore, LG loyalty was positively impacted by DID, moderated by attachment and satisfaction. Based on the above discussion, this study suggests DID is an essential antecedent in increasing the WHS brand's effectiveness. Such can be achieved by either triggering a very high level of attachment or a lower level of attachment & satisfaction. Additionally, DID will need to add its direct effect to enhance loyalty when both attachment and satisfaction are lower.

8.3 Implication

8.3.1 Theoretical Implication

It is essential for HTM to identify sustainable heritage tourism development in the long term. Previous scholars recommended the following criteria in achieving an ideological mission: to present tourists with a site priced practically in a friendly environment, providing easy access to the structures materially and knowledgeably, maintaining the tourists' requirements and the conservation, balancing the acceptability and the truthfulness. Like any product or service brand, to attract consumers to buy and return to be loyal, guaranteeing them value for money is like delivering the brand promise. In HTM, it is critical to maintaining this practice, perceived by the WHS tourists that the WHS visit is worth the money spent (Garrod and Fyall, 2000).

It is agreed that heritage is an inheritance from past generations. Thus, the WHS appears to provide a space for connecting the past, the present, and the future. However, they often face challenges between preserving the heritage for future generations and consuming it by the present generation. It is the responsibility of HTM to decide which one should be compromised or is compatible with the other. Nevertheless, traditionally, there is a significant empathy in line with heritage tourism managers' perceptions regarding the purpose of heritage tourism and the philosophy of heritage conservation (Garrod and Fyall, 2000). In a developed country, conservation is a priority, which should be the same in China. However, the motivation is more than likely different.

Nevertheless, HTM in China is responsible for successful tourism outcomes and the conservation maintained by the income generated from utilising the heritage.

Furthermore, HTM in China bears different challenges from different regions due to its diversity. Given the importance of heritage tourism in understanding the struggle between preserving and deploying the heritage, HTM needs to have an effective strategy regarding the dimensions of DID, so destination attachment and satisfaction can be improved; as a result, DI and DL can be enhanced. In this case, the novel conceptual framework established in this study will be significant in predicting DI and DL in HTM whilst combining residents and tourists in destination branding to engender a robust DAT and DS.

8.3.2 Practical Implication

HTM serves the function by sustaining the balance between heritage tourism and heritage conservation. On the complication of the exact balancing point in generating tourism profit and maintaining the heritage, HTM has to deal with various topics. They include WHS branding, accessibility of the WHS, education needed in line with heritage knowledge, recreation providing entertainment for visitors, finance involving admission fees and operational cost, conservation and other relevance relating to the local community.

The team of HTM needs to have diverse experiences, including restorers, developers, operations managers, strategic specialists, public relations professionals, marketing experts, advisors, local authority officers, heritage organisation administrators, and tourism scholars. This wide range of expertise is chosen based on the supply side of heritage tourism (Garrod and Fyall, 2000). Some previous studies have incorporated tourists (Green et al., 1990a, Green et al., 1990b). However, this study urges the HTM

panel to include the residents, representing the shared common interest as tourists from the demand and internal stakeholders from the supply side.

Most studies on HTM in developed countries consider residents & the local community the least important. However, the meaning of the WHS is multiplied. They include providing tourists with an opportunity to experience the past, witness the physical heritage, and economically offer a means of regional regeneration. Successful heritage tourism development integrates community identity and educates residents and tourists to appreciate the heritage (Millar, 1989b), which will help generate some level of a bond or DAT towards the destination.

When heritage tourism occurs at the WHS, the local community is potentially influenced by heritage tourism's negative social and environmental impacts. For instance, the residents will experience traffic jams, air pollution, crowded parking, and anti-social behaviour from some tourists. However, at the same time, the residents will benefit from the WHS, a resource for heritage tourism, regarding the economic and cultural impact. Previous scholars recommend that HTM identify the balance between the adverse effects and the benefits experienced by the residents. It is weak management without realising this crucial point in HTM (Garrod and Fyall, 2000). Therefore, a continuing strategy must integrate the requested dimensions into destination identification to lead to effective HTM to produce adequate DAT and DS.

Moreover, residents and tourists need to appreciate the heritage and comprehend why it is exclusive and needs to be preserved. Such requires education, which can be achieved through interpretation practices (Garrod and Fyall, 2000). It is advocated that

education is more effective when the element of entertainment is integrated into education. For instance, offering residents and tourists, a recreational experience can be a meaningful onsite education. Alternatively, such a strategy can take advantage of the WHS presentation through media and information boards to educate residents and tourists (Millar, 1989b), who might be able to identify the significance of the heritage and realise the need to preserve it (Moscardo, 1996, Garrod and Fyall, 2000).

Despite the recreation limit from the standpoint of conservation restraints, HTM should consider the type of recreation to entertain to enhance DL. Furthermore, providing tourists with quality service, including better facilities with hygienic standards and professional staff, is essential. Such a strategy will be included in the long-term planning of heritage tourism development to increase DS. In addition, heritage tourism development needs to engage with the residents by integrating their community identity within the long-term planning. Such will make the residents feel belonging and pride (Garrod and Fyall, 2000) to boost DAT. Nevertheless, the marketing of WHS and heritage tourism is still in its early stage. HTM needs to understand the above elements in line with the tourists' sensitivity, the local community, and conservation to enhance DI and DL.

8.4 Limitations and Recommendations

This study focused on exploring the effects of branding on HTM in China based on the data collected from two Suzhou Classic Gardens. Under such a request, this study deployed the strategy of incorporating internal branding (residents) and external branding (tourists). Apart from filling the gaps and contributing to both academia and HTM practitioners, this study discovered that DID is an antecedent of destination

branding, influencing the level of attachment and satisfaction. However, this research has limitations regarding building robust DID, triggering the higher strength of attachment and satisfaction to enhance DI and DL. The last part of this research will address the relevant limitations to provide recommendations for future research.

Given that one of the aims of this research involves the effectiveness of the WHS brand, this study selected HAG and LG, which are located in an area with comparatively matured heritage tourism. Every WHS with a different place identity, including the location difference between rural and urban, may engender different results after incorporating identification, attachment and satisfaction in destination branding. It is because DID varies in other places. For instance, destination attachment and satisfaction generated via DID from the urban HAG are higher than in rural LG. As a result, the effect of branding on HTM will be different.

Additionally, the extent of residents' participation is also an affecting factor. Based on the above, the findings of this study regarding the positive economic, cultural-social and environmental impacts cannot represent the entire WHS destinations in China. Future research should study other WHS in China based on the conceptual framework resulting from this research. It will allow a comparison to generate an outline of China's HTM. Such can be achieved by measuring the different weights associated with varying dimensions of destination identification.

Furthermore, understanding how vital residents' involvement in heritage tourism is helps build a positive DI. However, there is a lack of a clear definition of what motivates residents' participation in destination branding by economic, emotional, or both factors.

Most of the participants in this research survey were young people who may not represent the older generation. Future research can include older generations, such as retired people, who may be involved more with the heritage. Doing so can evaluate whether DID can be measured with a benchmark, which will benefit academia and the practitioner in adjusting destination image and loyalty more precisely.

In addition, following the previous literature that the WHS brand is less effective, this research focused on WHS in heritage tourism. The findings of this study revealed that the level of DAT and DS is high enough to engender enhanced image and loyalty. However, this WHS status possibly triggered more attachment and satisfaction from the residents and tourists. Future studies should select a heritage without the title of WHS, focusing on the correlations between DID and tourists' engagement in a remote area with few residents living there. Doing so can help discover whether DID is a predictor of DS instead of DAT. Such can help HTM identify whether investing in infrastructure and service quality is more important. Such can be deployed as a dominant factor in forming DID to increase satisfaction in enhancing DI and DL.

Although local factors play a significant role in tourism development, it does not appear easy to blend the local identity in HTM. It is because planning authorities are not the same in different places. There is no standardised form which can be used to fit into different local cultures and identities. Every destination has its unique identity. Such needs to be acknowledged in line with local circumstances when planning DID in HTM. Furthermore, it is vital to integrate the regional specialisms into consideration of internal branding. Knowing how to launch DID will be more than likely to impact DI positively.

Nevertheless, regardless of the different approaches in HTM, it is vital to use heritage to obtain economic profit and preserve heritage. The urgent question is whether China's WHS can remain justifiable in the long term. Heritage tourism is developed to increase the regional economy. Alternatively, the development process is mediated by social-cultural, economic, and environmental perspectives derived from the local scale. In other words, the participation of residents plays a vital role in HTM. However, such a factor was overlooked by some WHS branding in China. Thus, HTM needs the involvement of residents and the local community.

Furthermore, in China's rural areas of different regions, the quality of infrastructure and poverty varies. It is up to the heritage tourism planning authority to decide whether they want to involve the residents. However, this study revealed that taking in the internal stakeholder is critical based on the case of HAG and LG. In branding theory, combining internal and external branding will lead to a strong brand. By following this approach, this study identified that including residents in WHS internal branding and combining with tourists incorporated external branding will engender enhanced WHS image and loyalty.

However, this study has limitations due to deploying a quantitative method. Future research could combine quantitative and qualitative methodologies to identify how DID can be affected by different levels of emotional bonds between residents and tourists. Focusing on the differentiations between residents and tourists, the effectiveness of the WHS brand could be better enhanced in future research.

Finally, the findings of this study regarding the different branding effects between the urban WHS and the rural WHS can be extended in future research. For instance, DID did not have a positive relationship with HAG loyalty but did with LG. As mentioned before, DID varies in different places. Research on the effect of DID on heritage tourism is still in its infancy and needs to be explored in various settings in other countries. The answers to the above questions will benefit academia and HTM practitioners to understand better residents' participation in maximising internal branding.

Appendix

Appendix 1: World Heritage Sites in China

<http://whc.unesco.org/en/statesparties/CN/>

1. Kaiping Diaolou and Villages; Location: Kaiping, Guangdong; 2007
2. South China Karst; Location: Yunnan, Guizhou, Chongqing and Guangxi; 2007, 2014
3. Fujian Tulou (Earth Buildings); Location: Fujian; 2008
4. Sanqingshan ; Location: Yushan County, Jiangxi; 2008
5. Mount Wutai (Five Terrace Mountain); Location: Wutai County, Shanxi; 2009
6. Historic Monuments of Dengfeng in "The Centre of Heaven and Earth" ; Location: Dengfeng, Henan; 2010
7. China Danxia ; Location: Hunan, Guangdong, Fujian, Jiangxi, Zhejiang, and Guizhou; 2010
8. West Lake Cultural Landscape of Hangzhou; Location: Hangzhou, Zhejiang; 2011
9. Site of Xanadu (Capital of Kublai Khan's Yuan Empire); Location: Xilingol, Inner Mongolia; 2012
10. Chengjiang Fossil Site ; Location: Chengjiang County, Yunnan; 2012
11. Xinjiang Tianshan (Mountain of Heaven); Location: Xinjiang; 2013
12. Cultural Landscape of Honghe Hani Rice Terraces ; Location: Yuanyang County, Yunnan; 2013
13. Silk Roads: the Routes Network of Chang'an-Tianshan Corridor ; Location: Luoyang, Lingbao of Henan; Xi'an, Bin County and Chengguo of Shaanxi; Tianshui, Yongjing, Dunhuang and Anxi of Gansu; Turpan, Jimsar and Kuqa of Xinjiang; 2014
14. Grand Canal ; Location: Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei, Shandong, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Anhui and Henan; 2014
15. Tusi Sites ; Location: Hunan, Hubei and Guizhou; 2015
16. Zuojiang Huashan Rock Art Cultural Landscape ; Location: Guangxi; 2016
17. Hubei Shennongjia ; Location: Hubei; 2016
18. Imperial Palaces of the Ming and Qing Dynasties, including the Forbidden City and Mukden Palace; Location: Beijing, Shenyang, Liaoning; 1987
19. Mausoleum of the First Qin Emperor; Location: Xi'an, Shaanxi; 1987
20. Mogao Caves ; Location: Dunhuang, Gansu; 1987
21. Mount Tai ; Location: Tai'an, Shandong; 1987
22. Peking Man Site at Zhoukoudian ; Location: Beijing; 1987
23. The Great Wall; Location: Northern China; 1987
24. Mount Huangshan ; Location: Huangshan City, Anhui; 1990
25. Huanglong Scenic and Historic Interest Area; Location: Songpan County, Sichuan; 1992
26. Jiuzhaigou Valley Scenic and Historic Interest Area; Location: Jiuzhaigou County, Sichuan; 1992
27. Historic Ensemble of the Potala Palace, including the Jokhang Temple and Norbulingka ; Location: Lhasa, Tibet; 1994, 2000, 2001
28. Ancient Building Complex in the Wudang Mountains ; Location: Hubei; 1994
29. Mountain Resort and its Outlying Temples in Chengde ; Location: Chengde, Hebei; 1994
30. Temple and Cemetery of Confucius and the Kong Family Mansion in Qufu ; Location: Qufu, Shandong; 1994
31. Mount Emei Scenic Area, including Leshan Giant Buddha Scenic Area ; Location: Emeishan City (Mt. Emei) and Leshan (Giant Buddha), Sichuan; 1996
32. Lushan National Park ; Location: Lushan District, Jiangxi; 1996

34. Ancient City of Ping Yao ; Location: Pingyao County, Shanxi; 1997
 35. Classical Gardens of Suzhou ; Location: Suzhou, Jiangsu; 1997, 2000
 36. Old Town of Lijiang ; Location: Lijiang, Yunnan; 1997
 37. Summer Palace ; Location: Beijing; 1998
 38. Temple of Heaven ; Location: Beijing; 1998
 39. Dazu Rock Carvings ; Location: Dazu District, Chongqing; 1999
 40. Mount Wuyi ; Location: Northwestern Fujian; 1999
 41. Ancient Villages in Southern Anhui – Xidi and Hongcun ; Location: Yi County, Anhui; 2000
 42. Imperial Tombs of the Ming and Qing Dynasties, including the Ming Dynasty Tombs and the Ming Xiaoling Mausoleum ; Location: Beijing and Nanjing, Jiangsu; 2000, 2003, 2004
 43. Longmen Grottoes ; Location: Luoyang, Henan; 2000
 44. Mount Qingcheng and the Dujiangyan Irrigation System ; Location: Dujiangyan City, Sichuan; 2000
 45. Yungang Grottoes ; Location: Datong, Shanxi; 2001
 46. Three Parallel Rivers of Yunnan Protected Areas ; Location: Yunnan; 2003
 47. Capital Cities and Tombs of the Ancient Koguryo Kingdom ; Location: Ji'an, Jilin; 2004
 48. Historic Centre of Macau ; Location: Macau; 2005
 49. Yin Xu (Ruins of the Capital of late Shang Dynasty, Yin); Location: Anyang, Henan; 2006
 50. Sichuan Giant Panda Sanctuaries; Location: Sichuan; 2006
 51. Qinghai Hoh Xil, 2017
 52. Kulangsu: a Historic International Settlement, 2017
 53. Fanjianshan, 2018
 54. Archaeological Ruins of Liangzhu City, 2019
 55. Migratory Bird Sanctuaries along the Coast of Yellow Sea-Bohai Gulf of China, 2019
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Appendix 2. Survey Questionnaire (English)

Dear Sir/Madam

This survey is on World Heritage Site Su Zhou Lingering Garden. Please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following scale

1 *Strongly disagree* 2 *Disagree* 3 *Neutral* 4 *Agree* 5 *Strongly agree*

The Garden is global heritage	1	2	3	4	5
This WHS brand is important for understanding Chinese national identity	1	2	3	4	5
The WHS status made this Garden famous	1	2	3	4	5
The people are trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5
I would like to be part of heritage conservation	1	2	3	4	5
I look forward to witnessing this Garden's future conservation	1	2	3	4	5
There are a lot of things that keep me in this place	1	2	3	4	5
I would like to be involved in this Garden's related activities	1	2	3	4	5
In general, I like seeing this Garden	1	2	3	4	5
Availability of travel information	1	2	3	4	5
Hotel/restaurants provide quality service	1	2	3	4	5
Helps tourism development	1	2	3	4	5
Increase international reputation	1	2	3	4	5
Brings more tourists	1	2	3	4	5

Helps to protect heritage	1	2	3	4	5
Chinese culture	1	2	3	4	5
The Garden has quality infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5
This Garden is one of preferred place to visit	1	2	3	4	5
Recognise the WHS brand 	1	2	3	4	5
Visit in the future	1	2	3	4	5
Recommend this Garden to friends	1	2	3	4	5
Easy access to the area	1	2	3	4	5
Scenery/natural wonders	1	2	3	4	5
Improves local economic development	1	2	3	4	5
Helps to build a friendly community atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5
Improves the awareness of cultural heritage in local people	1	2	3	4	5
Produced a clean/unspoiled environment	1	2	3	4	5
Improves local public facilities	1	2	3	4	5
Cause more traffic jams, difficult to go out	1	2	3	4	5
Tourism development caused more traffic jam	1	2	3	4	5
The Garden is	1	2	3	4	5
1 Peaceful 2 Less peaceful 3 Not peaceful nor noisy 4 Less noisy 5 Noisy					
The Garden is	1	2	3	4	5
1 Pleasant 2 Less pleasant 3 Not pleasant nor unpleasant 4 Less unpleasant 5 Unpleasant					
The Garden is	1	2	3	4	5
1 Relaxing 2 Less relaxing 3 Not relaxing nor distressing 4 Less distressing 5 Distressing					
The following question is about you					
What is your gender? 1 Male 2 Female	1	2			
Are you ____? 1 Resident 2 Tourist	1	2			
What is your age?	1	2	3	4	5
1 18-24 2 25-34 3 35-44 4 45-54 5 Above 54					
What is your education?	1	2	3	4	
1 High school 2 Undergraduate/college degree 3 Postgraduate degree 4 PhD					
What is your monthly income	1	2	3	4	
1 Less than 3000 Yuan 2 3000 – 4999 Yuan 3 5000 – 5999 Yuan 4 Above 6000 Yuan					

Thank you very much for your cooperation!
Email: xia.yin@plymouth.ac.uk

Appendix 3. Survey Questionnaire (Chinese)

尊敬的女士/先生

此次调研的世界遗址是苏州拙政园。请在五个选择框里任选一个 (1=完全不同意, 2=不同意, 3=保持中立, 4=同意, 5=完全同意)。

1. 苏州拙政园是世界的遗产古迹 ☐☐☐☐☐
2. 该世界遗址商标对理解中国特征很重要 ☐☐☐☐☐
3. 该世界遗址地位使得拙政园出名 ☐☐☐☐☐
4. 拙政园周边附近的人很值得信任 ☐☐☐☐☐
5. 我愿意参与该世界遗产的保护项目 ☐☐☐☐☐
6. 我愿意参与围绕拙政园的相关活动 ☐☐☐☐☐
7. 我期待目睹该世界遗址将来的修复活动 ☐☐☐☐☐
8. 有很多因素让我停留在这个含有世界遗址古迹的地方 ☐☐☐☐☐
9. 总体来说我喜欢参观拙政园 ☐☐☐☐☐
10. 在拙政园随处有到拙政园旅游的信息 ☐☐☐☐☐
11. 附近的酒店饭店提供优质服务 ☐☐☐☐☐
12. 有助于旅游发展 ☐☐☐☐☐
13. 有助于加强国际声誉 ☐☐☐☐☐
14. 吸引更多的游客 ☐☐☐☐☐
15. 有助于古迹保护 ☐☐☐☐☐
16. 传统的中国文化 ☐☐☐☐☐
17. 园内基础设施很好 ☐☐☐☐☐
18. 是我比较喜欢参观的地方之一 ☐☐☐☐☐
19. 对世界遗址商标图像熟悉 ☐☐☐☐☐
20. 会推荐给朋友参观 ☐☐☐☐☐
21. 将来还会去拙政园 ☐☐☐☐☐
22. 路线很方便 ☐☐☐☐☐
23. 自然景色绝美 ☐☐☐☐☐
24. 增强了地方经济发展 ☐☐☐☐☐
25. 有助于建立当地小区的友好气氛 ☐☐☐☐☐
26. 提高了当地人对文化遗产的认识 ☐☐☐☐☐
27. 使当地人喜欢在当地生活和工作 ☐☐☐☐☐
28. 遗产古迹旅游对环境没有污染 ☐☐☐☐☐
29. 提高了当地公共设施 ☐☐☐☐☐
30. 造成了更多的交通堵塞 ☐☐☐☐☐
31. 拙政园是 1 平和的 2 有点平和 3 不平和也不喧哗 4 有点喧哗 5 喧哗的 ☐☐☐☐☐
32. 1 愉快的 2 有点愉快 3 没有愉快也没有不愉快 4 有一点不愉快 5 不愉快 ☐☐☐☐☐
33. 1 休闲的 2 有点休闲 3 不休闲也不压抑 4 有点压抑 5 压抑的 ☐☐☐☐☐

下面是有关您的：

1. 性别 男 ☐ 女 ☐
2. 居住城市 _____
3. 年龄 18-24 ☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44 ☐ 45-54 ☐ 54 以上 ☐
4. 教育 高中毕业 ☐ 大学毕业 ☐ 研究生 ☐ 博士 ☐
5. 月收入
 低于3000 元 ☐ 3000 – 4999 元 ☐ 5000 – 5999 元 ☐ 6000 元 以上 ☐

问卷到此结束，感谢您的合作！

联系方式 Email: xia.yin@plymouth.ac.uk

Appendix 4. Consent Form

Research project: Exploring the Effect of Branding on Heritage Tourism Management
In China
Participating University: Plymouth University – Business School
Project leader: Professor Peijie Wang
Researcher: Xia Yin

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in a PhD study. You must be over 18 years old and have already visited the two Gardens mentioned below to participate. Taking part in this research project is voluntary. This project investigates the impact of heritage tourism management on China when both tourists and residents are included in the development. This project selects Suzhou's Humble Administrator's Garden and Lingering Garden as the survey focus to collect data. It will take 5 –10 minutes to complete the questionnaires.

This study will benefit Academia and heritage tourism practitioners in China and other countries and better protect heritage sites and the environment. You are free to withdraw at any time. The data provided by you will be handled strictly with confidentiality, following the privacy guidelines from Plymouth University's website:

<https://www.plymouth.ac.uk/research/governance/research-participant-privacy-notice>.

If results from this study are published or presented, individual names and other personally identifiable information will not be used. Suppose you wish to make a complaint on the data being processed. In that case, the University's Data Protection Officer can be contacted by emailing dpo@plymouth.ac.uk. Suppose you remain dissatisfied with how the complaint is dealt with; a review can be conducted by the Information Commissioner's Office (ICO) via casework@ico.org.uk. For any questions about the research, please contact the following:

Xia Yin
Researcher in Business Management
Plymouth University
Drake Circus
PL4 8AA
Plymouth
United Kingdom
Email: xia.yin@plymouth.ac.uk
Tel: 44(0)7630716142

By signing this document, you agree to be in this study.

I understand what the study is about, and my questions so far have been answered. I agree to take part in this study.

_____	_____	_____
Name of participant	Date	Signature

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