



University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU)  
Faculty of Economics and Business

**PhD Thesis**

**Tourism Experience Co-creation**

**A Service-Dominant Logic-Driven Model**

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# Abstract

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For some time now, new marketing paradigms are trying to set aside traditional and product-focused views of management and marketing strategies. Technological challenges, volatile customer needs, and alternative marketing application subjects and fields have pushed the discipline of marketing towards more adapted and generalizable marketing perspectives, leaving behind the long-established four Ps of marketing (Product, Place, Promotion, Price) and similar. These new paradigms emphasize especially the active role of customers in value creation, the inherent service-for-service nature of exchanges, the relevance of multisided resources, the formation of both planned and unintentional institutionally handled networks, and the interest on ‘experiences’. Among the propositions found, **value co-creation** is one of the most appealing and recurring. However, the lack of specification has transformed co-creation into an overused interpretation, a jumble of many different ideas (e.g., co-production, interactions, citizenship behaviors), and a concept at risk of turning into an ‘all and nothing’-type useless expression. Therefore, we need first, a conceptual underlying support that would lead the definition and implications of co-creation, and second, a practical backing that would demonstrate its empirical and contextual convenience.

The objective of this study is to provide an empirical and context-driven approach of value co-creation, based on the **service-dominant logic (SDL)**. In the conceptual concern, we believe that though in a meta-theoretical level, SDL provides a well-founded baseline framework for value co-creation, supplying a complete narrative and a number of premises centered on a comprehensive view of value co-creation. In the empirical concern, we chose **place marketing** in general and tourism in particular to situate our co-creation framework. Specifically, the research is focused on the **tourism experience** co-creation, which is thought to match the investigation requirements due to the experiential character of vacations, the multiple actors involved along the whole travel-related process, the main position of tourists in value creation, and the need of a marketing cut off from the traditional and commercial views in the tourism field.

The study carries out an extensive and systematic **literature review** about value co-creation, SDL and similar concepts in place marketing, including urban, hospitality and destination environments. The literature review is then used, together with the SDL assumptions, to build an extended **conceptual model** of tourism experience co-creation, including **antecedents** and **outcomes**, represented by tourist and destination resources, and by functional, emotional, and social value dimensions, respectively. **Value co-creation** is defined as service exchange and resource integration represented by a **set of tourist-driven processes**, including interactional, behavioral, attitudinal, and mental processes before, during, and after the travel experience. Results show that tourist’s specific travel-related **knowledge and skills** facilitate value co-creation processes, especially those connected with

self-arrangement behaviors. At the same time, tourist co-creation processes are found to affect predominantly the emotional and social value dimensions, even more than destination resources. On the contrary, the latter positively affect the functional value of the experience. Among the co-creation processes, interactional and behavioral processes influence the tourism experience value perceived by the consumer. Concretely, **interaction with local people** is found to be one of the most influential. Mental co-creation processes deserve especial attention. **Memorability** is found to significantly and positively affect value, as well as representing a moderator role between other co-creative processes and value. This means that recalling the lived experience helps increasing the tourist's perceived value. On the contrary, attitudinal processes related to customer citizenship behaviors do not present any relevance.

Therefore, the study contributes mostly in four aspects. First, an exhaustive literature review of place marketing co-creation allows acknowledging the efforts made previously on the field, in terms of identifying the different co-creation approaches, and registering the scarce variables used to precisely measure value co-creation (proxies are prevailing). Second, a verified measurement tool of value co-creation set up on a conceptually-based definition and composed of nine variables contributes to unfold the black box of 'service exchange and resource integration'. Third, the proposition and testing of various study hypotheses build on an 'expertise→co-creation processes→value' chain helps identifying the most relevant tourist co-creation processes that increase perceived value, thus assisting destination and hospitality managers. Fourth, the two-phase data collection methodology used in the empirical part of the study provides a more rigorous research method that encourages alternative information gathering processes.



# Abbreviations

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<b>A2A</b>	Actor-to-Actor
<b>AVE</b>	Average Extracted Variance
<b>B2B</b>	Business-to-Business
<b>B2C</b>	Business-to-Consumer/Business-to-Customer
<b>C2C</b>	Consumer-to-Consumer/Customer-to-Customer
<b>CCI</b>	Consumer to Consumer Interaction/Customer to Customer Interaction
<b>CFA</b>	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
<b>CFI</b>	Comparative Fit Index
<b>CL</b>	Competitive Logic
<b>COO</b>	Country-Of-Origin
<b>CR</b>	Composite Reliability
<b>DART</b>	Dialogue, Access, Risk-Benefits, Transparency
<b>DMO</b>	Destination Marketing Organization
<b>EFA</b>	Exploratory Factor Analysis
<b>FP</b>	Foundational Premise
<b>GDL</b>	Good-Dominant Logic
<b>GOF</b>	Goodness-Of-Fit
<b>ICT</b>	Information and Communication Technology
<b>JCR</b>	Journal Citation Report
<b>NSD</b>	New Service Development
<b>PTA</b>	Public Transport Authority
<b>Q</b>	Questionnaire
<b>RA</b>	Research Avenue
<b>RMSEA</b>	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
<b>SDL/S-D Logic</b>	Service-Dominant Logic
<b>SE</b>	Standard Error
<b>SEM</b>	Structural Equation Modeling
<b>SL</b>	Service Logic
<b>SRMR</b>	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
<b>SS</b>	Service Science
<b>TLI</b>	Tucker-Lewis Index

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Items</b>	
<b>COG</b>	<b>c</b>	Cognitive Effort
<b>ANA</b>	<b>a</b>	Analysis
<b>ELA</b>	<b>e</b>	Elaboration
<b>MEM</b>	<b>m</b>	Memory
<b>ORG</b>	<b>o</b>	Travel Organization
<b>VIS</b>	<b>v</b>	Pre-visualization
<b>SHA</b>	<b>ps</b>	Information Sharing with Providers
<b>PER</b>	<b>ppi</b>	Personal Interaction with Providers
<b>TOL</b>	<b>pt</b>	Tolerance
<b>LQUA</b>	<b>lq</b>	Interaction with Local People
<b>TQUA</b>	<b>tq</b>	Interaction with Other Tourists
<b>FEE</b>	<b>f</b>	Feedback
<b>REM</b>	<b>r</b>	Memorability
<b>FUV</b>	<b>fv</b>	Functional Value
<b>EMV</b>	<b>ev</b>	Emotional Value
<b>SOV</b>	<b>sv</b>	Social Value

# Chapter I Introduction

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## I.1. Introduction

The present introductory part is dedicated to offer a preliminary view of the content of the Thesis, giving a clear overview that would guide readers along the study. Thus, this introduction incorporates general information about the coming chapters. First, we explain our motivations to perform this Thesis in Section I.2. Section I.3 presents a preface that explains the object of the study, the research questions, and the specific objectives to be achieved throughout the work. Then, Section I.4 is devoted to describe the interest and relevance arisen from the potential contributions of this research. Section I.5 broadly displays the methodology followed to accomplish the final version of the Thesis. Finally, we end up explaining the structure of the document (Section I.6).

## I.2. Motivations

Overall, I had personal and academic reasons to carry out the present Thesis. All of them were in line with the Doctoral Program's research interests. Personally, I had already been working on co-creation of value and service-dominant logic (SDL) applied to place marketing, and I wanted to delve into the topic. In fact, previously analyzed publications revealed that value co-creation was not studied from what we thought it was a rigorous and complete co-creation perspective; thus, it raised in me a great interest to develop a measurement tool for value co-creation that could well be adapted to other contexts. Besides, antecedents of similar theses existed under the supervision of my directors (Paredes, 2013; Vélez, 2018), and I aspired to contribute to that legacy, by exploring the adequacy of value co-creation in places.

The context choice was done in base to my individual attraction towards tourism. My passion for other cultures and travelling, as well as the increasing relevance of tourism in the Basque Country, both motivated me to focus on the tourism experience. Tourism is in its peak in our region; however, experiences nearby show the need of developing tourism in a more sustainable and less managerially-oriented manner.

Additionally, preliminary notions received on marketing and especially on consumer behavior draw my attention towards this psychology-related discipline. In this sense, I thought that working on validated marketing approaches based on empirically corroborated consumer behaviors was the new research line to which we had to hitch up if we wanted to achieve useful conclusions in management and business.

Therefore, I asked myself: What does the tourist need? How does the tourist contribute to his/her own experience? Which are the processes (behaviors, attitudes,

thoughts) and relationships that generate more value to tourists? In order to answer to those questions from a value co-creation marketing approach, we began our arduous work.

### **I.3. Object of Study, Research Questions, and Specific Objectives**

The discipline of *marketing* has been broadly discussed due to its globally recognized utility in management. However, with the exception of few studies (Normann & Ramírez, 1993; Sheth & Parvatiyar, 2000), little effort has been done in the area in the last 30 years. Actually, it has been more than a decade since Vargo and Lusch proposed a shift in the marketing perspective in their seminal work “*Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing*” (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). In this and following works, the authors developed a new framework for the discipline through 10 Foundational Premises (FPs) (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). They called it the *Service-Dominant Logic*, and here they emphasized the inherent customer-centred (and no customer-oriented) view of marketing, highlighting the importance of the consumer in the value creation. Vargo and Lusch proposed the change from the so-called Good-Dominant Logic (GDL) to the already mentioned SDL. Thereafter, other authors have developed this idea. Specifically, Service Logic (SL) (Grönroos, 2008), Service Science (SS) (Maglio & Spohrer, 2008; Spohrer, Maglio, Bailey, & Gruhl, 2007; Spohrer, Vargo, Caswell, & Maglio, 2008) and Competitive Logic (CL) (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2000, 2004c) expand the view of situating the *customer* on the focus of the marketing research and enhancing the subject of *service* marketing.

According to this modern approach, value chain needs revising. Specifically, the SDL argues that *consumer creates value* because value arises with consumption and/or usage. That means that customer is essential in the value generating process, because he/she is the *final beneficiary* (FP 10 in Vargo and Lusch (2004, p. 7)). Consequently, the firm is a *value facilitator* through its *value proposition* (presented and available for the consumer) (FP 7 in Vargo and Lusch (2004, p. 7)). Therefore, we can conclude that multiple actors, including the consumer, are value *co-creators* (FP 6 in Vargo and Lusch (2008, 2016)). Finally, SDL argues that the value-generating process finishes at the consumers’ sphere, when they *apply and integrate their resources*. Therefore, it can be said that SDL and other approximations recover the *value-in-use* or *value-in-context* demanded by the first economists. Consumer’s central role and recovering the notion of contextual value are closely related to an emerging concept that is claiming for more attention: *experience value*, or barely *experience* (Gentile, Spiller, & Noci, 2007).

Co-creation and experiences are, therefore, important issues for management (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a), and they can be addressed from a SDL view. Even though co-creation and SDL helps conceptualizing a more modern approach of marketing, the empirical work that supports this framework in the literature is really scarce (Chen, Chen, & Wu, 2014; Vega-Vazquez, Revilla-Camacho, & Cossío-Silva, 2013; Yi & Gong, 2013).

A good context in which SDL could be applied is *tourism*. Here experiences gain special relevance, and the role of the customer is utterly important (customer behaviour at the destination is fundamental in the final value). Besides, first, the relationships that the visitor

undertakes in the vacation place and in other travel-related environments to have the necessary resources, and second, the presence in the tourism experience of a wide range of service providers including the government (network of actors), are additional characteristics that support the adequacy of translating SDL to ‘marketing’ tourism. Therefore, we think that tourism is a relevant discipline in which to test experience co-creation, based on SDL. In fact, traditional marketing in which *places* are able to analyze the market, define target segments and create value for those segments through the appropriate marketing combination has been recently questioned by the SDL and other related perspectives. According to these new paradigms, places should be viewed as service ecosystems that provide the context where actors exchange service and integrate resources to co-create value. In turn, actors affect that context, (re)formatting it through interactions. Thus, a new (more limited) role is given to place and destination managers, and greater prominence to *knowledge* and *cultural resources*.

Therefore, the **object of study** is the *tourism experience*, addressed from a co-creative, systemic, and relational perspective. At this point, two specifications should be made regarding the object of study. The first issue concerns the *research approach*. This Thesis matches the *marketing/management* approach, based on the centrality of the tourist with emphasis on the consumer-centric experience and, therefore, integrating the ‘supporting consumer experiences’ (Volo, 2009). Our marketing approach, thus, revolves around the general marketing S-D logic, emphasizing consumer behavior (Howard, 1977; Li, Li, & Hudson, 2013) and experience economy (Mehmetoglu & Engen, 2011; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). The second issue concerns the *research context*. Concerning the context of study, this Thesis is set on *tourism*. If we had to specify a spatial context, tourism is usually connected with *destinations*, although reality shows that tourism involves much more than strict destinations (tourism experiences include other spaces as home or transportations). Likewise, destinations are *places* with multiple ‘spatial functions’, not always related to tourism, but affecting it. In this study, we consider important to adopt an holistic view including the tourism experience as an experience built around a *tourist-citizens-internal companies-destination* pyramid (inspired, among others, in Baker and Cameron (2008); Hall (2014); Kotler and Gertner (2002a); Pike (2008); Rainisto (2003b); Shoemaker and Lewis (1999); Williams (2006)) (see Figure I.1). This leads us to circumscribe the tourism experience preliminarily in a place marketing context, that is, the most general approach.

From this perspective we will try to answer the following **research questions**:

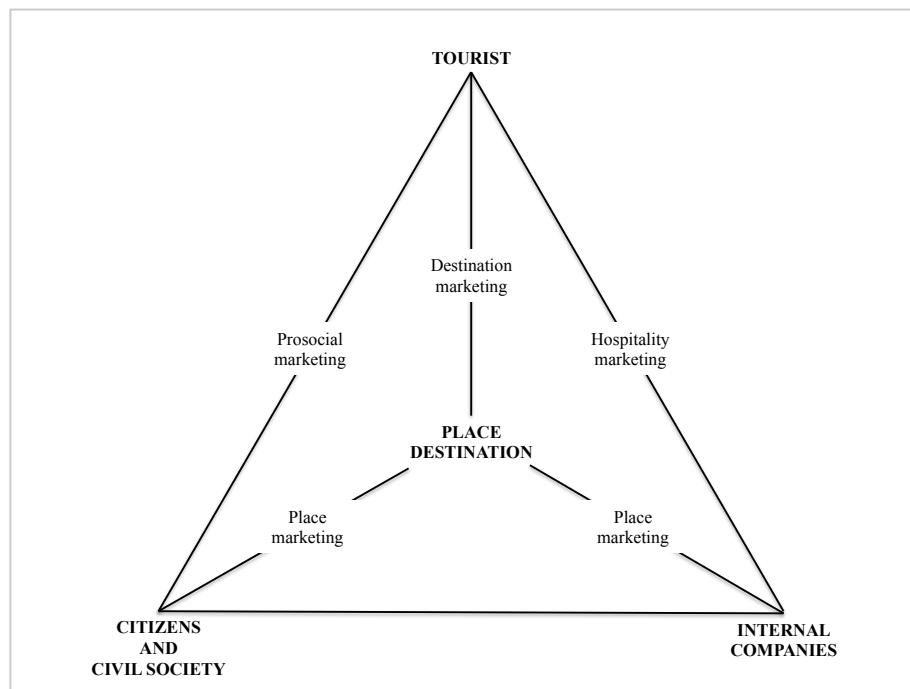
(1) How has place marketing been addressed up to now? Are the approaches provided so far correct and effective, concerning, for instance, tourism and destination marketing? Or the actual environment urges alternative frameworks and models?

(2) What other approaches could be used to apply to tourism experiences that enable more real-life place marketing propositions? Could the SDL and similar approaches contribute to better understand the processes carried out in the urban environment, in terms of tourism and the rest of tourism-affecting place mechanisms?

(3) How has co-creation been tackled in place marketing? Which underlying theories have been used to explain this perspective? Which are the most repeated approaches and

measurements of value co-creation in urban and tourism-related spaces? To what extent have SDL narrative elements been examined in such environment?

Figure I.1 A Holistic View of Tourism from a Marketing Approach



Source: Own elaboration.

(4) What is tourism experience co-creation? Is it possible to build a SDL-driven conceptual model where the tourism experience arises as a set of consumer co-creation processes? What are the facilitating co-creation antecedents? What is the direct co-creation outcome?

(5) What co-creation processes are the most relevant in tourism experience value creation? What can be said about the significance of tourist co-creation processes and destination resources when comparing their effect on perceived value?

In order to resolve all these questions, we set the main objective of our study. Then, to achieve this general aim, a series of **specific secondary objectives** were established. The global aim is to exhaustively describe value co-creation in a travel-related environment, considering tourism experience as a process attached to place marketing. In other words, the study pursues supporting the SDL view by developing an empirically contrasted model for tourism-related place marketing under the new paradigm, and emphasizing co-creation between tourists and service providers.

To contribute to that respect, the supporting objectives are listed below. These specific secondary objectives are set to answer the research questions presented previously. Each objective is addressed in a different chapter.

(1) To conduct a literature review about place marketing to explore its evolution, current situation, and possible gaps in terms of marketing and managerial approaches used (Chapter II).

(2) To conduct a literature review about SDL to explore how this logic addresses value co-creation (Chapter III).

(3) To conduct a comprehensive literature review about value co-creation in place marketing and detect research gaps (Chapter IV).

(4) To provide a coherent definition of tourism experience co-creation and an extended theoretical model that would include antecedents and outcomes of such processes (Chapter V).

(5) To create a measurement model for tourism experience co-creation (Chapter V).

(6) To validate the measurement model and contrast the hypotheses derived from the theoretical model using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) (Chapter VI).

Doing so, we hope to give empirical evidence to the co-creation process from a consumer's point of view, as well as shedding some light onto the relationships that may exist among all the different variables involved in the value creation process under the SDL. Moreover, we would like to give another perspective to tourism and place marketing, helping the urban managers and all the stakeholders involved in carrying out an effective place marketing to get away from outdated viewpoints that could be leading them to erroneous policies and strategies.

In relation to this, we hope to see how, where, and when customer co-creation processes affect the value of the travel experience. In particular, we hope to demonstrate that, broadly speaking, tourist co-creation increases value-in-context.

#### **I.4. Relevance of the Study**

The object of our study, tourism experience co-creation, as well as providing an actual perspective of the topic, has great scientific and social relevance, due to the benefits that the application of new approaches may have on the understanding of the tourism experience. Thus, the results obtained in the present work are thought to be able to help the scientific community, but also other actors such as tourists or consumers, who are the focus of co-creation processes and main beneficiaries; or destination managers and hospitality and tourism service providers, who will have at hand new strategies to increase value perception.

Applying theretically well-founded (SDL) value co-creation ideas to travel-related processes from a marketing-driven approach is thought to contribute to diverse academic disciplines and areas of knowledge, because:

- New marketing approaches are addressed (e.g., service marketing, SS).
- Introducing alternative and co-creative not-managerial contexts (i.e., places/destinations) in SDL contributes to the logic's conceptual development.
- The application of the SDL to specific contexts contributes to the logic's practical development.
- Other not-business-related organizations and networks of actors are considered to influence travel-related experiences at places.

Similarly, the study's social relevance lies in:

- A more real tourism experience process that takes into account consumer's role in value.
- Situating the tourist in the centre of the travel experience value, which contributes to understand the value-creating process from a consumer perspective and identifying specific processes that may increase perceived value outcomes.
- Acknowledging the benefit that public organizations (destination managers) and service providers can extract from adopting co-creation views.

Finally, it is also interesting to underline other practical and managerial advantages of developing a co-created tourism experience:

- We have to understand that marketing in general is implicitly customer-oriented; so, the sooner we include that view in the managerial sphere, the better. Thus, practitioner will be able to avoid outdated strategies.
- We have extensive background on the interurban competition (Eshuis, Braun, & Klijn, 2013; Kavaratzis, 2004; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008a, 2005; Kotler, Asplund, Rein, & Haider, 1999; Pike & Page, 2014). Adopting a SDL view in place marketing would be a way of gaining competitive advantage, which at the same time would allow in tourism maintaining tourist loyalty, which has been considered difficult but extremely important (Alegre & Juaneda, 2006), due to the important role of tourism industry in so many countries, regions and cities as a source of economic development and wealth (Balaguer & Cantavella-Jordá, 2002; Dwyer, Forsyth, & Spurr, 2004; Wagner, 1997; D. Zhou, Yanagida, Chakravorty, & Leung, 1997).

## **I.5. Study Methodology**

This Thesis is based on a rather exploratory study. However, it also makes some explanatory contributions based on hypothesis testing. Therefore, we can say that our work follows a hypothetico-deductive method, which consists on combining rational reflection (proposition of research hypotheses and deduction) with observation and the empirical point (observation and verification). The process lays on first, using the experience; second, forming a conjecture or hypothesis; third, deducing predictions from the hypothesis, and fourth, testing. This procedure has been performed in this study, in accordance with the following methodological phases:

**Phase I:** Literature review of place marketing.

**Phase II:** Literature review of value co-creation, SDL and service systems.

**Phase III:** Literature review about co-creation and similar concepts founded on SDL and other theories in place marketing.

**Phase IV:** Conceptualization of tourism experience value co-creation (definition, implications, and description of specific processes) in place marketing context, and based on SDL.



**Phase V:** Development of an extended conceptual framework of the tourism experience co-creation that includes antecedents, value co-creation, and outcomes.

**Phase VI:** Proposition of research hypotheses that establish relationships between tourist co-creation processes, represented by interactional, behavioral, attitudinal, and mental processes; antecedents, represented by tourist and destination resources (specific travel-related knowledge and skills and tourist experience value proposition, respectively), and outcomes, represented by the customer-perceived tourism experience value.

**Phase VII:** Data collection through an online panel, using a two-phase survey directed to Spanish and French people travelling abroad in vacations, and subsequent data refinement and validation.

**Phase VIII:** Validation of the measurement model using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

**Phase IX:** Validation of the structural model and hypothesis testing using SEM.

**Phase X:** Drawing conclusions.

Phases I, II and III consisted on complementary literature reviews about the academic efforts made in place marketing, in value co-creation and similar concepts based on SDL and other theories and logics, and in the intersections of both topics. This triple review is done predominantly with two objectives:

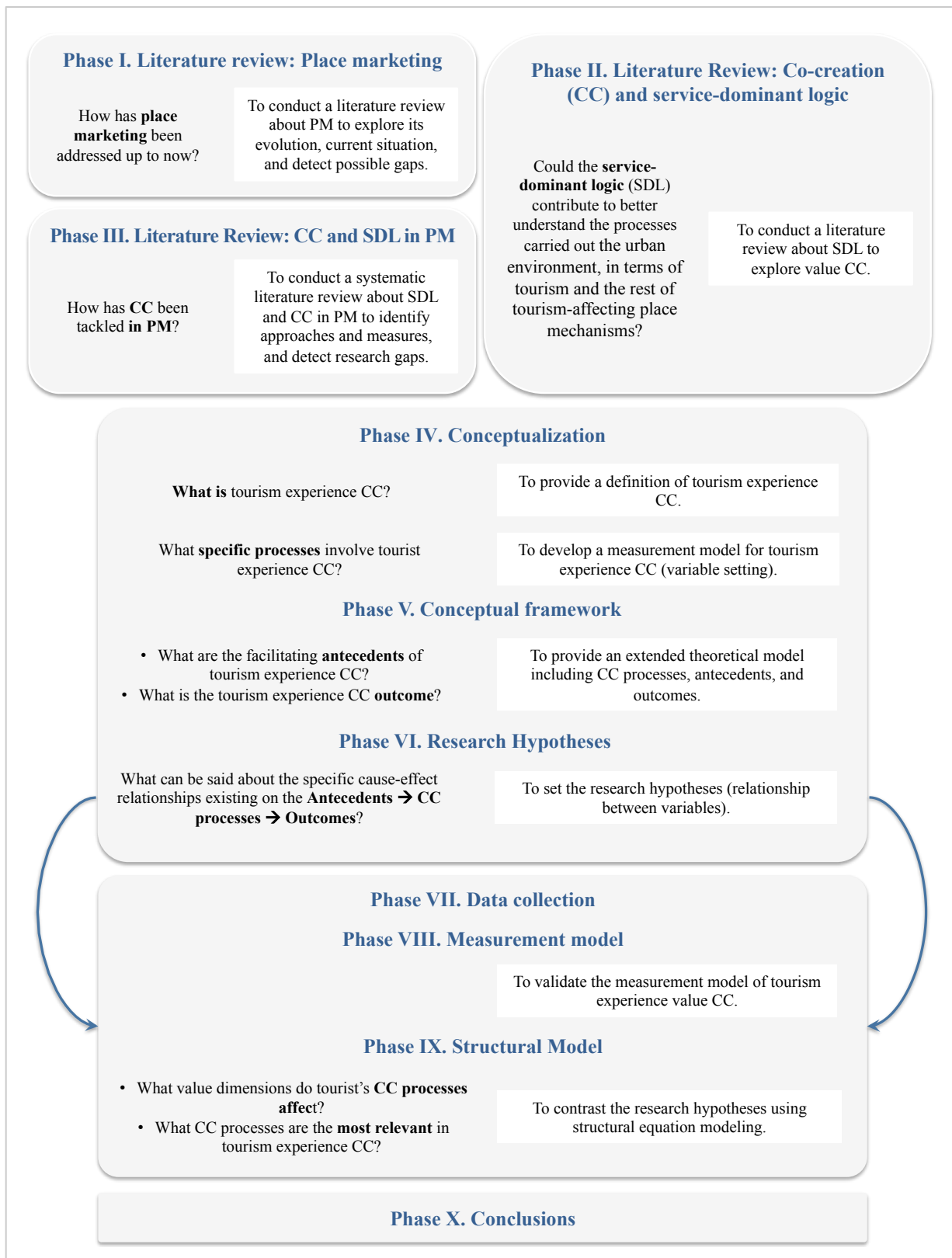
(1) To gather as much information as possible about new paradigms to address place marketing and specifically tourism experience co-creation. Describing and organizing the state-of-the-art available, allows creating a historical view and a baseline framework to understand a consumer-focused marketing perspective of travel experiences where destinations are much more than a promotional image or commodity.

(2) To identify research gaps and possible future investigation lines that could be at least partially answered in this work.

The researcher can come across an extensive literature when carrying out reviews. For that reason, we found essential to systematize the literature review process. Literatures in Phases I and II are performed to create some background on the topics separately, but the combined literature review described in Phase III represents the core of the study, providing the antecedents of our following propositions. Due to the relevance of that review, the methodology implemented in Phase III will be explained in more detail in Section IV.2. After this valuable literature review, the effort will be concentrated on conceptually and empirically advancing on the topic by providing a comprehensive baseline model for tourism experience co-creation that includes antecedents and outcomes (Phases IV and V). Establishing cause-effect relationships (Phase VI), a quantitative method was used to support our hypotheses (Phases VII, VIII, and IX).

Figure I.2 illustrates the study methodology.

Figure I.2 Study Methodology: Research Questions, Objectives, and Structure



Source: Own elaboration.

## I.6. Outcomes of the Thesis

Our Thesis gave rise to the following works:

Paper 1 (see Appendix VIII.1.1) is a critical review based on a literature review carried out on quantitative studies that addressed place marketing from a SDL view. It was inspired predominantly in Chapter IV and Chapter V. Paper 1 is already published in a high impact journal. Specifically, it is indexed at the Journal Citation Reports (JCR) with an impact factor of 3.667 (2017). The journal belongs to the *Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism* (4/50) and *Management* (38/210) categories, and in both of them it is positioned in the first quartil (Q1).

Eletxigerra, A., Barrutia, J. M., & Echebarria, C. (2018). Place marketing examined through a service-dominant logic lens: A review. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 9, 72-84.

## I.7. Structure of the Study

This section provides the way in which study results have been illustrated in the Thesis. Specifically, the reader has here available both, a research-structure representing a global view of the investigation, and a summary of the chapters that comprise the Thesis, including the specific objectives sought.

In this first **Introduction** section we synthesize the work content, providing general information about the object of the study and research objectives, as well as the relevance and methodology of the investigation. The general structure of the Thesis is also provided.

The aim of the second chapter, denominated **Overview of Place Marketing**, is to describe a general framework that provides a global and historical perspective of the place marketing discipline and its current situation. Therefore, this chapter gathers together the different approaches proposed along the evolution of place marketing. Besides, the review is focused on identifying potential gaps and critically discussing those approaches that could nowadays be outdated and demanding new propositions, due to the actual challenging and changing socio-economic situation.

In the third chapter, **Service-Dominant Logic: Towards a Consolidation of a New Marketing View from Value Co-creation**, the goal is to present an actual marketing paradigm that could well fit value creation in tourism experiences. The core concept was value co-creation, and the selected logic the SDL. Therefore, the chapter is focused on unfolding this new logic by comparing SDL with previous more traditional approaches and explaining its FPs and the five elements around to which SDL's narrative is built.

The fourth chapter, entitled **Service-Dominant Logic and Co-creation in Place Marketing: Literature Review and Research Agenda**, is directed to examine the extent to which co-creation and its foundational logics and theories have addressed place marketing issues. An exhaustive and comprehensive literature review about a combination of both topics permits identifying the infinite manners and contexts in which co-creation and similar

ideas have been addressed. The literature review is divided in two. On the one hand, a descriptive analysis provides the more delineative characteristics about the 155 studies analyzed. On the other hand, the thematic analysis prepares a report on how the big five elements of co-creation (i.e., actors, service exchange, resource integration, institutions, service ecosystems) and an additional sixth element (i.e., outcomes) are represented in place marketing in general and in urban, hospitality and destination marketing in particular. A research agenda is provided at the end of the chapter, a list of gaps and potential future lines of investigation.

The fifth chapter provides a *Theoretical Model for Co-creation of a Tourism Experience*. This theoretical framework is based on a previously self-developed conceptualization of the tourism experience co-creation and its implications. Thus, an extended model is provided: a model that includes tourist co-creation processes (understood as service exchange and resource integration), antecedents (tourist and destination resources), and outcomes (tourism experience value). The chapter likewise determines what specific processes involve this black box in which co-creation has turned into. A number of hypotheses where antecedents facilitate co-creation processes that end up in concrete value perceptions are finally proposed.

The *Empirical Analysis* is carried out in the sixth chapter. The most relevant objective here is to contrast the research hypotheses proposed in the previous chapter. This is made using a quantitative method (SEM). The chapter is completed with an exhaustive explanation of the self-developed measurement tool, a clear description of the data collection through a two-stage survey, and the analysis and interpretation of data, assessing the measurement and the structural models. These indicate the adequacy of the self-developed tourism experience co-creation scale and support many of the relationships established between the variables, respectively.

Finally, the last chapter sets the *Conclusions* of the Thesis. Among the objectives is to concisely gather the most important theoretical, methodological, and empirical contributions of the study. While the first two contributions reflect the effort made to cover the gaps found in the previous literature, empirical contributions provide a critical discussion about the results obtained in the hypothesis testing. The chapter also supplies a series of normative recommendations directed to managers (managerial implications) and considers some conceptual and methodological limitations of the study. The work is concluded with a future research plan.

The previous work is completed with the list of the cited *References* and additional *Appendices*.

# Chapter II Overview of Place Marketing

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## II.1. Introduction

The aim of the present dissertation (PhD thesis) is to study the role of co-creation in place marketing. As a consequence, we conduct a systematic literature review on the confluence of both concepts (co-creation and place marketing). However, in order to position our research, we need, as a preliminary step, to provide an overall view of place marketing, regardless of whether it is connected with co-creation or not. Hence, this chapter is addressed to offer an overarching perspective (not a systematic review) of place marketing, which includes its evolution, as well as the main contributions made in the area. The research questions that we try to answer in this chapter are: (1) What is place marketing and how have been addressed in the academic literature? (2) What has been its progression, differing in the objectives and actors implied? (3) Is there any future investigation line in place marketing? To answer those research questions, we have developed a theoretical framework about place marketing and its analogous (city marketing, urban marketing, etc.), from a review of the most cited papers and books.

Particularly, the aim of this Chapter is to analyze place marketing to know if it is scientifically adapted to the new global and academic settings. The relevance of this place marketing framework is twofold: first, to detect the principal actors and variables discussed in the urban context; and second, to assess the need of new developments in place marketing.

The chapter is organized as follows: Section II.2 provides a conceptual delimitation of the place marketing concept, including the academic approach of the discipline and its definition. Section II.3 supplies a historical evolution of place marketing, distinguishing the different phases of the field. The main contributions of the academic literature about place marketing/branding are regarded here. Finally, a research agenda is presented in Section II.4. This is conceived from a gap detection from which challenges for the near future are outlined.

## II.2. Conceptual Delimitation of Place Marketing

Cities (*places*, generally speaking) in the XXI century are facing new and challenging situations, especially in the management field. Within three-decade period, places have emerged as source of economic, social and cultural development, not only inside their geographical limits, but also for the adjoining regions. Besides, places are in an increasingly dynamic, global, and competitive context, which complicates even more public policies that would support innovative and attractive places (Sáez, Perriñez, & Mediano, 2013).

The usage of marketing as a management tool in places is not recent: what we now call place marketing has already been studied in the scientific literature for a while, usually

with the intention of answering urban managers' needs. However, the long trajectory of place marketing in the academic field has led to multiple perspectives, objectives and denominations, causing misunderstandings about what place marketing really encompasses.

### **II.2.1. Place Marketing in the Literature**

To be able to delimit the concept of place marketing, it is important to know the academic focus given to it. Specifically, we want to appreciate, first, the rigor dispensed and, second, the denominations allocated.

#### ***II.2.1.1) Academic Rigor***

Gertner (2011b, 2011a) accomplished detailed studies based on exhaustive meta-analyses with the literature published in place marketing and branding. Although he failed in using meta-analysis statistical tools, extracted interesting conclusions about the evolution followed by the discipline from the beginning of the 90's. Thus, there is a 'gestation period' from 1990 to 2000, a 'birth of the discipline' in 2002, and an 'adolescence period' until 2008. From 2008, we would be, as he called, 'approaching maturity', where the tendency shows an increasing number of papers in the area. Despite the proliferation of this type of papers, studies usually are lacking a rigorous theoretical foundation, and there are few empirical academic works. In fact, in the last period (from 2009) a broader utilization of robust statistical and contrast methods are noticed, but there are still very simple.

Therefore, we can summarize in four points the scientific rigor adopted by academics in place marketing and place branding from 1990 to 2009 (Gertner, 2011b). Place marketing and place branding:

- cover multiple scopes and contribute in numerous disciplines: business management, marketing, branding, public diplomacy, urban planning, design and geography, political sciences, etc.
- are predominantly qualitatively addressed, descriptive and based on single-case studies. Quantitative investigations are scarce and subjective papers stand out, sometimes anecdotally.
- include a wide variety of geographical entities, containing businesses, neighborhoods, cities, metropolitan areas, nations, groups of countries, continents, etc.
- address several topics and adopt various terms under the same denomination, even though branding, brands and image are the most used, above marketing.

The last statement reinforces the blurred delimitation of place marketing/branding: the application of diverse terms for the similar concepts, and the development of different concepts under the same denomination. We will try to help solving this confusion in the following section.

#### ***II.2.1.2) Nomenclature***

Apart from *place marketing*, several terms have been used in the literature around this concept; predominantly, *city marketing*, *destination marketing*, *urban marketing*, *place branding*, and *city branding*. Table II.1 summarizes some of the denominations adopted in

the discipline, along with the authors that have contributed to generate greater knowledge. Other associated concepts have also been found, although to a minor extent: *municipal marketing* (e.g., Mayer, 2004), *place selling* (e.g., Burgess, 1982; Ward, 1998), *place promotion* (e.g., Gold & Ward, 1994), or *geographical marketing* (e.g., Meester & Pellenbarg, 2001). But, is there any difference among them? And if so, what is it?

Table II.1 Denominations in the Scientific Literature about Place Marketing and Similar Concepts (with Authors)

Denomination	Authors
<i>Place marketing</i>	Madsen (1992); Kotler, Haider, and Rein (1993)
<i>City marketing</i>	Ashworth and Voogd (1990); Paddison (1993); Elizagarate (2003)
<i>Destination marketing</i>	Buhalis (2000)
<i>Urban (place) marketing</i>	Hubbard (1996); van den Berg and Braun (1999)
<i>Place branding</i>	Anholt (2008)
<i>City branding</i>	Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005)

Source: Own elaboration, based on Braun (2008, pp. 29–30).

Trying to reveal the reason to use one or another term, we provide Table II.2, where we separate the name in two, depending on the object of analysis: place. The first and the second terms are respectively related to (a) the perspectives (geographical nature of the place) and (b) the approaches adopted (nature of the place).

First, depending on the object of analysis, we can refer to: (a.1) *place*, when applied to territories, and *destination*, when tourists are the ‘target’ of marketing, (a.2) *city*, when related to a municipality or town, and (a.3) *urban, metropolitan or regional*, when marketing is connected to a city region.

Second, the nature of the place influences the chosen nomenclature in the second term of the wording. Place (city, region or country) has been differently considered, as (b.1) a product, or (b.2) an image. Those describing the territory as a product, usually opt for the *marketing* focus, as a process or technic to ‘promote’, ‘sell’ and ‘communicate’ the place as goods or services (goods/services offered within that place). On the other hand, authors choosing the *branding* concept emphasize the symbolic personalization of the information connected to a place, using the associations and expectations attached to it. Visual identity, image building, and profiles are some ideas connected to this second approach.

When considering places, the dichotomy between product and image (regardless of its extension, form or realm of governance) have lead to great conflict in the literature. Kotler and Haider (1993) noted that cities are not only places for commercial activity, but also product and service sellers; that is, sellers of its own products and sellers of its own value. Therefore, they consider places as products, which identities and values should be designed and commercialized. Hence, those places unable of commercializing themselves successfully will face the risk of economic stagnation. This perspective defends the place as a product, formed by a combination of tangibles (e.g., infrastructures) and intangibles (e.g., information,

knowledge, image, identity, brand and culture). Although recognizing the commercial (product) character of places, several authors highlighted their special nature of their ‘users’, because it is not obvious neither the offered product (the place), nor how the ‘consumption’ is conducted (Gold & Ward, 1994). Within this trend, Ashworth and Voogd (1990) acknowledge a dualism in the ‘place product’: it is sometimes regarded as a sole entity, while other times is seen as a combination of goods, services and resources. This perspective contrasts with the holistic view of places, even though they are still addressed in terms of products. Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005) identified that places might just be spacially extended products. Although diverging in the definition and nature of the place product, they all adopt *marketing* as the preferred tool.

Table II.2 Perspectives and Approaches of Place Marketing

		Perspectives		
		Place (destination, territory, location and area)	City (municipality and town)	City regions (metropolitan, cosmopolitan and urban)
Approaches	Marketing Promotion Selling Communication Etc.	Place marketing Selling places Place promotion Destination product Destination marketing Destination promotion Town center marketing	City marketing City promotion City destination City selling City planning	Urban marketing Metropolitan marketing Urban promotion Urban (marketing) regeneration
	Branding Visual identity Image building Profile Etc.	Destination branding Location branding Branding territory Place branding Rebranding city places	City branding Branding cities City image management City regeneration City image	Urban branding Regional branding Urban (regeneration) branding Branding metropolis

Source: Lucarelli and Berg (2011, p. 21).

However, some authors stated that encounters with the city (place) take place through perceptions and images and that the object of city marketing is not the place (city) itself, but its image (Kavaratzis, 2004). Therefore, it would be possible to commercialize city image, even though the product (the city) keeping vague. Therefore, it is the image of a place that needs to be planned and sold (Vermeulen, 2002). Graham (2002) makes the distinction between two parallel cities that exist simultaneously: “the ‘external city’, which can, at least superficially, be encapsulated in one or two signature buildings or landmarks” (Graham, 2002, p. 1009) (the city as ‘commodity’), and the “‘internal city’, [which] is a much more inner-directed mnemonic city, one that is concerned with social inclusion and exclusion, lifestyle, diversity and multiculturalism. It is a place of complex, overlapping and ambiguous messages” (Graham, 2002, p. 1011). This subjective amalgamation of ambiguous messages, as received by the mind according to each individual’s experiences and priorities, in its



interaction with the ‘external’ city, becomes the target of this second way of thinking. *Branding* and its management are the central idea and tool, as they provide the foundations to join a great variety of images that the place is expected to transmit through a single message.

Overall, denomination is of great importance: study changes its focus from promoting a place, to selling the products of a country, passing through attracting tourists and improving residents’ life quality.

Towards using a single name hereinafter, we are going to use the *place marketing* designation, understanding that this is the one that (i) comprehends more perspectives (the territory gathers cities and city regions), and (ii) involves both approaches (branding might be accepted as a marketing tool).

## **II.2.2. Place Marketing: What Is It?**

Regarding the multiplicity of place marketing studies and their different approaches, in this section we aim to provide a global and far-reaching definition for the object of analysis in this chapter –place marketing. To do that, we will first present some ideas usually related to and confused with place marketing; second, we will provide a proper definition for the term; and third, we will inquire into the origins of place marketing from the discipline of marketing.

### ***II.2.2.1) What Place Marketing Is NOT***

Before providing a positive definition of place marketing, we should be clear about how the *place* adjective is addressed to *marketing*, which has historically applied to products. In fact, “there are many different ways of relating marketable products to real geographical points on the earth’s surface [and] these are sometimes confused (...), [which is] particularly unfortunate (...)” (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008b, p. 152). This means that there are several types of marketing related with places, with different objectives and that have evolved quite differently. However, there are occasionally interchangeably addressed. Only some of these are what we understand as place marketing. The tendency towards including some concepts under the name of place marketing when they do not really answer to its genuine concept might be due to the dichotomy between the marketing of commercial products connected to a place and the management of a place, from public and private spheres. In this case, the following concepts will be considered out of the analysis (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008b, pp. 152–154):

- Geographical nomenclature, which consists in the identification of a certain product with the place where it was first produced, popularized or distributed (e.g., Champagne). Here, the place has no more significance other than product distinction, and neither transfers any place attribute.
- Place-product co-branding, which happens when two products are jointly commercialized due to their stringer association in customer’s mind. Specifically, the characteristics of a place and a product are correlated and, thus, a product will be promoted assisted by the attributes identified with the place (e.g., Swiss watches).

- Country-of-Origin (COO) effect, which considers the impact that the place (usually the country) might have in the attitude towards a product (e.g., “Made in China”). Generally, COO has been studied to acknowledge it as a quality indicator (Kotler & Gertner, 2002b).
- Locational marketing, which considers that the product is substantially a location; that is; it is considered that the geographical locus is what is being sold. Here, the place is viewed as a marketable commodity exchanged in the market and therefore, it is closer to the traditional marketing of physical products.

Acknowledging what is *not* place marketing, we will positively delimit it from a place management perspective. Place marketing will be an instrument of place management applied for the achievement of the objectives connected to that place in a competitive context. Therefore, it will respond to the discovery and creation of uniqueness in order to improve the competitive position of the place marketed (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990).

**II.2.2.2) Definition of Place Marketing**

Several definitions have been given to place marketing, differing in their complexity and emphasized elements, depending on the historical period and professional practice. Some of the most important are illustrated in Table II.3.

Table II.3 Place Marketing Definitions

<b>Author(s) and Year</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Ashworth and Voogd (1990, p. 11)	City marketing consists of the development of a geographical marketing mix that includes, not only promotional measures, but also measures of spacial functionality, organizational measures and financial measures, directed to the improvement of the place and its management. “It is a process whereby local activities relate as closely as possible to the demands of target customers (...) to maximize the efficient social and economic functioning of the area of concern, in accordance with whatever wider goals have been established.”
Madsen (1992, p. 633)	Place marketing is a strategy directed to “(1) product development; i.e., improving the physical resources of the place; and (2) promotion; i.e., improving the place image, which is a matter of commodifying place through a rigorous selection from its many characteristics.”
Paddison (1993, p. 341)	“Place, including city, marketing may be thought of as a variant of social marketing. Like it, city marketing is aimed at a series of different, but related, objectives -raising the competitive position of the city, attracting inward investment, improving its image and the-well-being of its population- rather than single overriding objective, as is true for profit for the private firm.”
Smyth (1994)	City marketing is the promotion of a city, or a district within the city, developed with the aim of encouraging certain activities. It is used to alter the external perceptions of the city with the objective of attracting tourism and stimulating resident migration or business localization. One of the main characteristics of city marketing is the development of new limits, flagships, buildings and structures.
Kotler et al. (1993)	“Strategic place marketing calls for designing a community to satisfy the needs of its key constituencies. Place marketing succeeds when stakeholders such as citizens, workers, and business firms derive satisfaction from their community, and when visitors, new businesses, and investors find expectations met. Place marketing, at its core, embraces four activities: designing the right mix of community features and services; setting attractive incentives for

	the current and potential buyers and users of its goods and services; delivering a place's products and services in an efficient, accessible way; and promoting the place's values and image so that potential users are fully aware of the place's distinctive advantages.”
Gómez (2001)	City marketing is the process of the city resources management, which aim is to encourage the acceptance of the value elements within the city, attending to the needs of the different target groups.
Braun (2008, p. 43)	“City marketing is the coordinated use of marketing tools supported by a shared customer-oriented philosophy, for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging urban offerings that have value for the city's customers and the city's community at large.”
Eshuis et al. (2013, p. 508)	“Place marketing is a matter of developing the place that people want and applying elements of policy making, urban planning, and place development.”

Source: Own elaboration.

Today, we can provide an additional interpretation for place marketing deriving from the marketing definition and adapting it to the place context and its actors. Marketing is defined as “the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large” (American Marketing Association, 2013). Therefore, we could delimit place marketing as *the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging the place product that have value for place customers (residents, tourists and investors), and society at large*. This definition is relatively close to Braun (2008)'s (see Table II.3), one of the most used definitions in the current literature.

When alluding to ‘place customers’, usually referred to as the ‘target audience’ of place marketing, residents, tourists and investors are differentiated. These are the most regarded actors (e.g., Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). However, some classical authors (e.g., van den Berg & Braun, 1999) distinguished four general categories, differentiating investors and companies from the original ‘investors’:

- Residents: They (potentially) ‘use’ a place with the aim of establishing for long periods to work, study, raise their children, etc. The benefits of attracting and maintaining residents in a certain place is that they normally stay long, forming a family, acquiring a place to live, etc. The key to attract them is, therefore, to offer them what they require, employment, for example. Thus, universities and companies should work conjunctively.
- Companies: They usually localize their industry, office space or distribution and production plants in the place. Workforce and resource availability are critical factors for this group.
- Visitors: They include people going to a certain place for short periods of time, like tourists and people enjoying festivals and events.
- Investors: They do not have to be in the place to be a ‘place customer’. They can be companies and businesses investing money in diverse activities, encouraging them.

According to Kavaratzis (2004), the main goal of place marketing is to increase the residents’ quality of life, an objective that he acknowledged as extensible to increasing

foreign inversions and promoting tourism. They would all be a consequence of a successful place marketing implementation. This leads to the previously cited *place marketing management* view: “City [Place] marketing management is the process of setting marketing goals for a city [place], the planning and execution of activities to meet these goals, and measuring progress toward their achievement” (Braun, 2008, p. 45).

### ***II.2.2.3) First Approaches of Place Marketing: A Translation from Commercial Marketing***

The place marketing management view described by Braun (2008) clearly derives from commercial marketing, as it refers to its processes and strategies, addressing ‘target audience’ and using terms as ‘setting goals’ and ‘planning and executing activities’, as well as ‘measuring [results]’. But, what is the origin of place marketing, and what are the reasons and foundations to adopt marketing for urban management? Is that adoption justifiable?

The adoption of marketing in places evolves from the extension of marketing to other areas. Marketing was repeatedly defined as the organizational function and set of processes for the creation, communication, and distribution of value to customers, as well as for the relationship management with those customers, in a way that is beneficial for the organization and its stakeholders (Kotler & Keller, 2009). The most used and known tool to implement marketing was the *marketing mix* (McCarthy, 1960), formed by the denominated 4Ps: product, price, promotion, and place. Already from the beginning of marketing as an academic field, some authors acknowledged the opportunity to use marketing in other contexts, not always related to business aims (Kotler & Levy, 1969; Kotler & Zaltman, 1971). This expansion was progressive, reaching public organizations or intangible offerings, for instance. What justifies the use of marketing in all cases is the exchanging nature of the process. That logic permitted the application of marketing also to geographical areas. It was then when place marketing was born. In this sense, the development of marketing in non-profit organizations<sup>1</sup>, social marketing<sup>2</sup>, and image marketing<sup>3</sup> helped the emergence of place marketing. Specifically they allowed solving the difficulties of transferring marketing knowledge (philosophy, methodology and technics) from its initial field of industrial goods and services to places (Kavaratzis, 2004, pp. 59–60).

Once we have delved into the origins of place marketing, we will move on to the second question: is the adoption of marketing for urban management and places well founded? Sáez (2014) stated that the principles and tools of marketing in urban management are admissible due to the following reasons:

- There is actually an exchange between the place/city and its several target customers.

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<sup>1</sup> It frees the application of marketing from its connection to direct financial profit making.

<sup>2</sup> It introduces the possibility to use marketing in order to alter or reinforce set of attitudes held by targeted individuals or groups, with the final goal being the good of society at large.

<sup>3</sup> It stems from the realization that images can be effectively marketed while the products to which they relate remain vaguely delineated.

- The places/cities are in a global competitive context to attract new resources that would allow urban managers to develop regeneration and revitalization programs.
- The places/cities are in a competitive context, where it is important to identify, develop, and promote competitive advantages, to be in a privileged position respect to other places/cities.
- There is a place-firm parallelism through the place/city management structure (major, government, etc.).
- To be in favorable competitive position, places/cities need to incorporate innovative management tools like the strategic planning, market orientation, marketing, benchmarking, differentiation, etc.

Nevertheless, there is a controversy about if place marketing is a mere extension of the marketing concept, or whether, on the contrary, it is a type of marketing itself. It is at least certain concern in the academic field about translating marketing knowledge to the place context, admitting that there might emerge problems and misalignments due to the special features of places as commercial goods. Ashworth (1993) claimed that place marketing is a legitimate marketing arrangement because marketing terminology, technics, and philosophy can be applied to places, but that to be successfully applied it must be considered a different type of marketing. In the following paragraph we can feel the same worry:

The addition of the single adjective ‘place’ (or sometimes ‘geographical’) to the verb ‘marketing’ might seem merely to specify a type of product to which a familiar process will be applied rather than the specification of a distinctly different process. Indeed, there are commentators whose academic background and practical experience is in product marketing who tend, understandably, to assume that there is no logical hiatus or practical difficulties in transposing physical and place products. Many of the standard texts (notably those of Kotler et al. (1999, 1993)), implicitly share this approach which stems from the standpoint and experience of commercial product marketing in which places are seen as physically extended but otherwise familiar products to which the equally familiar techniques of the marketing process can be applied. However, it is the assumption here that marketing when applied to places, as part of their management in pursuit of collective goals and undertaken by public agencies, is a significantly different form of marketing. A simple dichotomy between commercial product marketing and public sector place marketing as management is not sufficient but is confounded by the inherently distinctive characteristics of places as products (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008b, pp. 151–152).

### **II.3. Historical Evolution of Place Marketing**

Literature has always recognized the need of places to move towards differentiation, support their distinctiveness and obtain their economic, political and socio-psychological objectives (Gertner, 2011b). Globalization has made these objectives to be encapsulated in the name of place marketing (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). The emphasis on the adoption of *marketing* and *branding* strategies in places to promote exports, and attract investors,

businesses, industries, visitors, residents, retired people, event planners, and other ‘place customers’, has increased in the last 40 years. In the following section we will identify the different phases in the historical development of place marketing, which differ regarding the sophistication given to the discipline, as well as in the approaches and goals set. The instruments used, the stakeholders involved, and the historical context, all have influenced the evolution of place marketing. Changes in the competitive circumstances; changes in the governmental planning, doctrine and focus; or changes inside the marketing theory and practice are equally discussed (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008b). Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2008b) summarized place marketing development as follows:

Until the 20th century there is not an official place marketing understanding for managerial purposes, although different technics, afterwards embraced within place marketing, were already used from seventh century with several functions. Principally, the agricultural colony in the nineteenth century implied great efforts to attract labor and people to occupy, for example, the vast American West territories.

In the nineteenth century, with the already mentioned colonization, newly set up cities emerged. Thus, urban functionality raised and place marketing looked forward attracting residents. Simultaneously, regions located in the coast began to express their desire for attracting tourists.

In the twentieth century, from 1930 to 1970, the aim of place marketing was focused on selling the ‘industrial city’, captivating investment and new businesses through labor and cheap land. Starting in the 90’s, place marketing was directed to develop tourism, encourage exports, or drawing investment, always from a competitive and promotional perspective. It was in this decade when place marketing was acknowledged as planning instrument, (i) to seek social wellbeing and urban harmony, (ii) to plan post-industrial cities and help the socioeconomic urban transformation, result of industrial restructuring and its later economic recovery, and (iii) to ‘correct’ place image, from the ‘industrial city’ to the ‘city of services’.

Finally, in the last ten years, scientific community opted for *place branding*, in a broader sense at the beginning and from a corporative brand view later. Other relational models have also been proposed.

In conclusion, place marketing is acknowledged from the nineteenth century (Ward, 1998). Sometimes literature was oriented to place promotion (Ashworth & Voogd, 1994), but in the last thirty years comprehensive marketing methods have been defended, due to competitiveness (Kotler et al., 1999). Hence, we can distinguish four main phases in the history of place marketing: (1) place marketing as promotional instrument; (2) place marketing with holistic interpretation, where a global view of the discipline was adopted; (3) place marketing as place branding, where the place image is emphasized, more than its spacial functionality, and (4) a new era, where novel approaches of place marketing/branding are proposed.

### **II.3.1. Place Marketing as Promotional Instrument**

Prior contributions in place marketing were focused on advertising places, from a mere promotional view. This emphasis may be due to the restrictive knowledge of urban managers, to the embryonic stage of public marketing, to the lack of awareness towards places (Kavaratzis, 2004); even to the ongoing needs. Whatever it is, although promotion is only a little part of place marketing, its successful implementation facilitated the development of the discipline in a complete way afterwards.

In this phase advertisements and other promotional tricks were used to attract farmers and citizens to the frontiers (potential settlers). After, with the increasing urban functional diversity, the 'city beautiful movement' appeared (mainly in the USA), which promoted the architectural refurbishments to revitalize public spaces for residents and foreign investors. At the same time, tourism began to be sold for leisure societies, promoting resorts and suburban areas.

In the Industrial Revolution, the objective was to sell the industrial city to generate work force by bringing firms through promises of labor, land, and business opportunities to a low price and other amenities (housing, education, leisure, cultural benefits, etc.).

Finally the place was sold, not only as a place to work, but also with a broader notion, embracing life quality. Recreational opportunities were highlighted, partially nurtured by the creative cultures and the cultural class, driving force for growth and development (Florida, 2002).

### **II.3.2. Place Marketing with Holistic Interpretation**

A shift took place in the last decade of the twentieth century, from the utilization of promotional tools to the application of a whole marketing planning strategy. This trend appeared to many as the result of three interconnected reasons: (1) competitiveness between places; (2) changing roles of 'place customers'; and (3) new way of governance that encouraged managing the place as a business.

First, Braun (2008) identified some fundamental changes that, together with other international trends, seem to be the cause of the increasing urban competitiveness and urban actors' new behavior. Consequently, the role of places and place marketing also changed. Globalization and internationalization, revolution in the Information Technology, political developments (integration processes), predominant role of mass media, and transport infrastructure development, were the most relevant changes. We will summarize them in three major changes: (i) fast dissemination of knowledge and information, (ii) market expansion, and (iii) increase in people mobility. They all demonstrate changes leading to a greater competence between places.

Second, these changes have enabled a different attitude of residents, companies, visitors, and investors regarding their way of acting and interacting with the place, revealing higher expectations with respect to the environment -housing, employment, facilities, labor and raw material market, leisure, entertainment, etc. This is because urban actors (i) have a broader knowledge about the surrounding, due to a major information access; (ii) have a

wider offer, due to the market expansion; and (iii) contact those offerings, due to a greater mobility.

Third, competence between cities and appreciating residents as customers called for greater efficiency in the public sector, gave rise to a new 'entrepreneurial' style of local economic development, in which places were to be managed in a more businesslike manner, with characteristics once distinctive to businesses: risk-taking, inventiveness, promotion, and profit motivation (Hubbard & Hall, 1998).

In conclusion, the evolution of place marketing in the early 90's from a tourism-directed promotional method towards integral marketing plans included in urban governance, met the needs to adopt place marketing from a holistic perspective and to use more marketing instruments, others than advertising; for instance, marketing strategies, business plans, market segmentation, and branding.

In this second phase, various authors refined marketing concepts and ideas to make place marketing a reality for cities, regions, and suburban areas (e.g., Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Kotler et al., 1993). Some claimed that there is no problem in transplanting physical goods and places, commercial organizations and public organizations, consumers and users of a place. They based these statements in that cities, and places in general, are marketable products (e.g., Kotler & Haider, 1993). However, most authors highlighted the contribution of geography in place marketing, defending that places are unique, incomparable to goods and services, and, therefore, not susceptible of being tackled from the strict traditional marketing (e.g., Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). Nevertheless, they all keep supporting the application of the whole marketing process; that is, following some stages in the long-term: investigation and analysis, market segmentation and selection of target groups, product development, and evaluation and re-evaluation of strategies. It was in some of these stages that the special character of places was acknowledged. Braun (2008) said that differences resided in the urban context where marketing is applied, and that marketing should incorporate the urban dynamics in term of space, society, economics, politics, and administration. Therefore, he recognized the need of 'tuning' the traditional marketing tools before applying to a place. In other words, the foundations of marketing are wholly applicable to places but with some modifications (Ashworth & Voogd, 1994). This means that place marketing is a legitimately acceptable form of marketing regarding terminology, technics, and philosophy, although its successful utilization involves addressing it as a different type of marketing.

These changes, aimed at achieving consistent results, were generally conducted in the marketing mix. Marketing mix was considered important in the place marketing literature, and many authors tried to provide a mix equivalent to the 4Ps of traditional marketing, but directed to places (e.g., Kotler et al., 1999; van den Berg, Klaassen, & van den Meer, 1990). The effort revealed (i) the existence of special features, and (ii) the irrelevance or inadequacy of some elements of the traditional marketing mix in places. So, adjustments in the marketing mix are partially attributed to the problems that, predictably, traditional elements (product, price, place, and promotion) lead to.



We will emphasize two frameworks for place marketing: (1) the *geographical marketing mix* of Ashworth and Voogd (1990), and (2) the *place product* of Kotler et al. (1999). We have considered them due to their relevance in the place marketing literature, the former for being the pioneer, and the latter due to its authors' importance in the marketing field.

The *geographical marketing mix*, designed to improve the place and its management, answered to the need of a marketing mix for places, and was defined as a combination of at least the following sets of instruments:

- Promotional measures, directed to create and communicate the place image.
- Spatial-functional measures, connected to the urban design and structure.
- Organizational measures, which referred to internal structures.
- Financial measures, which involved the financial facilities and incentives awarded.

If we wanted to compare these four measures with the traditional 4Ps, spatial-functional and financial measures would be comparable with the *product* element, and promotional measures would be included in *promotion* or *place*. Organizational measures would justify the need to include governance, while *price* was not mentioned.

Kotler et al. (1999), although adopting the marketing mix as suggested by general marketing, distinguished between four distinctive strategies for place improvement (they extended the *product* element):

- Place as character, which implied design and architectural quality of a place.
- Place as fixed environment, including infrastructure and natural environment.
- Place as service provider, which situated the place as a public service provider, involving, for instance, security, garbage collection, or education.
- Place as entertainment and recreation, providing leisure and attractions.

Likewise, there are other models, linked with governance and lacking a direct relationship with marketing. Hubbard and Hall (1998), for example, they proposed the adoption of six policies to re-position, regenerate, and transform the city: advertisement and promotion, large-scale physical redevelopment, public and civic statuary, mega-events, cultural regeneration, and public-private partnerships.

In the tourism context, literature also provided adaptations of the original 4Ps, regarded as the 8Ps, adding to the traditional *product*, *price*, *place*, and *promotion*, the elements of *partnership*, *people*, *programming*, and *packaging* (e.g., Morrison, 1996; Shoemaker & Shaw, 2008). Besides, Pike and Page (2014) proposed a conceptual model that, although far from the original marketing terminology, it is quite similar. They endorsed to: (i) recognize the place resources that could be source of comparative advantage (strategic marketing), and (ii) perform an efficient management of the place, using the cited resources in a way that generate competitive advantage (operative marketing).

### II.3.3. Place Branding

A brand embodies a whole set of physical and socio-psychological attributes and beliefs that are associated with the product (Simões & Dibb, 2001); so, “it is more than the shaping of distinctiveness: it is the forging of associations” (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005, p. 508). Similarly, branding is a deliberate process of selecting and associating these attributes because they are assumed to add value to the basic product or service (Knox & Bickerton, 2003), generating preference and loyalty. Therefore, the brand is a multidimensional construct that can be used by the managers to increase the value of a product and facilitate the consumer’s process of recognizing and acknowledging those values. In place marketing, several authors stressed the benefits of developing a place brand within the marketing strategy (e.g., Anholt, 2004; Ashworth, 2001; Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Dematteis, 1994; Kotler et al., 1999). Anholt (2004) claimed that branding places provides numerous advantages to the place marketing strategy, especially when is about external image directed to tourists. The advantages lie in that a place brand can contribute to generate trust and quality guarantee, giving to the place communication a valuable thrust.

Nonetheless, we have detected a recent trend in the literature towards treating places as images managed through brands. This approach situates place image as the subject of place marketing, not only as a tool of it. Several researchers accepted the notion that places were brands and should accordingly be marketed and sold as such (e.g., Henderson, 2000; Kavaratzis, 2004; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2000). The shift from place marketing to place branding derived, in part, from the criticisms against the marketing mix, arguing that the new economy and society run through its utility, asking for new approaches (e.g., Brownlie, Saren, Wensley, & Whittington, 1999; O’Malley & Patterson, 1998). According to Kavaratzis (2004, p. 62),

[Place branding] stems from the realization that encounters with the [place]<sup>4</sup> take place through perceptions and images, thus the object of [place] marketing is not the [place] “itself”, but its image. An image is the result of various, different and often conflicting messages sent by the [place] and is formed in the mind of each individual receiver of these messages separately.

In general, people make sense of places or construct places in their minds through three processes (Holloway & Hubbard, 2000). These are first, planned interventions such as planning, urban design and so on; second, the way in which they or others use specific places; and third, various forms of place representations such as films, novels, paintings, news reports and so on. This information is processed, and mental maps created, allowing individuals to navigate through complex reality, finally creating the place image (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). Multiple place image measuring scales have been developed (e.g., Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). Others discussed how to position country brands using perceptual maps, after identifying the determinant of perceptions (Manrai & Manrai, 1993).

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<sup>4</sup> originally *city*.

At this point, we should consider the difference between *brand identity* and *brand image*. The first refers to the image of the place that managers want to project, while the second is the one that place customers actually have. Place branding just allows urban managers to bring closer both ideas. To do so, product branding processes include identity, differentiation, personality and positioning. Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005) assumed that, in competitive arenas, are all transferable concepts (to places), as long as the implications of this transfer are fully understood:

(...) spatial scale, spatial hierarchies, resulting scale shadowing, the inherent multiplicity and vagueness of goals, product-user combinations and consumer utilities; all these and more make places distinctive from products and thus place branding a distinctive form of product branding. If these distinctions can be recognized and incorporated into the process then it becomes a valid and effective form of management; if not, it is an irrelevant distraction (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005, p. 513).

The multiple stakeholders gathered in places are one of the characteristics that may arise as peculiar in contrast to commercial goods/services. The concept of *corporate brand* was acknowledged to solve partially this dichotomy. The idea of overlapping and equating place branding with corporate brands derived from the need detected in the literature of providing a robust analysis of the place brand that would consider all the stakeholders (e.g., Rainisto, 2003a; Trueman, Klemm, & Giroud, 2004). Balmer and Gray (2003) were among the first authors that contemplated that corporate level brand could also be applied to countries, regions, and cities. The common features of corporate branding and place branding were described by Kavaratzis (2004, p. 66): “both corporate brands and place brands have multidisciplinary roots, both address multiple groups of stakeholders, both have a high level of intangibility and complexity, both need to take into account social responsibility, both deal with multiple identities.”

In summary, the transition from place marketing to place branding is facilitated not only by the extensive use and success of product branding, but also by the recently but rapidly developed concept of corporate branding, which, attached to more universal values such as social responsibility, environmental care, sustainability, progressiveness, innovation, trust, and quality, allows reaching more consistent place brand.

#### **II.3.4. The New Era**

Other approaches include, for instance, Kavaratzis (2004)’s theoretical framework, where he joined place marketing mix, place image management, and corporate brand through what he called ‘primary’, ‘secondary’ and ‘tertiary communication’. We found more relational approaches in recent years: models that took into account local people to build ‘geo-brands’ (Freire, 2009); the need for a collective understanding and appreciation of place marketing; the achievement of wide cooperation and clear role allocation (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008b); or the importance of local communities as contributors to create the environment and act as believable ambassadors.

More recently, the tendency towards place branding has predominated against marketing (e.g., Dinnie, 2008; Hankinson, 2015; Swanson, 2015), in the same terms and research lines as before: brand identity, brand love, positioning, etc. As previously noted, place branding would still consist on focusing on a specific part of marketing, probably one of the most usable tools due to the complex nature of places. Warnaby and Medway (2013) considered the concept of 'place' in place marketing/branding, evaluating the 'place-product' with specific reference to the construction of place narratives. Using a case study of place marketing initiative in Manchester, they analyzed the object marketed, the implementers of place marketing activities, and place representation, concluding that the place product should be regarded as a dynamic concept, composed as much from changing and competing narratives in and over time, as it is from its tangible and material elements. Besides, Niedomysl and Jonasson (2012) claimed that there is a risk that place marketing may become stalled if it does not swiftly reach a more mature understanding. Therefore, they presented a framework, based on the intersection of (i) hierarchy of power (capital), (ii) distance between places, and (iii) place marketing involvement, that can be used to generate empirically testable hypotheses and thereby provide a structure for research. It is interesting to note that they defined place marketing as "the measures taken, by actors appointed to govern a place, to improve the competitive image of that place with the explicit aim of attracting capital from elsewhere" (Niedomysl & Jonasson, 2012, p. 225). We finally found some challenging traits to change the traditional view of place marketing following new marketing trends as the SDL (Warnaby, 2009).

To end up, we have made an effort to condense concepts around place marketing in terms of 'target audience'. Historically, residents and, in a greater degree tourists, have been the most widely tackled stakeholders in place marketing. We provide a summary (Table II.4), where predominant approaches are presented depending on (a) the target audience (residents or tourists) and (b) the nature given to the place (holistic vs. goods and services within a place). Therefore, we first found that when place marketing was oriented mainly to residents, governance, urban regeneration and public services improvement was behind place marketing implementation. The most regarded topics were (i) the differences between and the efforts to bring together place identity and place image (place branding view), and (ii) public services. Secondly, when place marketing was oriented mainly to visitors and tourists, place competitiveness, destination promotion and tourist experiences were emphasized, from (i) a destination angle, where specific nations, cities, or regions were globally ranked as tourist preferable destinations, or (ii) tourism industry perspective, where the target was placed on the facilities within a place, for instance, on accommodation services.

#### **II.4. Research Agenda for Place Marketing**

The aim of this section is twofold: first, we will expose the gaps detected in place marketing literature, and second, we will provide some possible solutions to those gaps. The final goal is to open new research lines that will hopefully address contemporary perspectives and approaches to be developed in the discipline. Thus, we pretend to contribute in both,

theoretical and practical studies related to place marketing. Specifically, we found three research lines.

Table II.4 Most Regarded Approaches and Goals in Place Marketing Depending on Target Audience and Place Character

		Target audience	
		Residents/Citizens	Visitors/Tourists
Place character	Holistic place	Place image-identity	Destination
	Place goods/services	Public services	Tourism industry
Goals		Governance Urban regeneration Services improvement	Place competitiveness Destination promotion Tourism experience

Source: Own elaboration.

(1) Theoretical background is lacking in the studies dealing with place marketing. Likewise, there is a need to evolve from descriptive to normative exercises and to use other empirical methods apart from qualitative technics, in search of more robust theories (e.g., Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). According to Gertner (2011a, p. 125):

Several articles are merely factual and descriptive. A large number of articles are based on specific experiences or case studies. Hardly ever does primary data support the discussion. Often, the articles leave out discussion of and reasoning for the methodology adopted and seldom refer to a theoretical background. Almost never do the articles propose testable models or hypotheses, present conclusions, advance recommendations, or discuss opportunities for future research.

Besides, we detected that there is not a unified conceptual background to deal with place marketing, and that efforts are diffuse. As has been suggested by Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2008b), the most important thing is to develop a common understanding, which would, first, contribute, to generate more support in favor of place marketing focused on a collective appreciation, and second, generate a common perception and a common language of communication, avoiding individual interpretations.

Additionally, we generally found an implicit agreement on accepting classical approaches (e.g., Ashworth & Voogd, 1990).

Therefore, evidences show that place marketing needs more actual approaches and contrasted conceptual models, based on a complete state of the art (Gertner, 2011a). We believe that these will (i) contribute to understand the urban actors' processes and their behavior towards a place, and (ii) facilitate the measurement of place marketing success, and (iii) provide evidenced-based guidelines.

(2) There is not a consensus concerning the instruments and tools gained from marketing available for places. Even though most authors agree on the applicability of strategic marketing in the urban context, they focus on developing an appropriate marketing

mix for places, where there is no accordance. In fact, most studies stress the inadequacy of some marketing mix elements, or the difficulty to delimit others.

Therefore, we consider important, first, to study if all the marketing stages (i.e., segmentation, target audience, positioning, and marketing mix development) are relevant for place marketing, and second, to delve into an appropriate marketing mix for places. For the latter, *place-product* is a very delicate and widely discussed factor (holistic place vs. place goods/services), while *price* and distribution (*place*) elements are also unclearly translated to this context.

(3) There is a need to provide more democratic approaches and practices that include stakeholder participation and collaboration (e.g., Kearns & Philo, 1993). Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2008b) acknowledged this necessity to achieve effective place marketing implementation, in order to ensure the feeling of fairness in decision-making and to avoid duplication of actions regarding role allocation. At this point, it can also be discussed the participation level: must place marketing involve stakeholder participation from political and administrative managers, or stakeholder participation is inherent due to their contribution in the final experience? Actually, authors in place marketing address value in terms of something chosen (through segmentation, target audience selection and positioning), created (through the marketing mix), and communicated (through the promotion element of the marketing mix) by local managers. But the question is: is value only created by the ‘provider’? Is there no ‘customer’ contribution? Distinctiveness expressed between place image and identity reveals that place marketing does not end in the providers’ side. Furthermore, the experience in the same place will be different for each customer depending on his/her own resources. All that leads to suggest that probably other variables concerning residents, tourists and investors should be included more evidently.

In conclusion, although place marketing literature is certainly vast, including multiple perspectives, techniques, and tools, most studies consider places as marketable packages, offered to different target groups after segmenting the market. However, answering the academic calls to provide more actual, relational and interactive models in the area, we will in the next chapter supply new paradigms for general marketing, that could hopefully contribute to understand place marketing from a co-creative mindset, where all the actors in a place participate in the value creating processes.

# Chapter III Service-Dominant Logic: Towards a Consolidation of a New Marketing View from Value Co-creation

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## III.1. Introduction

The global aim of the Thesis is to move forward in place marketing and to study value co-creation in the urban context. In line with this aim, we need to detect new visions that defend and propose co-creation in the marketing field. One of the most complete (theoretically, at least) and holistic views is the SDL, which is settled on value co-creation, focus of the present work. So, the research questions that we try to answer in this chapter are: (1) Is traditional marketing view outdated? (2) Would SDL respond to the current marketing needs? (3) What is value co-creation according to SDL and which are the main premises of the new logic? (4) How is this new logic built up? To answer those research questions, we have developed a theoretical framework about SDL and value co-creation, based on the pioneering authors, Vargo and Lusch.

Particularly, the aim of this Chapter is to analyze SDL and its FPs to theoretically ground our posterior investigation about co-creation in place marketing. The relevance of this SDL framework is twofold: first, to set up a general conceptual background of SDL and value co-creation to see if it would be applicable in place marketing; and second, to extract some keywords to (i) perform the searching process in the literature review, and (ii) obtain deductive categories for the thematic analysis (see Chapter IV).

The chapter is organized as follows: Section III.2 and Section III.3 suggest the need of a new marketing view and present the origins and evolution of the SDL, in contrast with the traditional GDL view (Section III.4). Section III.5 explains the foundational and consolidated (most recent) narrative of the SDL through its premises. Finally, each of the elements of the SDL, key to understand and support value co-creation, are pinpointed in Section III.6.

## III.2. Marketing: Origins, Mainstream Views and New Approaches

Value is a core concept in SDL. For that reason, we need first to situate research about value in economy. This coincides in time with the Industrial Revolution boost, when Adam Smith, unable of measuring what he thought was the real nature of value –*value in use*, extracted from the use of goods and services, and highly dependent on the context of each ‘consumer’-, changed the focus to the *value in exchange*, paid by the ‘customers’ and fixed by the ‘producers’ (along the supply chain) of the goods. He, thus, situated value in exchange as the source of wealth (Smith, 1793). The easiness to measure the latter was the reason for

its success. As the goods generated in private firms were the center of wealth, several technics and strategies were developed to managerially help improving those goods and getting them closer to the customers' wants and needs. It was when the first traits of marketing arouse. Marketing is a discipline defined nowadays as "the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large" (American Marketing Association, 2013). However, at the beginning, and due to the relevance of tangible goods, those *offerings* were acknowledged as such, giving rise, for example, to the well known and long-applied marketing mix (Four Ps of marketing), composed of the elements of product, price, place and promotion (McCarthy, 1960).

As the times and the market changed, the service industry rose and the marketing idea, linked to physical goods, was translated to cover the services requirements. Additionally, the benefits of marketing were also recognized not only for private entities, but also for public organisms and projects. That way, the discipline of marketing was segmented in different research lines; for example, social marketing (e.g., Kotler & Zaltman, 1971), green marketing and environmentally concerned marketing (e.g., D'Souza et al., 2018; D'Souza, Taghian, & Lamb, 2006), city marketing (e.g., Paddison, 1993), or political marketing (e.g., Lock & Harris, 1996). At the same time, the original strategy and tools (Four Ps) were discussed at length (Grönroos, 1994) and partially evolved, both generally (Goi, 2009) and specifically, when adapting the original marketing mix for the developed sub-marketing areas. Examples include, Menegaki (2012) for social marketing, Kavaratzis (2004) for city marketing, or Wring (1997) for political marketing.

Therefore, as Grönroos (1994, p. 4) claimed:

The marketing mix management paradigm has dominated marketing thought, research and practice since it was introduced almost 40 years ago. Today, this paradigm is beginning to lose its position. New approaches have been emerging in marketing research. The globalization of business and the evolving recognition of the importance of customer retention and market economies and of customer relationship economics, among other trends, reinforce the change in mainstream marketing.

Regarding this change, last decade has been a tumultuous period in marketing research, particularly since Vargo and Lusch (2004) proposed a shift of view in the field, due to the sense and origin of value. They tried to recover value-in-use or contextual value, emphasizing the role of the customer in the value creation in every service delivery. They proposed the well-known SDL. Numerous experts have since then deepen on the subject.

### **III.3. Outlining Service-Dominant Logic: Supporting Theories and Evolution**

In words of Vargo and Lusch (2009, p. 221):

SDL represents the convergence of the general calls for a new paradigm, as well as more specific calls for reformulating thought in specific areas of academic interest in business and marketing, such as services and relationship marketing,



resource-advantage theory, core competency theory, network theory, consumer culture theory, and others (e.g., theory of the firm and experience marketing), which collectively point toward an alternative logic of the market.

Therefore, SDL does not have the status of a theory, and is neither a paradigm, but it provides a thought at a paradigmatic level of abstraction and is pre-theoretical; it is a lens, a mindset, through which phenomena can be viewed. Thus, following its *logic* condition, SDL refers to a mindset for a unified understanding of the purpose and nature of organizations, markets, and society (Vargo & Lusch, 2008).

Generally, SDL might serve as a somewhat *limited general theory of marketing* (Lusch & Vargo, 2006b); although a broader view has also been proposed: SDL as a foundation for a *theory of the market* (Vargo, 2007), even as a more encompassing *theory of economics and society* (Vargo & Lusch, 2008).

According to the evolution, three main landmarks might be emphasized in the academic conceptual contributions of SDL. More than a decade ago, (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) offered a perspective on how marketing thought and practice was evolving to a new dominant logic. Afterwards, SDL was further documented with the evolution of the core framework (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). Finally, the most recent article (Vargo & Lusch, 2016) details what SDL has been and continues being, consolidating, correcting and extending the logic. In their seminal work, Vargo and Lusch (2004) proposed eight FPs, that were later extended to ten (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). In the latest assignment (Vargo & Lusch, 2016), the authors expand the foundations by providing an additional FP (FP11), and at the same time reducing these to five axioms, from which the remaining six FPs could be derived.

Regardless of the developments in SDL, the objective of the three papers from their origin is to (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 6):

(1) identify an apparent trend in mainstream marketing thought, away from a principal focus on outputs (e.g., products) to processes; (2) identify commensurate commonalities in a number of diverse research streams and sub-disciplines (e.g., relationship marketing, service marketing, business-to-business marketing); and (3) identify and advance a convergence of these events on a shift from emphasizing production to emphasizing value (co)creation.

Besides the theoretical implications, SDL has been applied in different industries and areas: urban public transport (Nunes, Galvão, & Cunha, 2014), industrial design firms (Eneberg & Holm, 2015), tourism management (Li & Petrick, 2008), health care (McColl-Kennedy, Vargo, Dagger, Sweeney, & van Kasteren, 2012), or service innovations (Ordanini & Parasuraman, 2010).

#### **III.4. Goods-Dominant Logic vs. Service-Dominant Logic**

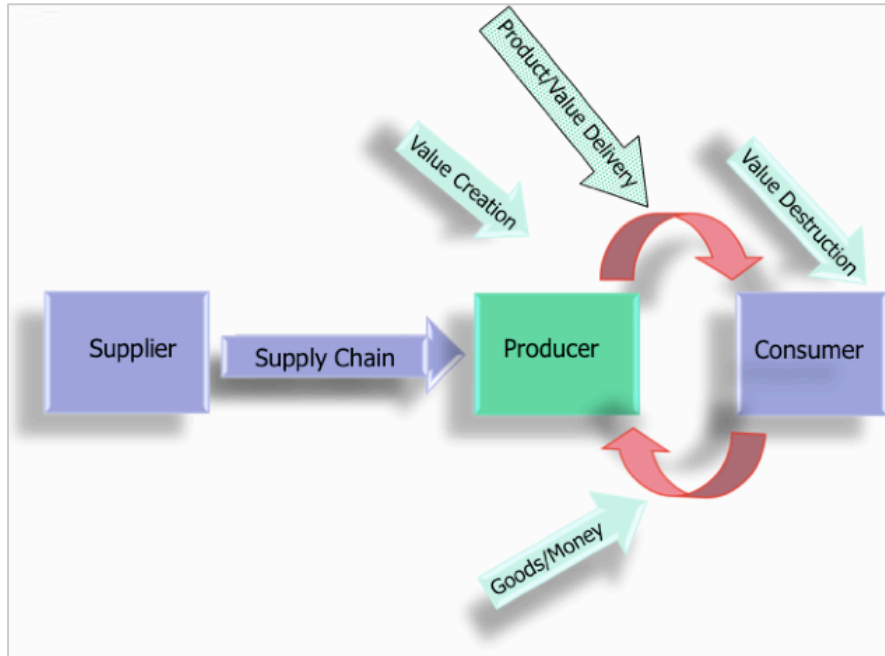
Vargo and Lusch (2004, p. 2) suggested that: “Briefly, marketing has moved from a goods-dominant view (GDL), in which tangible output and discrete transactions were central, to a service-dominant view, in which intangibility, exchange processes, and relationships are

central”. The GDL denomination, although endlessly applied and studied, appeared in contraposition to SDL. The name of the *good*-dominant logic in marketing comes from the central role that goods (in form of manufactured products) played from the beginning of the discipline, and the importance of selling them in the market.

#### III.4.1. Goods-Dominant Logic: Marketing *For*

In the traditional GDL, the research perspective is restricted to a dyadic view, where a customer and a producer exchange products in the market (people exchange for goods). The producer is the actor who creates the product, generally assisted by the supply chain (providers). The products, which can be goods or services (services understood as a special type of goods, characterized by: intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability, and perishability), are, therefore, operand resources (that can be acted on) and end products, embedded with value, generated along the supply chain and determined by the producer. So, goods are defined in terms of exchange-value. Consequently, marketers take matter and change their form, place, time, and possession, while the customer is the recipient of goods, as marketers do things to them: they segment them, penetrate them, distribute to them, and promote to them (marketing ‘for’). The producer is seen as the value creator in the exchange process, and the customer as the value destructor, a secondary and exogenous actor. Overall, wealth is obtained from surplus tangible resources and goods, and consists of owning, controlling, and producing operand resources (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) (Figure III.1).

Figure III.1 Good-Dominant Logic Model: Value Production and Consumption



Source: Vargo (2015b).

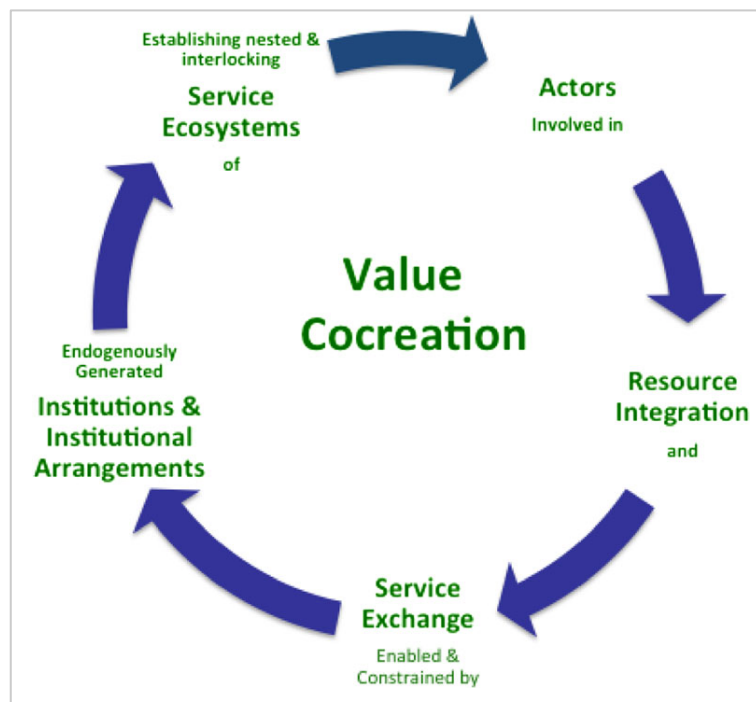
#### III.4.2. Service-Dominant Logic: Marketing *With*

SDL allows and encourages broadening the angle, from a dyadic perspective toward a network orientation. Much of this zooming-out movement, as well as the refinement of the

lexicon has been progressive, but the basis of SDL remains unchanged. Contrary to GDL, SDL advocates that generic actors (actors in the same level and without a pre-determined role) exchange service (not services) in a service ecosystem to benefit their and others existence. So, people interact to acquire the benefits of operand resources (knowledge and skills) or service. Therefore, the concept of service, understood as the application of resources, implies a direct interaction or an indirect exchange through goods and money (operand resources that must be acted on) -intermediate products that can be used to create value by resource integration. Thus, value creation process is not defined by the producer; instead, every actor co-creates value, which is finally determined by the final beneficiary. Value has, then, the nature of contextual value. Hence, marketing with a service-centered view is inherently beneficiary oriented and relational, and producers can only offer value propositions. Overall, regarding SDL, wealth is obtained through the exchange of service and resource integration.

In line with the approach above, Vargo and Lusch (2016, p. 7) summarize the ideas of SDL, refined and become clearer over the last years, defending that “the narrative of value cocreation is developing into one of resource-integrating, reciprocal-service-providing actors cocreating value through holistic, meaning-laden experiences in nested and overlapping service ecosystems, governed and evaluated through their institutional arrangement.” In other words, *value co-creation consists of a process where actors are involved in resource integration and service exchange, enabled and constrained by endogenously generated institutions and institutional arrangements, establishing nested and interlocking service ecosystems of actors* (Figure III.2).

Figure III.2 The Narrative and Process of Service-Dominant Logic



Source: Vargo and Lusch (2016, p. 7).

### III.5. Service-Dominant Logic Foundations: From Premises to Axioms

SDL is defined through the denominated Foundational Premises, which, although not having the level and character of a theory, explain the logic quite synthetically. The evolution of SDL throughout the last decade has altered, corrected and extended the FPs (Table III.1). The 8 FPs originally proposed (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) were broadened and redefined into 10 FPs (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). The last contribution in this respect (Vargo & Lusch, 2016) not only reviews the previous FPs according to terminology, but adds one more (FP11), while reorganizing all the premises into 5 axioms, from which the remainder 6 premises are derived.

Table III.1 Foundational Premise Development

Foundational Premise (FP)	2004	2008	2016 (Update)
FP1	The application of specialized skills and knowledge is the fundamental unit of exchange.	Service is the fundamental basis of exchange	No Change AXIOM STATUS (AX1)
FP2	Indirect exchange masks the fundamental unit of exchange.	Indirect exchange masks the fundamental basis of exchange.	No Change
FP3	Goods are distribution mechanisms for service provision.	No Change	No Change
FP4	Knowledge is the fundamental source of competitive advantage.	Operant resources are the fundamental source of competitive advantage.	Operant resources are the fundamental source of strategic benefit.
FP5	All economies are service economies.	No Change	No Change
FP6	The customer is always the co-producer.	The customer is always a co-creator of value.	Value is cocreated by multiple actors, always including the beneficiary. AXIOM STATUS (AX2)
FP7	The enterprise can only make value propositions.	The enterprise cannot deliver value, but only offer value propositions.	Actors cannot deliver value but can participate in the creation and offering of value propositions.
FP8	Service-centered view is customer oriented and relational.	A service-centered view is inherently customer oriented and relational.	A service-centered view is inherently beneficiary oriented and relational.
FP9		All social and economic actors are resource integrators.	No Change AXIOM STATUS (AX3)
FP10		Value is always uniquely and phenomenologically	No Change

		determined by the beneficiary.	AXIOM STATUS (AX4)
FP11			New Value cocreation is coordinated through actor-generated institutions and institutional arrangements. AXIOM STATUS (AX5)

Source: Vargo and Lusch (2016, p. 8).

Therefore, the narrative, its elements, and the FPs encapsulated now in axioms, are closely interrelated, shaping a coherent updated discourse. The relationship between them are condensed and disclosed next.

Actors involved in the process are generic and co-create value. There are no longer producers creating value, but actors that co-create (FP6) and participate in the creation and offering of value propositions (FP7). There are neither customers that destroy value, but actors that co-create (FP6) and, as final beneficiaries, contextually determine value (FP10), outcome of the co-creation process.

In fact, all the actors are resource integrators (FP9), and when doing it, they are all acting for their own benefit and/or for the benefit of other actors. In this resource integration, undoubtedly, resources are essential. These can be operant or operand, but are the former, as knowledge and skills, the fundamental source of strategic benefit (FP4).

In the acquisition of resources, exchange is fundamental. Actually, actors exchange service (application of operant resources), which is the fundamental basis of interactions (FP1). There is no longer goods and services exchange; alternatively, the concept of service (not services) transcends both. Thus, exchange might be direct or indirect, through the distribution of goods (FP3). The latter masks the fundamental basis of exchange (FP2). Overall, all economies are service economies (FP5).

The actors that exchange service and integrate resources create, in turn, an action framework in which develop such practices: structures consisting of institutions and, more generally, interdependent assemblages of institutions (institutional arrangements), coordinating, from a wider angle, value co-creation (FP11).

With a fifth element, service ecosystems, we come full circle. Service ecosystem concept represents, and is represented by, the rest of elements, highlighting the beneficiary and relational orientation (FP8). The idea of actors determining the value enhances the beneficiary-orientation; and resource integration, service exchange, and institutions, responsible of coordinating actors, are implicitly relational. In conclusion, service ecosystems expose the interactive, dependent and network nature of the value co-creation: actors are and, at the same time, form dynamic and adaptive service ecosystems.

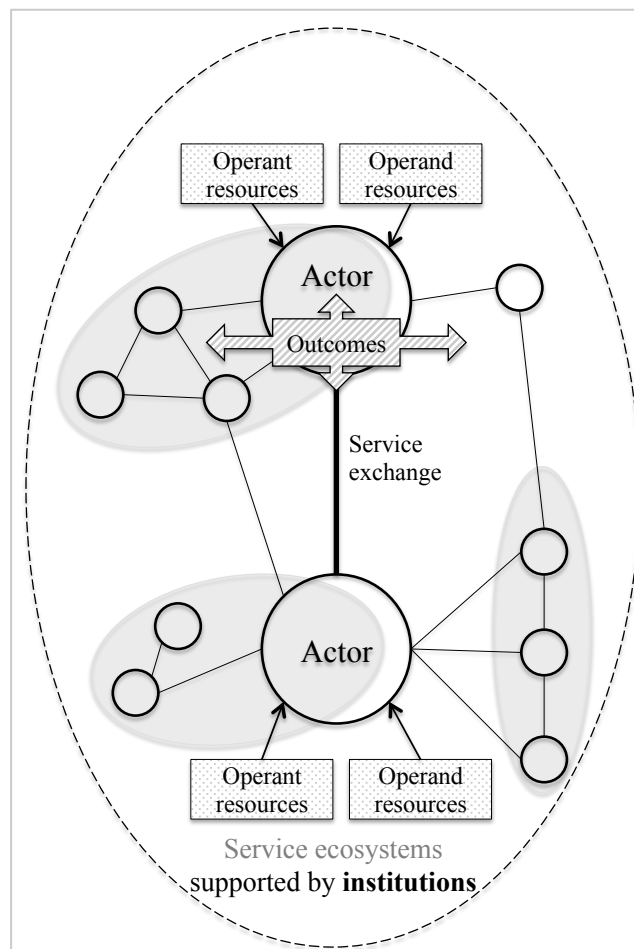
Finally, the last element, implicit in the SDL narrative, is *outcomes*. They can be understood as the value determined by the final beneficiary (FP10), as previously stated, or as innovation. In both cases outcomes affect the whole service ecosystem.

### III.6. Service-Dominant Logic Narrative: Main Elements

SDL narrative describes and explains how value co-creation is constituted by five elements or ideas (actors, resource integration, service exchange, institutions, and service ecosystems) that are circularly interconnected (Figure III.2), forming a coherent discourse:

*Actors* with no predetermined role obtain operant and operand resources from market-facing, private and public sources in *service exchange* and integrate and apply those resources through their knowledge and skills in *resource integration* processes. That way, *value is created and co-created* by multiple actors, including the beneficiary. He/She finally determines value (i.e., value realization or *outcome*), which might have repercussions on other actors and the *service ecosystem* (the dynamic and adaptive network). *Institutions* support these ecosystems and the whole process (Figure III.3).

Figure III.3 Diagram of Value Co-creation with the Elements of the Service-Dominant Logic Narrative



Source: Own elaboration.

With the objective of better understanding the description, we will thoroughly analyze each of the five elements of the SDL narrative (i.e., actors, resource integration, service exchange, institutions, service ecosystems). The section will be preceded by a generic value co-creation clarification and concluded with an 'extra' element: outcomes of value co-creation.

### III.6.1. Value Co-creation and Other Confusing Concepts

Value co-creation is the central idea around which the five elements of SDL narrative (i.e., actors, resource integration, service exchange, institutions, service ecosystems) are situated. In other words, these five elements are the basis of value co-creation; so, we can describe it as a generic concept requiring the interconnectedness of those elements.

Besides, *value co-creation* is often misunderstood in the literature, and blended with other related and, at some extent, similar concepts like *co-production* and *value propositions*. Thus, the aim of the next section is to make clear those mixing ideas.

#### III.6.1.1) *Co-production vs. Co-creation*

From the beginning, the premises of SDL remarked that the service-centered view implied that the consumer is always involved in the production of value, even when exchanging service through tangible goods. This is because production does not end with the production process, but the beneficiary continues the marketing, consumption, value-creation and delivery processes as s/he learns how to use, as well as maintains, repairs, and adapts the appliance to his/her own needs, usage situation, and behaviors (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). So, the customers, whom we can now extend to all actors, are involved in the entire value chain, acting as operant resources.

Originally, the consumer was considered a co-producer, but this denomination was rapidly changed to co-creator (Vargo & Lusch, 2006). The substitution of *co-production* towards *co-creation* is critical to understand SDL and its primary premise, because "S-D logic is primarily about value creation, rather than 'production', i.e., making units of output, [and] (...) the collaborative nature of value creation (...) could easily become lost in the connotation of 'production'" (Vargo & Lusch, 2008, p. 8).

Despite their several attempts to clarify concepts, the authors acknowledge in their last study (Vargo & Lusch, 2016) the difficulty to understand the concept of co-creation in the academic field. According to them, the first misunderstanding is that value co-creation is still being conceptually equated with 'co-production'. In fact, value co-creation is usually visualized through the active participation of the beneficiary or other actors in the firm's offering design, definition, and creation (value proposition). But this is the idea linked with co-production, that is, with the creation of the value proposition -essentially, design, definition, and production-, and not with co-creation -the actions of multiple actors, often unaware of each other, that contribute to each other's wellbeing.

Although different conceptions, co-creation and co-production have some connection: co-production can be set as a component of co-creation of value, especially when service exchange is conducted through goods (Lusch & Vargo, 2006a), but, contrary to co-creation,

co-production is relatively optional. Actually, it would be interesting for firms to involve customers and other actors in the design, definition, creation, and completion of the output (i.e., co-production), but this depends on the knowledge and desire of the beneficiary, among many others. Co-creation, however, is strictly necessary for value creation (Vargo & Lusch, 2016).

Finally, we will highlight that “value is cocreated by multiple actors, always including the beneficiary” (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 9).

### ***III.6.1.2) Value Propositions***

The idea of value proposition is a way to remark the difference between the value creation process, which finishes with an output produced by the producer, and value co-creation process, where both, the offeror and the beneficiary of service, collaboratively create value. If so, and coherent with the actor-to-actor (A2A) orientation, the creation of value propositions should not be constrained to service providers. “Value proposition should be considered value potential that is co-created among multiple actors, including the provider and the beneficiary” (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 10). Thus, once the beneficial actors have accepted the value proposition, both, the beneficiary himself and the service-providing actor, continue performing their roles.

### **III.6.2. Actors**

Why are *actors* the element designating individuals in the SDL narrative? Where is this denomination coming from? To answer these questions, we will disclose A2A orientation, which is the main idea connected to this first SDL narrative element.

In their first work, Vargo and Lusch (2004) referred to the individuals involved in the value creation process as ‘customers’ and ‘providers’. Therefore, expressions as ‘customer orientation’ or ‘the enterprise’ were used to denominate their roles in the new SDL. However, they afterwards recognized that:

For example, the terms ‘producer’ and ‘consumer’ are clearly inconsistent with S-D logic’s co-creation and value premise. Yet, at least since The Otago Forum, we have been asking for suggestions for S-D logic-friendly alternatives. To date, non has emerged, so we find ourselves using some combinations of ‘actor’, ‘firm’, ‘provider’, ‘customer’, ‘beneficiary’, or similarly connotatively imprecise labels (Vargo & Lusch, 2008, p. 2).

Considering the premises of service-for-service exchange and co-creation, they finally opted for contemplating the individuals and organizations as *actors* and their relationship and interactions as A2A (Vargo & Lusch, 2011). They proposed forgetting the outdated GDL model of exchange and its ‘producer’ versus ‘consumer’ division, and considering that all social and economic actors engage in exchange (e.g., firms, customers). Therefore, they equated those service providing, value-creating interactions to business-to-business (B2B), instead of the traditional business-to-consumer (B2C) orientation of mainstream marketing. From that, they derived the idea of generic A2A orientation. It was not until this moment that SDL began refining its lexicon regarding individuals involved in co-creation, and was



formally completed the turn from parties with pre-designated roles to generic actors. The move from single-minded concern with restricted, pre-designated roles of ‘producers’/‘consumers’, ‘firms’/‘customers’, and so on, to more generic actors (i.e., A2A orientation) has been definitely consolidated in their last work (Vargo & Lusch, 2016).

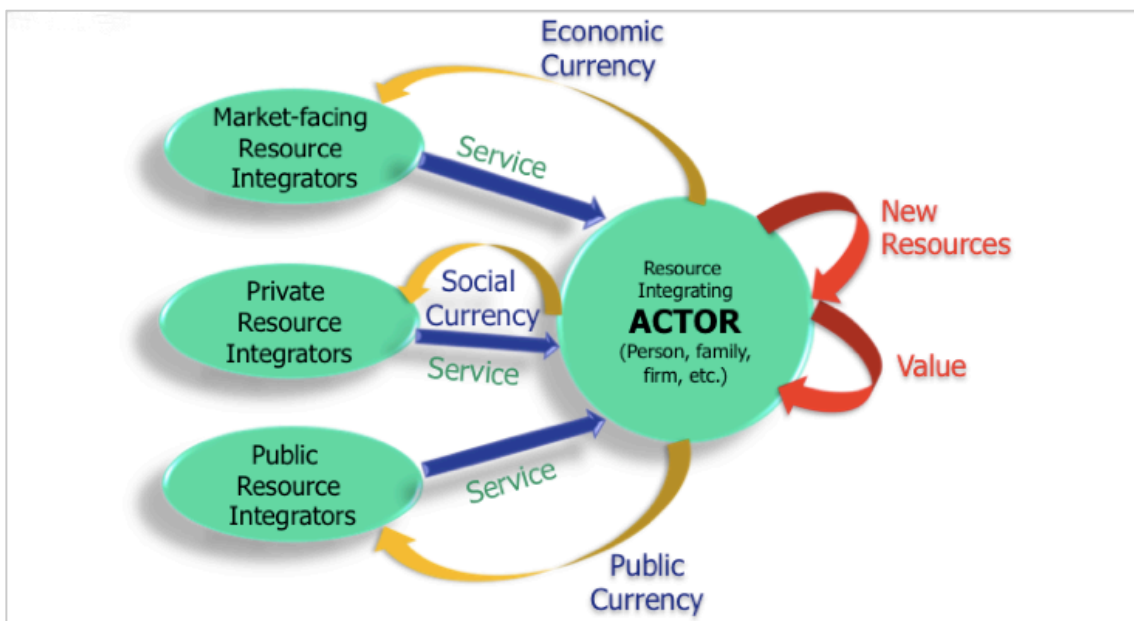
The reason to consider all of them actors is that “they all fundamentally do the same thing: integrate resources and engage in service exchange, all in the process of cocreating value” (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 7). Nevertheless,

this ‘generic actor’ designation should not be confused with a position that all actors are identical. Indeed, the objective of choosing this ‘actor’ designation is to disassociate them from pre-designated roles and set the stage for characterizing them in terms of distinctly constituted identities associated with unique intersections of the institutional arrangements (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 7).

### III.6.3. Resource Integration

Value is not completely individually, or even dyadically, created but, rather it is created through the integration of resources, provided by many sources, including a full range of market-facing, private and public actors (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 9) (Figure III.4).

Figure III.4 Value Co-creation Through Resource Integration and Service Exchange



Source: Vargo (2015b).

Resources are obtained and exchanged (through service exchange), and then integrated to create new resources and value. So, resources, always vital in economy, are likewise essential in SDL perspective.

Resources were formerly understood as essentially static ‘stuff’ to be captured for advantage. Then, much of the political and economic activity involved individual people, organizations, and nations working and fighting to acquire that stuff. Afterwards, the concept

of resources moved from that static vision towards also including intangible and dynamic functions of human ingenuity and appraisal. This way, a wider view is developed, where different kinds of resources are now acknowledged and categorized.

Since the early view of the new logic, operand and operant resources were contrasted. Constantin and Lusch (1994) defined operand resources as those on which an operation or act is performed to produce an effect, comparing with operant resources, which are employed to act on operand resources (and other operand resources). The largely appreciated natural resources (land, animal life, plant life, minerals, etc.) and most of the production factors are operand resources. Initially, the possession of this type of resources was considered the source of wealth. In the late twentieth century, however, emphasis was put on operant resources, which are able to produce effects. SDL consolidates the supremacy of operant resources, due to their capacity to multiply the value of operand resources, as well as to create new operant resources. Dynamic, infinite, and usually invisible and intangible, knowledge and skills are the most recognizable operant resources, sometimes revealed (in firms) as core competences or organizational processes. Therefore, operant resources are the fundamental source of strategic benefit (FP4, in Vargo and Lusch (2016)).

In fact, integration and application of operant resources (i.e., knowledge and skills) are the basis of service and service exchange. This view allows acknowledging the actors (including the beneficiary) as operant resources that integrate resources for their benefit and for other's benefit, instead of operand resources that might be segmented and penetrated following a specific marketing strategy.

#### **III.6.4. Service Exchange**

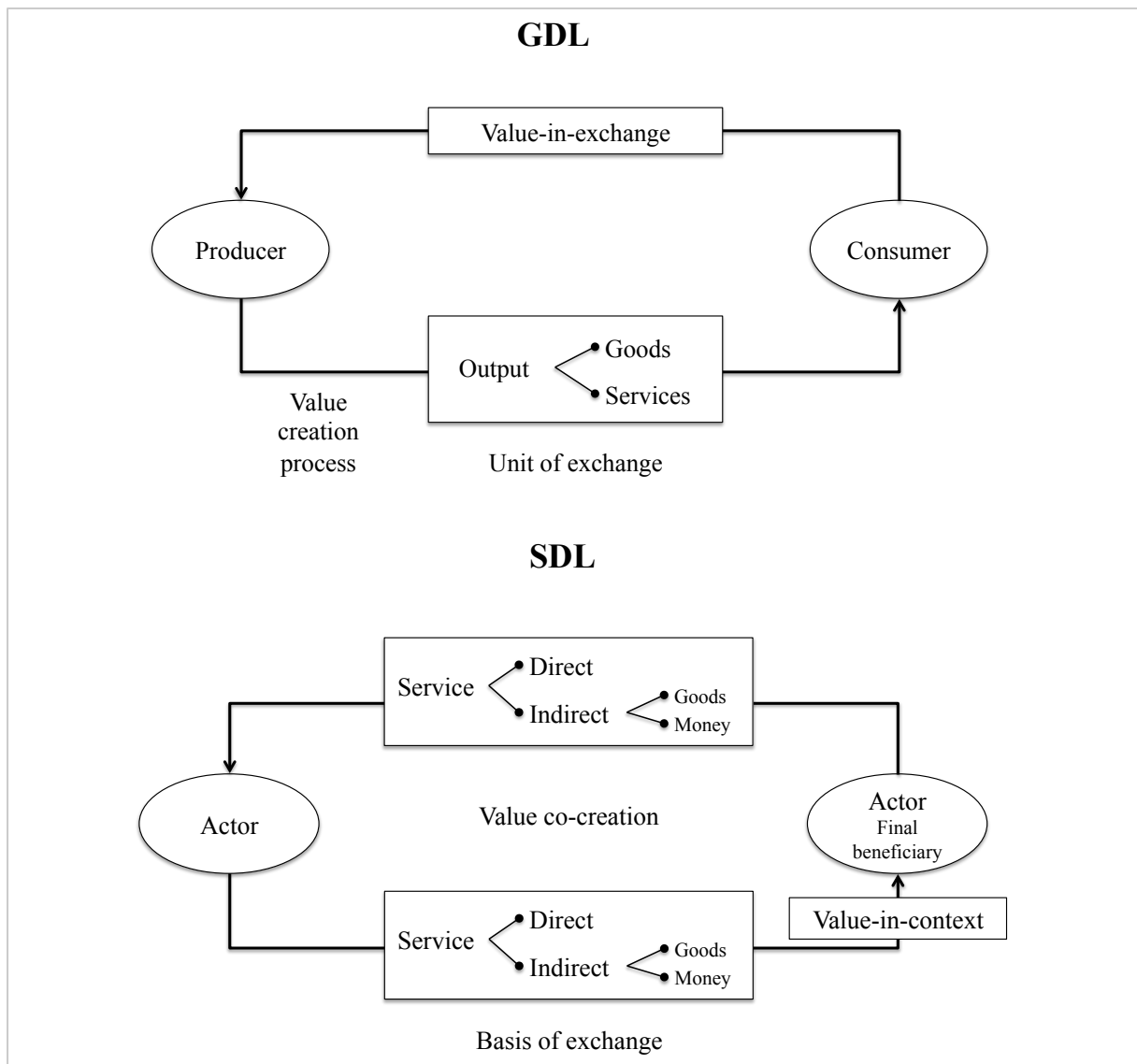
The main idea is the distinction between *service* as a process, and *services* as units of output. Actually, it is *service* the basis (that not the unit) of exchange. In other words, the real exchange between actors is done through service; that is, service-for-service-exchange is what lies under, either, directly or indirectly, through the provision of some output (e.g., a good).

GDL, with its focus on products, distinguished goods and services, and described them as the output of the value creation process and the unit of exchange. That way, the term *services*, in plural, reflected a special type of output: intangible products. One of the most critical shifts proposed by SDL consisted on the move towards *service*, in singular, which referred to the process of using one's resources for the benefit of another entity (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). This means that actors do not interact to obtain goods and services (i.e., products, units of output), but the service they render. So, what happens with the concepts of goods and services as previously understood? SDL gives them a role in the indirect service exchange; that is, goods are a distribution mechanism for service provision (FP3), and both, durable and non-durable goods, derive their value through the service they provide (Figure III.5).

In conclusion, service is exchanged for service. And, what is *service*? "Service is the application of operant resources: knowledge and skills" (Vargo & Lusch, 2008, pp. 6–7). Sometimes service is directly provided, and other times is not apparent because those operant

resources have the form of goods and services (indirect service exchange, usually provided through complex combinations of goods, money, and institutions).

Figure III.5 Service Exchange in Good-Dominant Logic and Service-Dominant Logic



Source: Own elaboration.

### III.6.5. Institutions

In their final work, Vargo and Lusch (2016) developed an additional element that was detected as a limitation of the pre-existing premises: institutions. They were, therefore, included in an eleventh FP (Axiom 5), responding to “the absence of a clearly articulated specification of the mechanisms of (often massive-scale) coordination and cooperation involved in the cocreation of value through markets and, more broadly, in society” (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 5). Due to the increasing importance of cooperation and coordination, in contrast to competitiveness, focusing on the role of institutions and institutional arrangements allows a better understanding of value co-creation in markets and elsewhere. Institutions were not mentioned in the seminal work of Vargo and Lusch (2004), because a dyadic view was

there emphasized, and additional structural details were not apparent from a micro-level perspective. However, as this perspective was amplified, institutions were progressively acknowledged as key elements to understand the structure and functioning of service ecosystems, as well as crucial to make the micro-level phenomena more understandable.

Regarding antecedents, institutions and institutional arrangements, they all have received relatively little attention in the marketing literature, and even less in SDL. We can mention the institutional theory (e.g., Arndt, 1981) and the recursive structuration theory (Giddens, 1984) as the closest precedents of the current SDL structure.

Arguably, the most important feature of this structure consists of institutions and, more generally, institutional arrangements. The former are understood as rules, norms, meanings, symbols, practices, and similar aids to collaboration, while the latter are defined, in a higher-order, as the interdependent assemblages of such institutions (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). Both are considered foundational facilitators of value co-creation, as they are mechanisms to facilitate resource integration and service exchange through the coordination of actors. More specifically, institutions are humanly devised rules, norms, and beliefs that enable and constrain action and make social life predictable and meaningful (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). As was stated by Vargo and Lusch (2016, p. 11),

they can be formal codified laws, informal social norms, conventions, such as conceptual and symbolic meanings, or any other routinized rubric that provides a shortcut to cognition, communication, and judgment. In practice, they typically exist as part of more comprehensive, interrelated institutional arrangement; sometimes referred to as *institutional logics*, that is, sets of interrelated institutions.

Institutions are partially defined in terms of *cognition shortcuts* because the development and use of institutions and institutional arrangements are conditioned to the limited cognitive abilities of humans. Consequently, they represent efficient and effective ways of reducing thinking, enabling actors to accomplish and ever-increasing level of service-exchange and value co-creation under time and cognitive constraints (allow limited-cognition rationality).

It is important in this point to note that *institutions do not mean organizations*. Although functionally aligned, they are conceptually distinct: institutions are the ‘rules of the game’, while organizations are the ‘players or the teams’.

An important but widely discussed concept within institutions is technology (Vargo, Wieland, & Akaka, 2015). Vargo and Lusch (2016) claim that being technology an applied and useful knowledge, and being knowledge part of the institutional structure called society, technology is an institutional phenomenon.

Finally, benefits and drawbacks can be attributed to institutions. On the one hand, it is thought that the potential coordination benefit for all the actors increases as more actors share an institution. On the other hand, Vargo and Lusch (2016) also accept that they can lead to ineffective dogmas, ideologies, and dominant logics.

### III.6.6. Service Ecosystems

Actors engage in value co-creation at various levels of aggregation, labeled by many as ‘micro’, ‘meso’, and ‘macro’ levels (e.g., Lusch & Vargo, 2014). The micro-level, initially known as one-to-one trading, is the most obvious and probably the most studied one, although reality is more complex than that. In fact, “vertical marketing systems and increasingly large bureaucratic hierarchical organizations have been progressively being studied” (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, p. 8). The lens augmentation proposed by the SDL leads us to a meso-, or more broadly, to a macro-level, where concepts like networks, constellations (originally in Normann and Ramírez (1993)), or service systems, that give rise to SS (e.g., Maglio & Spohrer, 2008; Vargo, Maglio, & Akaka, 2008), arise.

According to the different levels of aggregation, Vargo and Lusch (2016, p. 17) explain that:

Very loosely, we tend to place individual and dyadic structures and activities (e.g., what sometimes is considered B2B or B2C) at the micro level, midrange structures and activities (e.g., ‘industry’, brand community) at the meso level, and broader societal structures and activities at the macro level, though we see all levels as social and also as relative, rather than absolute, and thus these assignments are somewhat arbitrary.

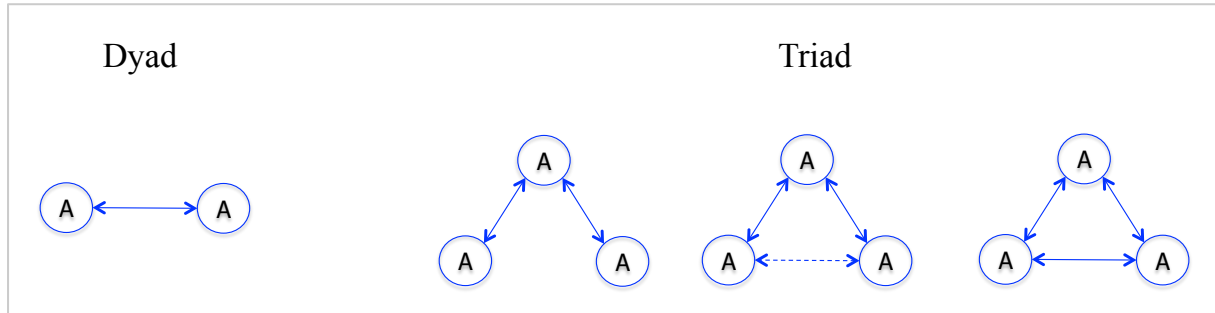
Perhaps because SDL was initially focused on the discussion of value co-creation on ‘firm-customer exchange’, there might be a tendency to think that SDL suggests that it only applies to this dyadic exchange. However, this is incorrect. Successive works in SDL have been directed to making clear that “the venue of value creation are economic and social actors within networks interacting and exchanging across and through networks” (Vargo & Lusch, 2008, p. 5).

Therefore, depending on the author, the focal point can be situated in one level or another. However, the more actors are included in the analysis, the more complex, as well as complete, the examination will be. For that reason, since 2004, the SDL academics have increasingly demanded zooming out to wider the perspective, beyond firm-customer exchange, and towards a more holistic, dynamic, and realistic view of value creation, among more comprehensive configuration of actors (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Specifically, the evolution has consisted on a dyad-to-network-to-systems turn or in a simplified terminology, a dyad-to-triad turn. For clarifying ideas, we consider important to highlight the distinction between a *dyad* (studied in a micro level) from the *network* or *system* (studied in meso and macro levels). The latter implies, at least, a triad as unit of analysis (e.g., Wasserman & Faust, 1994). The triad is a link (dyad) or node influencing another link (dyad) (Choi & Wu, 2009); that is, a system of more than two actors. The advantage of referring to triads is that they reveal (i) indirect interaction, (ii) emergent outcomes, and (iii) endogenous change (e.g., structuration) (Vargo, 2015a) (Figure III.6).

Therefore, a triad can be considered the simplest configuration of a network or system. Regarding last studies in the area, “networks are resource-integrating, service-exchanging actors that constrain and coordinate themselves through institutions and

institutional arrangements. That is, economic (and other social) networks tend to be self-governed, self-adjusting service ecosystems engaged in value cocreation...” (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 6). In this definition, the *network* concept is defined in reference to the *system* idea. The preference towards the conception of *system* is primarily due to their more dynamic and adaptive connotations, in contrast to the fixed and static character attributed to networks. However, both, network and system/service system denominations are used in practice in an interchangeable manner.

Figure III.6 From Dyad to Triad



Source: From Vargo (2015a).

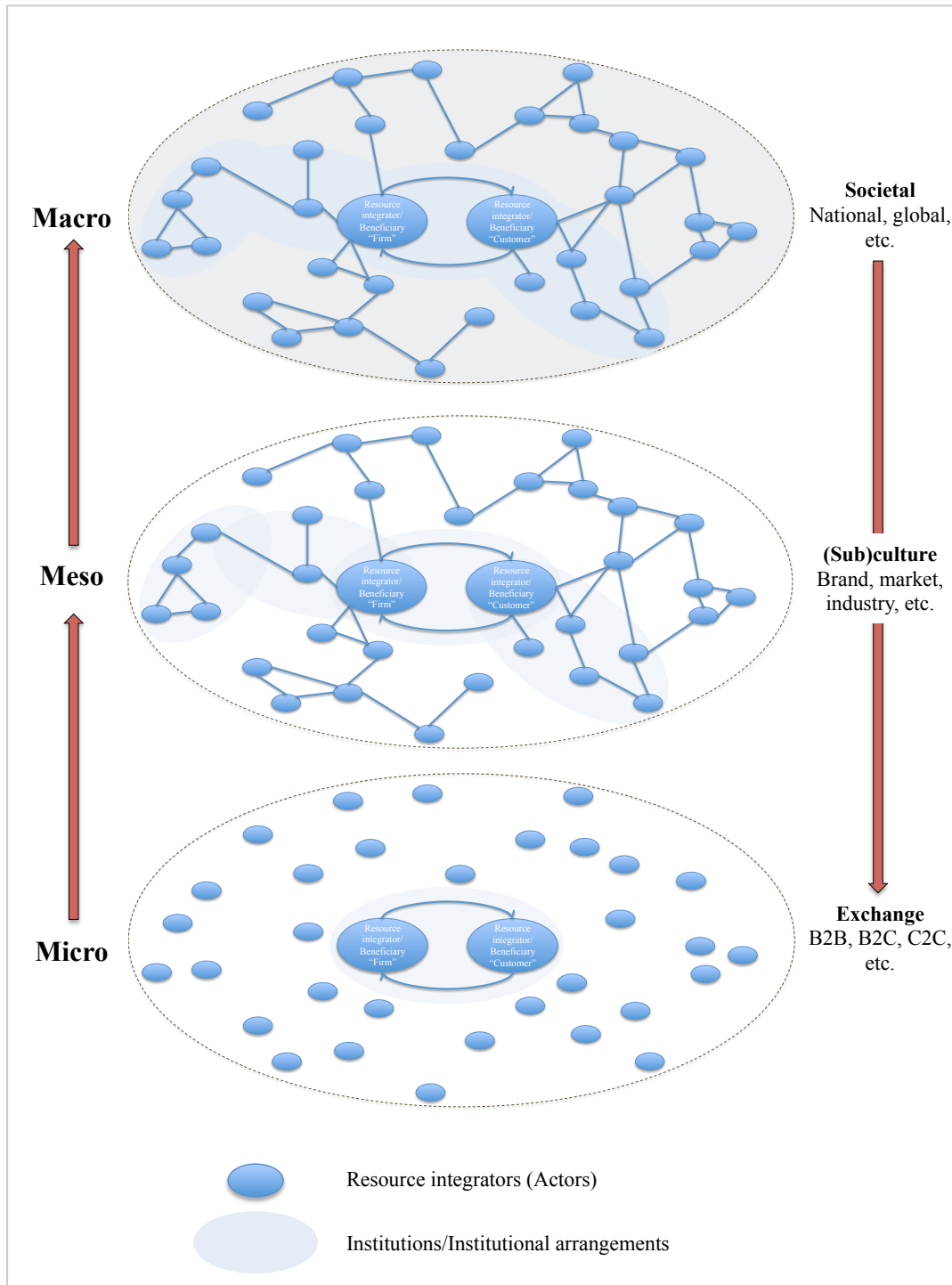
Systems and service systems (in the service exchange context) have been widely described (Holbrook, 2003). Spohrer et al. (2007) defined service system as “a dynamic value-cocreation configuration of resources, including people, organizations, shared information (language, laws, measures, methods), and technology, all connected internally and externally to other service systems by value propositions.” According to Vargo et al. (2008, p. 146),

these systems can be individuals or groups of individuals (e.g., families, firms, nations, etc.) that survive, adapt, and evolve through exchange and application of resources – particularly knowledge and skills – with other systems. Simply put, service systems engage in exchange with other service systems to enhance adaptability and survivability – thus, co-creating value – for themselves and others.

There are two characteristics that appear repeatedly in every interpretation: (1) the constant exchange and interactions between service systems, and (2) their adaptive and dynamic nature. So, A2A orientation implies, first, that value creation takes place in networks, since it implies that the resources used in service provision typically, at least in part, come from other actors. And second, it implies the dynamic component of these networks, since each integration and application of resources (i.e., service) changes the nature of the network in some way (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). This (re)formation of systems (Vargo & Akaka, 2012) have given rise to the term *service ecosystem*, denoting an actor-environmental interaction and energy flow; that is, mutual service provision. Lusch and Vargo (2014, p. 161) defined service ecosystems as “a relatively self-contained, self-adjusting system of resource-integrating actors connected by shared institutional arrangements and mutual value creation through service exchange”, which emphasizes the more general role of institutions, rather than technology.

To conclude, we provide a representative diagram to see the three aggregation levels (micro, meso, and macro), as well as their configuration and relationship (Figure III.7).

Figure III.7 Service Ecosystems in Micro, Meso, and Macro Levels



Source: Adapted from Vargo (2015b).

### III.6.7. Outcomes

As noted in a previous section, FP6 is primarily intended to deal with the multi-actor nature of the process of value creation. Nevertheless, the *actors* element also highlights the

nature of value *realization* (outcomes), particularly in voluntary exchange. Our need to give a special reference to these outcomes has led to an additional paragraph in the SDL narrative.

Already in the first approximations of SDL, where the goods-centered view was contrasted to service-centered view, the authors defended that “SDL implied that value was defined by and co-created with the consumer rather than embedded in output” and that “outcomes (e.g., financial) were not something to be maximized but something to learn from as firms try to serve customers better and improve their performance” (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, p. 6). These statements, although following a GDL language, denote that value is not created by a producer and embedded in goods (through their utility) during the production and distribution processes, but determined in the marketplace, as Levitt (1960) expressed. So, instead of the long applied value-in-exchange, value-in-use was then emphasized, arguing that value was extracted from the use of the goods and services by the customer.

However, following developments (Vargo & Lusch, 2008) refined this idea, substituting the customer-firm language and saying that *value* (i.e., the outcome of the co-creation process) is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary (FP10). There are two interesting concepts regarding this premise: (1) the nature of value, and (2) the specified subject. According to the first, when referring to ‘phenomenological’, the authors expressed the idiosyncratic, experiential, contextual, and meaning laden character of value. Therefore, instead of value-in-use, which might be linked with the usage of goods, the new premise moves us towards value-in-context or experiential value. Second, concerning the subject, the authors preferred to use the term ‘beneficiary’ to talk about the actor who determines the value, instead of referring to a customer or consumer. In fact, as explained later, “‘beneficiary’ centers the discussion on the recipient of service and the referent of value cocreation” (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 10). So, the A2A orientation implies that there are not strictly producers that make value propositions and customers that determine value, but multiple actors, including not only those involved in dyadic exchange, that engage in the process of benefiting their own existence and others. Therefore, value is different for each referent and must be assessed separately, and the service provider also has the role of beneficiary.

Elaborations in value *realization* (outcome) have been extensive and have ranged from the modification of *value-in-use* to *value-in-context* (Chandler & Vargo, 2011), and its amplification to include *value-in-social-context* (Edvardsson, Tronvoll, & Gruber, 2011).

### **III.7. Research Agenda for Service-Dominant Logic and Co-creation**

The following paragraphs are devoted to present the main weaknesses of SDL and value co-creation, which predominantly derive from the excessive theory-oriented perspective of this new paradigm. Based on this big issue, we provide possible steps forward to help this marketing logic take off. These steps consist, successively, on (1) providing a conceptual model for value co-creation based on SDL, (2) applying SDL and co-creation to specific contexts, (3) defining co-creation based on SDL, and (4) developing a measurement model for value co-creation. These four points are discussed below.



The present chapter demonstrates the extensive literature built around SDL and its central concept: value co-creation. We really believe that this literature has been sufficiently argued, reviewed, and discussed (Lusch & Vargo, 2006a; Lusch, Vargo, & O'Brien, 2007; Vargo, 2009; Vargo & Akaka, 2009; Vargo & Lusch, 2008). However, as the own authors of the logic affirm, SDL is still at a 'metatheoretical level' (Vargo & Lusch, 2017).

In scientific discussions background ideas are often termed *metatheoretical* or *metatheories*. They transcend (i.e., "meta") theories, in the sense that they define the context in which theoretical concepts are constructed (...). Further, metatheory functions not only to ground, constrain, and sustain theoretical concepts, but also to do the same thing with respect to methods of investigation [metamethods]. (...)

The primary function of metatheory is to provide a rich source of concepts out of which theories and methods emerge. Metatheory also provides guidelines that help to avoid conceptual confusions and, consequently, help to avoid what may ultimately be unproductive ideas and unproductive methods.

Theories are about the empirical phenomena in a specific subject area, and methods are the procedures used to generate or capture these phenomena; by contrast, metatheories and metamethods are about the theories and methods themselves. More specifically, a *metatheory* is a set of rules, principles, or a story (narrative), that both describes and prescribes what is acceptable and unacceptable as theory. When metatheoretical ideas are tightly interrelated and form a coherent set of concepts, the set is often termed a *model* or *paradigm*. (Overton & Müller, 2012, p. 19).

SDL provides a rich narrative, but **a model is still lacking**. Therefore, we think that the set of concepts and ideas that form the SDL narrative described by Vargo and Lusch (2016) (i.e., actors, service exchange, resource integration, institutions, and service ecosystems) could be arranged in such a way that we were able to develop a conceptual model of value co-creation. This model may include, likewise, **antecedents** and **outcomes** of value co-creation.

Setting a conceptual model based on the SDL narrative around value co-creation, would encourage scientists to **apply** the model **in different service contexts**. This would, in turn, help the service-context discipline to adopt more adapted and actual marketing paradigms, and also the own SDL and value co-creation to advance towards more empirical approaches. In this sense, although co-creation has been predominantly addressed from a conceptual angle (Edvardsson, Tronvoll, et al., 2011; Grönroos, 2011; Grönroos & Voima, 2013; Payne, Storbacka, & Frow, 2008; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a; Vargo et al., 2008), specific efforts have been done to translate co-creation to different service contexts, such as healthcare (Elg, Engström, Witell, & Poksinska, 2012; Hardyman, Daunt, & Kitchener, 2015), education (Díaz-Méndez & Gummesson, 2012; Fagerström & Ghinea, 2013), tourism (Buhalis & Foerste, 2015; Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012), or knowledge extensive business services (Aarikka-Stenroos & Jaakkola, 2012), and for different purposes, such as innovation (Gustafsson, Kristensson, & Witell, 2012; Kristensson, Matthing, & Johansson, 2008), co-design (Sanders & Stappers, 2008), or co-production (Norton, Mochon, & Ariely, 2012). We think, however, that these efforts are still scarce, and therefore we propose future

research to concentrate on applying a value co-creation model based on SDL to specific environments.

We also found that two relevant elements of the SDL narrative are still elusive. Service exchange and resource integration represent the core consumer co-creation processes and in our opinion are not clear yet, that is, we found these terms as a ‘black box’. Therefore, it would be interesting to determine the **exact processes involved in service exchange and resource integration**, answering to: what type of interactions, behaviors, attitudes, etc. can be understood as being part of value co-creation? To do so, it may be of great importance to previously **define value co-creation**, and not only in general terms, but connected with prior ideas, also defining value co-creation in specific research contexts. As it can be appreciated, we are now referring to the concept of value co-creation, and not SDL. In fact, we believe that value co-creation is the element that should be situate in the centre of a model based on the rest of the SDL concepts.

Finally, the last step to achieve a real progress in SDL would consist on developing an appropriate **measurement scale** for value co-creation, based on a provided definition. Despite there have been interesting and useful attempts in this respect (Yi & Gong, 2013), new efforts may be done to include non-behavioral processes that are deduced from the notions of service exchange and resource integration.

# Chapter IV Service-Dominant Logic and Co-creation in Place Marketing: Literature Review and Research Agenda

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## IV.1. Introduction

The objective of the present literature review (Chapter IV) is to bring together the relatively scarce and disperse research efforts that have tried to link the city/place/destination marketing (*place* marketing hereinafter) with a SDL approach. In this context, the literature review is primarily addressed to answer six related research questions: (1) How have previous authors tackled co-creation in place marketing? (2) Have they approached co-creation from a SDL perspective? (3) Did they cover all the SDL elements? (4) What methodological approach are studies using? (5) Is it possible to create a conceptual framework derived from previous works in the field? (6) Is there any research avenue that could still be susceptible of being covered in the future? To solve these issues, we conducted a systematic literature review of 155 key documents (mainly journal articles) in a time frame between 2001 and 2015. This time range was set because the literature review was carried out on January 2016. However, an actualization of references was made afterwards for two papers derived from the conceptual part of this Thesis (Paper 1 and Paper 2). The first paper is already published in a JCR journal (Eletxigerra, Barrutia, & Echebarria, 2018) (see Appendix VIII.1.1), whereas the second is still a work in progress. It should be specified that no prior research has attempted to provide a literature review on place marketing from the SDL approach.

The relevance of our review is twofold. First, given the importance that private and public urban entities and businesses attach to residents' and tourists' engagement in places (cities, countries, territories, destinations), it is needed to provide a more evidence-based overview regarding the conditions under which urban actors co-create their experience under a place marketing framework, and according to the SDL foundations. Second, the choice for a systematic review helps to make the current body of knowledge more transparent in a reproducible way, which contrasts with a more traditional literature review (Voorberg, Bekkers, & Tummers, 2015).

The chapter is organized as follows: Section IV.2 presents the employed methodology; Section IV.3 and Section IV.4 show the results of the systematic review and the discussion (descriptive and thematic analyses). Finally, conclusions drawn are detailed and avenues for further research are suggested in Section IV.5.

## IV.2. Research Method

The methodology used in this chapter is a systematic review of the literature. A systematic literature review is a trustworthy, rigorous and auditable method for evaluating and assessing previous research in a specific field (Fink, 2014; Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003). As the method allows for relatively high procedural and analytical objectivity and replicability, systematic reviews are increasingly being employed in management literature (De Medeiros, Ribeiro, & Cortimiglia, 2014).

The aim of our systematic review is to structure the research field on place marketing under the perspective of SDL, specify emergent themes, point out the most important gaps, and thus contribute to theory development. A systematic review includes both a descriptive (quantitative and bibliographical) analysis and a thematic (more qualitative) analysis (Klewitz & Hansen, 2014; Tranfield et al., 2003). Based on Mayring (2000), and Seuring and Müller (2008), our literature review will consist of five procedural parts, illustrated in Table IV.1: search process, filtering process, table elaboration, descriptive and thematic analyses, and gap detection. These are divided, in turn, in 9 steps. Each step is described in further detail below.

Table IV.1 Methodology of the Literature Review

Overall Process	Individual steps	Criteria	# of documents	Analysis
Search process	Step 1: Introduce the combination of the words 'co-creation' and 'service-dominant logic' with 'city/place/destination marketing/branding' in <i>Google Scholar</i> , <i>WOS</i> , and <i>Scopus</i> .	Include extended terms in the title, keywords, and/or abstract.	137	Complete reading
	Step 2: Screen of all issues of the 48 JCR journals in the category <i>Hospitality, Leisure, Sport, &amp; Tourism</i> from 2001 to 2015.		52	
	Step 3: Screen of all issues of 3 specific JCR journals (most used): <i>Journal of Service Management</i> , <i>Journal of Services Marketing</i> , and <i>Marketing Theory</i> , from 2001 to 2015.		2	
	Step 4: Repeated citations along articles.		3	
Filtering process	Step 5: Reject documents with no direct relationship with the research focus.	- Missing co-creation or SDL perspective. -Missing 'place' or 'destination' context. - Non-relevant co-creation approaches.	39	Removal

		- Reviews, summaries and collections.		
Table elaboration	Step 6: Complete summary of the selected documents in a table.	Author, year, source, scientific approach, method, country, subject, place marketing reference, co-creation/SDL reference, focus, objective, methodology, dimensions, and findings.	155	Information extraction
Descriptive and Thematic analyses	Step 7: Descriptive categories.	Journal/book, countries, scientific approach and method, place context, and historical evolution.	155	Descriptive synthesis
	Step 8: Deductive and inductive categories to identify central themes and interpret results.	Main elements of SDL (deductive) and other place marketing topics (inductive).	155	Thematic synthesis
Gap detection	Step 9: Identification and interpretation of relevant issues and gap detection.	Coding categories, searching in full texts and establishing sufficiency.	39	Gap panel

Source: Own elaboration.

#### IV.2.1. Search Process: Steps 1 to 4

For conducting our review, two main steps (steps 1 and 2) and two extra steps (steps 3 and 4) were carried out, each of them directed to the identification of documents in a different source. These was performed from October 2014 to January 2016.

**Step 1:** The three main scientific databases were screened: *Google Scholar*, *WOS* and *Scopus*. The searching method consisted on introducing the combination of the terms ‘co-creation’ and ‘service-dominant logic’ with the terms ‘city marketing/branding’, ‘place marketing/branding’, ‘destination marketing/branding’, and ‘tourism marketing/branding’ (16 combinations in total). To screen the resulting documents, an inclusion criterion was determined: there were only selected the documents including some extended terms in the title, keywords and/or the abstract of the text. In total there were 12 extended terms: ‘co-creation’, ‘customer-to-customer’, ‘engagement’, ‘experience’, ‘interaction’, ‘knowledge and skills’, ‘participation’, ‘relationship’, ‘service-dominant logic’, ‘service logic’, ‘service systems’, and ‘value-in-use’, only accepted when referring to a city, destination, place, hospitality or travel context. These terms were obtained from the previous analysis on SDL and co-creation and place marketing (see Chapter II and Chapter III). Any discipline (e.g., private and public marketing, public management, governance), objective (e.g., innovation, selling, promoting), and target public (tourists, Destination Marketing Organizations [DMOs], service providers, or any other ‘city-customer’) was valid to include it in the review. After applying the inclusion criteria, the final number of documents to read ascended to 137.

**Step 2:** After step 1, we detected a high relevance of travel papers in the results of the first searching step. Place marketing was predominantly tackled from a touristic perspective, both holistically and from a hospitality angle. For that reason, all the JCR journals in the category of *Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism* were used as a second source of information. To screen the resulting documents, the inclusion criterion previously explained was again applied in all the issues of the 48 journals, from 2001 to 2015. Step 2 gave rise to 52 additional documents.

**Step 3:** Other JCR journals were also screened. Specifically, we reviewed all issues of the most used journals (more than once) in the categories of *Business, Economics and Management* in the last 15 years (2001-2015), including 'latest issues'. Premises include: *Journal of Service Management, Journal of Services Marketing, and Marketing Theory*. There were found 2 extra documents.

**Step 4:** We extracted 3 additional bibliographic references from the already localized documents talking about co-creation in a destination context.

Finally, a complete reading of the 189 documents was carried out. Note that these documents were specifically accessed and searched for the period January 2001-January 2016, including both articles with volume and pagination, and articles in press. The articles in press were selected in their first online publication, and the year of publication was maintained, even though along the present work some of them changed their year as a consequence of definite publication.

#### **IV.2.2. Filtering Process: Step 5**

**Step 5:** Towards the final number of documents, an exclusion criterion was specified, in order to exclude those documents that did not have a direct relationship with our research focus.

They were documents where:

- Co-creation (within SDL) perspective was non-existent or incidental.
- SDL and co-creation were anecdotally mentioned within a broader evolutionary analysis.
- The 'place' or 'destination' context was missing (non-existent), anecdotal, or exemplifier.
- The focus of co-creation was put on B2B competition or cooperation.
- Co-creation was mentioned in relation with consumer-producer interaction (source of co-created value) but not as the core approach.
- The focus of co-creation was put on researcher's knowledge acquisition, knowledge management and/or knowledge sources.
- The document types were reviews, summaries, or other work collections.

After the filtering process, 39 works were rejected. So, the final number of documents susceptible of being descriptively and thematically analyzed ascended to 155.

### **IV.2.3. Table Elaboration: Step 6**

**Step 6:** An operative table was built to resume all the information about the 155 documents, towards an easier analysis (Perkmann et al., 2013). This table included the authors, year of publication, journal or book where the document was written, scientific approach (conceptual or empirical), method (qualitative or quantitative), country, subject(s)/actor(s) analyzed, the reference to co-creation and city marketing, and the specific focus of the document. The objective, methodology, measured dimensions, and key findings of the text were also collected.

### **IV.2.4. Descriptive and Thematic Analyses: Steps 7 and 8**

**Step 7:** For the descriptive analysis we selected categories that describe the papers in terms of (1) journals and books covered, (2) countries of research and countries of study, (3) scientific approaches and methods applied, (4) nature of the place contexts tackled, and (5) historical evolution.

**Step 8:** For the thematic analysis, we used deductive categories gained from the SDL narrative (presented in Chapter III) combined with inductive categories that emerged during the evaluation, following the method of Klewitz and Hansen (2014). The aim is to systematically categorize the content of the documents and identify relationships. Therefore, this synthesis process is inductive and interpretative, derived from the adoption of an explicit and rigorous approach of the review, and allows subsequent analysis; first, to understand how studies were selected, and second, how were the themes built up (Thorpe, Holt, Macpherson, & Pittaway, 2005).

In this regard, we basically present a structured qualitative thematic examination to provide an in-depth analysis of place marketing concerning the topics of SDL, with special attention towards co-creation.

### **IV.2.5. Gap Detection: Step 9**

**Step 9:** The material evaluation is structured in two parts: first, the material is evaluated to carry out the thematic analysis, and second, the documents are again evaluated in a final step (step 9), where the relevant issues are extracted and research gaps are detected. This is critical for subsequent works dealing with value co-creation in place marketing, regarding covering avenues of future research in the discipline.

To do that, codes for each category have been identified and searched in the studies. Sufficiency to consider the field covered or not (i.e., considering a gap) has been established in advance. The resulting gap panel has been finally interpreted.

## **IV.3. Results of the Descriptive Analysis**

After the selection or collection phase, we began the analysis of the 155 documents. A careful and critical examination of the publications was first performed to identify patterns concerning five categories, recurrently considered in systematic literature reviews (e.g.,

Klewitz & Hansen, 2014; Seuring & Müller, 2008): *publication sources* (most important journals and books), *countries focused in studies*, *research methodologies* employed, *publication years*, and an additional category derived from the focal point of the current work (value co-creation in place marketing): *place context*. Therefore, in the following paragraphs we provide a mixed (qualitative and quantitative) descriptive (bibliographical) analysis to get an overview of the research agenda on value co-creation in place marketing.

### IV.3.1. Document Types and Publication Sources

Among the 155 documents collected, we can primarily find articles (122 studies). To a lesser extent, book chapters (13 studies), conferences (13 studies), research notes (3 studies), editorials (2 studies), books (1 study), and a thesis have also been selected.

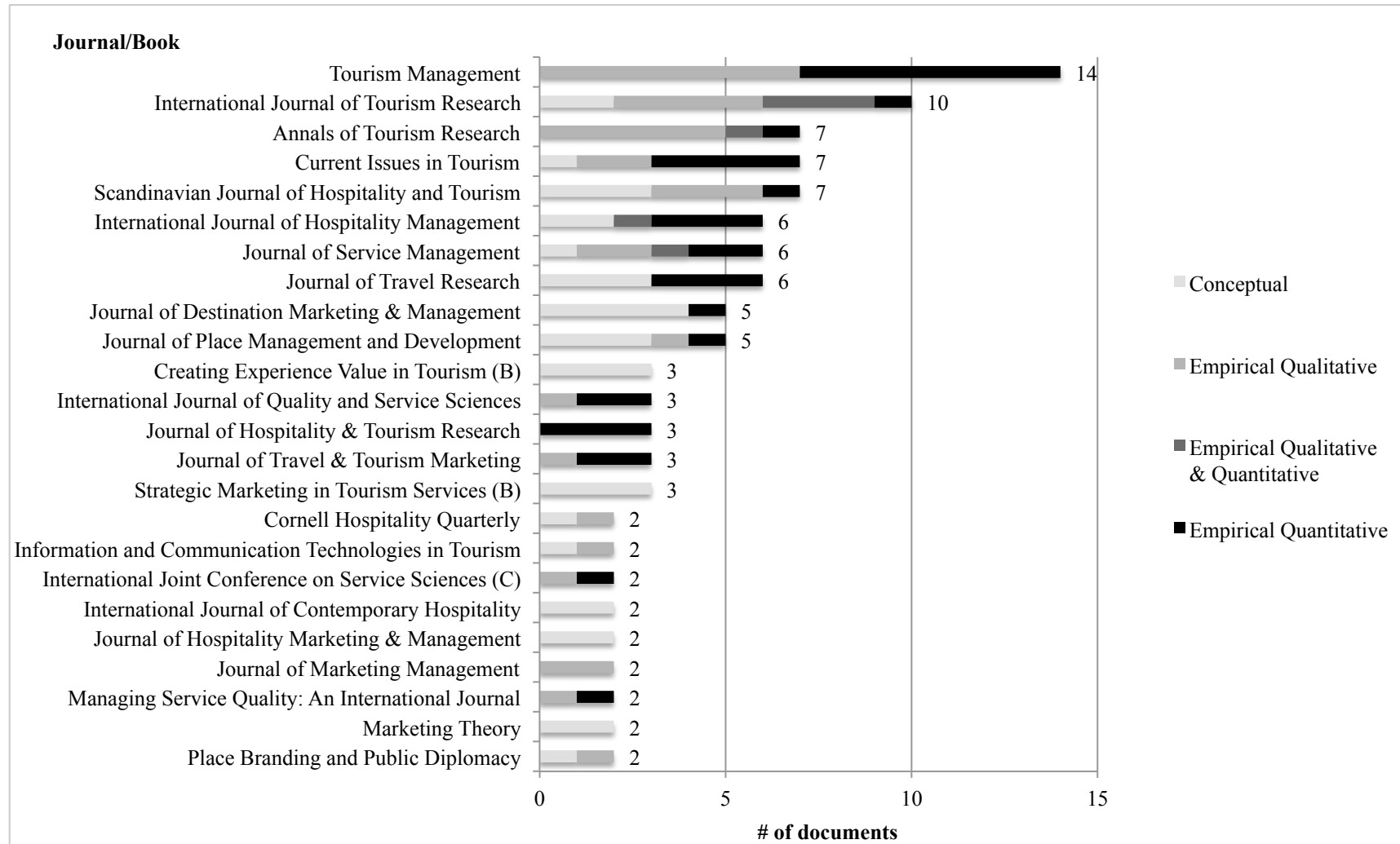
According to their origin, the reviewed studies have been found in several sources. Intuitively, most of the documents facing place marketing from a co-creative perspective are published in journals (79%), although books (9%) and conference publications (8%) are also used. However, we are going to remark sources that include more than one work. The 63% of the studies are published in 25 different sources: 21 journals, 2 books and 2 conference publications (Figure IV.1). The rest are dispersed in other sources.

Journals that are appearing more often are: *Tourism Management*, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *Annals of Tourism Research*, *Current Issues in Tourism*, *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *Journal of Service Management*, *Journal of Travel Research*, *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, and *Journal of Place Management and Development*. Then, there are other noted journals (*International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences*, *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, and *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*) and books (*Creating Experience Value in Tourism* and *Strategic Marketing in Tourism Services*). Most of the journals mentioned (all journals except *International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences*) are included in the JCR, in the categories of *Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism* or *Management*. When looking to the various book publishers, most of the books included were published by well-established publishers such as Emerald Books, Routledge, or Springer (De Vries, Bekkers, & Tummers, 2016).

All the journals with five publications or more contain some empirical study. Journals like *Annals of Tourism Research* or *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, even if they are extremely significant regarding number of documents dealing with co-creation in place marketing, are focused on qualitative methods, predominantly case studies. On the contrary, *Current Issues in Tourism* prefers quantitative papers.



Figure IV.1 Most Important Publication Sources and Scientific Approaches (n = 155, included if ≥ 1 documents)



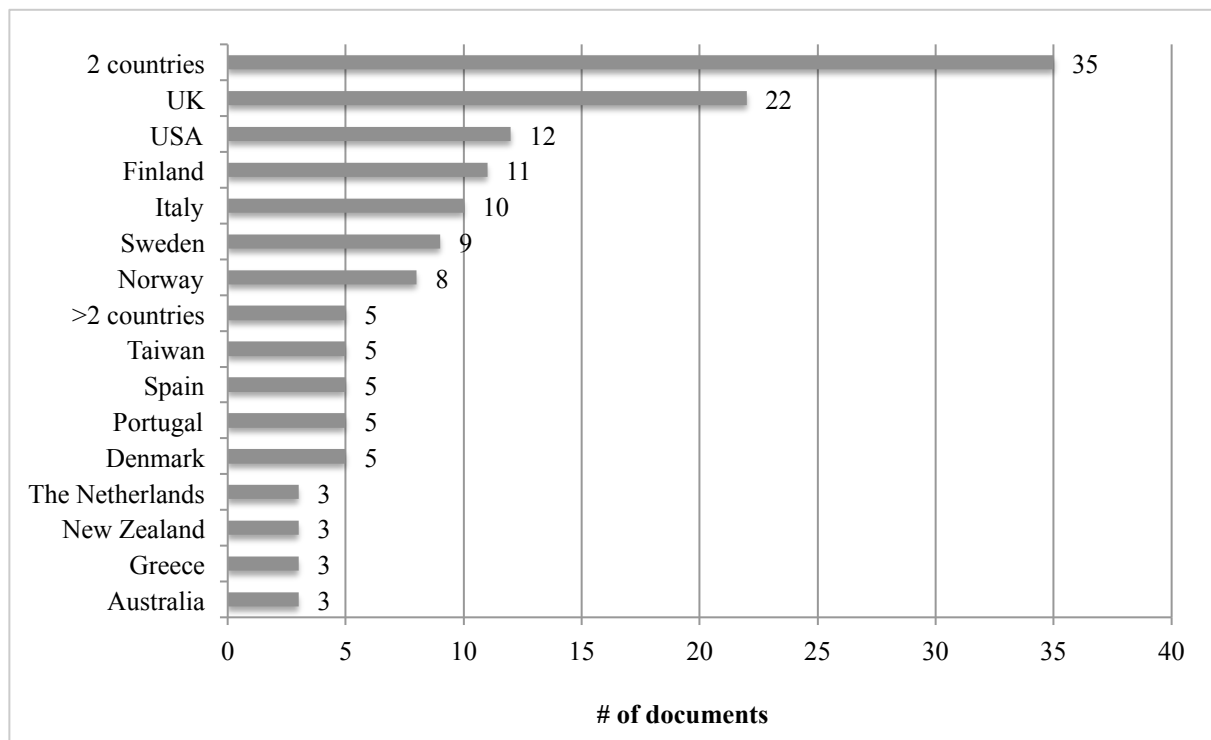
B: Book; C: Conference proceeding.

Source: Own elaboration.

### IV.3.2. Countries of Research and Countries of Study

Concerning the country of research (Figure IV.2), international collaborations between two countries are the most remarkable. Among the associated countries are: The United States (USA) with different European countries like Norway and The United Kingdom (UK), Australia, and China. Leaving collaborations aside, Europe is the continent where place marketing from a SDL approach is more investigated, especially in Northern European States. UK is likewise very prolific; and the USA is in third position, with a great deal of studies reported. In a minor proportion, but with several contributions, Asia is a region that reveals great interest in engaging co-creation within the destination.

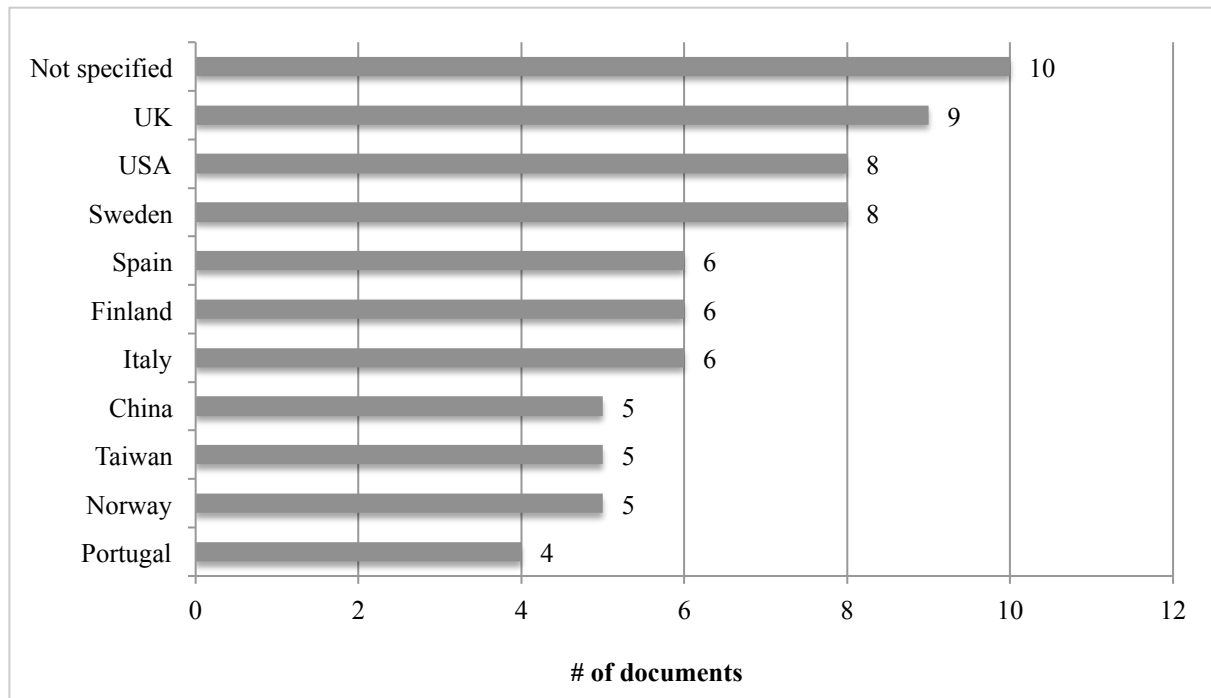
Figure IV.2 Countries of Research (n = 155, included if > 2 documents)



Source: Own elaboration.

Most of the times, the countries of research are at the same time the ones used by the authors to make the empirical evaluation (Figure IV.3). In the literature review accomplished in this Thesis, this fact is actually confirmed. Working with the investigations using an empirical methodology, it has been seen of interest to analyze the countries of study. Some documents (10 studies), most of which were qualitative studies, do not specify the country of study. Among the ones where the region subject of study is mentioned (it was there where the empirical part of the work was developed), again European countries like UK prevail over the rest. Along with the UK, countries in the Northern Europe, including Sweden, Finland and Norway, are also in the lead; and, of course, vast touristic-experienced countries like Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece, or Austria. The USA, with 8 studies, is in third place. Finally, Asian countries including China and Taiwan are also important due to their emergent touristic sector.

Figure IV.3 Countries of Study (n = 155, included if &gt; 2 documents)



Source: Own elaboration.

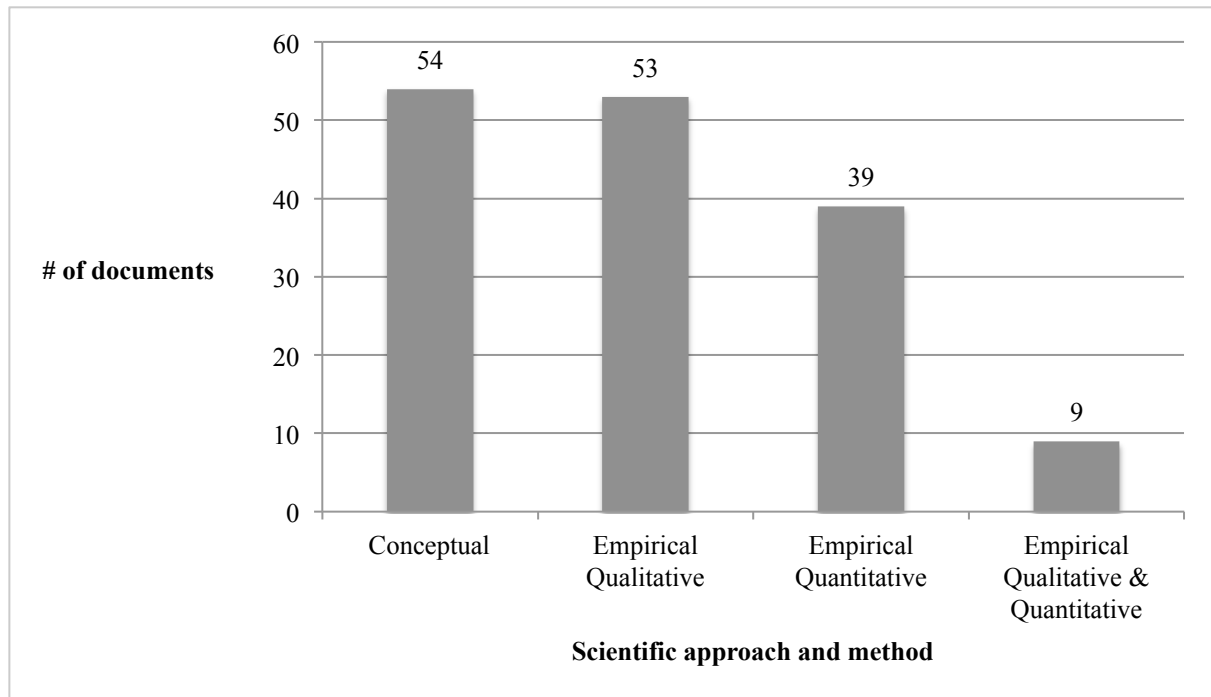
### IV.3.3. Scientific Approaches, Research Methods and Technics

Distribution of the scientific approaches (conceptual vs. empirical) and methods (qualitative and quantitative) along the revised studies is illustrated in Figure IV.4. As might be expected, most studies (54 studies), 35% of the total, are conceptual, closely followed by the empirical works using qualitative methods (53 studies). This finding shows that the topic of study is still in an early stage. Notwithstanding, more than a few documents include a quantitative part (31%), 39 studies strictly quantitatively and the other 9 studies in combination with some qualitative method.

Overall, the results show a quite compensated distribution of the scientific approach and method of the studies, including conceptual, qualitative and quantitative studies.

Regarding empirical studies, it is interesting to comment the technics used. Qualitative studies predominantly employ case studies, descriptions and semi-structured interviews to validate their propositions or build their frameworks. Basic statistics towards validating measurement scales, focus groups, diaries, ethnographic researches, and think tanks have also been adopted. Some studies combine qualitative methods as text analyses, interviews, case studies and focus groups with quantitative practices like rating procedures, indicator measurements, or ANOVA (ANalysis Of VAriance) and MANOVA (Multivariate Analysis Of VAriance) statistical methods. Finally, concerning rigidly quantitative studies, the most applied procedure is the estimation of causal models, where SEM is the prevailing technic, preceded in most of the cases by Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analyses (EFA and CFA). EFA and CFA results are sometimes used with path analyses. Surveys, questionnaires and interviews are the leading data extraction methods.

Figure IV.4 Scientific Approaches and Research Methods



Source: Own elaboration.

#### IV.3.4. Place Context

The objective of the present chapter is to analyze the level of application of the SDL premises, and especially the idea of value co-creation, in the place context in the previous literature. Yet, the urban environment and place marketing are extremely wide, embracing several purposes. Thus, what does *place marketing* mean for each of the authors dealing with it from the co-creation perspective (within SDL or not)? Which objective do they assign to place marketing? Do they tackle place marketing from a mere touristic perspective, or do they also include residents? Is place marketing focused on the entire city or territory or is it directed to a specific industry? In order to answer those questions, the first job is to differentiate the diverse sub-contexts that can be found in the studies analyzed. After performing an extensive scrutiny, three sub-contexts have been identified and illustrated in Table IV.2: (1) urban space, (2) tourism industry, and (3) destinations. Place marketing comprehends diverse objectives, actors and scopes, and those are some of the factors that define each of the sub-contexts presented.

##### IV.3.4.1) Urban Space

The first sub-context refers to the urban space, understood as a place of cohabitation, and is different from the other two predominantly in the absence of a mere touristic purpose. The authors that introduce co-creation in this place context (urban space) defend place marketing in one of these two manners:

Table IV.2 Place Contexts: Description and Main Topics

Context	Description	Main Topics	Co-creation themes
<b>Urban space (15,48%)</b>	Place marketing as: (a) Promotional marketing strategy to attract different target groups to the city, including tourists, new citizens and businesses, or (b) Public marketing approach to improve public services in the city with customer-centric orientation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Place branding</li> <li>- Public transport</li> <li>- Place marketing</li> <li>- Public services</li> <li>- Urban governance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Customer and citizen participation</li> <li>- Paradigm shift towards SDL</li> <li>- Networks and interactions between actors in the city</li> </ul>
<b>Tourism industry (30,32%)</b>	Place (destination/hospitality) marketing as the strategic marketing applied by the businesses of the tourism industry with the aim of satisfying tourists with their services.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Hospitality industry: hotels, resorts, etc.</li> <li>- Tourism firms</li> <li>- Travel agencies, restaurants, and travel services (airlines)</li> <li>- Tourist attractions: art and heritage attractions, events, etc.</li> <li>- Tourism mobility sector</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Innovation to gain competitive advantage</li> <li>- Customers' participation (co-creation) in business activities</li> <li>- Co-creation platforms with customer-centric orientation</li> <li>- Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) to engage customers, as well as their online commentaries</li> </ul>
<b>Destinations (54,19%)</b>	Destination marketing from a holistic perspective, where the aim is to collaboratively develop a valuable touristic place between public administration and the network of services offered in the city; finally contributes to obtain satisfied and loyal visitors.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Destination as the product and services as a network: travel agents, travel guides, hospitality services, etc.</li> <li>- Tourism experience/destinations</li> <li>- Cultural tourism, cultural events, festivals, and heritage attractions to promote destination and tourism sector</li> <li>- Destination brand management</li> <li>- Rural tourism (experience)</li> <li>- Tourism management</li> <li>- Tourism product and travel packages</li> <li>- Sustainable (urban) tourism</li> <li>- Tourism/Destination marketing</li> <li>- Travelling</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Networks and interactions between actors in the destination</li> <li>- Traveller-generated online reviews</li> </ul>

Source: Own elaboration.

(a) Place marketing as a tool to attract target groups, not only visitors, but also new citizens and enterprises. This approach includes public and private parties in the place, and the potential customers, as well as the local people, due to their great influence. In numerous papers place marketing is substituted for place branding, recognising the place brand as the most important tool to appeal to the desired target groups, and highlighting the promotional side of marketing (e.g., Ahn, Hyun, & Kim, 2016; Aitken & Campelo, 2011; Braun, Kavaratzis, & Zenker, 2013; Vuorinen & Vos, 2013).

(b) Place marketing as a mechanism of the public organizations in the urban space to improve city life. This perspective tackles predominantly with the job of public managers to engage citizens in public services towards their satisfaction (e.g., Anttiroiko, Valkama, & Bailey, 2014; Cassia & Magno, 2009; Edvardsson, Ng, Choo, & Firth, 2013).

In the studies treating co-creation in the urban space, authors allude to the *city*, and the local people and/or the public administration are the focus of study.

Overall, descriptions made across the studies in an urban space, with some exceptions (e.g., Warnaby, 2009), situate the customer as exogenous, remarking the ‘marketing *to*’ view of the GDL (e.g., Zenker & Erfgen, 2014).

#### ***IV.3.4.2) Tourism Industry***

The second sub-context is much more specific, as it is centered on the tourism sector. Specifically, the studies included in this sub-context refer to the co-creation possibilities from a managerial point of view within the tourism industry, applying the SDL and its premises to businesses like hotels, travel agencies, restaurants, or other hospitality enterprises. In this case, *destination* marketing is the most used concept, and it is understood as the marketing of the services offered within the city, seeing marketing as a tool to reach new customers and fulfill their needs and wants. The paradigm shift would improve the way of strategically integrating the customers with a more customer-oriented perspective. Due to this, the actors appearing in the scene are, in the majority of the cases, the managers and employees of such businesses and their customers and tourists visiting the destination.

In the studies regarding tourism industry, a dyadic perspective is preferred: a single actor is usually questioned (customer or service provider) about a specific service exchange (e.g., Chathoth, Ungson, Altinay, et al., 2014; Chen, Raab, & Tanford, 2015). Sometimes, due to the feasibility to join both answers (it is clear who is the customer and who is the provider), both actors are asked, which allows obtaining a double angle of the same occurrence (e.g., Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Harris, 2012). Due to the managerial nature of the context, the beneficiary is normally considered as exogenous, which reflects again the predominance towards maintaining a GDL attitude (e.g., Ku, Yang, & Huang, 2013).

#### ***IV.3.4.3) Destinations***

The final sub-context is linked with the tourism sector but from a wider perspective, thinking about the place, and not the services offered in it, as the focus of the study. Here *destination* marketing is again the most used denomination, in order to imbue the touristic objective, and it is referred as:

(a) The strategic public marketing to promote and develop a ‘place offering’ to be visited by tourists and obtain and improve their satisfaction and loyalty (e.g., Blazquez-Resino, Molina, & Esteban-Talaya, 2015; Carrubbo, Moretta Tartaglione, Di Nauta, & Bilotta, 2012), and/or

(b) The strategic networked marketing that sees the destination as a result of multiple connected service providers (e.g., Fyrberg & Juriado, 2009; Hsu, Hsieh, & Yuan, 2013).

Public and private managers and tourists are the actors that predominate in this sub-context. Contrary to what occurs in the tourism industry context, when dealing with co-creation in destinations, broader in nature, numerous actors are involved in the interactions occurring within them. Considering the difficulty to appreciate and identify every party involved in the value creation in such a wide destination framework, the authors opt asking tourists (e.g., Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015; Calver & Page, 2013; Cevdet Altunel & Erkut, 2015).

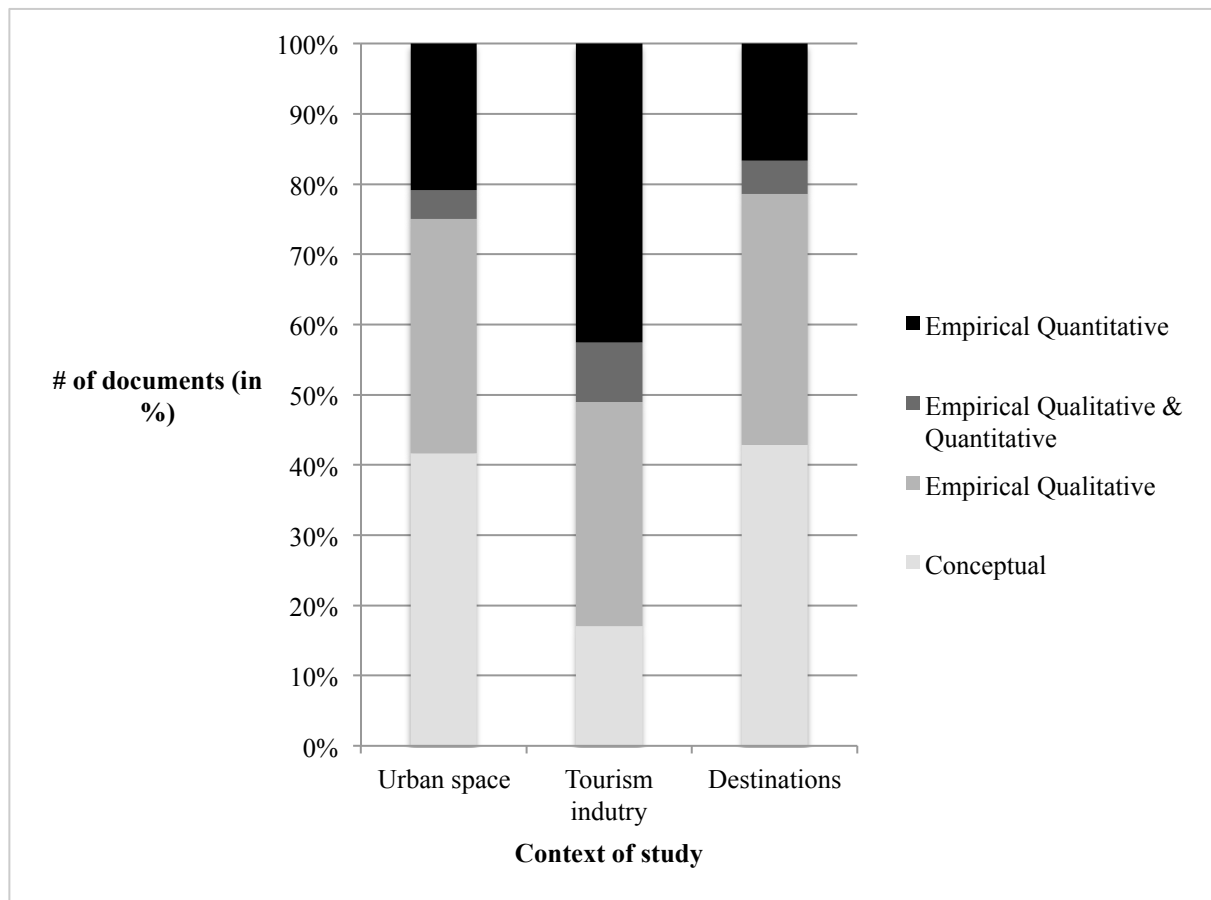
We found a relationship between the sub-context and the scientific approach utilized: the urban space and the destination, which are difficult to specify and delimit, are associated with conceptual and qualitative studies. On the contrary, the authors working with the tourism industry prefer facing their studies empirically, both qualitatively and also quantitatively (Figure IV.5).

Co-creation in urban space is mainly studied in developed countries of Northern Europe, such as Finland, Sweden, and to a lesser extent, Germany and The Netherlands; that is, in countries where the welfare state has a larger background (e.g., Edvardsson et al., 2013; Hakala & Lemmetyinen, 2011; Klijn, Eshuis, & Braun, 2012).

Yet, the tourism industry context, focused on a managerial environment, is predominantly studied in the USA (e.g., Lee, Tussyadiah, & Zach, 2010; Morosan, 2018) and UK (e.g., Leask, Fyall, & Barron, 2013; Shaw, Bailey, & Williams, 2011), followed by Mediterranean regions with a remarkable hospitality culture like Italy (e.g., Polese & Carrubbo, 2008) and Spain (e.g., Santos-Vijande, López-Sánchez, & Pascual-Fernández, 2018), and finally by other great emergent powers in the tourism sector as China and Taiwan (e.g., Tsai, 2017; Wang, Hsieh, & Yen, 2011).

When trying to apply SDL in a destination as a whole, the pattern is not so clear, and studies are situated in the Northern Europe (Norway and Sweden) (e.g., Åkerlund & Müller, 2012; Chekalina, Fuchs, & Lexhagen, 2014), UK (e.g., Baron & Harris, 2010), Spain (e.g., García, Gómez, & Molina, 2012), Portugal (e.g., Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, & Lima, 2012), Italy (e.g., De Carlo, 2015), USA (e.g., Nusair, Bilgihan, & Okumus, 2013) and other Asian countries (e.g., Hsieh & Yuan, 2011).

Figure IV.5 Context of Study and Scientific Approach



Source: Own elaboration.

### IV.3.5. Historical Evolution

In the literature we have found documents talking about co-creation and the new marketing-driven view (SDL) in a place context since 2005, a year after Vargo and Lusch (2004) published their seminal work about SDL. This means, first, that some concepts tackled in SDL were very probably already being investigated previously, and second, that experts gave a rapid diffusion to the conceptual development of SDL, transferring it to other contexts.

Three periods can be recognized in the historical evolution of the discipline (Figure IV.6): (1) from 2005 to 2008, (2) from 2009 to 2012, and (3) from 2013 up to now (2016<sup>5</sup>).

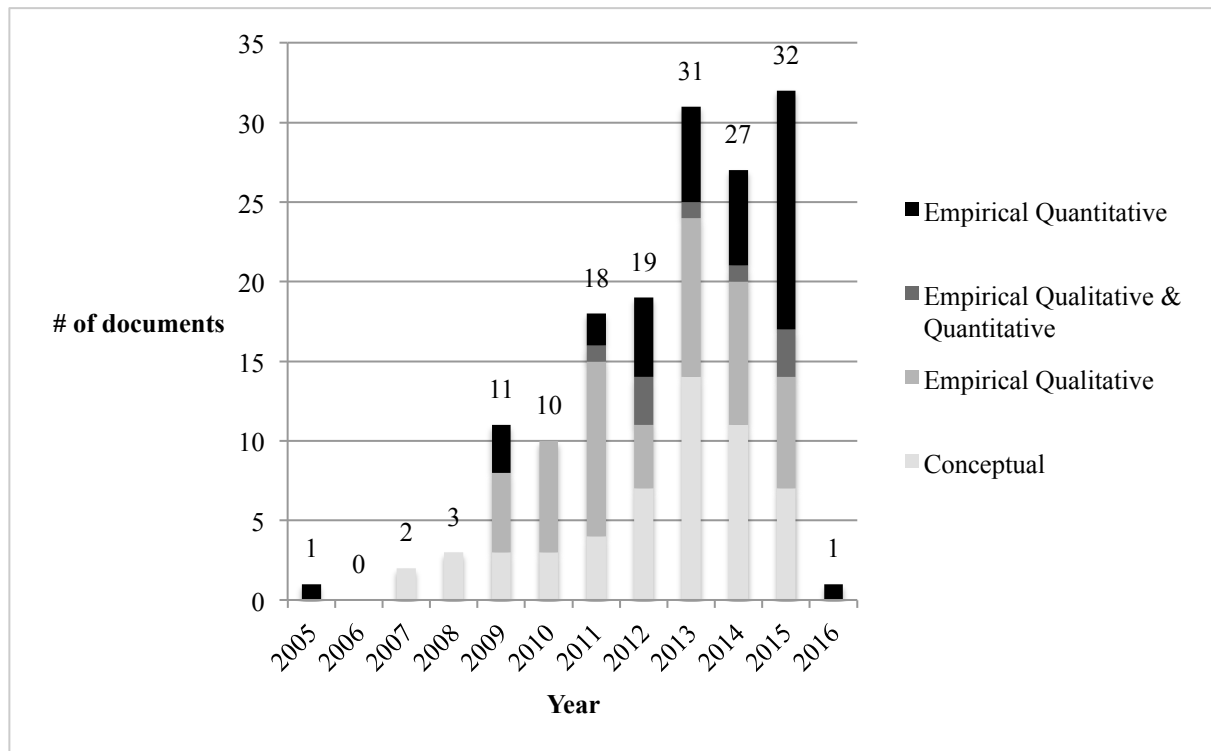
#### IV.3.5.1) From 2005 to 2008

This period corresponds to the first years where scientific publications can be found in the field. Nearly no works are published in this period, and although limited, almost every one is conceptual (Figure IV.6). We can describe it as the *descriptive phase* of the area.

<sup>5</sup> The literature review was finished in 2016. For further references (2016-2018) look up in Eletxigerra et al. (2018).



Figure IV.6 Year of Publication and Scientific Approach



Source: Own elaboration.

According to the nature of the studies in this stage, co-creation in place marketing is approached from a touristic perspective, both from an entrepreneurial perspective (Victorino, Verma, Plaschka, & Dev, 2005) and also in a destination environment (network of providers in the industry) (García-Rosell, Haanpää, Kylänen, & Markuksela, 2007).

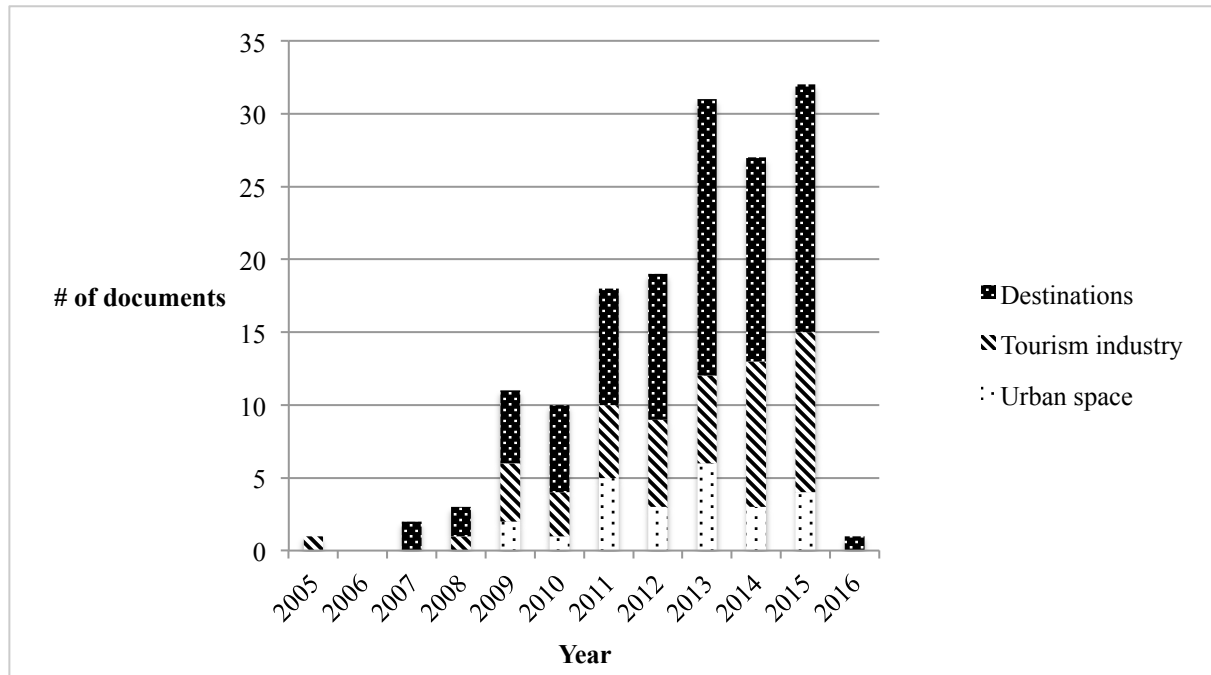
Predominantly, the literature acknowledges here the transition from a GDL to a SDL also in place marketing (Li & Petrick, 2008; Polese & Carrubbo, 2008), and starts supporting this view in service tourism management (Mossberg, 2007, 2008).

#### ***IV.3.5.2) From 2009 to 2012***

In this second period, more and more authors choose to deal with a SDL perspective in place marketing; it is why this stage might be described as the time where the development of the discipline occurs.

Regarding the characteristics of the studies found in this period, conceptual papers are still published (Gallarza, Gil-Saura, & Holbrook, 2012; Warnaby, 2009). However, qualitatively grounded empirical analyses begin to emerge (Baron, Patterson, Warnaby, & Harris, 2010; Conway & Leighton, 2012; Lemmetyinen & Go, 2010; Shaw et al., 2011), even above the conceptual ones. In the last years, mainly in 2012, some quantitative works were published (Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Klijn et al., 2012) (Figure IV.6). The disposition of the investigations in this period suggests that the period from 2009 to 2012 is an *explorative era*. Besides, urban space, tourism industry and destination environments are equally distributed, without a predominant context (Figure IV.7).

Figure IV.7 Year of Publication and Place Context



Source: Own elaboration.

We have detected a change and clear domination in what it comes to the focus, as the ‘network approach’ and ‘interactions’ are addressed more frequently in this period (Fyrberg & Jürriado, 2009; García et al., 2012; Nicholls, 2011).

#### ***IV.3.5.3 From 2013 up to now (2016<sup>6</sup>)***

In the third and last period, a rise is produced in terms of published works engaging the object of study, leading to a great number of texts referring to place marketing from a co-creation angle.

Qualitative studies remain numerous (FitzPatrick, Davey, Muller, & Davey, 2013; Sørensen & Jensen, 2015; Zou, Huang, & Ding, 2014); but conceptual papers (Lugosi & Walls, 2013; Sigala, 2017; Tussyadiah, 2013), and more importantly quantitative papers (Chen & Raab, 2017; Prebensen, Vittersø, & Dahl, 2013; Santos-Vijande et al., 2018), grow considerably, giving rise to an *explanatory phase* (Figure IV.6). The three periods’ character fit with the expected evolution, starting with a descriptive period, followed by an explorative one, and coming to an end in an explanatory line.

As time passes, and more evidently from 2013, the destinations are investigated over the other two contexts –urban space and tourism industry- (Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015; Rihova, Buhalis, Moital, & Gouthro, 2015; Tussyadiah, 2014; Wang, Li, & Li, 2013) (Figure IV.7). This finding may be due to the prior conceptual work developed in the network perspective, which perceives destinations as ‘tourism providers’ networks’.

<sup>6</sup> The literature review was finished in 2016. For further references (2016-2018) look up in Elettigerra et al. (2018).

Apart from this approach of ‘networks’ and ‘interaction’, in this period IT-enabled value co-creation (Buhalis & Foerste, 2014; Cabiddu, Lui, & Piccoli, 2013; Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2014b) and the contribution of the customer (Ahn et al., 2016; Braun et al., 2013; Prebensen, Kim, & Uysal, 2016) are widely analyzed, due probably to the extensive role given to the latter, through social media and other type of technologies.

#### **IV.4. Results of the Thematic Analysis**

The purpose of the thematic analysis is to identify essential elements and topics in the literature about value co-creation and SDL in place marketing. Therefore, the literature review (analysis of 155 studies) was focused in second instance on answering the following questions: How are value co-creation and SDL narrative tackled in place marketing? What topics and themes are the most addressed?

In the following paragraphs we provide a qualitative thematic analysis that will allow to systematically categorize the content of the documents and to identify relationships.

We used inductive and deductive methods to conduct the thematic analysis. On the one hand, we identified the focus or dominant subject matter of each text to recognize the most relevant topics adopted in the literature. *Usage of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs)*, *tourism networks*, *preference towards SDL* (in contrast to GDL or other traditional marketing perspectives), *participative innovation methods*, *customers’ influence on their destination experiences*, and *customers’ and providers’ contributions in value creation processes* are the most frequent. On the other hand, we used deductive categories extracted from the SDL theoretical background to organize the content of each of the documents. In this sense, SDL narrative, in its current version (Vargo & Lusch, 2016), is compound by a central idea (*value co-creation*) based on five elements (*actors*, *resource integration*, *service exchange*, *institutions*, and *service ecosystems*), extensible to six (*outcomes* as an extra element –see Chapter III). Thus, we extracted information regarding the following established categories: (1) Underlying foundational theories, (2) Co-creation approaches, (3) Actors, (4) Resource integration, (5) Service exchange, (6) Institutions, (7) Service ecosystems, and (8) Outcomes. Finally, we provide a final discussion using predominantly deductive categories, but also considering the inductive topics mentioned above. Based on the outlined conclusions and gaps, we determine some research avenues, susceptible to be covered in future chapters.

##### **IV.4.1. Underlying Foundational Theories in Co-created Place Marketing**

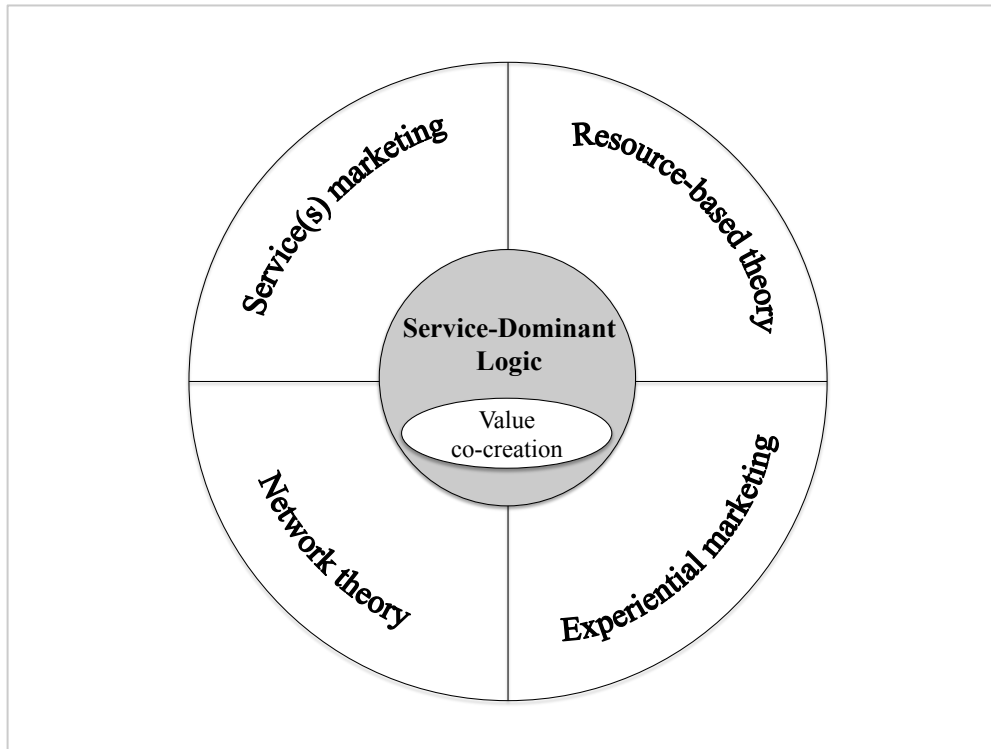
Our objective in this literature review is to detect how is co-creation addressed in place marketing texts. The fundamental idea of value co-creation is based on “the active involvement of the customer who is no longer considered an external business process of design, production or distribution of the product-service, but is increasingly a referee and active, central player in the creation of value in consumer experience” (Melis, McCabe, & Del Chiappa, 2015, p. 78). In general, co-creation approach is framed within a change in marketing and management paradigms: a shift from the traditional marketing -focused on the

satisfaction of customer needs through decision making centered around the 4Ps- to a paradigm that represents more accurately the continuous nature of relationships among marketing actors (Crowther & Donlan, 2011). Some authors recognize the relative failure of tourism research within place marketing to incorporate research paradigms that inspire value co-creation (e.g., Majdoub, 2013). According to Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015), in a place (destination) marketing context, focusing on tangible resources and using managerial marketing mix has important limitations as regards understanding, interpreting, and acting in the new market conditions, characterized by a more active role of tourists in their relationship with the organizations and the market environment due to improvements in transportation and communication technologies. Therefore, the new paradigm for the connected twenty-first century should consist of new factors, such as customer perceived value, brand ambassadors, customer engagement, customer communities, or social media, not previously conceived, and encompassed in the idea of value co-creation. Primarily, co-creation would imply: (i) the recognition of the customer's relevance in the creation of service, and (ii) the organizational philosophy encouraging customer engagement and integral participation. But, what theories are behind value co-creation and inspire its development in place marketing? The aim of this section is to recognize the underlying foundational theories in co-created place marketing acknowledged in the literature review.

An extensive part of the analyzed studies (45 studies) lack a specific theory in which to base their value co-creation approach (e.g., Åkerlund & Müller, 2012; Braun et al., 2013; Cevdet Altunel & Erkut, 2015; Dijkmans, Kerkhof, & Beukeboom, 2015). This does not mean that these studies do not have a theoretical background. However, we consider certainly valuable contributing to the conceptual development of concrete theories that support value co-creation and similar perspectives in place marketing.

Evaluating the remaining documents (110 studies), we identified several approaches. The most regarded are: SDL (42 studies), SDL in contrast to GDL (17 studies), experience economy (12 studies), paradigm of co-creation developed by the SDL of marketing (8 studies), relationship marketing/paradigm (8 studies), SS (6 studies), stakeholder theory (5 studies), experiential marketing/paradigm (4 studies), network theory (4 studies), resource-based theory (4 studies), new service marketing theory (3 studies), and SL (3 studies). Although with different denominations, sometimes studies refer to similar school of thoughts. For that reason, we have synthesized the underlying theories in four precedent views: *service(s) marketing*, *resource-based view*, *network view*, and *experiential marketing*. They all lead to the most recurrent paradigm shift proposition, SDL, which is the one that has manifested and popularized value co-creation approach more eagerly, and which is usually presented in contrast to GDL or traditional marketing (Figure IV.8). Finally, there are other complementary theories that may integrate the prior, and reflect specific study-contexts.

Figure IV.8 Underlying Foundational Theories in Co-created Place Marketing



Source: Own elaboration.

Table IV.3 gathers all the foundational views used in the literature review to justify value co-creation in place marketing. Four conceptual precedents are included: (1) service(s) marketing view, (2) resource-based view, (3) network view, and (4) experiential marketing view. These are followed by the predominant (5) SDL, as well as (6) other complementary approaches. We have included (a) the relationship they have with value co-creation, (b) all the theories and approaches included in each foundational view, and (c) their relevance in the literature review (percentage of studies).

Table IV.3 Underlying Perspectives Used in the Literature Review Justifying Value Co-creation in Place Marketing

Foundational view	Relationship with value co-creation	Specific and related theories/approaches	Presence in the literature review (% of reviewed studies mentioning it)
Service(s) marketing view	Service, which is the fundamental basis of exchange, is co-created, and the beneficiary has always a relevant role.	New service marketing theory (e.g., Chekalina et al., 2014) Services marketing (e.g., Neuhofer et al., 2014b) Service economy (Anttiroiko et al., 2014) Unified services theory (Griseemann & Stokburger-	5.16%

		Sauer, 2012) Service marketing (Saraniemi, 2011)	
Resource-based view	Co-creation involves resource integration, including operand and operant resources, although the latter (knowledge and skills) are the fundamental source of strategic benefit.	Resource-based theory (e.g., Della Corte, 2012) The soft condition field of theory (Warnaby & Medway, 2015)	3.21%
Network view	Value co-creation is the consequence of multiple actors (including the beneficiary) interacting with each other and integrating resources.	Relationship marketing/paradigm (e.g., Baron & Harris, 2010; Li & Petrick, 2008) Service Science, Management and Engineering and Design (Service Science) (e.g., Carrubbo et al., 2012) Stakeholder theory (e.g., Nogueira & Pinho, 2015) Network theory (e.g., Polese & Minguzzi, 2009) Servuction system model (e.g., Nicholls, 2011) Industry cluster theory (e.g., Hsu et al., 2013) Network paradigm (e.g., Lemmetyinen & Go, 2010) Actor-network-theory (Albrecht, 2013) Network economy (Anttiroiko et al., 2014) Social network theory (Fyrberg & Jürriado, 2009) 3rd generation communities (Pera, 2017) Relational place brand model (Szondi, 2010) Constellation approach (van Riel et al., 2013)	20%
Experiential marketing view	Co-created value is experiential in nature (value-in-context).	Experience economy (e.g., Scott, Laws, & Boksberger, 2009; Suntikul & Jachna, 2016) Experiential marketing/paradigm (e.g., Conway & Leighton, 2012) From experience economy to (experience) co-creation/From 1st to 2nd generation experiences	12.90%

		<p>(e.g., Neuhofer, Buhalis, &amp; Ladkin, 2013)</p> <p>Experiential theories (e.g., Frochot &amp; Batat, 2013)</p> <p>Paradigm shift towards experiences (Gao, Scott, &amp; Ding, 2012)</p> <p>Experience management paradigm (Lugosi &amp; Walls, 2013)</p>	
Service-dominant logic and similar	SDL paradigm theorizes the joint role of organizations and customers in the value co-creation process.	<p>SDL (e.g., Cabiddu et al., 2013; Hayslip, Gallarza, &amp; Andreu, 2013; Kavaratzis, 2012)</p> <p>SDL in contrast to GDL (e.g., Baron et al., 2010; Edvardsson, Ng, Min, Firth, &amp; Yi, 2011)</p> <p>Paradigm of co-creation developed by the SDL of marketing (e.g., Aitken &amp; Campelo, 2011; Gallarza et al., 2012)</p> <p>Service logic (e.g., Sfandla &amp; Björk, 2013)</p> <p>Consumer/Customer dominant logic (e.g., Rihova et al., 2015)</p> <p>Service paradigm manifested and popularized through SDL (Israeli, 2014)</p> <p>Value co-creation approach (Tsai, 2017)</p>	45.81%
Others (complementary theories mentioned in the literature review)	-	<p>Context-based marketing (e.g., Buhalis &amp; Foerste, 2015)</p> <p>Location-aware marketing (e.g., Buhalis &amp; Foerste, 2014)</p> <p>New Public Management (e.g., Cassia &amp; Magno, 2009)</p> <p>Consumer culture theory (e.g., Majdoub, 2013)</p> <p>Cultural approach of marketing (e.g., García-Rosell et al., 2007)</p> <p>Brand theory (Aitken &amp; Campelo, 2011)</p> <p>Role theory (Chen et al., 2015)</p> <p>Destination image theory (Hsieh &amp; Yuan, 2011)</p> <p>Metaphor theory (Hsieh &amp; Yuan, 2011)</p>	-

		Unified theoretical model (Hsieh & Yuan, 2011) Generational theory (Leask et al., 2013) Convergence (Månsson, 2011) Holistic view of value (O’Cass & Sok, 2015) Evolution of brand era (Saraniemi, 2010) Sociocultural construction of destination (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011) Holistic innovation paradigm (Tsai, 2017) The organizational ambidexterity theory (Tsai, 2017)	
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Source: Own elaboration.

First, we have included *service(s) marketing* as a relevant perspective to understand the current value co-creation, although it is not extensively covered in our literature review (5,16%). Services marketing raised from the need of a kind of marketing less focused on products that answered to the special characteristics of the increasing dominant services. Among those characteristics we will highlight that within service processes the customer provides significant inputs in the production process (Unified Service Theory) (Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012).

Second, *resource-based view* emphasizes the role of certain resources in the value creation process. Distinguishing both tangible and intangible resources, this theory defends that in order for a resource to contribute to the creation of a sustainable competitive advantage, it must be valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable (Line & Runyan, 2014). Historically developed to establish the conditions under which firms can gain competitive advantage, resource-based theory is thought to enable a better analysis and combination of the tourist offer through resources and competences that build the overall product (Della Corte, 2012). In the same line, Warnaby and Medway (2015, p. 37) suggested: “if an organization (in this case a place) is to achieve competitive advantage over others, it will do it because it has capabilities that others do not have, or have difficulty in obtaining”. They specifically cited the creation of hard conditions attractive to those seeking to invest in a particular place (availability of capital and an appropriately skilled labor force), as well as the soft conditions: specific amenities that create an environment that attracts specific types of people (e.g., creative class).

Third, we found as an important underlying view what we have encompassed as *network view*. We believed that this was the best denomination to refer to a perspective that comprehends different approaches concerning the implication of several stakeholders and their relationships and interactions within value creation. *Stakeholder theory* identifies different actors, as well as recognizing their relevance, power and interests in decision-



making processes. Similarly, constellation approach and '*servuction model*' also acknowledge the presence of other stakeholders in those processes. On the other hand, the relationship paradigm is closely linked to the role of customer value, underlining the continuous interactions between producers and consumers and the usefulness of focusing on them to obtain organizational efficiency, also during touristic services (Gallarza et al., 2012). It specifically motivates the transition from transactional exchanges to collaborative exchanges, and its adoption as a philosophy can be beneficial to destinations (Li & Petrick, 2008). Besides, the relationship marketing has contributed to the shift from the traditional way of modern marketing to a broader perspective that demands a move from dyadic relationships to a many-to-many marketing. A step beyond, we found the *network theory*, which explains social/market relations, interactions and norms by focusing on actors, the structural connections between them, and the resources they possess and exchange within a network (Fyrberg & Jürjado, 2009). "The notion of networks seems to be particularly relevant to the tourism context, where various tourism suppliers cluster together to provide an experience of value to tourists" (Li & Petrick, 2008, p. 239) (close to industry cluster theory). However, even though the network approach could be a new outlook for the organizational structure of the tourism system, enhancing learning linkages that lead to scale and scope economies and coordination of complementary assets, we should adopt a broader vision, including the customer in that network. For that reason, we consider that *service science* is the final all-inclusive approach. It aims increasing service innovation by applying scientific understanding, engineering discipline, and management practices to understanding and networking with service systems (Le Dinh & Thi, 2010). In the same vein, it examines service systems and their evolution, referring to the roles of people, knowledge, share information and technology, as well as the relevance of customers (demand) inside production processes (supply) (Carrubbo et al., 2012). In this sense, the relevance of multiple stakeholders (apart from the provider and the customer) is not only attributed to democratization mechanisms, but also to their contribution in value creating processes. SS involves resources, entities, access rights, value co-creation interactions, governance interactions, outcomes, stakeholders, measures, networks, and ecology.

Fourth and least, several articles base their hypotheses on the *experiential economy* (Pine & Gilmore, 1999), which moves the focus from products and services to experiences, thought to be more memorable and generators of economic value. In tourism and leisure, experiential marketing view implies seeking unique and unusual places to visit and activities to undertake (Scott et al., 2009). Therefore, experiential marketing involves the provision of experiences or memorable events that engage customers in an inherently personal way, where context, emotions and symbolic aspects of customer experiences are significant. According to Neuhofer et al. (2013, p. 548) "as consumers have become more active and powerful, the traditional creation of experiences has undergone a transformation (...) towards experience co-creation, which implies the individual human being regarded as the new starting point of the experience".

The *service-dominant logic* takes the elements from all the prior views, explaining the paradigm shift by developing a complete and comprehensive narrative around value co-creation, in contrast to the traditional view of marketing (so-called GDL), yet imbued in the

other four visions. Due to this, we consider SDL the most integrated logic, being the one that more explicitly describes value co-creation. In fact, the authors in the literature review explaining value co-creation in place marketing predominantly use this perspective (45.81%). Thus, SDL considers

- - the service as the underlying focus of exchange (goods and services are only indirect mechanisms of service provision),
- - the relevance of operant resources,
- - the interactional and relational nature of value co-creation, and
- - the experiential and context-dependent character of value, as well as the central role of the place customer (customers are not passive resources but rather active, knowledgeable and skilled actors that act as effective and efficient resource integrators).

In other words, the new logic of SDL proposes the change of the dominant logic of marketing from exchanges of goods to service provision; focuses on intangible rather than tangible resources; defends co-creation of value rather than embedded value, and relationships rather than transactions (Li & Petrick, 2008). In the same vein, *service logic* has emphasized customers as co-producers of service processes and creators of value for themselves (rather than co-created as justified by SDL) (e.g., Grönroos, 2008), while Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004a) focused on the organizational side of co-creation, setting the preconditions that allow companies to put in use the value co-creation approach through the ‘Dialogue, Access, Risk-Benefit, Transparency’ (DART) model. Concerning the latter perspective, Rihova et al. (2015) criticized SDL arguing that it was too provider-oriented and introduced *customer-dominant logic*, which would reflect a truly customer-centric focus, instead of treating them as partial workers or partners.

We have detected in the literature review that the application of these new SDL ideas in place marketing (and tourism in particular) is still an emergent stream. It is why, we believe of considerable relevance to highlight those works that contribute on the conceptual development of co-creation in place marketing as their principal aim.

Several authors translated SDL to the urban context, studying multiple aspects of a potential paradigm shift in marketing within a place. They predominantly did it in a generalist way, without focusing on a specific aspect, objective, or benefit of integrating SDL. On the contrary, they mainly contribute in a global way, discussing about the advantages of a SDL-based system instead of a GDL-based one, considering the translation of the FPs to the urban context, suggesting conceptual frameworks and theoretical models defending the SDL vision, or developing and combining more than one SDL hypothesis.

Moving place marketing towards SDL and co-creation is seen with a twofold objective: (i) supporting SDL, applying it to different contexts and providing, therefore, a foundation for general marketing theory, and (ii) changing the perspective of place marketing, towards a scope that is closer to reality and necessities.

Regarding the application field, although there are some documents speaking about the SDL approach in the urban space (e.g., Edvardsson et al., 2013; Osborne, Radnor, & Nasi, 2013; Warnaby, 2009; Warnaby & Medway, 2015), the touristic environment is predominant, and especially in terms of destinations. However, whatever the application field, all the researchers try to defend that the SDL of marketing is the best option, also for city/place/destination marketing.

We are going to distinguish three different phases found in these studies, depending on the level of depth they adopt. Therefore, we have:

(1) Studies explaining how SDL would be applied in place marketing in a general way. The majority of them try to translate the whole theory of the paradigm shift to the city, understood sometimes as an urban space, and others as a touristic destination (both, as a burden of services or as an holistic entity). It is very important to consider the conceptual contribution of these documents, due to their precursory character, in occasions interpreting and justifying the FPs of the SDL in the place context.

(2) Studies addressing conceptually and empirically the preference towards the SDL above the GDL.

(3) Studies proposing a conceptual model embracing place marketing from a SDL perspective, including, the relationship between elements. There are some authors that stay in a mere conceptual development, while others verify empirically their results.

These three levels are developed below.

#### ***IV.4.1.1) Broad Proposals of Service-Dominant Logic-Driven Place Marketing***

Warnaby (2009) is one of the first authors addressing place marketing from a SDL perspective in a rigorous manner, (i) evaluating place marketing characteristics in the light of the S-D 'mindset', in order to ascertain the potential contribution of S-D logic to the increased understanding of place marketing; and (ii) arguing that through the application of the S-D logic to the specific place marketing context, a fuller understanding of this logic may be achieved. Specifically, the paper argued that the S-D logic of marketing could potentially offer a new perspective through which to view the existing canon of (urban) place marketing literature. Therefore, the contributory elements of the place product could be considered in terms of operand and operant place resources which can be integrated by the strategic network within a place in order to create value-in-use, in conjunction with place consumers (i.e. co-creation). Warnaby (2009) also outlined the conceptualization of places as service systems, along with their exact nature, in order to deliver competitive advantage and maximize place consumers' perceived value-in-use. The main contribution of the author was that he delineated the FPs of SDL (Vargo & Lusch, 2008) from a place marketing point of view (see Table IV.4). FPs from 1 to 5 are resumed saying that (Warnaby, 2009, p. 416):

- Places constitute milieu in which 'place product elements' arising from physical and natural resources, as well as specialized competences, services and attributes, may be clustered.

- Place consumers create value-in-use from a specific combination of elements. Value-in-use could incorporate both economic dimensions (e.g. inward investment) and social dimensions (e.g. quality of life, regeneration), or a combination of both.

- Place marketing activities are the means to the end of achieving these wider place-related 'value-in-use' objectives.

FPs from 6 to 10 can be summarized as follows (Warnaby, 2009, pp. 416–417):

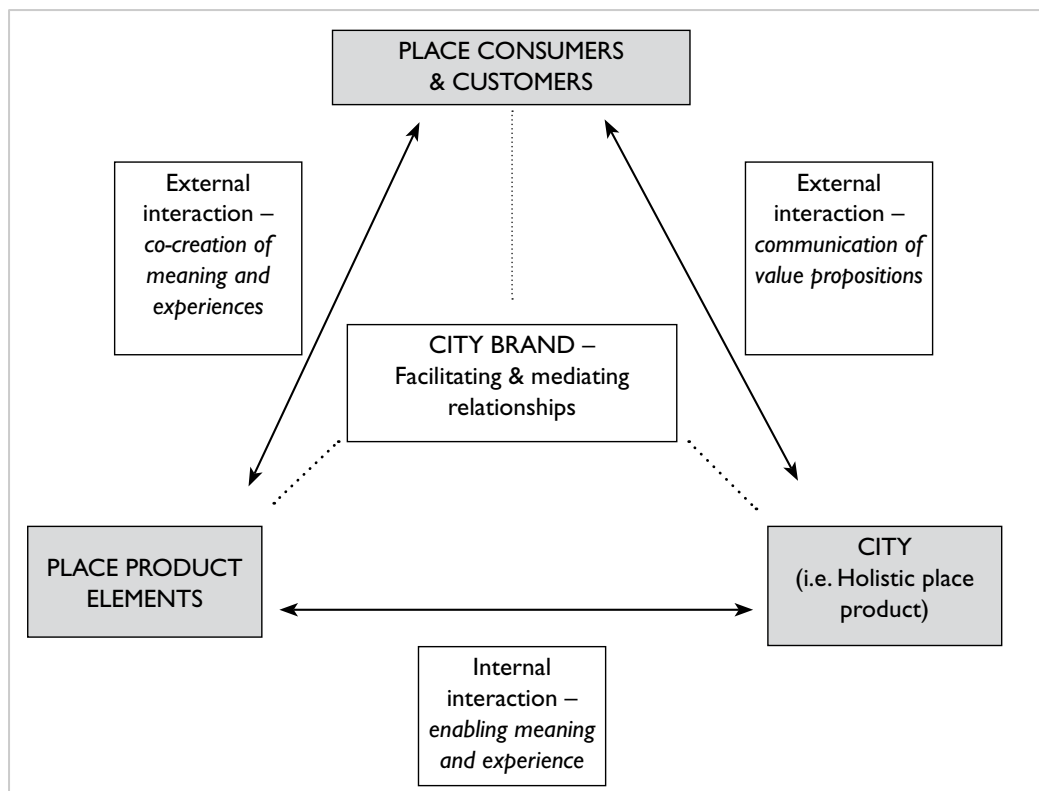
- The place consumer is an individual 'place product creator', via interaction with place product elements and the holistic place entity, although individual consumers may be aggregated into place user segments.

- The potential diversity of place marketing actors (i.e. the 'strategic network') that create 'organizing capacity' to successfully plan/implement place marketing activities (through the ability to mobilize -and integrate- resources to offer value propositions), requires a significant emphasis on interaction and relationships, not only with the place customer, but also 'internally' between those responsible for managing the various place resources/place product elements.

- Branding is an increasingly important means by which those responsible for the marketing of places seek to change perceptions of specific places among user groups.

According to the last premises, Warnaby (2009) deduced a conceptual framework (Figure IV.9).

Figure IV.9 Service Brand-Relationship-Value



Source: From Warnaby (2009, p. 414).

Later on, Warnaby and Medway (2015) centered their study on the resources as a fundamental part in the discipline, joining SDL with the resource-based perspective.

Many marketers have noticed an increasingly awareness of the value-creating potential that can be achieved through the application of new ideas in service management, and specifically in the tourism sector. There are authors that highlighted the recent and emerging powerful paradigm shift towards SDL, to show how suitable it is in interpreting tourism business (Polese & Carrubbo, 2008), and how this shift affects the hospitality management field (Israeli, 2014). In the same direction, Hayslip et al. (2013) aimed to apply this change of the dominant logic of marketing to the tourism sector, analyzing the applicability of the 10 FPs of Vargo and Lusch (2008) as potential value drivers in the tourism experience (see Table IV.4), and putting a greater emphasis on value. After developing a qualitative study in Valencia with five hotel directors, results showed that all the premises translated to the hospitality sector were confirmed, with the exception of FP2 and FP6 that needed further research.

Finally, the literature gathers the idea that SDL approach can provide an important basis for developing tourism marketing strategy, which would be more encompassing, adaptive and robust for changing market conditions. Some studies concentrated their attention in exploring the relevance of SDL to destination marketing (Xiang Li, 2013), in outlining the implications of a potential paradigm shift to the field of tourism marketing (Li & Petrick, 2008), and specifically in cultural tourism (Majdoub, 2013). They all referred to value co-creation and other SDL premises in a broader sense, considering the city or place as a holistic entity. Li (2013) acknowledged the need of DMOs, responsible in part of destination marketing (largely recognized as marketing in the public sector), to satisfy many disparate stakeholders. From that statement, he developed three SDL important issues in the new context: (i) service is not inferior to goods; (ii) tourists as co-creators and operant resources; and (iii) destination as a service system and resource integrator. In that sense, SDL directed destination marketers to actively customize travel experiences and pursue tourists' involvement in product design and innovation. That idea of tourists being involved in defining and creating their own tourism experience (co-creation) is central, and seems to include tourist-tourist interaction/co-creation, tourist-service provider co-creation, and visitor-local co-creation. In fact, tourism destination or service provider gains its competitive advantage by better understanding a tourist's values and needs, by providing better solutions and resources to tourists during their entire co-creation process, and by optimizing tourists' value creation process. Park and Vargo (2012) discussed the S-D logic's key FPs for tourism marketing strategy (see Table IV.4).

Table IV.4 Three Translations of the Foundational Premises of Service-Dominant Logic to the Place Context

FPs in SDL	Warnaby (2009)	Hayslip et al. (2013)	Park and Vargo (2012)
FP1: Service is the fundamental basis of exchange	<p>Given the tangibility of the morphology of places and the potentially more intangible dimension of the processes and attributes that exist within them, places could be regarded as exemplars of the integration of goods and services, i.e., service provision.</p> <p>Thus, the subject of the exchange process is seen as the benefits of specialized competences or service as opposed to physical goods.</p>	<p>The basis of ‘good service’ in tourism comes from the application of specialized knowledge and skills by the service provider during interaction with tourists.</p>	<p>Tourist’s actual usage of a hotel room dictates his/her own goals and contextual circumstances: to sleep, to host a social gathering, to hold a business meeting and so forth.</p>
FP2: Indirect exchange masks the fundamental basis of exchange	<p>The complex and kaleidoscopic nature of the place ‘product’, encompassing both the physical dimensions of places and, equally, what goes on within them, potentially blurs the distinction between goods and service provision.</p>	<p>Service in tourism is very complex due to the combination of goods, money and different institutions and therefore difficult to manage during consumer/provider interactions.</p>	<p>Processes might be direct or doing for (relieving) – travel agent makes arrangements using their competences; or indirect or facilitating self-service (enabling processes) – travel agents participate in the leisure tourist’s resource integration by providing relevant information and materials: airport information, history, etc. Whatever the form, the travel agency becomes one of the tourist’s resources.</p>
FP3: Goods are a distribution mechanism for service provision	<p>Place marketing essentially constitutes the means to an end, in that people and organizations reside in/locate to a particular place in order to realize a variety of experiences and benefits, arising from their use of the configuration of physical and social resources and attractions located therein.</p>	<p>Physical goods/things that are used/consumed by tourist while on vacation (rental cars, hotel rooms, souvenirs, etc.) generate value for the consumer because of the service they provide (rental cars transportation, hotel rooms shelter, and souvenirs memorabilia).</p>	<p>Hotel room features are undoubtedly important, but tourists do not pay for the physicality of them but for the temporary use of the service they render (accommodation).</p>
FP4: Operant resources are the fundamental source of competitive	<p>Some places, because of their superior natural/social/infrastructural and knowledge-based endowments, etc., which could be regarded as operant resources, can be better suited to be the venues for</p>	<p>The know-how of the organization is what differentiates them from competition.</p>	<p>The firm’s knowledge and skills (how it configures various actors’ roles involved in the process) become its operant resources, which will determine its competitive</p>

advantage	certain activities and processes, which may in turn serve as a basis for competitive advantage.		advantage.
FP5: All economies are service economies	-	Service in tourism is now becoming more of an important issue because of the specialization and outsourcing throughout the tourism system.	-
FP6: The customer is always a co-creator of value	Consumers themselves create their own unique place product from the variety of services, amenities and other place elements available to them.	Value during the tourist experience is generated not only by the service provider but instead with the consumer as a joint effort.	Value is created with the tourist throughout the experience process. Marketing is 'with' instead of 'to' tourists, because they integrate their own operant resources to achieve their goals –physical (mental endowment, etc.), social (family relationships, etc.), and cultural (specialized knowledge and skills, etc.).
FP7: The enterprise cannot deliver value, but only offer value propositions	Places can only offer value propositions, because (1) the assembler of the various elements in the place product 'package', as in the case of tourism industry, and (2) governments and their agencies, perform an intermediate role through the offer of place value propositions, arising from a particular assemblage of place product elements. However, the notion of the consumer as producer of his or her own unique urban 'experience' echoes the point that 'value creation is only possible when a good or service is consumed'.	If value for the tourist is generated by them and the provider together, then the provider cannot make value for the customer if they do not accept the offer.	Tourist offerings are expressed through a value proposition, which is only one of the numerous sources of resources the tourist draws on to achieve desired value from experiences.
FP8: A service-centered view is inherently customer oriented and relational	The complex networks typical of place marketing organizational mechanisms are arguably the embodiment of the concept many-to-many marketing.	Because the tourist determines whether or not something is beneficial, all tourism organizations should be customer oriented and relationship based.	Tourism offerings are not embedded with value and sold to tourists, nor determined by and flowing unidirectional from the firm to the tourist.
FP9: All social and economic actors are resource integrators	This could be considered in terms of the integration of the various resources available in the place. Relational exchanges will occur not only between place	All service providers, of different specializations, in the tourism system should work together and collaborate	Tourism firms, employees, tourists, destinations residents and suppliers participate in value creation.

	<p>managers/marketers and place consumers, but also between all the members of a ‘strategic network’. That is, the urban place and its institutions become the forum in which the various urban stakeholders can communicate and (hopefully) reach some consensus as to their future development through the articulation and offer of place value propositions to consumers. Thus, effective networks and relationships are an essential element if the variety of both operand and operant resources available within places are to be integrated appropriately.</p>	<p>to learn from one another and combine resources.</p>	
<p>FP10: Value is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary</p>	<p>Consumers themselves create their own unique place product from the variety of services, amenities and other place elements available to them, with the place producer having little control over this process. The notion of the consumer as producer of his or her own unique urban ‘experience’ echoes the point that ‘value creation is only possible when a good or service is consumed’.</p>	<p>Value during the tourist experience is determined by the beneficiary.</p>	<p>Value is defined by individual tourists (experiencers), in the context of their own unique circumstances (personal values, life stage, culture). That is, assessment would include customer value interpretations within the tourist’s experience journey, (...) taking into consideration the goals to be achieved within the particular context (value-in-use).</p>

Source: Adapted from Warnaby (2009); Hayslip et al. (2013, p. 313); and Park and Vargo (2012).



#### ***IV.4.1.2) Preference Towards a Service-Dominant Logic-Driven Place Marketing (Above Good-Dominant Logic)***

Within the studies addressing conceptually and empirically the preference towards SDL above GDL, we have detected predominance towards documents defending that SDL is a better option for public services in general (adoption of a public service-dominant approach (Osborne et al., 2013), and public transports in particular (Edvardsson et al., 2013; Edvardsson, Ng, et al., 2011). The latter tried to empirically demonstrate that a SDL service system evokes a better overall experience than a GDL service system. Concretely, the authors used seven specific shifts (*process of service, intangibles, operant resources, symmetric information, conversation, value proposition, relationships*) to measure the outcomes (*overall user experience*) of bus travellers planning a specific journey using two online travel aids, one that exhibits properties closer to a GDL design, and the other closer to a SDL design. According to the results, the SDL-based system dramatically outperformed a GDL-based one with similar functionality, because the integration of the operand and operant resources in the first was more intuitive to the users, enabling the completion of tasks, and, thus, enhancing value co-creation. Operant resources, intangibles, and symmetric information were identified as the three most important service system characteristics perceived by the customer.

In the same direction and the same context (public transport), Enquist, Camén, and Johnson (2011) expanded the notion of SDL in governance by adding contract and performance measurement, studying their effect on value creation in networks. The exploration was performed in a multiple case study of three Public Transport Authorities (PTAs) from three standpoints: (i) business-related concerns, (ii) operations-related concerns, and (iii) encounter-related concerns. Results showed that the contracts of all three PTAs aspired to a customer orientation and enhanced service standards, in general accordance with the tenets of S-D logic. However, in terms of operations and encounters, the reality was that the contracts were effectively based on G-D logic. In conclusion, the evidences showed that although the reality asks for a change towards SDL to fulfill customers' desires and obtain greater financial performances, the managers are yet far from contributing to a paradigm shift in the urban space.

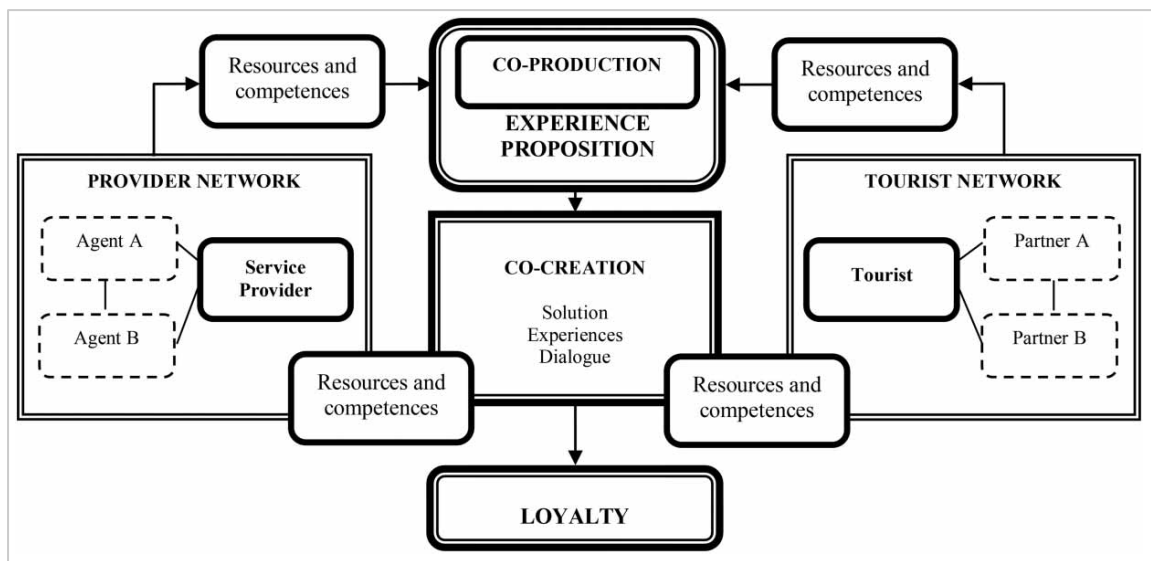
In a destination context, Horbel (2013) also suggested giving primacy to a SDL-driven insight for tourism management, in contrast to the GDL-grounded tourism phenomenon model (aimed at providing guidance to tourism industry managers). Assuming the challenging task of transforming the tourism phenomenon model in a way that fully reflects the nature of value co-creation in the tourism industry, Horbel (2013) presents a conceptual model embracing place marketing from a SDL perspective (from resource integration).

#### ***IV.4.1.3) Conceptual Models of a Service-Dominant Logic-Driven Place Marketing***

Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015) presented an essential work regarding SDL in the place context providing a conceptual framework (Figure IV.10). The authors defended that tourism destination depends on resources; but they argued that the mere possession of physical tangible elements (operand resources) is not sufficient for the development of competitive advantage, but it is necessary to use operant resources. In addition, customers are operant

resources who are actively involved in the co-production of their experiences. This means, not only that customers expect value propositions, but also that their participation in the co-production of tourism experiences has a direct influence on their perception of what is received as a result of their effort. Thus, the tourist should primarily be seen as a co-creator of experience value, while service providers are not able to produce anything of value without them. However, firms support customers in their value-creating activities through the provision of the resources needed for the generation of experience. Providers can, likewise, calculate the market feedback, for instance, through the loyalty variable.

Figure IV.10 Theoretical Framework for the Implementation of Service-Dominant Logic in Tourist Destinations



Source: From Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015).

With that all, one of the main contributions of the study of Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015) is that they verify empirically the model. Three constructs are included: (i) *Tourist Experience Proposition (TEP)*, including: natural resources and infrastructure, environment, entertainment, hospitality and information, and welfare; (ii) *co-creation of value*, measured through Relationship Quality with three second-order factors: *satisfaction*, *trust* and *commitment*; and (iii) *loyalty*. The structural model, was tested on a sample of national tourists at destinations in Spain, and verified that destination loyalty is improved with the development of tourist-centered process based on S-D logic. Specifically, the findings of the research evidenced a significant mediation of co-creation between TEP and destination loyalty. In this respect, the higher the tourist implication in the TEP configuration, the higher their satisfaction and trust with the destination. At the same time, empirical research supported the notion that destination loyalty is significantly influenced by visitors' satisfied or memorable experiences. Nevertheless, several disagreements might be exposed due to the rigor of the study towards the measurement and scales of the model. In fact, the proposed framework (Figure IV.10) is not strictly represented in the model, and we believe that the variable *co-creation of value* does not gather the real nature of co-creation.

#### IV.4.2. Co-creation Approaches in Place Marketing

Service providers have no longer the status of value creators and value delivers for customers. Those consumers -and other actors- play, indeed, an important role in value creation processes. Therefore, recent literature has stressed this salient role of the customer (Mohd-Any, Winklhofer, & Ennew, 2015), and traditional marketing tools, including experience economy, have been increasingly replaced by experience co-creation, which recognizes active consumers co-creating their experiences in a quest for personal growth and value (Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2012). The basis for co-creation resides in that consumers (i) contribute with their resources (knowledge and skills) in the creation of their experiences with service providers (Li, 2013), and (ii) assess its value (Mohd-Any et al., 2015).

In place marketing and specifically in the tourism context, the concept of co-creation is particularly relevant (e.g., Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Prebensen, Woo, & Uysal, 2014). This is because:

- Experiences are produced and consumed simultaneously (Tussyadiah & Zach, 2013).
- Experiential spaces are constructed according to personal motivations and interpretations (Mohd-Any et al., 2015; Morgan, Elbe, & Curiel, 2009).
- Experiences require joint action of diverse parties, and the consumer (tourist) must combine a lot of diverse resources and interact with many partners (i.e., employees, other tourists, local residents), in order to co-create his/her experience. Reminiscing and sharing travel memories with friends, families and other social networks also reveal co-creation (Horbel, 2013; Park & Vargo, 2012).
- Value is uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the tourist: he/she would not have the same experience even when encountering the same offering (Park & Vargo, 2012).

The idea of tourists and residents being involved in defining and creating experiences, public services and city brands is not necessarily new, but an explicit recognition of this type of co-creation is fairly recent (Li, 2013; Melis et al., 2015). Late studies have focused on the importance of consumer value co-creation in place marketing, but from very different perspectives and with very different objectives, as we have been able to detect in the literature review.

First, there are some studies focused on *co-creation of place branding* (e.g., Braun et al., 2013; Kavartzis, 2012; Zenker & Erfgen, 2014). This refers to (i) inviting citizens to participate in city brands (conscious public policy) (Ahn et al., 2016; Hakala & Lemmetyinen, 2011), and (ii) different stakeholders co-creating place brand value through their co-production of public goods, services, policies and meanings (unconscious involvement) (Saraniemi, 2010; Szondi, 2010). For instance, Oliveira and Panyik (2015) carry out a content analysis to identify and understand how tourists and travellers perceive Portugal as a travel destination with the aim of designing branding strategies.

Second, we found few works dealing with *public service co-design, co-creation, and co-production* (e.g., Anttiroiko et al., 2014). It refers to including stakeholder participation in event planning and organization (Åkerlund & Müller, 2012), using consumers as real time information sources (the information can be then structured and incorporated in the service) (Nunes et al., 2014), or asking citizens for enriching feedback that could improve planning, provision and performance of public services (Cassia & Magno, 2009). This approach, as well as the former, reveals quite a democratic perspective. Therefore, the concept of governance is included in several researches (e.g., Enquist et al., 2011; Osborne et al., 2013).

Third, there are many studies in the literature of place marketing referring to co-creation as a *competitive tool* that providers might use. Thus, consumer co-creation has been usually considered with innovative (e.g., Hjalager & Nordin, 2011; Hoarau & Kline, 2014; Jernsand, Kraff, & Mossberg, 2015) or promotional (e.g., Park & Allen, 2013; Pera, 2017) purposes. For instance, Santos-Vijande et al. (2018) measure the impact of customer co-creation on the new service development (NSD) success in the hotel industry. On the other hand, Wei, Miao, and Huang (2013) try to disclose the motivational drivers of customer engagement behavior manifested in user-generated hotel reviews, arguing that word-of-mouth (WOM) activity, referrals, recommendations, and voluntary assistance with other customers are co-creative behaviors influencing the firm and its brand. This approach, which only contemplates providers' benefits, shows a rather GDL-grounded perspective, as long as the consumer is usually acknowledged as a part-time worker/marketer (Olsson, 2010). Consumer knowledge management is stressed here as a differentiating provider skill (Sigala & Chalkiti, 2015).

In the studies dealing with any of the approaches before, *engagement platforms* acquire an important role (e.g., Anttiroiko et al., 2014; Chathoth, Ungson, Harrington, et al., 2014; Tilaar & Novani, 2015), as well as the elements of the CL (*dialog, access, transparency, and risk-benefit*) (e.g., Melis et al., 2015; Morosan, 2018). And to this end, the essential task played by *technology and ICTs* are widely emphasized (e.g., Buhalis & Foerste, 2014; Cabiddu et al., 2013; Neuhofer et al., 2012).

Finally, we detected a considerable number of papers referring to *tourism experience co-creation*. This approach refers to tourism experiences in a certain destination (e.g., Barbini & Presutti, 2014; Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015; Kastenholtz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, et al., 2012; Prebensen, 2014). For instance, Prebensen et al. (2016) argue that the tourist participation and presence in creating experience value is vital. Thus, they demonstrate that the relationship between perceived value of tourist experience and satisfaction with vacation experience is moderated by the level of cocreation experience in travel; that is, those more interested and more physically partaking will show a significantly stronger relationship between perceived value and satisfaction than those less interested and less active. In the prior study, the authors define consumer co-creation as 'a participative (mental and physical)' construct.

Another recurrent perspective is addressing co-creation as *interactions*: coping and co-creating in host-guest experiences, in guest-guest experiences, in host-family experiences, and in solitary tourist experiences (Prebensen & Foss, 2011). Binkhorst and Den Dekker

(2009) give examples of co-creation between tourists, between suppliers and customers, and between visitors and locals. For instance, when potential tourists communicate in virtual tourism communities like forums and blogs sharing, comparing, evaluating and exchanging experiences they are co-creating through tourist-tourist interactions. In addition, when hotel providers offer guests the possibility with futuristic-style rooms to change the color of their room depending on their mood, they are co-creating through tourist-provider interactions. Similarly, when tourists participate in interactive workshops offered by local experts to learn about local specialties such as gastronomy, art, pottery, painting, or dancing, they are co-creating through tourist-local people interactions. Others focus on a single interaction: consumer-to-consumer interactions (CCIs) as a source of value creation in tourism (Baron & Harris, 2010), guest-to-guest (G2G) and guest-to-staff (G2S) interactions on cruise tourism (Brejla & Gilbert, 2014), or the interaction with local population (Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Peixeira Marques, 2012).

In the same context, we can differentiate *pre-travel*, *on-site*, and *post-travel* co-creation (Neuhofer et al., 2012; Rihova et al., 2015), sometimes virtual, sometimes physical.

Besides, sometimes co-creation is mixed up with *co-production*. For example, a consumer co-produces a travel package when arranging all the services before travelling (instead of using a travel agency), but co-creation goes further (Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012). In other cases co-creation and co-production are distinguished (Chathoth, Altinay, Harrington, Okumus, & Chan, 2013; Larson, 2009). For instance, Suntikul and Jachna (2016) discuss that co-creation involves personalization, engagement and co-production.

In sum, while the literature on value co-creation is extensive, it is not entirely clear what the co-creation process specifically involves. As we have been able to intuit from the previous analysis, place-marketing researchers adopt very different approaches for conceptualizing and measuring value co-creation. We found interesting at this point to study the specific measures adopted in the literature quantitatively. Therefore, quantitative co-creation approaches are summarized in Table IV.5. We gather here (a) the general co-creation approach, (b) the concrete measure or variable used to assess co-creation, and (c) the extent of the co-creation measure regarding moment in time.

Some authors refer to the co-creation process as something that occurs implicitly, but do not explicitly conceptualize and measure it (e.g., Azevedo, 2009; Calver & Page, 2013; Chekalina et al., 2014). Other authors explicitly measure co-creation (sometimes without offering a proper definition), but identify it with partial elements of the whole process, which include four ideas previously discussed: (1) co-production of the core service and customization; (2) interaction with other consumers or employees; (3) participating in innovation-related processes; and (4) responsible/citizenship behaviors of the consumer towards the provider.

Table IV.5 Co-creation Approaches and Variables in Quantitative Place Marketing Literature (n=39)

Reference	Co-creation approach	Measure for value co-creation	Co-creation point		
			Before	During	After
Ahn et al. (2016)	Residents are co-creators of city brand values and are encouraged to be involved in city branding.	Brand citizenship behavior	X		
Azevedo (2009)	The hotel experience is determined to a large extent by the customer's own characteristics.	-	X		
Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015)	The value for a tourist is directly embedded in the co-creation of his/her experiences at the destination, and does not stem from products, services or from the expertise of marketers and service providers.	Co-creation of value: measured through relationship quality (RQ)		X	X
Calver and Page (2013)	Perceived value and behavior of a visit depends on the visitor's knowledge and interest.	-	X	X	
Cassia and Magno (2009)	Public services co-production is related primarily to the involvement of citizens. It means creating a circular link between services planning, provision and performance, and citizen feedback, based on a two-way communication.	Co-production	X		
Cevdet Altunel and Erkut (2015)	Effect of involvement in recommendation intentions in tourism destinations.	-	X	X	X
Chekalina et al. (2014)	Destination stakeholders and tourists co-create places where tourism experiences may occur. Destination resources are perceived and integrated by tourists.	-	X		
Chen and Raab (2017)	Service managers treat customers as active participants or service coproducers rather than as passive recipients or buyers.	Mandatory customer participation	X	X	
Chen et al. (2015)	In service products as restaurants customers' mandatory participation is an important aspect of value co-creation, implying a significant point of leverage for service providers in managing desired outcomes. It considers the customer involvement in producing and delivering the service.	Mandatory customer participation	X	X	
Dijkmans et al. (2015)	Empirical evidence for a relationship between a consumer's engagement in company social media activities and corporate reputation.	Consumer engagement in company's social media activities	X	X	X
Edvardsson et al. (2013)	Preference towards SDL mindset (over GDL) in public transport.	-		X	

Fakharyan, Omidvar, Khodadadian, Jalilvand, and Nasrolahi Vosta (2014)	Effect of customer-to-customer interactions (CCI) on customer satisfaction with hotels	CCI		X	
García et al. (2012)	Co-creating destination brand based on stakeholders.	-	X		
Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012)	Customer co-creation of tourism services: the customer's provision of input in the development of their travel arrangement.	Degree of co-creation	X		
Heinonen and Strandvik (2009)	Service providers as supporting customers' value creation (rather than customer as co-creator).	-		X	
Hsiao, Lee, and Chen (2015)	The level of customer value co-creation, defined as the meaningful and cooperative participation of customers during the process of service delivery, becomes important in tourism industry for organizational management and sustainability.	Customer value co-creation	X	X	X
Klijn et al. (2012)	Place branding co-production through stakeholder involvement.	-	X		
Ku et al. (2013)	Influence of customer competence on service innovation in travel agencies.	-	X		
Mohd-Any et al. (2015)	In travel websites, customers participate directly in service creation through the utilization of the features and functionalities of websites and cocreate service experience as they think, act and sense when using these features.	Participation (actual and perceived)	X		X
Morosan (2018)	Cocreation intentions in m-commerce in hotels.	Co-creation intentions		X	
Nusair et al. (2013)	Social interactions in a travel-related online social network context.	Social interactions	X	X	X
O'Cass and Sok (2015)	Value creation as a multi-phase, multi-party theory: value proposition, value offering, perceived value-in-use.	-		X	
Prebensen et al. (2016)	Tourist participation and presence in creating experience value (i.e., cocreation) is vital	Level of co-creation experience		X	
Prebensen, Vittersø, et al. (2013)	Tourist inputs in value co-creation.	-	X	X	X
Prebensen et al. (2014)	Experience value is created and co-created during the process of planning, buying, enjoying and recalling a tourist journey.	-	X	X	X
Prebensen, Woo, Chen, and Uysal (2013)	Tourist's effect on the experience.	-	X	X	X

Rodríguez, Álvarez, and Santos Vijande (2011)	Employees' and customer's co-creation of new services in hotels.	-	X		
Santos-Vijande et al. (2018)	New service development co-creation in hotels.	Customer co-creation	X		
Seljeseth and Korneliussen (2015)	Brand personality co-creation.	-	X		
Sigala and Chalkiti (2015)	Employees' influence in knowledge management.	-	X		
Suntikul and Jachna (2016)	Conceptual link between place attachment and co-creation. Tourists construct their own experiences by appropriating the possibilities afforded by tourism amenities and service providers.	Activities in which tourists engage		X	
Tsai (2017)	Co-creation capability directed to holistic innovations in hotels.	Co-creation capability	X		
Tussyadiah and Zach (2013)	Destination's capacity for consumer co-creation and the influence of social media strategies in that capacity.	Co-creation capacity		X	X
Victorino et al. (2005)	Customization of the service: allowing guests to have flexible check-in/out times, personalizing room décor, or having childcare options available.	Customization	X	X	
Wang et al. (2011)	Firms providing additional service offerings after the core service and customers engaging or not in those activities.	Intention to participate in proactive initiatives of service	X	X	X
Xie, Peng, and Huan (2014)	Hotel employees' implication on brand.	Employee brand citizenship behavior	X	X	X
Xu, Marshall, Edvardsson, and Tronvoll (2014)	Customer co-creation in service recovery: impact of initiation.	Co-recovery		X	
Yang (2016)	Tourist-to-tourist interactions influence o the destination image co-creation.	Tourist-to-tourist interactions		X	
Zenker and Seigis (2012)	Implementation of a participatory place branding strategy.	Participation	X		

Source: Own elaboration.



First, some researchers focus on core *service co-production* (e.g., Cassia & Magno, 2009). For instance, Grisseemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012) measure co-creation as the customer's behavior when arranging a trip. Similarly, other authors focus on customization (e.g., Zenker & Seigis, 2012). For instance, Victorino et al. (2005) see co-creation as a consumer choosing among different customization options offered by the provider in a hotel setting. They show that co-creation leads to higher value perception.

Second, some researchers focus on *interactions* with other customers or tourists and with firm employees as antecedents of the final perceived value (Fakharyan et al., 2014; Nusair et al., 2013; Yang, 2016).

Third, some authors see co-creation as *using the consumer* and his/her knowledge (as well as other actors) *for innovation* or service improvement purposes. Examples include: (i) the provider developing frequent meetings, active participation, and detailed consultation with customers in different phases of NSD (Santos-Vijande et al., 2018); (ii) the provider using internal and external actors (employees, customers and partners) to obtain satisfactory innovation results (Tsai, 2017); and (iii) the capacity of providers to acquire, assimilate, transform and exploit customer knowledge (Tussyadiah & Zach, 2013).

Fourth, some studies focus on how *consumers' and employee' citizenship behaviors* can improve providers' circumstances. Thus, Ahn et al. (2016) and Xie et al. (2014) understand co-creation as resident and employees 'brand citizenship behavior'. Brand citizenship behavior refers to positive voluntary attitude of citizens and employees towards a destination or provider brand, using them as promotion tools. Similarly, Hsiao et al. (2015) (based on Yi and Gong (2013)) assess customer value co-creation with two second-order factors: *customer participation behavior* and *customer citizenship behavior*. Each dimension is in turn composed of four factors. Customer participation behavior includes customer activities necessary for the 'service delivery': *information seeking, information sharing, responsible behavior, and personal interaction*. Customer citizenship behavior includes other kind of behaviors that are supposed to enhance final value: *feedback, advocacy, helping, and tolerance*. However, the latter (i.e., *customer citizenship behavior*) could be more focused on provider value rather than consumer value.

Most of the approaches above reflect a preference towards dealing with co-creation before and during the service. The former involves, for instance, new product development (e.g., Ku et al., 2013) or trip arrangement (e.g., Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012). The latter includes intervening, being cooperative, asking questions (Chen et al., 2015), and behaving responsively (Prebensen, Woo, et al., 2013). However, an integrated co-creation view in place marketing would embrace co-creation throughout the whole value creation process, including co-creation after the service. Co-creation in service recovery is, for instance, one of the examples of co-creation after service. In this cases, 'co-creation happens when customers interact with firms or their employees, offering ideas and/or participating in the improvement of the service recovery process that avoids problem recurrence (...) [and] implies dialog and mutual learning' (Vázquez-Casielles, Iglesias, & Varela-Neira, 2017, p. 326). Xu et al. (2014) study 'co-recovery' in a hotel setting.

### IV.4.3. Actors Co-creating Value in Place Marketing

The aim of this section is to identify and synthesize the actors involved in place marketing from a co-creation perspective, and to delimit their contributions and roles, if described. Some studies concentrate on two main actors: consumers/customers (that are frequently tourists and visitors) and service providers (that are frequently tourism suppliers and hospitality businesses) (e.g., Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015; Buhalis & Foerste, 2014; Cabiddu, De Carlo, & Piccoli, 2014; Calver & Page, 2013; Chathoth et al., 2013; Hayslip et al., 2013; Novak & Schwabe, 2009). However, most of documents refer to a multisided perspective, at least mentioning other kind of actors or stakeholders implied and affecting co-creation in the urban context (e.g., Ahn et al., 2016; Barbini & Presutti, 2014; Della Corte, 2012; Klijn et al., 2012; Larson, 2009; Lee et al., 2010; Park & Vargo, 2012). For example, Sigala (2014) contemplates a ‘multistakeholder approach’, and García-Rosell et al. (2007) suggest considering ‘markets as a cultural multi-actor construction’. Besides, (Melis et al. (2015, p. 77) propose “tourism destinations are characterized by a multitude of actors, [independent entities] often very different from each other both for nature and size”. Although concentrating on the supply-side, the authors try to solve the issue of extending the value co-creation theory by adopting a macro-perspective (tourism destination) instead of micro-perspective (single stakeholders), including tourists, public and private firms or organizations, local stakeholders, and DMOs (as coordination organizations in tourism) in the same framework. Nevertheless, in the current section our aim is to determine actors as individuals or groups of individuals, but not analyzing their relationships and connections, because this will be addressed in following sections (service ecosystems, in Section IV.4.7).

Some authors hierarchized the stakeholders regarding the importance on the service exchange. For instance, García et al. (2012) differentiated primary stakeholders, the ones having a regular interaction and strategic significance with the brand equity, and secondary stakeholders, which become important only for specific issues. In the same vein, Hoarau and Kline (2014) highlighted core stakeholders in the context of knowledge absorption from scientists in innovation processes of nature-based businesses: tourists, tour company staff, wildlife, natural environment, and the tour company’s partners and competitors. Groups that impact or are impacted by the tour company but in lesser intensity would be away from the core. Nogueira and Pinho (2015) identify key stakeholders in the *Pereda-Geres National Park*, differentiating six types of stakeholders depending on their relevance due to power, legitimacy and urgency: dormant, discretionary, demanding, dangerous, dependent, and final (definite) stakeholders. In spite of its apparent usefulness, this way of categorizing stakeholders is absolutely context-dependent, because the centrality of some actors in contrast to others completely depends on what the authors want to investigate and on the function of place marketing. For example, if we concentrate on the urban space and considerate place marketing as a way of improving public services, residents and governments will be the focus, while, if analyzing destinations, are tourists who will be on the core, relegating residents to a peripheral position.

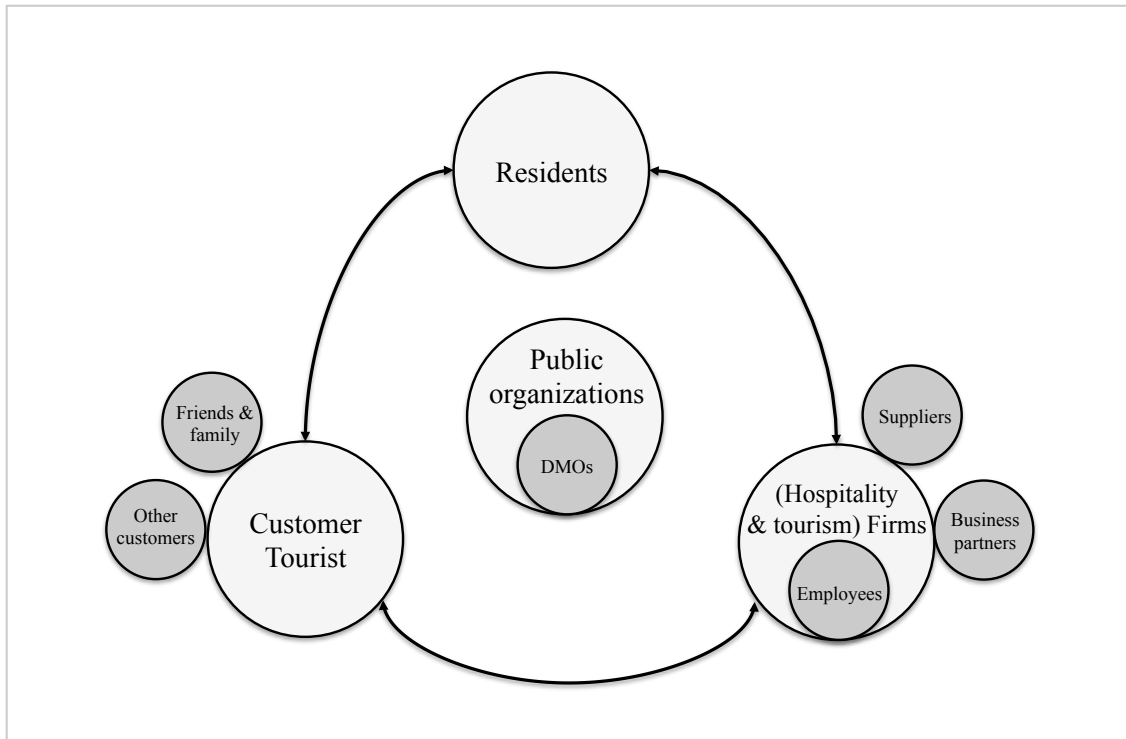
The same occurs when trying to figure out the roles that one or other actor plays. In the literature about co-creation in place marketing, we have found several references to those

roles. For example, Chathoth, Ungson, Harrington, et al. (2014) suggested that in co-production the role of the customer is to choose the best available option (e.g., choosing a pillow or a meal from the producer-predefined variety of products in the hotel service environment). Crowther and Donlan (2011) said that the role of the supplier is to provide experiential interactions and encounters that customers perceive as helping them utilizing their resources. Alternatively, Park and Vargo (2012) argued that the role of the service provider is to participate in the creation of positive experiences with customers by making events and direct or indirect processes. This view recognizes that SDL helps tourism organizations acknowledging the joint roles. The SDL claims that actors do not have predetermined roles, but that all the stakeholders act at the same level (actors with B2B relationships). In this sense, we should remark the authors that emphasize that we are all 'prosumers' or enlightened consumers (Azevedo, 2009); that there is no separation between supply and demand, company and customer, tourist and host (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009); or that firm-customer distinction vanishes, leading to 'actors' (Hoarau & Kline, 2014). But, what do the *roles* relate to? Chen et al. (2015, p. 65) considered the Role Theory in service delivery, arguing "the service provider and the customers are actors on a stage, each party playing his or her role and having expectations towards the other party's role performance". Accordingly, we must distinguish *predetermined roles* from *role clarity*: actors co-creating value in place marketing do not have predetermined roles but they must possess role clarity, that is, they must understand what they are expected to do in the service delivery and how to do it. For instance, the same individual can be a resident and co-create the city brand with its local government, and a tourist when travelling abroad, co-creating his or her experience in the destination. Thus, the individual does not have a predetermined role, because s/he plays the role of resident or tourist depending on the situation, but s/he should be aware of his/her function in each context (co-create place brand or co-create destination experience). Moreover, the same actor can have a multitude of roles (e.g., Della Corte, 2012; Nunes et al., 2014; Shaw et al., 2011). Kavaratzis (2012) describes how existing residents play different roles within the creation of place brands, (i) as integrated part of place brands through their characteristics and behavior, (ii) as ambassadors for their place brand who grant credibility to any communicated message, and (iii) as citizens and voters who are vital for the political legitimization of place branding. In the same vein, Sigala (2012) argued that customers can play three major roles in web 2.0 exploitation for NSD: (i) a resource for identifying and evaluating opportunities and new ideas, (ii) a co-creator for designing and improving new service, or (iii) a co-marketer supporting the adoption and commercialization of new services. In conclusion, "marketplace actors are not considered as individuals with separate and inscribed tasks and roles, but as community members whose tasks and roles are merging, blurring, and dissolving during the course of the marketplace. (...) Marketplace actors are used to play different roles rather than a predefined one" (García-Rosell et al., 2007, pp. 451–454).

The next step will consist on identifying the most cited actors co-creating value in place marketing, according to the literature review. We found: (1) tourists (sometimes regarded as consumers/customers, depending on the context), (2) firms (we will focus on tourism and hospitality organizations), (3) residents, and (4) public organizations, with

special mention to DMOs (Figure IV.11). We will mention other four additional actors: friends and family (around tourists), other consumers (around tourists), employees (around firms), and other providers (around firms).

Figure IV.11 Actors Co-creating Value in Place Marketing



Source: Own elaboration.

#### ***IV.4.3.1) Customers and Tourists***

The customer has been acknowledged as the focal or primary actor in service exchange (e.g., Horbel, 2013), together with the firm. According to SDL, customers' inherent 'role' is to co-create service and the value derived from that service, integrating resources.

In the urban space, when the focus is on place branding or public services' co-creation, residents can be considered customers (e.g., Enquist et al., 2011). However, the denomination of 'customer' and 'consumer' has been predominantly used in the literature when referring to tourists, both in tourism industry and in destinations. In tourism industry, the *customer* and the *consumer* are the most regarded actors. Usually, these denominations are interchangeably used with *tourist*, because the consumer is generally a tourist in hotels, travel agencies, airlines, tour operators, and other tourism services (e.g., Azevedo, 2009; Novak & Schwabe, 2009). The same happens in destinations, where the focus is more on *tourists*, *visitors* or *travellers* (they are not strictly the same) (e.g., Oliveira & Panyik, 2015; Prebensen et al., 2016), although several authors use them in combination with *customer* and *consumer*.

According to what has been said about the role of customers and tourists in the literature review, Chathoth, Ungson, Harrington, et al. (2014) argued that one of the tasks of customers is co-production, which implies, for instance, choosing the best available option from the variety presented by the provider in a hotel context. Nevertheless, customers do not

co-produce, but co-create, as they are not only buyers and payers, but also users of the service (Shaw et al., 2011). Moreover, as reported by Chekalina et al. (2014) in a destination framework, tourists co-create places where tourism experiences may occur. What is more, they can be considered users, co-actors, and resources in the place (Della Corte, 2012), as they are dynamic social actors, interpreting and embodying experiences, whilst also creating meanings and new realities through their actions (Rihova et al., 2015). In fact, Warnaby (2009) considered consumers themselves as a possible producer of the urban place product (together with the tourism industry and governments), arguing that they “create their own unique place product from the variety of services, amenities and other place elements available to them, with the place producer having little direct control over this process” (Warnaby, 2009, p. 409).

Finally, we will refer to two important actors that influence the customer’s co-creation behavior: (1) family and friends (e.g., Baron & Harris, 2010; Park & Vargo, 2012), and (2) other customers or tourists (e.g., Rihova et al., 2015; Yang, 2016). First, relatives and companions are relevant, because customers and tourists co-create value with them before the service exchange (through recommendations and comments), while consuming the place or the service (sharing experiences through ICTs), and after the service (remembering certain moments of the travel). Second, other customers or fellow tourists undoubtedly influence tourism and service experiences on-site. Fakharyan et al. (2014), for instance, quantitatively determined that CCIs, which are a form of co-creation, definitely affect satisfaction with a hotel.

#### ***IV.4.3.2) Firms: Hospitality and Tourism Providers***

Several denominations have been used to refer to firms: companies, organizations, enterprises, suppliers, service providers, etc. The firm is the second focal actor along with the customer, and it is considered almost in every reviewed study, usually from a managerial perspective. Firms are sometimes addressed in conjunction (e.g., Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015); other times managers and employees are distinguished, and one or the other (or both) are used. For example, Calver and Page (2013) refer to managers; Chen et al. (2015) refer to employees; and Hsiao et al. (2015) refer to both, organization (leadership) and employees. Once again, when talking about public services in the city, ‘organizations’ refer to public organizations and governments (e.g., Cassia & Magno, 2009), but here we will concentrate on private entities, and more specifically on businesses within the hospitality and tourism industry, because literature on place marketing predominantly addresses this kind of firms.

In the literature review we can differentiate two approaches when referring to providers. There are authors that refer to specific firms or a specific sector within the tourism industry; while others considerate the bundle of firms provided in a destination. The former involves predominantly accommodation services like hotels; but also includes travel agencies, restaurants, tour operators, or transportation services. The latter adduces to tourism and leisure organizations in general or to specific attractions located in a particular destination.

In reference to their ‘role’, we can summarize the literature content by claiming that service providers (managers and employees) co-create the service with the customer. This is

achieved treating customers as active participants or service coproducers rather than passive recipient or buyers (Chen & Raab, 2017) and providing experiential interactions and encounters that customers perceive as helping them utilize their resources (Crowther & Donlan, 2011). So, from a managerial point of view, we can say that service providers facilitate co-creation with all circles through ICTs (Neuhof et al., 2012), and value propositions (which are also co-created). As previously noted, Warnaby (2009) considered tourism industry the assembler of the various elements in the place product package, and therefore, one of the three producers of the urban place product (along with government and consumers).

Additionally, business partners and suppliers are also interesting to be mentioned, because firms also co-create value propositions with them (e.g., FitzPatrick et al., 2013).

#### ***IV.4.3.3) Residents***

They have been found in 33 studies with different denominations: residents, citizens, local people, or inhabitants. The literature gives them an important place in different place marketing contexts. In the urban space, residents have been acknowledged regarding place branding (7 studies) and public services (5 studies); and in destinations and tourism industry regarding the tourism experience (21 studies).

First, residents are thought to *co-create place brand*. Ahn et al. (2016) identify five brand orientation variables, and demonstrate that four of them load significantly on brand commitment by asking residents of Busan (South Korea) engaged at a certain level to the *MICE City Busan* brand. Those variables are: *brand reality* (strongest predictor), *brand partnership*, *brand culture*, and *brand departmental coordination*. Thus, they showed that residents who adopt city brand values, beliefs and vision, and understand marketing activities of DMOs, are more likely to show brand commitment. Similarly, the results empirically verify the relationship between *brand commitment* and *brand citizenship behavior*, reflecting that the psychological attachment of residents is associated with their acceptance, enthusiasm, and supportive behaviors in developing the city brand, which finally leads to a positive effect on *brand pride*. That is, residents who are willing to adopt the city brand, help others with a better city brand experience, learn more about the city brand, and are more likely to report positive feelings such as brand pride. Taking the co-creation paradigm as a starting point, Hakala and Lemmetyinen (2011) conducted an explorative study among Finnish university students in which they were asked to devise a program for branding Finland. The ‘bottom-up’ findings deepen the understanding of the factors that are the most prevalent in promoting a country, and show how the intelligence of local people can be used to contribute to the branding process. As previously noted, the roles of the stakeholders in place branding are studied by Kavaratzis (2012), who, as well as claiming that the role of residents in place branding is clear and their importance certainly underestimated, identifies three different roles of existing residents within the creation of place brands. These roles can be useful for brand managers, marketers and organizations for the implementation of a participatory place branding strategy (Zenker & Seigis, 2012).

Second, residents are thought to *co-create public services*. For example, Anttiroiko et al. (2014) deepens on effective smart public service platforms that make possible to extend the

collaborative dimension of governance in the form of co-design, co-creation and co-production. Therefore, they suggest that e-enabled platforms may service as engaging platforms that enhance the involvement and participation of citizens, service users, and other stakeholders for the benefit of the whole community and society. From a more organizational point of view, Cassia and Magno (2009) aims to explore the ability of the construct *citizen orientation* to explain the level of co-production within local government. Italian town mayors were asked about the tools they had applied to understand citizens' needs and satisfactions, the communication means, and their citizens' orientation. Findings support both hypotheses: public officials' level of citizens orientation affects positively the intention to implement (i) listening tools needed to allow public services co-production, and (ii) communicating tools needed to allow public services co-production.

Third, residents are thought to *co-create the tourist experience*. Several studies acknowledge that the tourism experience co-creation contains all the people and things that are needed to provide the experience environment, including residents, because tourists interact with them (e.g., Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Park & Vargo, 2012; Tussyadiah, 2014). Their relevance is even more notorious in rural destinations, where local residents need to be part of tourism experiences through provision of knowledge, service, facilities, and local products (Nogueira & Pinho, 2015). In their rural tourist experience, Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, et al. (2012) consider that tourism experience is both co-created and lived by several agents: tourists, the local population and tourism service providers. Thus, they placed local population (i.e., residents) as a basic angle in the model, and therefore 14 residents were qualitatively questioned to assess their perceptions and attitudes regarding tourism in their village (Linhares da Beira, Portugal). Therefore, the authors recognize that many of the core resources that determine the competitiveness of destinations (e.g. culture and hospitality) are deeply rooted and embodied in the host community. They may also play an active role in creating the tourism experience, helping tourists to 'discover' and enjoy a more intense experience of these places: share their knowledge (region's history, culture and natural heritage), or offer opportunities of closer contact with their way of life (e.g. by receiving tourists in their homes) or with local products (e.g. by promoting, selling or letting them taste these products). They are also 'cultural brokers', as they might reduce the distance between the tourists and the destination context, making tourists to overcome barriers and gain access to a broader experience of the rural destination.

#### ***IV.4.3.4) Public Organizations***

Public organizations, generally speaking, are explicitly mentioned in 29 documents of the literature review with multiple names: city authorities/governments/officials, political institution, public bodies/officials/organizations/sector, governmental agencies, (local) government (officials/organizations), politicians, brand governor, etc. 12 studies emphasize public organizations as necessary actors in urban space, regarding place branding processes (e.g., Ahn et al., 2016; Klijn et al., 2012) and public services (e.g., Anttiroiko et al., 2014; Cassia & Magno, 2009). Here governments play an important role in engaging and inviting people (e.g., citizens) to participate in branding processes or public services co-production. The rest refer to public organizations as another actor that should be considered in

destinations (with touristic approach), due to their implication and involvement in cultural projects and festivals (e.g., Åkerlund & Müller, 2012), tourist experiences (e.g., Scott et al., 2009), destination management (e.g., Lindstedt, 2015), or local tourism promotion (e.g., Polese & Minguzzi, 2009). For example, Nogueira and Pinho (2015) identified some relevant public entities within rural tourism in a Portuguese National Park, and categorized them as final (priority) stakeholders, that is, actors or groups of actors that have power, legitimacy and urgency, which shows their relevance in tourism experience co-creation and its management. Additionally, Warnaby (2009) and Warnaby and Medway (2015) identified governments and their agencies as one of the possible 'urban place producers', along with the tourism industry and consumers themselves. So, public organizations can be considered place co-creators.

*Destination Marketing Organizations.* We found interesting to make a special mention to DMOs and similar public entities. The DMO is a body, often publicly funded, which is given responsibility for the overall marketing planning and joint marketing activities within the boundaries of the destination (Morgan et al., 2009). DMOs, and alternatively convention and visitors bureaus (CVBs) and destination managers and planners, have been detected in 23 studies, predominantly in documents dealing with destinations (18 studies). Nevertheless, some authors remark their importance on place branding processes as place brand/sub-brands managers and coordinators (e.g., Ahn et al., 2016; Hanna & Rowley, 2015; Zenker & Erfgen, 2014). For example, Hanna and Rowley (2013) conducted qualitative semi-structured interviews to explore how DMO practitioners manage (significance of image and stakeholder contributions) and evaluate (key objectives, methods and challenges) place brand experience. The results showed the complexity of the place offering and, accordingly, the adoption of a brand management and evaluation approach that places *experience*, rather than *image*, in the center. It was found that practitioners collaborated with stakeholders to deliver a consistent brand experience and adopted a number of experience management strategies, including targeting attention towards key service providers, undertaking familiarization tours and providing stakeholders with consumer feedback.

Nonetheless, literature willingly adopt DMOs as co-creators of destination or tourism experiences, as they are thought to be organizations necessary (i) for the planning, development and promotion of destinations (Horbel, 2013); (ii) for developing tourism strategies that increase the rural destination competitiveness and creating the circumstances and the environment in which the tourist will have a positive experience on-site (Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Peixeira Marques, 2012); (iii) for coordinating organizations in tourism (Melis et al., 2015); or (iv) for representing destinations (Prebensen, Woo, et al., 2013). Yet, studies do not attach much importance to DMOs. As an exception, Line and Runyan (2014), focusing on a resource-based perspective, conducted interviews with DMO managers and executives in order to develop a scale to measure strategically valuable DMO's market-based assets, a multidimensional construct constituted by consumer-, politically-, and industry-based assets. The authors acknowledge a double-viewed concept of DMOs: (i) as marketing organizations, responsible for driving business to the destination, and (ii) as management organizations, providing leadership and direction for the multifaceted tourism system. In this case, DMO's co-creation is connected with their integration of resources in the tourism experience process,



facilitating resource interaction and combination across destination stakeholders. Although lacking control over destination infrastructure (e.g., roads, transportation) and privately owned suppliers' tourism products (e.g., lodging, retail, dining), DMOs are in charge of managing their destination's value proposition through capabilities that allow coordinating operand resources. Those capabilities can be understood as operant resources (market orientation), which combined with other bundles of resources, give rise to strategic marketing assets that can be leveraged to gain competitive advantages in the destination. They include: crafting a differentiable destination image, maintaining positive relationships with customers, facilitating a cooperative environment among the providers of their destination's tourism product, or managing adverse government regulations.

#### **IV.4.4. Resource Integration in Place Marketing**

After an exhaustive analysis of the literature, we can say that there has been little attempt to translate the concept of *resource integration* to place marketing, despite being a fundamental idea for co-creation. This might be due to the difficulty of conceptualizing and operationalizing what we understand as an *internal process*. A considerable number of authors mention resource integration in their conceptual background (e.g., Dougali, Santema, & Van Beelaerts Blokland, 2015; Edvardsson et al., 2013; Warnaby, 2009), and some of them situate consumers as 'resource integrators' (e.g., Baron & Harris, 2010; Morosan, 2018). Specifically, general statements such as "combine user inputs with other types of knowledge acquisition and integrate these in a more comprehensive strategic process" (Hjalager & Nordin, 2011, p. 309) are common.

We found few authors, though, trying to give further specifications about resource integration. Exceptionally, Park and Vargo (2012) and Prebensen (2014) mention that tourists integrate their own operand resources (physical, social, and cultural) to achieve their goals and co-create experience value. In the same vein, Horbel (2013) provides an extended model of value creation through resource integration. The model emphasizes resources, more than integration processes, but his contribution helps to understand that interactions (service exchange) are not necessary for co-creation. To illustrate this idea, he uses natural resources. These are discretionary resources that can be used without the need for service-for-service exchange, and, therefore, exist independently of social and economic actors (they are not in possession of any of the actors). Thus, natural resources and environment, identified as important aspects in tourism field, become resources by integrating them in value co-creation process. Additionally, two other conclusions are: (i) the process includes the integration of other resources, obtained through mutual service provision (market-facing resources, public resources, and private resources), and (ii) knowledge and skills are an essential resource that permit the resource integration process.

So, we can conclude that resource integration involves a wide range of multisource resources, but that there are some operant resources, knowledge and skills, that are fundamental to develop the internal process of integration. However, we still do not know what concrete processes, behaviors and attitudes imply resource integration in a place-marketing context. Actually, there is a direct relationship between *co-creation process* and

*resource integration*, but place-marketing literature has hardly revealed this approach. In contrast, the literature review discloses resources instead of integration processes, which is likewise an important point in value co-creation.

In general, the reviewed place marketing literature distinguishes *operand* and *operant* resources, as SDL does (e.g., Li & Petrick, 2008; Warnaby & Medway, 2015). Similarly, the literature emphasizes the relevant and prevailing role of operant resources in value co-creation (e.g., Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015; Crowther & Donlan, 2011). In fact, operand resources as money and financial resources are incidentally addressed (e.g., Nogueira & Pinho, 2015; Prebensen, Vittersø, et al., 2013). Exceptionally, we found deeper classifications, where not only operand and operant resources are divided, but operant resources are organized in basic operant resources (BORs) and composite operant resources (CORs) (Line & Runyan, 2014). Some authors refer to tangible and intangible resources (e.g., Chekalina et al., 2014; Edvardsson, Ng, et al., 2011).

The literature addressing co-creation in place marketing is rather broad, which makes difficult to reach a consensus about the perspective adopted. For that reason, we have distinguished two perspectives. (1) There are studies focused on the *provider* side, where providers are the actors that obtain and integrate resources -their own resources and someone else's (i.e., consumer, supplier) resources. This perspective is seen, for example, in public service co-production and innovation processes. (2) Nevertheless, most studies focus on the *consumer* and his/her role in resource integration (usually their own resources and provider resources are discussed). This perspective is seen, for example, in destination experiences and tourism services (i.e., hotel experiences) co-creation.

Concerning the former, we found that the literature predominantly considers consumer and provider resources. First, the consumer is considered an operant resource that provides *knowledge* and *information* to the provider in NSD processes (e.g., Tsai, 2017), city brand development (e.g., Ahn et al., 2016), and public service improvement (e.g., Cassia & Magno, 2009). Usually, in the last two cases, the resident is regarded as an operant resource. Therefore, we can affirm, for example, that customer co-creation in the hotel setting, understood as the degree of collaboration of hotel managers with their customer in the idea generation, idea selection, business analysis, service and delivery process development, market test, and market launch, positively affects NSD speed and quality, as well as new service customer and market outcomes (Santos-Vijande et al., 2018). Similarly, *customer's brand citizenship behavior* (indicative of a resident's co-creation degree) has been proved to be a good antecedent of *brand pride* (outcome) (Ahn et al., 2016). Second, operant resources of the provider are also fundamental. For instance, co-creation capacity for knowledge management (Tussyadiah & Zach, 2013) and know how (Hayslip et al., 2013) are investigated often as key resources for co-creation. Thus, the capacity of providers to acquire, assimilate, transform, and exploit customer knowledge improves a DMO's performance (Tussyadiah & Zach, 2013). This perspective consists on exploiting customers and their resources for the provider's circumstances' improvement, which is far from the original intention of the SDL.

Regarding the second perspective, where the consumer is situated in the center of co-creation processes, consumer and provider resources (predominantly operant resources) are also differentiated. Some of the most studied provider resources are: value proposition, market and consumer orientation (e.g., Ordanini & Maglio, 2009), employee capability, and storytelling (e.g., Mathisen, 2014; Mossberg, 2008). Concerning *value propositions*, different authors provide different alternatives for this concept (i.e., value proposition); although it is always considered a bundle of more basic resources (i.e., a composite resource). For instance, Hakala and Lemmetyinen (2011) acknowledge ‘functional’ (core characteristics and infrastructural elements), ‘experiential’ (social and sensory elements), and ‘symbolic’ (brand and meanings) levels. Carrubbo et al. (2012) include elements of ‘attraction’ (heritage, museums, festivals, etc.), ‘services and facilities’ (hotels, dining, transportation, etc.), ‘accessibility’ (roads, airports, custom controls, etc.), and ‘image’ to define destinations. Hsu et al. (2013) argue that a tourism region uses *natural resources* (landscape and monuments) and *operant resources* (culture, history, scenery, and unique capabilities) to create service value propositions. Quantitatively, Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015) describe the *Tourism Experience Proposition (TEP)*, consisting of five factors: natural resources and infrastructure, environment, entertainment, hospitality and information, and welfare. Likewise, *employee customer orientation* (O’Cass & Sok, 2015), the *capacity of the employee to educate the customer* (Wang et al., 2011), or *employee’s positive psychological capital* (Hsiao et al., 2015) are provider resources (employees’ capability) that can be integrated by customers in co-creation processes. On the other hand, among the consumer resources, we found *physical*, *social* and *cultural* resources. Physical resources would include time and effort, (e.g., Chekalina et al., 2014; Konu, 2015; Prebensen, 2014), motivation (e.g., Edvardsson et al., 2013; Prebensen, Woo, et al., 2013), and involvement (e.g., Klijn et al., 2012; Prebensen, 2014). Social resources involve, for instance, family, commercial and social networks (Baron & Harris, 2010). Finally, one of the most relevant resources is knowledge and skills of the consumer, which can be considered a cultural resource. The influence of the latter has been quantitatively measured in the literature with different constructs, such as *knowledge* (Prebensen et al., 2014), *knowledge and interest* (Calver & Page, 2013), and other proxies, like *role-clarity* and *self-efficacy* (Chen et al., 2015). We can draw the conclusion that consumer knowledge and skills significantly influence the perceived value of a trip and customer’s loyalty.

A highly regarded resource is *technology* and specifically ICTs (e.g., Buhalis & Foerste, 2014; Cabiddu et al., 2013). Neuhofer et al. (2012, 2013) conceptually emphasize technology as a source of innovation to co-create enhanced destination experiences. Therefore, we can, as well as distinguishing pre-travel, on-site, and post-travel co-creation processes, appreciate that technology allows improving destination experience in every one of those three stages. First, virtual pre-travel experience co-creation offer opportunities for destinations to use technology to facilitate immersive virtual environments in which they can co-create with tourists and thereby enhance their experiences before their journey commences. Second, on-site destination experience co-creation involves mobile technologies, such as location-based services, that offer instant access to information, videos or recommendation sites relevant to current location. This offers opportunities for destinations

to connect, assist and engage with the tourist in the online environment on-site. Besides, social media sites such as *Twitter* allow tourists to engage with the wider public in real time, share current conditions in the destination and raise particular demands, which destinations can address by co-creating with them virtually. Third, in the post-travel stage, technologies help tourists enhance the experience through recollection and remembering previously undergone travel. Social media plays a critical part in encouraging tourists to interact and share their experiences online: post-sharing their experiences, views, recommendations, and suggestions with likeminded individuals. Lately, the same authors developed a ‘technology-enhanced tourism experience typology matrix’, a two-dimensional matrix with ‘intensification of co-creation’ and ‘intensification of technology’ going from low to high. Based on this matrix, authors qualitatively (Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2014a) show that the higher the tourist’s engagement with technologies and platforms, the the higher the probabilities to encounter richer personal physical experiences. This statement highlights that both, *technology intensity* and *co-creation intensity*, enhance tourist destination experience. Technology is unanimously considered essential in the place marketing literature for co-creation and equally serves as a consumer and provider resource. Quantitatively, however, technology’s effect on co-creation has been hardly investigated. In fact, we found only a work considering technology, and it does contemplating technology as a basic facility that permits the consumer customizing his/her hotel room (Victorino et al., 2005).

#### **IV.4.5. Service Exchange in Place Marketing Co-creation**

According to SDL, *service* is the application of knowledge and competencies for the benefit of another entity and is the basis of an economic and social exchange. Besides, services and goods are types of products that embody or transfer knowledge and skills in the service process (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). But, how has service exchange been addressed in place marketing? How does the literature in the urban context understand this idea? Does it follow the premises of service exchange described by SDL? In other words, what is *service* and *service exchange* in co-created place marketing? We are going to analyze two sides of service exchange: (1) service, which is the basis of economic exchange, and (2) service exchange, understood as the interactions between actors.

##### ***IV.4.5.1) Service: Basis of Economic Exchange***

In our literature review, multiple authors mention *service* and *service exchange* in their theoretical backgrounds in accordance with SDL. They describe *service* as the fundamental basis of economic exchange (Horbel, 2013), situating service as the common denominator, and not as a special form of exchange (Dougali et al., 2015). This means that there should be a shift from offering goods and services to *service* (Israeli, 2014), because goods and services are viewed as vehicles for service provision (Edvardsson, Ng, et al., 2011). The latter leads to managerial challenges like the one proposed by Melis et al. (2015, p. 79): “the attention of the business entity that wants to create value must not be focused on the product”. Edvardsson, Ng, et al. (2011, p. 544) explain “the mindset in thinking about goods is to develop and manufacture them, and then sell them. The change when thinking about service is how to fulfill a customer need through a service process, (...) [which]

requires a dynamic and optimal configuration of resources.” The idea of not focusing on the tangible product defended by the service exchange has been sometimes mixed up with some supply-sided suggestions laying out a movement from goods to services and then to experiences (e.g., Jernsand et al., 2015; Morgan et al., 2009; Suntikul & Jachna, 2016). This is not more than a new way of focusing on the vehicle of service provision instead of in the essential service.

*Service* has been defined as “the application of resources linked to competencies (knowledge and skills) for the benefit of the customer” Edvardsson, Ng, et al. (2011, p. 541), or, in greater depth, as the application of operant resources to operand resources for the benefit of (and in conjunction with) another entity as part of an exchange process (Enquist et al., 2011). However, in the majority of the revised studies authors consider and refer to specific products and services. Some refer to *service* appropriately (following SDL premises) and then analyze a concrete service to conduct empirical hypotheses. For instance, Chen et al. (2015) did it in a restaurant setting and Enquist et al. (2011) preferred the public transportation. Some of the denominations found in the literature are: tourism products and services (e.g., Buhalis & Foerste, 2015; Dougali et al., 2015; Frochot & Batat, 2013), destination products and services (e.g., Chathoth, Ungson, Harrington, et al., 2014; Della Corte, 2012), service product/offering (e.g., Chen & Raab, 2017), and tourism offers (e.g., De Carlo, 2015). Additionally, expressions like product development (e.g., De Carlo, 2015; García-Rosell et al., 2007; Jensen & Prebensen, 2015; Ku et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2010), service transaction (e.g., Israeli, 2014), and service delivery (e.g., Hsieh & Yuan, 2011; Xie et al., 2014) are commonly regarded, expressions that do not reflect the real character of service exchange, but stagnating interpretations of the concept.

Concerning our last question, we want to know what is service in the co-created place marketing literature. We have first, authors that focus on public services (within the urban space context), both referring to them in general (Anttiroiko et al., 2014; Cassia & Magno, 2009; Osborne et al., 2013), or alluding public transport (Edvardsson et al., 2013; Enquist et al., 2011; Nunes et al., 2014; Pareigis, Edvardsson, & Enquist, 2011). Second, we have a wide amount of studies centered on specific tourism services (within the tourism industry context). According to Chathoth, Ungson, Altinay, et al. (2014), hotels are considered the core element of the tourism experience infrastructure; so, it is easy to understand the predominance of hospitality services in the literature of co-created place marketing (e.g., Azevedo, 2009; Cabiddu et al., 2014; Chathoth et al., 2013; Fakharyan et al., 2014). There are also restaurant (e.g., Baron et al., 2010; Chen & Raab, 2017), travel agency (Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Heinonen & Strandvik, 2009), tour (Hoarau & Kline, 2014) and travel services (i.e., mobility sector as buses, trains, and planes, and boats, including cruise ships (Brejla & Gilbert, 2014; Prideaux, 2014). Third, and finally, in destinations, service and service exchange is much more complex to delimit, due to the large amount of factors, services and exchanges that affect the final destination experience. Nevertheless, some reviewed authors try to illustrate destinations, by describing a global ‘tourism product’. For instance, Carrubbo et al. (2012) understand tourism destination as “a location that offers multiple services which enable tourists to visit local attractions” (Carrubbo et al., 2012, p. 1462), and define the destination offer as “a set, more or less articulated, of tourism

opportunities and experiences, definable and recognizable as a whole” (Carrubbo et al., 2012, p. 1464). These definitions situate the reader on the offer side, emphasizing destination management and the promotion and organization of resources in a specific area. Those resources or products consist of (i) elements of attraction in destination and transit areas, whether natural manmade (heritage), cultural (museums, theatres, festivals), or social (local living, socializing opportunities); (ii) services and facilities in the destination and transit areas (hotels, dining, sports, transportation, other services and facilities); (iii) access to target elements (road, rail, airports and seaways, type of vehicle, transportation system schedules, customs control); and (iv) the image of the destination, which often influences the image of each single organization operating on that specific territory. Regarding the latter, Oliveira and Panyik (2015, p. 59) likewise claim that “every country, city and region offers a certain package of tourism products, some integrated into a destination brand, others only communicated through promotional material”. Warnaby (2009) and Warnaby and Medway (2015) present wide-ranging debates about the nature of places and the levels of urban place marketing, distinguishing the nuclear product (place as a whole) and contributory elements (place as the specific services, facilities, and attributes at the place). Alternatively, Horbel (2013) involves four dimensions in the tourism phenomenon model: (i) natural resources, (ii) built environment, (iii) operating sectors, and (iv) organizations necessary to plan, develop and promote destinations. Other authors (e.g., Della Corte, 2012; García-Rosell et al., 2007) defend another range of components: physical plant, service, hospitality, freedom of choice, and tourist involvement in the service process. The latter may be considered more complete, because introduces the tourism as an important part of the destination experience, instead of considering a mere amalgam or ‘package’ of tourists products (Morgan et al., 2009; Neuhofer et al., 2012; Sigala & Chalkiti, 2015; van Riel et al., 2013). In fact, Della Corte (2012) acknowledges the demand perspective (as an early literature contribution), recognizing that the ‘tourism product’ is the result of implicit and explicit needs that guide customer choices. Later in the chapter, she proposes the overlapping perspective: a vision sharing the idea that the firm specific products and services have to meet the global product perceived by the tourist.

Nevertheless, a handful of studies in the literature adopt a closer approach to the service exchange concept presented by Vargo and Lusch (2004), translating *service* to place marketing in a more strict way. Hayslip et al. (2013), trying to demonstrate the applicability of the SDL FPs as potential value drivers in the tourism experience, appreciated that service tourism is very complex. This complexity lies on the combination of goods, money and different institutions, which are difficult to manage during consumer-provider interactions. In these regards, all of the interviewees (hotel directors) considered the services in tourism to be complicated; two of them specifically stated that the presence of different organizations in the tourism process contributed to the complexity of the service, but that is considerably insufficient. Additionally, they argue that physical goods/things that are used/consumed by tourist while on vacation (rental cars, hotel rooms, souvenirs, etc.) generate value for the consumer because of the service they provide: rental cars provide transportation, hotel rooms shelter, and souvenirs memorabilia. In the same vein, Park and Vargo (2012, p. 235) give an example of the service and service exchange SDL premises in the hotel context, saying that:

“hotel room features are activities undoubtedly important, but tourists do not pay for the physicality of them but for the temporary use of the service they render (accommodation), and value (comfort, convenience, relaxation, self-image, socialization, etc.) is determined by the tourist depending on the situation”. Finally, concerning service exchange, Horbel (2013) develops the idea of ‘service is exchanged for service’ in a mountain biking tour framework, which implies the service provider applying its skills and knowledge for the benefit of the tour participant, enabling the operator making a value proposition. The customer would provide his/her service indirectly through money and social interactions.

#### ***IV.4.5.2) Service Exchange: Interactions***

Place marketing literature acknowledges that value co-creation and resource integration will inevitably be the result of interaction and relationships (e.g., Warnaby, 2009). Thus, value will be co-created through interactions (Hayslip et al., 2013). For instance, Prebensen (2014, p. 158) states that “in addition to involvement and participation, co-creating experiences during a vacation includes interaction with other people and with products and services in various servicescapes”. Other authors also defend this idea (e.g., Neuhofer et al., 2014a; Prebensen & Foss, 2011).

In the review we have detected a pattern towards mentioning interactions in a network setting, understanding that network-structures facilitate interactions between actors (e.g., Åkerlund & Müller, 2012; Albrecht, 2013). For instance, Chathoth, Ungson, Harrington, et al. (2014) explain that tourists-destination interactions (interactions of tourists with travel agents, tour operators, travel guides, etc.) at the micro-level lead to a macro level destination orientation in co-creating the visitor/tourism experience.

Additionally, interactions represent other important ideas in value co-creation, as communication (e.g., Aitken & Campelo, 2011), dialogue, and collaboration (e.g., Buhalis & Foerste, 2015). According to Melis et al. (2015), there are some elements that encourage interactions. These are: a context of interactions, formal and informal relationships, an engagement platform, an experience mind-set, continuous dialogue, access to information, transparency, and the evaluation of benefits and costs.

Another repeated idea is that interactions are relevant to access very different kind of resources. Thus, interactions are viewed as mechanisms for changing the entities’ access rights to resources (Carrubbo et al., 2012).

Two major tools are described in place marketing literature as facilitators of interactions: *engagement platforms* and *online social networks*. Regarding the latter, a wide-ranging of actors can be involved in virtual social interactions (e.g., Horbel, 2013; Neuhofer et al., 2014a; Nusair et al., 2013). However, if we focus on engagement platforms, we detect that they are under provider’s control, and therefore, profoundly imbued with the GDL-grounded ‘marketing to’ philosophy (e.g., Neuhofer et al., 2013). For example, Crowther and Donlan (2011) refer to live events as value creation spaces and organization engagement platforms.

Finally, although Vargo and Lusch (2016) emphasize the importance of acknowledging a multisided perspective in value co-creation, the interactions between the

consumer and the provider remain being predominant. Therefore, we found several authors in the literature review dealing with the interactions between these two actors (e.g., Carrubbo et al., 2012; Chen & Raab, 2017; Della Corte, 2012; Heinonen & Strandvik, 2009; Ordanini & Maglio, 2009), or alternatively between the consumer and the employee (e.g., Harris, 2012; Hsiao et al., 2015; Huebner, 2011). In these cases the underlying interaction (i.e., consumer-provider) is the same, because the employee represents the provider to a great extent. In some cases the approach is even more limited, regarding only interactions between providers (suppliers) (e.g., Hsieh & Yuan, 2011; Scott & Cooper, 2010). For that reason, we want to emphasize the effort made by some studies to include other type of interactions, as CCIs (e.g., Baron & Harris, 2010; Brejla & Gilbert, 2014; Nicholls, 2011), and interactions between tourists and residents (e.g., Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Peixeira Marques, 2012). Nevertheless, a complete view of value co-creation would include service exchanges (understood as interactions) between all the actors involved in the place-marketing context. For instance, co-creation in tourism is influenced by interaction with employees, fellow travellers, new acquaintances, etc. (Horbel, 2013). Fyrberg and Jürriado (2009), in turn, include in their model customers, providers, and brand governor, describing their external and internal interactions (also differentiated by Warnaby (2009)) to co-create meanings, develop value propositions, and exchange meaning and experiences.

If concentrating on empirical quantitative studies, we advertise that some authors address co-creation as interactions. For instance, Fakharyan et al. (2014) measure the effect of CCI on customer satisfaction with hotels; Nusair et al. (2013) focus on social interactions in a travel-related online social network context; and Yang (2016) centers on the influence of tourist-to-tourists interactions on the destination image co-creation. However, based on SDL, this is a rather limited view of co-creation, because co-creation is thought to be revealed through interactions between urban actors, but also through behaviors and attitudes with oneself (no interactions).

Table IV.6 collects quantitative studies of the literature review and shows the extent to which co-creation is addressed regarding *interactions* and *no-interactions*. We provide (a) the central actor or resource integrator of the co-creation process, and then we indicate (b) if the study considers no-interactional behaviors, and (c) if the study considers interactional behaviors with another actor (i.e., interaction with the consumer, provider, employee, friends and family, other consumers).



Table IV.6 *Interactions and No-interactions* in Quantitative Literature Review (n=39)

Reference	Resource integrator	No-interaction	Interaction (with)							
			C	P	E	F&F	OC	R	PO	OP
Ahn et al. (2016)	R	X				X			X	
Azevedo (2009)	C	X								
Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015)	C	X								
Calver and Page (2013)	C	X		X						
Cassia and Magno (2009)	PO							X		
Cevdet Altunel and Erkut (2015)	C	X								
Chekalina et al. (2014)	C	X								
Chen and Raab (2017)	C	X			X	X				
Chen et al. (2015)	C	X			X	X				
Dijkmans et al. (2015)	C	X		X						
Edvardsson et al. (2013)	P*		X							
Fakharyan et al. (2014)	C						X			
García et al. (2012)	PO*		X					X		
Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012)	C	X								
Heinonen and Strandvik (2009)	C			X						
Hsiao et al. (2015)	C	X			X	X	X			
Klijn et al. (2012)	PO		X					X		
Ku et al. (2013)	P		X							
Mohd-Any et al. (2015)	C	X		X						

Morosan (2018)	C	X		X					
Nusair et al. (2013)	C					X			
O’Cass and Sok (2015)	C			X	X				
Prebensen et al. (2016)	C	X		X					
Prebensen, Vittersø, et al. (2013)	C	X		X	X		X		
Prebensen et al. (2014)	C	X							
Prebensen, Woo, et al. (2013)	C	X							
Rodríguez et al. (2011)	P			X	X				
Santos-Vijande et al. (2018)	P			X					
Seljeseth and Korneliussen (2015)	P*			X					
Sigala and Chalkiti (2015)	E	X							
Suntikul and Jachna (2016)	C	X					X	X	
Tsai (2017)	P			X	X				X
Tussyadiah and Zach (2013)	PO	X		X	X				
Victorino et al. (2005)	P*	X							
Wang et al. (2011)	P*			X					
Xie et al. (2014)	E	X		X		X			
Xu et al. (2014)	P*			X					
Yang (2016)	C						X		
Zenker and Seigis (2012)	PO*							X	

Note: C=consumer; P=provider; E=employee; F&F=friends and family; OC=other consumers; R=resident; PO=public organizations; OP=other provider.

\*: We consider that the resource integrators are providers or public organizations because they begin the process, but consumers’ engagement is also essential.

Source: Own elaboration.

In Table IV.6 we can appreciate that co-creation is usually understood as a process where the consumer is the resource integrator or central actor (in 22 studies out of 39 quantitative studies), and he/she has *no-interaction* behaviors (17 studies out of 22) and *interactions* with providers (8 studies), employees (5 studies), other consumers (5 studies), friends and family (4 studies) or local people (1 study). For example, Hsiao et al. (2015) adopt a quite exhaustive perspective. From their point of view, customer co-creation includes no-interactions (the customer searching for information on where the service is located), interactions with service employees (give the employee the proper information), interactions with friends and family (encourage friends and relatives to use the service), and interactions with other customers (help other customers if they seem to have problems). Similarly, Prebensen, Vittersø, et al. (2013) contemplate in co-creation no-interactive resources (tourist involvement, time, effort, and money), as well as interactions with other consumers (presence of other guests), employees (when having a problem employees are sympathetic and reassuring), and providers in general (the attraction informs customers when services will be performed). Other revised studies have focused on co-creation as non-interactive behaviors. For instance, Grisseemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012) consider customer co-creation of tourism services as being actively involved in the packaging of the trip.

Another perspective considers the provider as the resource integrator (in 9 studies out of 39). Among these studies, some address non-interactive co-creation processes (1 study); however, interactional behaviors are considered. These interactions are carried out with consumers (8 studies), employees (2 studies) and other providers (1 study). In these cases, studies measure, for instance: the providers' cooperation with customers regarding product innovation (Ku et al., 2013), the importance attached to employees' and customers' participation for developing new services in hotels (Rodríguez et al., 2011), the degree of collaboration of hotel managers with their customer in the stages of NSD (Santos-Vijande et al., 2018), or the providers' instrument development to measure brand personality of tourists (Seljeseth & Korneliussen, 2015).

In a lesser extent, co-creation is tackled from a resident-public organization interaction view. Usually public service co-production is examined (Cassia & Magno, 2009). Sometimes residents' role in city brand value is contemplated (Ahn et al., 2016; Klijn et al., 2012). Co-creation is also mentioned regarding the different depth of participation of citizens in a large-scale project development (i.e., 'binding or not binding character of the participation outcome', an 'open or closed question type during participation', and 'a single or repeated possibility of participation') (Zenker & Seigis, 2012).

Therefore, if considering both perspectives, consumer-provider interactions are, by far, the most regarded interactions in quantitative literature (16 studies). Sometimes this co-creation view is dyadically considered, that is, there is no other actor involved in the co-creation process (e.g., Dijkmans et al., 2015; Mohd-Any et al., 2015; Morosan, 2018; Prebensen et al., 2016; Santos-Vijande et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2014).

The prior statement and other evidences can be seen in Figure IV.12, where we have drawn a network-shaped resume of the interactions and no-interactions measured in the quantitative literature of place marketing. We have assembled data from Table IV.6 and built

Table IV.7. Table IV.7 shows the number of ‘no-interactions’ and ‘interactions’ acknowledged in the quantitative literature review among the different actors. For instance, we found 22 studies (56%) where the consumer perspective is adopted quantitatively (i.e., the consumer is considered the resource integrator or co-creator). Besides, 17 of those studies acknowledge no-interactive behaviors. In addition, 8 studies consider that co-creation implies consumers integrating resources interacting at least with the provider. Likewise, other 8 studies consider that co-creation implies providers integrating resources at least through interactions with the consumer. Both numbers are complementary because although from different perspectives, we can say that 16 studies consider that co-creation implies consumer-provider interactions. This is the reason of being marked (with a ‘+’). The same happens between residents and public organizations (marked with an ‘\*’): we suggest that 5 studies consider that co-creation in place marketing implies resident-public organization interactions, regardless of who is considered the central actor. It also occurs in provider-employee relationship (marked with an ‘!’). Figure IV.12 is built based on Table IV.7. The size of each actor is proportional to the number of studies considering as the central actor (resource integrator). The width of the intermittent annulus around each actor is proportional to the number of studies considering his/her no-interactions (internal processes) in co-creation measurements. The thickness of the connectors between the actors is proportional to the total number of studies that consider that specific interaction in co-creation measurements.

Table IV.7 Number of *No-interactions* and *Interactions* Considered in the Quantitative Literature Review (n=39)

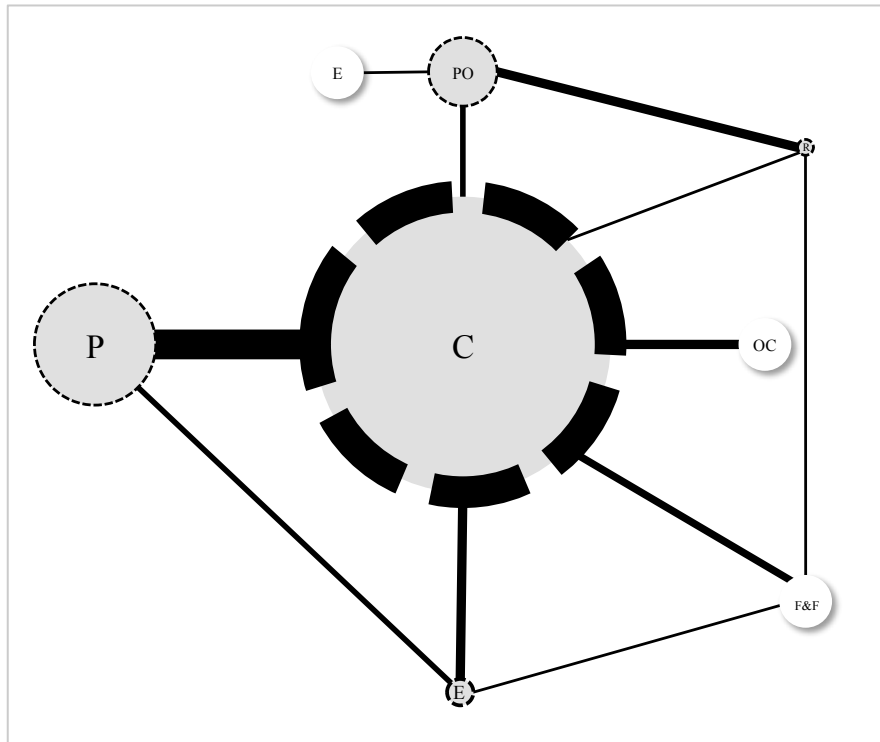
Resource integrator	#	%	No interaction	F&F	PO	P	R	C	E	OC	OP
R	1	3%	1	1	1*	0		0	0	0	0
C	22	56%	17	6	0	8+	1		5	5	0
PO	5	13%	1	0		0	4*	3	1	0	0
P	9	23%	1	0	0		0	8+	2!	0	1
E	2	5%	2	1	0	1!	0	0		0	0
Total	39	100%	22	6	1	8	5	10	8	5	1

Note: C=consumer; P=provider; E=employee; F&F=friends and family; OC=other consumers; R=resident; PO=public organizations; OP=other provider.

Source: Own elaboration.

We can observe that place marketing literature considers co-creation predominantly from a consumer’s point of view, which attends to SDL propositions. However, we find the providers’ size too big (too many studies worried about the provider’s perspective). What is more, we think that the emphasis given to consumer-provider interactions to measure co-creation is excessively high. On the contrary, interactions with other urban actors should be considered more frequently when measuring co-creation, as the consumer-provider dyadic relationship shows a rather GDL approach. No-interactions in the consumer sphere have again great relevance in the quantitative literature. This demonstrates the attempt to adopt a complete scope in place marketing co-creation.

Figure IV.12 Network-Shaped *Non-Interactive* and *Interactive* Co-creation Behaviors Considered in Quantitative Literature Review (n=39)



Source: Own elaboration.

#### IV.4.6. Place Marketing Institutions

In their last work, Vargo and Lusch (2016) delved into the role of ‘institutions’ in the new SD logic, giving them an important position in value co-creation. But what is the relevance given to those institutions in the literature review about value co-creation in place marketing?

Institutions (not ‘organizations’) are “humanly devised rules, norms, and beliefs that enable and constrain action and make social life predictable and meaningful. (...) Institutions (...) can be formal codified laws, informal social norms, conventions, such as conceptual and symbolic meanings, or any other routinized rubric that provides a shortcut to cognition, communication, and judgment” (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 11). In a higher order, institutional arrangements (also called institutional logics) are the set of interrelated institutions. In this article, institutions are believed to play a central role in value cocreation and service exchange – ‘activities’ or ‘processes’ performed under time and cognitive constraints. In fact, when shared by actors, institutions result in a network effect, with potential coordination benefit. Therefore, they are both, ‘institutions’ and ‘institutional arrangements’, together with ‘institutionalization’, key to understand the structure and functioning of service ecosystems (Vargo & Lusch, 2016).

Although historically addressed in other areas (e.g., sociology, economics, and politics), institutions are an underdeveloped concept in the SDL perspective. For that reason, its absence in place marketing is understandable. Some studies have explicitly mentioned

institutions within their theoretical development of SDL, usually as part of the network discourse (e.g., Enquist et al., 2011; García-Rosell et al., 2007; Melis et al., 2015; Park & Vargo, 2012). In few studies, institutions are explicitly cited in connection to the place: Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) acknowledge institutions (laws, regulations, organizations, etc.) as place identity elements; Li (2013) included ‘set of institutions’ in his definition of destinations as networks; and Warnaby, 2009 (p. 411) placed “cities as a market, where the urban place and its institutions become a forum in which the various urban stakeholders can communicate”. A step further, Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, et al. (2012) incorporated the institutional framework in their rural tourist experience model, although they do not go in depth in its conceptualization.

Even though not explicitly connected to institutions, in the literature review we have detected several referrals to similar ideas. To recognize and extract those ideas, it is necessary to go over the specific meaning of institutions and institutional arrangements. We extracted from Vargo and Lusch (2016) the notions of what constitute institutions. The following were found: ‘social order and structures’ (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 12); ‘legitimacy’, defined as the subjective belief in the authority of a rule or normative structure (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 12, in Hinings and Tolbert (2008)); ‘rule setting and sanctioning activities’, ‘values and norms’, and ‘constitution and interpretation of frames’ through which meanings are interpreted (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 13, in Scott (2008)); ‘customs, traditions, norms and religion’ (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 14); ‘informal constraints’ (sanctions, taboos, customs, and traditions) and ‘formal rules’ (constitutions, laws, and property rights) (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 14, in North (1990)); ‘laws and public policy’ (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 15); ‘explicit versus normative contracts’ and ‘cooperative norms’, such as flexibility, solidarity, mutuality, harmonizing of conflict, and restrain in the use of power (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 16, in Cannon, Achrol, & Gundlach (2000)).

In our literature review, we found that multiple authors comment on *culture* as a facilitator of dialogue, interaction and cooperation, and thus, as an interesting institution to be investigated and taken into account in place marketing and branding (e.g., Ahn et al., 2016; Aitken & Campelo, 2011; Åkerlund & Müller, 2012; Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Chathoth, Ungson, Altinay, et al., 2014; Huebner, 2011). For example, Nicholls (2011, p. 212) defined culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from another”, and emphasized its relevance in value co-creation between customers, studying CCI in cross-cultural context and revealing the potential incidents that can happen, in order to avoid or enhance them. Besides, culture is about vision, beliefs, and values, and, as denoted by Fyrberg and Jürjado (2009, p. 422), “cultural rules create brand meanings”, which is useful to construct identities, also place identities. Following Kavaratzis (2012), culture, together with rights, roles, and responsibilities, form the pillars of co-created place branding, because emphasize their creation, development and ownership (also in Aitken and Campelo (2011)).

Other basic institutions are suggested in the literature; for instance, *language*, *technology*, and *social norms* (e.g., Carrubbo et al., 2012; Melis et al., 2015). Technology is usually considered by the SDL as a resource, but it must be acknowledged that it likewise fits

the description of institutions: it facilitates communication and connection between actors, and, therefore, co-creation. According to social norms, Rihova et al. (2015, p. 361) argued “C2C [customer-to-customer] co-creation in social practices is guided by the ways in which tourists interpret and negotiate the socially constructed shared images and social (rule and norm) structures pertaining to specific consumption contexts in which practices are performed”. When holiday, tourists may find themselves in special temporal and spatial dimensions, subject to social structures that are different from those of everyday life. In fact, service customers must have basic knowledge about, not only their mandatory responsibilities in producing the service and the service system’s procedures, but also about the social norms guiding appropriate behavior in a specific setting (Chen et al., 2015). For that reason, providing them help and information is vital to be able to combat that lack of personal resources. With another significance, Melis et al. (2015) recognized social norms (together with communication, interlocking directorates, common staff, planning control systems, incentive and selection systems and information systems) as one of the agreed lines in which stakeholders can act within a network where DMOs facilitate formal institutional collaboration.

Usually, rights, roles and responsibilities are related to *power*, which is another institution that has been widely regarded in the documents dealing with co-creation in place marketing (e.g., Åkerlund & Müller, 2012; Hamilton & Alexander, 2013; Scott & Cooper, 2010). Specifically, power was considered in terms of influence to co-create in sustainable tourism networks (Albrecht, 2013). Fyrberg and Jürriado (2009) supported that power relations are critical elements in maintaining workable relationships in networks as a form of governance, which leads us to other institution types: *administration rules*, *governance mechanisms* (Morosan, 2018), and *government policies* (Hsu et al., 2013), all of them claimed to make co-creation possible.

Additionally, we detected *trust* as another broadly discussed institution, a factor or an antecedent of co-creation (e.g., Albrecht, 2013; Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015; Dijkmans et al., 2015; Enquist et al., 2011; Hoarau & Kline, 2014; Ku et al., 2013; Le Dinh & Thi, 2010; Morosan, 2018; Mossberg, 2007; Nogueira & Pinho, 2015; Nusair et al., 2013).

Finally, although in a lesser extent, we have also identified *contracts* as important institutions in place marketing co-creation. These have been addressed between businesses (B2B relationships) pertaining to the same network (Enquist et al., 2011), and also between the client and travel agencies (Le Dinh & Thi, 2010). Contracts specify agreements, reduce uncertainty and risk, serve as a communication tool, and provide regulations in service level.

#### **IV.4.7. Service Ecosystems in Place Marketing**

Co-creation of value has been originally described as a process implying multiple actors. Even though the dyadic view (micro perspective) has been predominantly studied, Vargo and Lusch (2016) emphasize the need of considering also meso and macro levels. Specifically, SDL refers to service ecosystems formed by actors.

Place marketing context, and particularly tourism, is a suitable framework to address service ecosystems and visualize the relational nature of co-creation under these structures.

The creation of the travel experience requires joint action of diverse parties (e.g., accommodation, transportation, food services, recreational activities, cultural attractions), and these services are embedded in the natural resources and the infrastructure of the destination. Likewise, other factors (e.g., weather, other tourists) also influence travel experience. Thus, the tourist must combine a lot of diverse resources and interact with many partners in order to co-create his/her travel experience (Horbel, 2013).

Although there are some exceptions in the place marketing literature mentioning ecosystems (Carrubbo et al., 2012; Horbel, 2013), we have detected a preference towards another similar concept: *networks* (Albrecht, 2013; Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015; Fyrberg & Jürriado, 2009; Li & Petrick, 2008), which, in contrast to the term ‘service ecosystem’, lack a dynamic and changeable character. Nevertheless, we consider networks an acceptable approach, as they enable understanding the most important co-creation premises according to SDL: (1) the cooperation between actors to create value (e.g., Hsieh & Yuan, 2011; Melis et al., 2015), (2) the underlying structure that makes possible interactions to obtain resources (e.g., Carrubbo et al., 2012; Nogueira & Pinho, 2015), and (3) knowledge sharing and constant learning (e.g., Hoarau & Kline, 2014; Li & Petrick, 2008). First, co-creation implicitly involves interactions between actors, where value is no longer generated by a single party to be then delivered to another party, but co-created cooperatively. Several authors in the literature review address networks as tools that promote joint action (Albrecht, 2013), and a representation of many-to-many relationship, in which value co-creation is not limited to the supplier and customer, but involves an entire network of stakeholders (Cabiddu et al., 2013). Second, service exchanges established inside the network facilitate the access of actors to resources from diverse parties. For instance, in a social network analysis of a rural tourism network, information, financial, administrative, and human resources, as well as training, are the resources that are found to lead more connections (Nogueira & Pinho, 2015). Third, network relationships provide a source of innovation and knowledge (Kandampully, Zhang, & Bilgihan, 2015), which in a long-term can develop into social capital (Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Peixeira Marques, 2012). A well-analyzed source of knowledge sharing is online networks (e.g., Nusair et al., 2013; Wei et al., 2013).

Often, networks in place marketing literature have been approached from the provider’s side, referring to formal and informal collaborations, partnerships, strategic alliances, coalitions or cooperative agreements (e.g., Albrecht, 2013; Lemmetyinen & Go, 2010). Similarly, some authors describe tourism network as an immense group of heterogeneous providers: travel intermediaries, accommodation providers, heritage sites, political bodies, and event organizers, that need to consider becoming part of an structured network in order to share complementary resources and offer a better overall service (e.g., Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Carrubbo et al., 2012; Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Peixeira Marques, 2012). Some of the methodologies and perspectives used to analyse these networks are the ‘Viable System Approach’ (VSA), which allows qualifying a certain Local Tourism Area as a ‘Local Tourism Service System’ (Piciocchi, Siano, Confetto, & Paduano, 2011), and the ‘Network Analysis’ (NA), which provides insights as to how a destination network can become more efficient in terms of linkages and coordination (Scott & Cooper, 2010). In



those cases, the need to recognize and legitimize a coordinator of the network has been underlined (e.g., Polese & Minguzzi, 2009). Specifically, DMOs might take a more proactive role in driving the relationships within the network and generate systematic and on-going feedback about their work from stakeholders involved (Melis et al., 2015). This view of networks are useful to understand a ‘total tourism product’ combining natural, cultural, social, and service aspects of a destination, but is far from the SDL proposition, where the consumer is a central part of those networks. A useful contribution is the one made by Sfandla and Björk (2013), who adapt the so-called ARA (Actors, Resources, and Activities) model, traditionally an industrial network paradigm, to establish new relationships and extend the meaning of actors to include consumers/tourists. Thus, their ‘Tourist Experience Network’ (TEN) proposition contemplates tourists as active agents in networks, and not just as actors integrated in the network under control. Therefore, we cannot forget that consumers are part of social, commercial and family networks (Baron & Harris, 2010) and that in tourism (and place marketing in general) the tourist creates his/her own tourist experience by interacting with many enterprises, institutions, and people, thus initiating (more or less deliberately) a network of subjects that influences that experience (Barbini & Presutti, 2014). In contrast to provider networks, these are unplanned networks. Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015) distinguish provider and tourist networks in their model. However, we can consider both networks part of a bigger, single, holistic and connected network of actors (service ecosystem).

We have equally found references to ‘service systems’ (Edvardsson et al., 2013; Le Dinh & Thi, 2010), ‘service constellations’ (van Riel et al., 2013), and to more GDL-grounded supply chains (Dougali et al., 2015) The latter is challenged by some authors that propose moving from the ‘Experience Supply Chain’ (ESC) to a ‘Tourist Experience Network’ (TEN) (Melis et al., 2015; Sfandla & Björk, 2013). This change discusses the linear relationship and the notion of added value and value-in-exchange, acknowledging that all actors in these networks are in interactive relational processes co-creating tourism experiences due to the vertical and horizontal movements of value (Sfandla & Björk, 2013).

Conceptual and qualitative works in the reviewed literature widely adopt and discuss the systemic approach proposed by the SDL. However, we consider of great relevance to analyze the contribution of empirical quantitative studies regarding this systemic approach, as they can reveal a more evidence-based assessment of the advances made in the area. In this sense, the quantitative studies (39 studies) fail to make operative the SDL systemic approach. Most papers mention several actors, but as it is usual in quantitative works, a single source of information is used (84.62%), usually the consumer (in 24 out of the 33 studies asking to a single actor). The consumer is predominantly asked about him/herself (motivation, involvement, participation, knowledge, etc.) (e.g., Prebensen, Vittersø, et al., 2013) or the perceived value (e.g., Calver & Page, 2013). He/She is also frequently asked about the provider service, for instance, about the tourist experience proposition (Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015), the experience quality (Cevdet Altunel & Erkut, 2015) destination resources (Chekalina et al., 2014), or servicescape (Chen et al., 2015). At least extent, the consumer answers about his/her interactions with the provider (e.g., Prebensen et al., 2016) and with other consumers and relatives (e.g., Yang, 2016). When more than one actor is involved, the

studies show the same pattern: consumers' information is completed with that from providers (e.g., Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012) and/or employees (e.g., Hsiao et al., 2015), and in a lesser extent with that of residents' (e.g., García et al., 2012). Therefore, a dyadic, GDL approach, is common.

#### **IV.4.8. Outcomes of Co-creation in Place Marketing**

Although Vargo and Lusch (2016) did not talk about 'outcomes', and they instead refer to 'processes', we wanted to include a section in this thematic analysis that would allow the identification of co-creation 'functions'. That is, we want to solve the following question: What is co-created in place marketing? Apart from value (inherently co-created), we found predominantly three answers to our issue. In place marketing (1) Experiences, (2) Brands, and (3) Innovations can be co-created. Sometimes we found that the underlying beneficiary of the co-creation process is the consumer, but in other cases, the provider seems to be the main 'receiver'.

##### ***IV.4.8.1) Co-created Experiences***

In general, we can say that the experience economy is one of the conceptual sources for the SDL. Experience economy has a more practical view of value creation, focused on the firm's strategy to enhance customer experience. On the other hand, SDL puts a great strength on the customers' active role in co-creating their own experiences. Specifically, we can claim that there are two reasons for highlighting the relevance of co-creation in experiences: (i) experiences are intrinsically co-created, and (ii) value-in-context defended by the SDL is experiential in nature. There are both directly related, because the latter is a consequence of the first.

It seems consensually decided that experiences (i) are the meeting point of the interactions during co-creation of services (Chathoth, Ungson, Harrington, et al., 2014; Huebner, 2011), (ii) enter long-term memory (Jensen & Prebensen, 2015), (iii) create value that leads to cognitive, emotional, and behavioral responses (Chathoth, Ungson, Harrington, et al., 2014; Gao et al., 2012; Walter, Edvardsson, & Öström, 2010), and (iv) imply assets and resources brought to the process from several actors (Prebensen, Vittersø, et al., 2013; Walter et al., 2010).

The experiential marketers argue that consumers no longer exist and that we are all 'prosumers'; that is, enlightened and empowered consumers (Azevedo, 2009). This view is very similar to what SDL defends about the active involvement of customers in co-created value. Authors emphasize that the tourist creates his/her own tourist 'product' by interacting with many enterprises, institutions, and people, thus initiating (more or less deliberately) a network of subjects that influences his/her experience. In other words, tourists are experience co-creators when interacting (FP6 of SDL, in Vargo and Lusch (2016)). Thus, in a dyadic perspective, tourism suppliers and consumers interact more closely at all stages of their relationship, encouraging an active involvement of tourists in the development of their own experiences. Therefore, value of destinations and tourism services does not stem only from products, services and expertise of marketers and service providers, but the experience is co-created when the resources from all the actors are integrated in the experience process,

including, of course, customers' (and other actors') operant resources. So, customers are operant resources who are actively involved in the co-production of their experiences, and this action will have a direct influence on their perception of what is received as a result of their effort. This is argued by Park and Vargo (2012, p. 241) when claiming that:

Experiences in SDL are more than perceptions of isolated events with some entity (hotel check-in) or the sum of all events with that entity (hotel stay); they represent the integration of events, meanings, identifications, etc. of a full range of resources: market-facing (advertising and promotion by hotels), public (news about the destination politics, culture, online reviews), and private (family, friends).

Many of the studies reviewed emphasize this view of experience co-creation, especially in a touristic context (tourism services or destinations). For example, Binkhorst and Den Dekker (2009) explored the concept of the co-creation of tourism experience within the context of experience economy, and considered that examining tourism as a network and tourists as human beings operating from various experience environments is a very interesting view to apply on tourism. In their opinion, co-created experience, strongly linked to the spirit of the place and its people, adds value to both visitor and visited, and contributes to the uniqueness and authenticity of the destination. Besides, experience quality is thought to be affected by the level of involvement of the customer (involvement is considered a part of co-creation) (Cevdet Altunel & Erkut, 2015). *Experience quality* is in this case measured through three second-order dimensions: *escape*, *learning*, and *enjoyment*.

In the quantitative works addressing co-created experience, the most regarded outcomes are: *value*, *satisfaction*, and *loyalty* (e.g., Chen et al., 2015; Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Mohd-Any et al., 2015). Usually, the three are showed as connected variables: *value* leading to *satisfaction*, and *satisfaction* leading to consumer *loyalty* (Prebensen et al., 2014). We believe that the short number of quantitative studies specifically considering value as an outcome of the value co-creation process (7 studies) provides a hint about the lack of rigor approached in the literature. Regarding the nature of this value, some of these papers adopt a broad, idiosyncratic, phenomenological and contextual perspective of value, which fits SDL tenets. However, there is not a consensus on the specific metrics considered. Thus, Prebensen, Woo, et al. (2013) and Prebensen et al. (2014) refer to 'experiential value' and measure *perceived value of destination experience* via three second-order dimensions: *maintenance* (functional value), *social improvement* (social value), and *sense of wellbeing* (epistemic value). The *hedonic value* dimension, missing in these studies, is included in Prebensen et al. (2016). Mohd-Any et al. (2015) conceptualized *e-value* (value experience when using a travel website) as a formative second-order construct, with *utilitarian value*, *emotional value*, *social value*, *value for money*, and users' *cognitive efforts* as first-order value dimensions. Alternatively, O'Cass and Sok (2015) measure *customer's perceived value-in-use* by considering a 30-item scale.

In conclusion, we believe that the most accurate perspective towards SDL conceptual underpinnings is the one contemplating a consumer/beneficiary-involving value as the co-creation outcome.

#### ***IV.4.8.2) Co-created Brands***

Participation and dialogue with stakeholders in place branding is extremely relevant. Due to that relevance, participatory marketing and branding have arisen, considering the full dynamics of place brands and addressing the need to involve stakeholders in the place branding process. Three reasons justifying the importance of stakeholders in place branding might be: (i) the fact of place branding being public and political, (ii) the participatory nature of branding, and (iii) the facility of engaging with stakeholders due to the advancement of digital and online technologies (Kavaratzis, 2012). Therefore, and following the second idea, there is a need to rethink the role of stakeholders towards a more participative and involvement-oriented practice, including them in co-decision and co-production. In fact, the branding process is discussed as a process of dialogue between stakeholder groups over the meaning of a brand, revealing co-creation of brands (Seljeseth & Korneliussen, 2015). Klijn et al. (2012) argue that stakeholder involvement has an effect on public sector branding: a positive influence on the brand itself and on brand effectiveness. This is because stakeholders have resources that are crucial to achieve such effects. For example, stakeholders' specialized knowledge is used and can contribute to the democratic quality of decision-making. Actually, the empirical analysis demonstrate that the more stakeholders are involved in the branding process, (i) the more target groups will be attracted to the brand, and (ii) the clearer the brand concept will become. In this regards, Aitken and Campelo (2011) considered a variety of stakeholders arguing that the fluidity of branding aggregates a sense of collective co-creation of meanings and collective brand experience, which shifts brand ownership from the managerial and legalist sphere of intellectual property rights and trademarks to consumers and brand users.

One of the most important internal stakeholders is the resident in the city, who may build cooperative behaviors toward the brand and create positive emotions attached to the city brand (i.e., brand pride) (Ahn et al., 2016) and public organizations (i.e., feeling of being respected, satisfaction and commitment for a project, trust on city officials) (Zenker & Seigis, 2012). However, the role of residents in place branding is sometimes not so clear and their importance is certainly underestimated, which causes a disconnection to the 'sense of place' (Kavaratzis, 2012). Some authors defend that residents could be vital participants in place branding; they are not just passive beneficiaries or place customers, but also active partners and co-producers of public goods, services, and policies (Braun et al., 2013). For example, Lindstedt (2015) advocated leaving behind the idea of an intentional branding process, and proposed that local governments should try not to control the brand formation too strictly, due to being the process, to a large extent and by its very nature, out of their direct control. Here place identity and place brand image concepts arise.

Employees can also co-create brands. For instance, *employees' citizenship behavior* is thought to increase *customer brand trust* (Xie et al., 2014). Another measured outcome related to brand co-creation is *destination image* (García et al., 2012; Yang, 2016).

Overall, we can conclude that brands can be co-created implying several stakeholders, specially implying residents in a place branding process. However, we think that this approach considers a rather limited perspective of co-creation, because usually public or

private organizations end up being the actual beneficiaries of the process, instead of the consumers (managers in search for a stronger brand).

#### ***IV.4.8.3) Co-created Innovations***

The dynamic nature of the market, the changing needs and wants of people, and globalization have derived in a highly competitive situation, also in tourism, where not only businesses, but also destinations, fiercely fight to find a place in the consumers' minds. In this context, *innovation* appears as a relevant concept. In the literature review carried out in this work, several authors address co-creation from an innovative perspective. With the exception of Anttiroiko et al. (2014) that cite innovative public services, all the studies addressing innovation (34 studies) are situated in a touristic context, both, from a tourism industry perspective (e.g., Grisseman & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Hjalager & Nordin, 2011) and from a destination perspective (e.g., Hsieh & Yuan, 2011; Prebensen, 2014).

Innovation can be defined as “the process of making changes, large and small, radical and incremental that results in the introduction of something new for the organization and adds value to customers” (Hoarau & Kline, 2014, pp. 44–45). So, in the recent highly competitive marketplace, new product development has been proven to be one of the vital factors to bring the growth and prosperity to most product and service providers (Lee et al., 2010). Because innovation of services and experiences are not directly visible, the tourism industry has the reputation of not being very innovative, but the truth is that tourism innovation exists and provides opportunities to differentiate the tourism product and disperse socioeconomic gains at grassroots level (Hoarau & Kline, 2014). There are many types of innovations. They can be regular, niche, revolutionary, architectural, continuous improvements (incremental innovations), or technological revolutions (radical innovation). At the same time, we can distinguish product, process, managerial or organizational, marketing, and institutional innovations. Additionally, innovations may be improvised, but the NSD process -a fixed succession of phases towards some kind of innovation-, has been widely studied. Those phases include: service concept development, service process development, market testing, commercialization, and post-introduction evaluation.

Whatever the nature of innovation, it is important to set its origin. There are primarily two big innovation sources: (1) internal sources and (2) external sources. The first refer to the innovations that are developed inside the firm or organization (knowledge at home). To a large extent, the innovative capacity of firms and entrepreneurs relies on the access to accumulated internal knowledge and competencies. In that sense, the creativeness of proprietors and staff, as well as dedicated research and development (R&D) efforts may be crucial in paving the way to new products, services, and quality improvements (Hjalager & Nordin, 2011). Nonetheless, when experts talk about innovative co-creation, external sources are commonly regarded, as it is then when two different spheres join to create value. External sources are those coming from the outside of the firm, and entails establishing networks with relevant stakeholders to access and develop knowledge. The active exchange of ideas and resources with external partners, such as suppliers and stakeholders in the local area, may facilitate and benefit the learning process, enhance innovation capacities and ultimately increase competitiveness (Hjalager & Nordin, 2011). Customers are mentioned as one of the

most relevant external sources for innovation and knowledge (Hoarau & Kline, 2014). External sources for innovation are largely connected to the concepts of open innovation processes and user-based methods that can provide new potentials for innovation, also in tourism. In conclusion, both employees (internal) and customers (external) might be *co-innovators*, as tourism firms are often driven by knowledge hailed from them. Thus, the starting point can be a customer who poses ‘stupid questions’ or initiatives from employees working actively with service encounters (Jernsand et al., 2015).

From the customer perspective, we found that there are many degrees of customer or user involvement, from relatively passive ‘cooperation’ to direct ‘co-production’. It has been also demonstrated that some methods are based on the screening of numerous user opinions, while others rely on in-depth learning from a limited number of leading user attitudes (Hjalager & Nordin, 2011, p. 292). In general, we will differentiate two roles in the customer innovative co-creation: (1) customer or *consumer as an information source*, and (2) *customer/user as a co-innovator*, which implies a higher degree of involvement and other activities that go further than the mere knowledge cession.

In the former, which corresponds to a lesser involvement of the customer, customers are knowledge providers. It includes approaches as tapping data, customer surveys, compliant collection and analysis, analysis of guest and visitor books, blog mining, and product ratings. Large numbers of users serve as passive source of large amounts of information here. Nevertheless, in this section we can also incorporate interpreting information, customer interviews, critical incident interviews, focus groups, observation of consumer behavior, user panels, and diaries. Limited numbers of people are used in these processes and people are still passive suppliers of information, although more detailed. For example, Hoarau and Kline (2014) appreciate the scientists as source of knowledge in nature-based tourism, not only acknowledging a lower co-creative degree in innovation, but also recognizing the contribution of other stakeholders apart from the customer strictly speaking.

The second perspective, involving customers as innovators or co-creators, includes using diverse and pro-active techniques that comprise, for instance, idea creation and assessment, and creating new services to meet identified needs. The role of the customer has been highlighted in product and service development processes, derived from the emphasis that the SDL and the SL have given to the customer interaction with suppliers during product design, production and consumption (often described as co-creation or co-production). That is the reason of seeing a deeper customer involvement as an effective strategy for improving the success of new services, also in tourism (Konu, 2015). Therefore, from merely asking the consumers what they want and need, innovation strategy has moved into involving them in the process as the actual role players, suggesting that innovation should be driven by consumers’ insights. Additionally, customer co-creation may help to palliate the intrinsic needs of these customers, by allowing them to enjoy the psychological benefits derived from their participation with the firm in the NSD, and which they cannot get from mere consumption. Thus, consumers are increasingly participating in the process of conception, design, launch, and promotion of new products and services, even in destinations (DMOs). Two of the more representative co-innovation cases are nurturing creativity, and

experimenting and testing. For instance, Lee et al. (2010) show through a case study method how visitors experience a newly launched tourism product and, particularly, to what extent they add their creativity as co-producers of their own tourism experience through the analysis of their spatiotemporal movements and creative suggestions. Besides, Santos-Vijande et al. (2018) demonstrate that customer co-creation practices in hotel service innovations not only benefits internal or operational innovation outcomes (NSD speed and quality), but also external outcomes (customer and market performance). For six stages of service innovation (idea generation, idea selection, business analysis, service and delivery process development, market test, and market launch) hotel managers were asked to indicate the degree of collaboration with their customers using three indicators: frequent meetings, active participation in the development team, and detailed consultations (measurement of customer co-creation). Therefore, results show customer co-creation has direct positive effects on NSD speed and NS market outcomes.

From the firm perspective, we found several authors arguing the need of organizations to manage innovative co-creation in place marketing, in destinations and especially in tourism businesses. This means that the organization must develop its *capacity for customer co-creation*. For tourism organizations, the success for co-creation depends on their ability to identify, locate, and empower tourists with the right skills and characteristics, and turn them into collaborators. Another dimension of co-creation capacity is the capability to integrate the concept of co-creation in the culture of organizations, supported by their receptiveness of ideas from consumers and ability to transform these ideas into successful consumer-centric, co-created products and services. Absorptive capacity is addressed by Tussyadiah and Zach (2013) as an antecedent of DMO performance. On the other hand, Ordanini and Maglio (2009) relate SDL and NSD, emphasizing relationships in innovation, as well as the novel combination of (i.e., new series of acts on) tangible and intangible organizational resources and people skills. They place the success of NSD processes on how firms configure such sets of resources and competences, describing three key decision nodes in service innovation: (i) customers and market orientation (responsive versus proactive market orientation), (ii) internal resources and processes (top-down formalized process versus bottom-up approach), and (iii) external network (open model with strong partners involvement versus a close model with little partners involvement). Using qualitative comparative analysis techniques, the authors discover combinations of alternatives that maximize likelihood of establishing a successful service innovation. Tsai (2017) describes employee engagement, customer participation, and partner collaboration as critical antecedents to achieve satisfactory innovations, and, therefore, crucial for management. An additional and largely discussed matter is the role of the frontline employee in the innovative co-creation. This issue connects internal and external sources of innovation, as the employee belongs to the firm's sphere and the customer is external to the company. Rodríguez et al. (2011) acknowledge the collaboration between these two actors in order to co-produce new products and services in the hospitality sector. Specifically analyses to what extent a managerially implemented internal marketing approach (e.g., selection, training and incentives of employees; employees' socialization; establishment of open information; empowerment of employees in decision-making) benefits innovative outcomes by encouraging frontline employees to

engage customers in order to develop new services and products. The authors demonstrate that a higher predisposition in participation from the employees and customers in the development of innovations positively and significantly affect customers' results, which ultimately turns into the achievement of competitive advantages in terms of business results.

Overall, we can conclude that two ideas are highlighted when dealing with co-created innovations: (i) consumers' collaboration on NSD and (ii) provider's effort to engage consumers in NSD processes and to manage consumers' knowledge. In general, we recognize a provider-focus perspective in this approach, due to the part-time worker role adopted by the consumer in these studies and due to the provider-related outcomes measured: market performance (Ku et al., 2013), business results (Rodríguez et al., 2011), new service market outcomes (Santos-Vijande et al., 2018), innovation value and customer loyalty (Tsai, 2017), or DMO performance (Tussyadiah & Zach, 2013).

#### **IV.4.9. Summary: Service-Dominant Logic Elements in the Literature Review**

Going back to the goal set up at the beginning of the section, the thematic analysis aimed at discovering the extent to which place-marketing literature deals with co-creation and especially fits SDL tenets around value co-creation. We have analyzed 8 interesting aspects in depth: (1) Underlying theories found in the literature review to justify a co-creation approach; (2) Co-creation approaches; the five elements of the SDL narrative used to explain value co-creation: (3) Actors; (4) Resource integration; (5) Service exchange; (6) Institutions; and (7) Service ecosystems; and (8) Outcomes of co-creation. However, in order to have a comprehensive and condensed view of the results, apart from the already presented analyses and considerations, we now provide a gap-detecting panel (Table IV.8), where quantitative studies are evaluated regarding some of the most important issues looked over in the thematic analysis:

- (a) Co-creation measurement
  - Is co-creation explicitly measured?
  - Is 'co-creation' the variable used? (In contrast to the utilization of proxies)
  - In what point is co-creation considered? (Co-creation before, during and/or after service)
- (b) Actors: is the consumer perspective adopted? That is, does the study consider the consumer as the central actor?
- (c) Resource integration and service exchange: does co-creation approach consider non-interactional co-creation (internal processes)? And, does co-creation approach consider interactional co-creation (with other actors)?
- (d) Institutions: are they considered?
- (e) Service ecosystems: does the model assume a network perspective? (Instead of a consumer-provider dyadic perspective)
- (f) Outcomes: is value measured as the main co-creation outcome?

When the study covers that aspect it is marked with an 'X'. The blank spaces can be addressed as gaps.



Table IV.8 Co-creation Approaches' Rigor of the Literature Review (Quantitative Studies) (n=39)

Reference	Co-creation measurement					Actor	Resource integration and service exchange		Institutions	Service ecosystem	Value outcome
	Explicit measurement	Co-creation variable	Co-creation point			Consumer perspective	No interactions	Interactions			
			Before	During	After						
Ahn et al. (2016)	X		X				X	X		X	
Azevedo (2009)			X			X	X				
Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015)	X			X	X	X	X		X		
Calver and Page (2013)			X	X		X	X	X			X
Cassia and Magno (2009)	X		X					X			
Cevdet Altunel and Erkut (2015)			X	X	X	X	X				
Chekalina et al. (2014)			X			X	X				
Chen and Raab (2017)	X		X	X		X	X	X		X	
Chen et al. (2015)	X		X	X		X	X	X		X	
Dijkmans et al. (2015)	X		X	X	X	X	X	X			
Edvardsson et al. (2013)				X			X	X			
Fakharyan et al. (2014)	X			X		X		X			
García et al. (2012)			X					X		X	

Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012)	X	X	X			X	X				
Heinonen and Strandvik (2009)				X		X		X			
Hsiao et al. (2015)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	
Klijn et al. (2012)			X					X		X	
Ku et al. (2013)			X					X			
Mohd-Any et al. (2015)	X		X		X	X	X	X			X
Morosan (2018)		X		X		X	X	X	X		
Nusair et al. (2013)			X	X	X	X		X	X		
O'Cass and Sok (2015)				X		X		X		X	X
Prebensen et al. (2016)	X	X		X		X	X	X			X
Prebensen, Vittersø, et al. (2013)			X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
Prebensen et al. (2014)			X	X	X	X	X				X
Prebensen, Woo, et al. (2013)			X	X	X	X	X				X
Rodríguez et al. (2011)			X					X		X	
Santos-Vijande et al. (2018)	X	X	X					X			
Seljeseth and			X					X			

Korneliusen (2015)											
Sigala and Chalkiti (2015)			X				X				
Suntikul and Jachna (2016)	X			X		X	X	X		X	
Tsai (2017)	X	X	X					X		X	
Tussyadiah and Zach (2013)	X	X		X	X		X	X		X	
Victorino et al. (2005)	X		X	X			X				
Wang et al. (2011)	X		X	X	X			X			
Xie et al. (2014)	X		X	X	X		X	X		X	
Xu et al. (2014)	X			X				X			
Yang (2016)	X			X		X		X			
Zenker and Seigis (2012)			X					X			
Total	20 (51%)	7 (2%)	28 (72%)	24 (62%)	12 (31%)	22 (56%)	23 (59%)	30 (77%)	3 (1%)	13 (33%)	7 (18%)

Source: Own elaboration.

We can generally conclude that there are some aspects that deserve more attention from the academy. First, only 2% of quantitative studies measure ‘co-creation’ and not a similar construct. Therefore, there is a need to explicitly measure a variable denominated ‘co-creation’, for which we require an appropriate definition and an appropriate scale. Second, less than a third part of the quantitative studies (31%) consider that co-creation involves processes after the service. For that reason, there is a need to consider post-service co-creation behaviors. Third, no more than 1% of quantitative studies examine institutions. Hence, the literature should put more emphasis on what kind of institutions arise around place marketing and its significance in co-creation. Fourth, only 33% of quantitative studies go beyond dyadic relationships. Therefore, service ecosystems need further consideration; that is, we need to understand that co-creation implies not only consumer-provider exchanges, but also interactions with other actors. This will allow place marketing move away from the deeply rooted GDL perspective. Fifth, 18% of quantitative studies address value as co-creation outcome. Therefore, we could focus on developing models that measure the effect of co-creation processes on value.

On the contrary, there are other points that we can consider that are well covered in the literature reviewed. These are: co-creation before (72%) and during (62%) service, and interactions (77%).

#### **IV.5. Final Discussion and Future Research Avenues**

Our effort has focused on the concept of place marketing, which is a very broad concept embracing very different contexts, such as: (i) urban space (e.g., Cassia & Magno, 2009), (ii) tourism industry (e.g., Chen et al., 2015), and (iii) destinations (e.g., Chekalina et al., 2014). Even though SDL might be applicable to all of them, each one would require an independent analysis. Therefore, it is noticeable that the discourse of adopting an alternative paradigm in one or other area varies substantially. We should not analyze at the same time and in the same manner the translation of the SDL premises to public transport, to a city brand development, to a specific tourism business (e.g., hotel, restaurant, travel agency), or to a destination strategy; not if we are looking for coherent and exhaustive conclusions. On the contrary, we believe that the academy should focus on a particular place-marketing context.

In general, we found that the literature vary according to the depth of detail when adopting SDL. Some studies have dealt with a complete but rather approximate application of the paradigm in destination management (e.g., Xiang Li, 2013) and city-related private (e.g., Israeli, 2014) and public management (e.g., Edvardsson et al., 2013). On the other hand, other studies have provided accurate models showing specific aspects of SDL (e.g., Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015). Although we acknowledge the value that the works translating SDL’s FPs to the urban context had in the first attempts of developing a SDL-based place marketing (e.g., Warnaby, 2009), we consider important to point out how paramount it is to advance in the field by providing models that could lead the discipline to higher levels, moving from conceptual and descriptive papers to explanatory works using quantitative

technics. Another relevant data corroborating a halt in place marketing co-creation is that we only found 39 quantitative studies in the last 10 years (2005-2016<sup>7</sup>) of investigations in the area (approximately 25% of all the documents found in the review). Despite having increased in the last period (specially in 2015), there are still very few.

SDL has been the most adopted perspective in the literature review (e.g., Hayslip et al., 2013). SDL implicitly considers other 4 prior views that have been also used in the literature to justify the co-creation approach in place marketing. They are: *service(s) marketing view* (e.g., Neuhofer et al., 2014b), *resource-based view* (e.g., Della Corte, 2012), *network view* (e.g., Lemmetyinen & Go, 2010), and *experiential view* (e.g., Scott et al., 2009). Thus, we can claim that, if is wholly adopted (with all its elements), SDL is the most complete perspective for our purpose, also due to its currency, development, and awareness regarding co-creation. Furthermore, it would be important to follow the last contributions in SDL (Vargo & Lusch, 2016), as the logic has been refined continuously. Therefore, although the early authors made a great contribution in the area, it is necessary to provide updated views of place marketing co-creation involving recent SDL inputs. In doing so, we have to be coherent with the logic and follow its premises entirely and rigorously.

Co-creation is understood in SDL as service exchange and resource integration (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). However, the literature review we have carried out reveals a lack of rigor of place marketing to address co-creation in these terms. On the contrary, studies give imprecise definitions of co-creation: (i) there is no consensus about the best definition, (ii) there is not a clear definition of the concept, (iii) a rigorous approach is lacking (i.e., an approach embracing SDL elements), and (iv) there is a need of justification in the application of co-creation theory. In few occasions the primary objective was to translate SDL to place marketing (e.g., Park & Vargo, 2012). On the contrary, the studies deal with the concept of co-creation in a rather opportunistic manner. Sometimes co-creation is not even explicitly measured (e.g., Calver & Page, 2013). Specifically, hardly half of the quantitative papers measure co-creation (51%) (see Table IV.8). Other times place marketing uses already existing and contingent measures to meet this need. In this case, the measures used are usually based on variables that have a partial relationship with co-creation and which have been developed before. The utilization of proxies such as *participation* (e.g., Zenker & Seigis, 2012), *citizenship behavior* (e.g., Ahn et al., 2016), *C2C interactions* (e.g., Fakharyan et al., 2014), *co-production* (e.g., Cassia & Magno, 2009), or *customization* (e.g., Victorino et al., 2005) is usual. Even though we have come across some exceptions that measure *customer value co-creation* (e.g., Hsiao et al., 2015) and *degree of co-creation*, these are insufficient: no more than 2% address co-creation concept instead of an approximated variable (see Table IV.8). Nevertheless, neither in these studies a consensus about a proper scale is achieved.

The literature acknowledges a multi-actor approach without predetermined roles. All the actors are at the same level, and all the actors co-create value. This vision contrasts with the traditional view where providers create value and consumers destroy it. Place marketing

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<sup>7</sup> The literature review was finished in 2016. For further references (2016-2018) look up in Eletxigerra et al. (2018).

coherently tackles this perspective. After a systematic review, we are able to recognize the actors involved in place marketing co-creation. We detected 8 different actors: consumers (tourists), providers (hospitality firms) and their employees, residents, public organizations, underlining DMOs; and in a lower level, friends and families, other consumers, and other providers, including suppliers, competitors, and business partners. However, not all the actor are mentioned in all the studies; consumers and providers are the most cited in a touristic context (e.g., Mohd-Any et al., 2015), while residents and governments (public organizations) are the most cited in a public service environment (e.g., Cassia & Magno, 2009). Despite the SDL suggesting the consumer as the resource integrator, the literature shows a noticeable managerial orientation, where the consumer is considered an operant resource that works, collaborates and behaves according to the expectations of the providers and subject to their results' increase (e.g., Santos-Vijande et al., 2018). Specifically, 44% of quantitative studies focus on providers (see Table IV.8). These studies focus on knowledge management and other resources that are relevant to manage the co-creation process (e.g., Tussyadiah & Zach, 2013). For future research, we encourage adopting a consumer approach (consumer as the central actor), but considering all the actors.

If we strictly consider service exchange, we see that the literature in place marketing (i) recognizes the exchange of 'service': "physical goods/things that are used/consumed by tourists while on vacation (e.g., rental cars, hotel rooms, souvenirs) generate value for the customer because of the service they provide: rental cars provide transportation, hotel rooms shelter, and souvenirs memorabilia" (Hayslip et al., 2013). And (ii) concentrates on interactions.

Regarding resource integration, the literature in place marketing does not address the integration processes (internal processes), but focuses on resources, strictly speaking. For that reason, internal co-creation processes with no interactions deserve more attention: 59% of the quantitative studies deal with this problem (see Table IV.8), which we believe insufficient. We believe that service exchange and resource integration should be understood in conjunction; that is, we cannot explain co-creation in terms of one without the other. Therefore, we consider that those studies dealing with co-creation processes as if they were sole interactions (e.g., Santos-Vijande et al., 2018) reflect an incomplete perspective of the concept. On the contrary, we see that places gather (1) multisource resources, (2) which are accessed through interactions with diverse actors, and (3) integrated by the consumer as a result of internal processes using his/her more relevant resources: knowledge and skills.

First, provider and consumer resources are the most cited, always highlighting operant resources. Among provider resources we found: servicescape (e.g., Chen & Raab, 2017), value proposition (e.g., O'Cass & Sok, 2015), customer orientation (e.g., Ordanini & Maglio, 2009), or employee capability (e.g., Wang et al., 2011). Among consumer resources we found: time (e.g., Prebensen, Vittersø, et al., 2013), effort (e.g., Prebensen, Vittersø, et al., 2013), involvement (e.g., Morosan, 2018), motivation (e.g., Wang et al., 2011), and knowledge (e.g., Prebensen et al., 2014). Above all, the literature underlines technology and ICTs (e.g., Neuhofer et al., 2012). Their contribution to co-create in place marketing is seen fundamental, and the number of articles concerned about this issue is high, although this

number in quantitative studies drops considerably. Future studies should include models showing the potential effect that different kind of resources might have in the co-creation process, in order to corroborate the influence of operant resources and be able to recognize the most important ones.

Second, actors access these and other resources through interactions. The literature focuses on consumer-provider (e.g., Dijkmans et al., 2015), consumer-employee (e.g., Chen et al., 2015), or even provider-provider interactions (e.g., Crowther & Donlan, 2011), which echoes a rather dyadic and GDL-oriented perspective. For that reason, we appreciate those works interested in unraveling the effect that consumer-consumer and consumer-resident interactions (e.g., Suntikul & Jachna, 2016) could have on co-creation and value. In addition, a highly exploited approach is the one analyzing engagement platforms (e.g., Chathoth, Ungson, Altinay, et al., 2014). This view, which guides providers in involving consumers, follows what is called a ‘marketing to’ mindset. Besides, few authors differentiate interactions before, during and after service (e.g., Prebensen et al., 2014). Instead, the first two are predominantly addressed (e.g., travel arrangement and technology use on-site), as they can be controlled by the provider. However, as it can also affect final value, we believe that co-creation after service deserves more attention in place marketing literature. Actually, it is a rather forgotten part in the literature: 31% of the quantitative reviewed works worry about this issue (see Table IV.8).

Third, more work is required about internal processes (no interactions) and how knowledge and skills of a particular actor affects the resource integration process.

Concerning the regulation of the actors and their relationships, the literature remains elusive. The lack of a deeper conceptual development regarding institutions in SDL, might be a powerful argument to justify this gap. Specifically, institutions are measured in less than a 1% of the quantitative studies (see Table IV.8), normally referring to *trust* (e.g., Nusair et al., 2013). Other related ideas found around the concept of institutions are culture (e.g., Nicholls, 2011), social norms (e.g., Melis et al., 2015), administration rules and governance mechanisms (e.g., Morosan, 2018), power (e.g., Åkerlund & Müller, 2012), or contracts (e.g., Enquist et al., 2011). So, the need to consider institutions is rather demanding.

And, what can be said about the relationship established between the actors? Corroborating that the relationships that arise between the different actors fits the ‘service ecosystems’ relational structure defended by the SDL allows moving over the consumer-provider dyadic analysis. In our review, we found predominantly the concept of ‘network’ (e.g., Fyrberg & Jüriado, 2009), which enable: cooperation in value creation, interactions to obtain resources, and constant learning. Nevertheless, there are several authors addressing these premises in a restrictive way, referring to: (i) collaborations, partnerships, strategic alliances or cooperative agreements between providers (e.g., Lemmetyinen & Go, 2010), or (ii) groups of heterogeneous providers that need to consider the possibility of being part of a structured network to share resources and offer a better overall service (e.g., Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009). This perspective, far from approaching SDL, reveals a marked GDL view. Alternatively, we found the effort of few authors to promote what is denominated as TEN (Tourist Experience Network), which, in contrast to the ESC (Experience Supply Chain)

model, tries to introduce tourists as active agents in networks, not only as actors integrated under control (e.g., Melis et al., 2015). Thus, we prefer considering the consumer network and the provider network. Quantitative studies reveal clarifying but non-encouraging information regarding the systemic approach adopted in the literature: almost 85% of studies have only one information source, usually the consumer, and he/she is normally asked about him/herself, his/her perceived value, the provider, or his/her interactions with the provider. Besides, just a third part of these studies (33%) go beyond the consumer-provider dyadic perspective to include other actors like local people, public organizations, friends and family, and other consumers (see Table IV.8). In sum, the literature exhibits a dyadic consumer-provider view and a ‘marketing to’ approach that indicates an underlying GDL-grounded perspective.

Finally, SDL strictly speaking, proposes value as the direct outcome of co-creation, a value that has a contextual character (phenomenological and experiential) (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). However, most of the studies reviewed try to extract outcomes going over consumer’s wellbeing, suggesting co-creation as a way of managing the consumer’s behavior and attitude to improve provider’s situation, which is, in our opinion, a corrupt view of co-creation. In this respect, place-marketing literature explains that consumer’s knowledge can be used for the NSD (e.g., Lee et al., 2010), and that residents’ contributions can be imbued in place branding processes (e.g., Ahn et al., 2016). We prefer the vision adopted by other authors, where the consumer’s role on co-creating their own experience is emphasized (e.g., Prebensen et al., 2016). Overall, we believe that value needs more attention and development in place marketing literature, as it is only evaluated in 7 quantitative studies (18%) (see Table IV.8).

To conclude with this chapter, Table IV.9 summarizes the future research avenues developed in the prior discussion.

Table IV.9 Future Research Avenues

#	Research avenue
1	Develop quantitative studies
2	Propose models based on SDL premises
3	Provide a complete and exact definition of co-creation
4	Measure co-creation explicitly, instead of using proxies
5	Create (or adapt) an appropriate measurement instrument to measure co-creation
6	Address a consumer perspective
7	Consider as much actors as possible, not only the consumer and the provider (go over a dyadic approach)
8	Consider co-creation as a combination of interactional and non-interactional processes
9	Deep knowledge about resource integration
10	Measure the potential effect of different kind of resources on the co-creation process
11	Study co-creation processes after the service
12	Measure the effect of consumer’s knowledge and skills on co-creation processes and resource integration
13	Consider institutions
14	Measure value-in-context as the co-creation outcome

Source: Own elaboration.



# Chapter V A Theoretical Model for Co-creation of a Tourism Experience

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## V.1. Introduction

A comprehensive literature review about co-creation and related approaches in place marketing revealed several gaps in the field, which concerned especially a lack of: rigour, theoretical background, validated measurements, and empirical analysis (Chapter IV). The aim of this explanatory chapter is to cover those gaps by providing a comprehensive model centered on tourist co-creation, assisted by resources, and influencing tourist's perceived value of the travel experience. In order to face this new challenge, the present section is primarily addressed to answer three related research questions: (1) What is exactly tourism experience co-creation? (2) What does tourism experience co-creation mean, regarding actors implied, nature of processes, timing, location, etc.? (3) Which are the fundamental antecedents and outcomes of co-creation in a travel-related context? And, which is their role? To answer these research questions, we have developed a theoretical model for co-creation of a tourism experience based on the SDL narrative.

The relevance of this chapter is twofold: first, providing a definite conceptualization of co-creation in place marketing (specifically in the tourism experience setting), and second, defining a relational model that will contribute to find out the real role of co-creation in travel experiences. Due to the mentioned contributions, this chapter was, together with Chapter IV, used to inspire two academic papers (Paper 1 and Paper 2). The first is already published in a JCR journal (Eletxigerra et al., 2018) (see Appendix VIII.1.1), while the second is still a work in progress.

The chapter is organized as follows: Section V.2 explains the need of new and more rigorous co-creation approaches in place marketing. Then, Section V.3 is devoted to conceptualize co-creation in our specific place-marketing context, that is, tourism experience. Section V.4 provides an extended baseline model that includes co-creation processes in a travel-related environment, as well as its antecedents and outcomes. Next, we include a deep analysis on the 'value creation process' presented on the baseline model, detailing one by one the concepts that are part of the central component of the study (Section V.5). Previous sections finally lead to the development of the research hypotheses set in this study, presented in Section V.6.

## V.2. Value Co-creation in Place Marketing: A Need to Advance

Like other marketing sub-disciplines, place marketing has predominantly drawn on GDL, in which products are viewed as imbued with value, and the responsibility and power for value creation is, therefore, given to the providers (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Under GDL, the place is viewed as a value-embedded product or bundling of products leading to a specific competitive position in the global market (Kotler et al., 1993).

This perspective has been challenged by several place-marketing researchers who argue that place marketing has special characteristics related to: (i) the complexity and uniqueness of place as a product or bundling of products (Kotler et al., 1999), (ii) the complexity of organizational mechanisms for marketing places derived from the dispersion of power and responsibility among many stakeholders (Bennett, 1999; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008a), and (iii) the ways in which branding theory can be applied (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Warnaby, 2009). Following these arguments, the traditional marketing practice structured around the four Ps framework was expanded to seven and eight Ps, to capture the singular characteristics of tourism and hospitality services (tourism marketing mix) (Morrison, 1996; Shoemaker & Shaw, 2008). Pike and Page (2014) go on to argue that places are unique and marketing them is not a simple process of translating conventional marketing theory and practice derived from goods and services marketing. They see the role of events in transforming cities as a paradigmatic example of the singularities of place marketing.

This maladjustment with conventional goods-led marketing has also occurred in other disciplines, such as service marketing and industrial marketing. A crucial step towards a disruptive conceptualization of marketing was the consideration of the customer as co-creator of value. In the early 2000s, various related research streams challenged GDL, product-focused, and one-way marketing strategies, stressing the prominence of customers in value creation. CL (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a), SL (Grönroos, 2008), SS (Maglio & Spohrer, 2008; Vargo et al., 2008), and SDL (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2008, 2016) are some of the approaches that emphasize customer contribution in value creation, the latter probably being the most influential. These different approaches have been developed concurrently, although sometimes in a divergent manner.

While the concept of value co-creation applies to all sectors and contexts, it gains special meaning in experiential settings in which the participation and involvement of the consumer is more intense and vivid. Places are one of these contexts (Yuan & Wu, 2008). Activities and mental processes such as travelling, living within a city, and participating in events occur in the place environment and are strongly linked with the concept of experience. Tourist experiences specifically involve integration of a full range of resources (energy, mental disposition, expertise, or involvement) leading to sensorial perceptions, emotions, meanings, interpretations, and so on (Park & Vargo, 2012) that may enter long-term memory (Jensen & Prebensen, 2015). The traveler (or city-customer) should be viewed as a major co-creator of value extracted from his or her destination (or city) experience.

Place-marketing scholars tend to agree that the concept of co-creation should be introduced within theoretical and empirical contributions (Baron & Harris, 2010; Gallarza et

al., 2012; Hayslip et al., 2013; Li & Petrick, 2008; Neuhofer et al., 2012; Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011; Warnaby, 2009). Warnaby (2009), for instance, focuses on SDL and argues that its view of marketing is closer to the singularities of place marketing than previous marketing views. Binkhorst and Den Dekker (2009) argue that experience co-creation in tourism is a line of thought that deserves attention, because tourism is one of the greatest sources of experiences through which people construct their own unique narratives. Similarly, Li and Petrick (2008) argue that the view of tourists as co-creators of value and co-producers of their final experience introduces a paradigm shift that deserves attention. In the same vein, Shaw et al. (2011) develop a case study showing that attitude towards co-creation is a crucial distinguishing characteristic of providers (hotels).

In conclusion, place-marketing researchers need to incorporate the co-creation view in their studies. If co-creation actually matters in place marketing, and research efforts do not take it into consideration in model devising and empirical tests, our conclusions and recommendations could prove to be misleading, and place-marketing strategies might follow the wrong path. In addition, contextualization (i.e. applying the marketing view derived from the co-creation concept to the specific place-marketing context) could lead to a modification of the global logic of co-creation. Therefore, consideration of the co-creation approach in a place-marketing context might produce synergistic effects and improve both place-marketing views and strategies, as well as the way in which the co-creation tenets are altogether understood. Grönroos (2008, p. 317) suggests that “service logic studies services directly in their marketing context and reports on how changing marketing contexts influence the logic required for effective marketing”.

In the previous chapter (Chapter IV), we have thoroughly analyzed how far the concept of co-creation has effectively been incorporated within place marketing. In broad strokes, we found that the co-creation process has been mostly approached in a mixed, incomplete, and ad-hoc way. Thus, some authors refer to co-creation and implicitly assume that it occurs, but do not explicitly conceptualize and measure co-creation. Other authors explicitly measure co-creation but sometimes the metrics used are not accompanied by a proper definition, and when co-creation is defined, this is done in different ways. Authors usually identify co-creation with partial elements of the whole co-creation process such as *core service co-production*, *customization*, *citizenship behavior* of consumers, and *consumer support for providers' innovation processes*. Most of these approaches are close to GDL, as consumers are viewed as partial employees who may improve providers' circumstances. Most studies tend to consider co-creation as a variable reflecting a new way for providers to extract value from customers, that is, as a pretext, for utilizing them as part-time workers or for internal processes, such as innovation.

Further, most of the studies that were reviewed reflected a preference towards dealing with co-creation before and during the service. However, an integrated co-creation view in place marketing would embrace co-creation throughout the whole value creation process, including co-creation after the core service is received.

Lastly, most studies tend to assimilate co-creation with interactions between actors. While co-creation frequently implies interactions among different actors, there are co-

creation processes in which interactions are missing (e.g. positive thoughts about a future trip).

Additionally, authors have considered a wide range of consumer and provider resources as precursors of the level of consumer participation in the co-creation process, as well as several outcomes.

Regarding actors and levels of analysis examined, most studies mention several actors but a single source of information tends to be considered, and this is usually the consumer. The consumer is frequently asked about the provider service and, to a lesser extent, about her/his interaction with the provider and with other consumers and relatives. A dyadic, GDL approach is, therefore, still prevalent.

Finally, the term ‘institutions’, which is relatively new in SDL, has not been explicitly mentioned in the literature reviewed, with the exception of some connected variables (e.g. trust and culture).

All these findings were summarized in 14 research avenues (Table IV.9). The following sections are directed to provide a well-supported baseline model about co-creation in tourism experiences, focused on overtaking previous limitations.

### **V.3. Conceptualization of Value Co-creation**

Our conceptualization process will take place in three phases. First, a clarification about the selected framework is needed. Then, we should define co-creation in such framework; to finally explain further implications within an extended co-creation perspective.

#### **V.3.1. Conceptual and Contextual Frameworks**

Before defining co-creation in place marketing and describing its implications, it was essential to make appropriate considerations about *conceptual* and *contextual* framework choices. That is, we need to answer to a pair of questions: (1) What *co-creation perspective/approach* are we following? And (2) What *place marketing perspective/approach* are we focusing on? These questions are respectively answered in the following sections.

##### ***V.3.1.1) Service-Dominant Logic as Conceptual Framework***

The co-creation concept is actually interpreted differently by different researchers and continues to be elusive (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). For that reason, this subsection seeks to explain the preference towards SDL in building our value co-creation framework. The co-creation view has been proposed from different angles and there is no consensus on what approach is more powerful. The choice of SDL is not based on an alleged superiority of SDL but on three characteristics that make SDL particularly suitable for the purposes of this research:

(1) When compared to similar approaches focusing on co-creation (i.e. CL, SL, and SS), only SDL is positioned as a foundation for a general theory of marketing (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). Since 2004, when Vargo and Lusch's seminal paper was published (Vargo & Lusch, 2004), SDL has successively incorporated broader conceptualizations such as

‘resources’, ‘service ecosystems’, and ‘institutions’, which are addressed to provide an extended co-creation framework, including ‘antecedents’ and ‘outcomes’.

(2) While SDL and related perspectives may differ in some views, these differences refer to nuances rather than to substantial aspects. For instance, Grönroos (2006) makes a break with SDL when taking to the extreme the concept of value co-creation and arguing that the only creator of value is the consumer. However, he acknowledges the similarities between SL and SDL. SDL likewise recognizes that some of its tenets are built on prior co-creation research. Emphasis on the beneficiaries’ phenomenological perception of value (value-in-context) is, for example, close to the concept of co-creation experience emphasized by CL (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a). Further, SS and SDL are strongly connected, as SDL is recognized as constituting the philosophical foundations of SS (Maglio & Spohrer, 2008), which focuses on people configuration.

(3) Compared to other co-creation approaches, SDL is less business-based in its aims and lexicon, which could be more appropriate for a place context (Neuhofer et al., 2012).

While the model presented in this study is based on SDL, the framework is not free of limitations. It does not, for instance, specifically refer to brands and branding, which have an important role in destination and place-marketing literature (Brodie, Glynn, & Little, 2006; Warnaby, 2009). Then again, important SDL concepts such as ‘co-creation’, ‘service ecosystems’, or ‘institutions’ are still elusive and need further elaboration. While these shortcomings could limit our capacity to build a co-creation-led framework that is useful for place-marketing purposes, SDL is the broadest, most comprehensive and least business embedded of the co-creation proposals discussed above.

### ***V.3.1.2) Tourism Experience as Contextual Framework***

Our literature review on place marketing co-creation (Chapter IV) allowed us to identify three different place contexts where the paradigm shift was applied. Therefore, we found studies addressing *places as urban spaces*, where the focus is on residents and public services; and *places as touristic locations*, where the focus is on tourists. In this second perspective, which is the most notorious on the literature, we distinguished two different though complementary approaches: *hospitality marketing*, a more restricted approach focused on tourism service providers; and *destination marketing*, a holistic approach where the aim is to collaboratively develop a valuable touristic place between public administration and the network of services offered in the city that would finally contribute to obtain satisfied and loyal visitors (see section IV.3.4).

As previously argued, despite co-creation’s general applicability, each context would require an independent analysis. It is noticeable, therefore, that the adoption of co-creation in one or other context will vary substantially. Thus, we should not examine simultaneously and uniformly the translation of the SDL premises to public transports, specific tourism businesses (e.g., hotel, restaurant, travel agency), or destination strategies; not at least if we are looking for coherent, exhaustive and useful conclusions (see section IV.5).

The purpose of this subsection is, therefore, to justify our choice according to the object of research in this study. Specifically, we are going to concentrate on *tourism*

*experiences* and analyze how co-creation takes place in this context, studying *value co-creation process in a travel experience*. Therefore, in agreement with SDL, our main premise will be emphasizing the role of the tourist (main consumer) in a travel experience. This travel experience will be co-created with other actors (i.e., providers, local people, other tourists, friends and family) in different environments, including, of course, the destination.

Considering our contextual framework, it is understandable that *destination, tourism* or *hospitality marketing* would be appreciated as suitable denominations for the study background (literature reviews in Chapter II, Chapter III and Chapter IV). However, we do not consider that the *place-marketing* label used so far is inappropriate. Although it can be thought that destination marketing is just a little piece in place-marketing literature, we have considered that, in a relevant and SDL-centered destination marketing, places are seen as service ecosystems composed by an amalgam of actors and resources, that is, actors using their resources to enter into service exchanges leading to value co-creation. While it could be argued that this holistic view does not perfectly fit any of the conventional place- and destination marketing-related literatures, the SDL-led approach may potentially lie closer to it, as supports seeing places as a mix of interdependent elements (Mill & Morrison, 2002) ‘consumed’ by multiple stakeholders, including tourists (Warnaby, 2009), whose outcomes (i.e., satisfaction and value) may be interrelated (Kotler, Hamlin, Rein, & Haider, 2002). In fact, there are works underlining the palpable overlap between place and destination marketing (Pike, 2015).

### **V.3.2. Tourist Experience Co-creation: A Definition**

While the literature on value co-creation is extensive, it is not entirely clear what the co-creation process specifically involves. For that reason, the aim in this part of the study is to build a well-determined definition for value co-creation of tourism experiences, following our conceptual and contextual framework choices. We will ask this definition to be as unambiguous and precise as possible, in order to be able to develop empirical analyses around this concept in coming passages.

Based on the SDL narrative, value co-creation is understood as “a process where actors are involved in resource integration and service exchange, enabled and constrained by endogenously generated institutions and institutional arrangements, establishing nested and interlocking service ecosystems of actors” (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 7). Therefore, drawing on Vargo and Lusch (2004, 2008, 2016) and their discussed narrative, it can be argued that the co-creation process involves *service exchanges* and *resource integration* activities. But what do this expression mean? In this case, even though Vargo and Lusch (2004, 2008, 2016) do not provide a systematic understanding of what service-for-service exchanges and resources integration mean, it can be deduced from derived elaborations on SDL (e.g., Colurcio, Caridà, & Edvardsson, 2017; Ranjan & Read, 2016) that co-creation may be interpreted to be an extensive set of processes that require a great variety of physical and mental activities from the consumer, which occur: (i) before, during, and after the core offering is provided; and (ii) in interaction with others, or not.

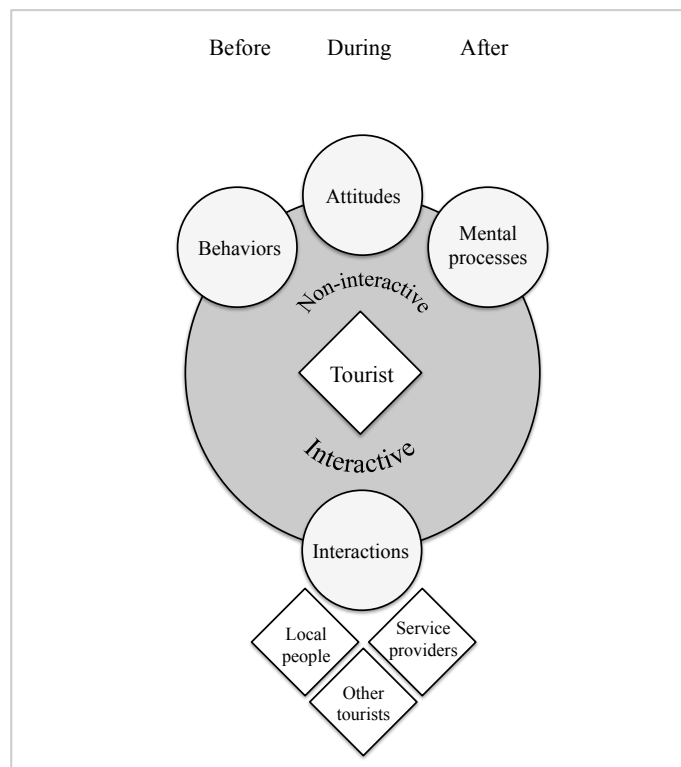
In conclusion, tourism experience co-creation can be defined as *the service exchange and resource integration process driven by the tourist, that involves a set of interactive and non-interactive behaviors, attitudes, and mental processes of the tourist with him/herself and with other actors (i.e., tourism service providers, local people, other tourists, family and friends), that take place before, during and after the trip, in all the travel-related environments, including the destination itself.*

Thus, travelers may co-create value when they see a nice brochure (before, interaction) or think about the vacation that is still to come (before, no interaction), search and arrange their trip on a website (before, interaction), visit the city (during, interaction), or assemble a vacation video (after, no interaction) and show it to friends (after, interaction). The different ways in which consumers face these and other processes influence their value perceptions and their wellbeing (Ranjan & Read, 2016).

### V.3.3. Implications of Tourist Experience Co-creation

This section is devoted to explore all the implications contained in the aforementioned tourist experience co-creation definition. Figure V.1 illustrates the core assumptions. We said that: *Tourism experience co-creation can be defined as the service exchange and resource integration process (1) driven by the tourist (2) that involves a set of interactive and non-interactive (3) behaviors, attitudes and mental processes (4) of the tourist with him/herself and with other actors (i.e., tourism service providers, local people, other tourists, family and friends), (5) that take place before, during and after the trip, in all the travel-related environments, including the destination itself.* These big five implications are detailed below.

Figure V.1 Visual Representation of Tourist Experience Value Co-creation



Source: Own elaboration.

### ***V.3.3.1) Tourist's Empowerment***

The SDL narrative's macro-perspective does not allow applying value co-creation to specific contexts, and therefore, makes it difficult to draw consumer behavior and managerial conclusions. In fact, regarding this approach, all actors do the same: they co-create value entering into service exchanges and integrating resources. Besides, SDL acknowledges the different profiles and characteristics of actors (e.g., providers and consumers) but does not predetermine their role as in the case of GDL, as value creators or value destroyers.

Although this study accepts and shows coherence towards the usage of the generic term of 'actors' (Normann & Ramírez, 1993), the need to advance in the field and the need to introduce value co-creation in the tourism-experience specific context, both lead us to concentrate on the idea of *consumer's empowerment*. Axiom 2 in SDL reads: "Value is cocreated by multiple actors, always including the beneficiary" (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 8). Following this premise, a clear implication consists of adopting a consumer view, that is, concentrating on behaviors that can improve consumer circumstances instead of those of the provider. For that reason we argue that *tourism experience co-creation (...) [is] driven by the tourist*.

### ***V.3.3.2) Interactivity***

Once established the relevance of tourists in tourism experience co-creation, we need now to discuss the specific meaning of the concept. Co-creation has been defined in several ways. For instance, Grönroos and Voima (2013) analyze co-creation as a function of interaction between the service provider and the customer, while Zwass (2010) treats it broadly, as the activities of individuals/consumers/users in the production domain, generated independently or at the behest of producer organizations. Consequently, in this point of the research, we ask ourselves: can we restrict co-creation to interactions? Following SDL premises, we cannot.

Most studies in the literature tend to assimilate co-creation with interactions between actors. As 'service' (in the singular) is understood as doing something for others, co-creation has been usually considered to be bi-directional (e.g. a hotel providing accommodation to a consumer and a consumer providing money to the hotel). Among interactions, some authors focus on interactions with other customers or tourists, and how these can alter perceived value of the trip (Baron & Harris, 2010; Fakharyan et al., 2014). Others refer to interactions with local population (Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Peixeira Marques, 2012). However, most authors aim their attention to customer-provider interactions, when customers collaborate in tourism service innovations (Shaw et al., 2011; Tsai, 2017), or when tourists co-produce the core service by participating in the product design, production or delivery (Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012).

Nevertheless, while co-creation frequently implies interactions among different actors, there are co-creation processes in which interactions are missing. It occurs, for instance, when tourists think about their holidays, inform themselves about interesting places to visit at destination, or make a video recalling the experience. As an example, Prideaux (2014), implicitly describes co-creation as the combination of both interactive processes of



customers with providers and other actors, and own experiences and reflection on these experiences.

In sum, co-creation is largely determined by interactions, but there are non-interactive behaviors that also influence value creation, and consequently, should be considered in tourism experience co-creation.

### ***V.3.3.3) Interactions, Behaviors, Attitudes and Mental Processes***

Our literature review (Chapter IV) reveals infinite of co-creation practices: active involvement in trip packaging (Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012), time and previous experience devotion to travel arrangement (Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012), being polite to the hotel employees (Hsiao et al., 2015), recommending the hotel to family and friends (Hsiao et al., 2015), showing interest and actively participating on the experience (Prebensen et al., 2016), making online reviews of the hotel service (Morosan, 2018), recalling the tourist experience days after returning home (Prebensen et al., 2014), or imagining the experience well before travelling (Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, et al., 2012). These practices are so heterogeneous that we will dedicate this section to find a pattern to discern them in terms of *typology*, further from distinguishing interactive and non-interactive practices.

SDL usually discusses value co-creation as service exchange and resource integration in terms of ‘processes’. But, how can these ‘processes’, in general, be described? According to Payne et al. (2008, p. 85), “processes include the procedures, tasks, mechanisms, activities and interactions which support the co-creation of value (...); practices that are partly overt and deliberate, and partly based on routine and unconscious behavior”. In the same vein, the experiential view of consumption (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), which is coherent with our tourism context (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987), emphasizes emotional and contextual, symbolic and non-utilitarian aspects of consumption, apart from the more obvious and investigated cognition. Therefore, co-creation processes that shape the consumption process should include flow of fantasies, feelings and fun (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), apart from cognitive goal-directed (rational) activities. From this emotional view of the relational experience (Payne et al., 2008) we can derive that customers co-create both by information-processing activities, and by feelings and thoughts. Thus, co-creation concerns not only *interactions* and *cognitive behaviors*, but also *attitudes* and *mental processes*, more sub-conscious and private in nature.

In sum, this study determines four types of consumer co-creation processes:

- **Interactions:** Relationships between the customer and any third party, based on dialog and knowledge transfer (Gummesson & Mele, 2010). These include, for instance, tourists’ interaction with local population at destination.
- **Behaviors:** Ways the customer acts or conducts him/herself, based on cognitive and information-processing evaluations (Payne et al., 2008). These include, for instance, self-arranging the trip through the Internet.

- **Attitudes:** Manners and dispositions of the customer with regard to another person, based on feelings, moods and affect-based personality characteristics (Beckman, 1989). These include, for instance, being polite to the hotel employee.

- **Mental processes:** Internal and personal thoughts built in the customer's mind around an event, and influenced by expectancies and memory (Larsen, 2007). These include, for instance, imagining the trip before going on travel.

#### ***V.3.3.4) The Systemic Approach***

According to SDL narrative, the co-creation context involves the actions of multiple actors, often unaware of each other, who contribute to each other's wellbeing (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). SDL, thus, challenges GDL not only by blurring the differences between 'production' and 'consumption', but by widening our perspective from a *dyadic* (consumer-provider) to a *systemic* view, where co-creation possesses not a two-sided, but a multisided interpretation (Vargo et al., 2008). Several other approaches support this systemic approach of co-creation, although they are sometimes still grounded on the one-party focus of conventional marketing (Gummesson, 2006; Håkansson & Shenota, 1995; Maglio & Spohrer, 2008; Normann & Ramírez, 1993; Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995).

Therefore, it can be concluded that tourism experience co-creation includes several actors. In contrast to what we have perceived in our literature review, tourists and service providers are not the only actors implied in the value co-creation process in destinations. On the contrary, value is also co-created, for instance, through CCIs, or when customers share their experiences with family and friends. Thus, dyadic relationships (tourist-service provider) should be exceeded, to include relevant contacts between the visitor and local people, other tourists, and family and friends. These relationships will appear along the co-creation process with different intensity and quality.

#### ***V.3.3.5) Timing and Location***

Most of the reviewed studies reflect a preference towards dealing with co-creation before and during the service. Thus, the former involves, for instance, new product development (e.g., Ku et al., 2013) or trip arrangement (e.g., Grisseman & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012). The latter includes intervening, being cooperative, asking questions (Chen et al., 2015), and behaving responsively (Prebensen, Vittersø, et al., 2013). However, we believe that the tourism co-creation approach should be considered at every stage of the value creation process, (i.e., *ex-ante*, *in-situ*, and *ex-post*), and only this way an integrated tourism experience co-creation view will be achieved.

Some studies in the literature have already distinguished diverse stages of co-creation. For instance, Navarro, Andreu, and Cervera (2014) identified supplier and customer processes before the customer's visit to the hotel, in the arrival and check-in, in the customer's stay at the hotel, and in the check-out process. Equally, Prideaux (2014) implicitly describes co-creation happening in the journey preparation, in the journey (from origin to destination), within the destination, and returning home. Although these perspectives can be considered limited due to its co-production tendency and conceptual nature, it is useful to corroborate that when addressing tourism experience co-creation, researchers should

contemplate a more extended time period, one that will go beyond the duration of the strict service provision. In favor of a balance between simplicity and all-inclusivity, three different periods or co-creation stages have been determined: *before*, *during*, and *after* travel.

Admitting, as we have done, that tourism experience co-creation processes can occur before, during and after a trip, we can deduce that co-creation takes place in several locations, always including the destination itself, as well as the different service settings in the destination where tourists carry out interactions. Personal environments outside the destination (e.g., tourist's home) are also potential co-creation spaces.

### **V.3.4. Extended Implications of Tourism Experience Co-creation**

Beyond providing a definition for tourism experience co-creation, this study is interested in covering two additional issues that concern co-creation *antecedents* and *outcomes*. For that reason, the previous definition can be extended to say: *Tourism experience co-creation is facilitated by resources and, in turn, leads to value-in-context*. These two points are disclosed in the following paragraphs.

#### ***V.3.4.1) Resources as Antecedents of Tourism Experience Co-creation***

Considering co-creation as service exchange and resource integration, resources become essential elements in value co-creation processes (Paredes, Barrutia, & Echebarria, 2014), which lead us to discuss its typology and role.

Under SDL, resources are categorized as operand and operant resources (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Operand resources are understood as resources on which an operation or act is performed to produce an effect. Their essence is typically physical, including natural resources, raw materials, or physical products. Operant resources are understood as resources employed to act on operand resources (and other operant resources). Knowledge and skills are the most recognizable operant resources. SDL confirms the supremacy usually attached to operant resources because: (i) they are, in essence, intangible, continuous and dynamic, and can evolve, transform, and multiply; and (ii) they may multiply the value of operand resources, as well as create new operant resources. Therefore, operant resources are the fundamental source of strategic benefit (FP4, in Vargo and Lusch (2016)).

For simplicity, this study is focused on tourist resources and destination resources.

#### ***V.3.4.1.a) Tourist Resources***

Arnould, Price, and Malshe (2006) developed a customer resource classification for SDL. Based on the resource-based view and consumer culture theory, customer operant resources were categorized as physical, social, and cultural:

- Physical resources involve resources that are controlled by individuals and which they possess by nature (e.g. sensorimotor endowment, energy, emotions, and strength). Customers possess different physical and mental characteristics. This affects their life roles and projects (e.g. low literate and physically challenged consumer life roles and life projects appear to differ qualitatively from those with average physical resource endowments).

- Social resources refer to networks and relationships with traditional groups such as families, ethnic groups, and social class, or emergent groups such as brand communities, consumer tribes, and sub-cultures, over which consumers exert varying degrees of command. If people exert allocative capabilities over operand resources (e.g. money, garden space) we may say they exert authoritative capabilities over social operand resources (Arnould et al., 2006). Consumers can participate in co-consuming groups that represent a form of consuming agency. Such resources become fundamental in the context of SDL due to their network perspective and the assessment of value-in-context.

- Cultural resources consist of varying amounts and kinds of knowledge of cultural schemas, including specialized cultural capital, skills, and goals. Cultural resources refer to customers' specialized knowledge and skills, life expectancies and history, and imagination.

Translated to our context, all types of resources are critical in tourism experience co-creation. For instance, tourist's available money and time (operand resources), involvement (physical resource), tourism-related social networks (social resources), and specific tourism-related knowledge and skills (cultural resource) will affect the tourist's co-creation process. Specifically, more involved, socially related and expert tourists will manage service exchange and resource integration processes more easily. These resources are measurable, but can also be detected in the co-creation degree and ability.

#### *V.3.4.1.b) Destination Resources*

Based on resource-advantage theory, Madhavaram and Hunt (2008) propose a broad concept of resources: "all assets, capabilities, processes, attributes, information, knowledge, etc., controlled by an actor (preferentially customer and provider) that enable him to conceive of and implement performances and strategies that improve his efficiency and effectiveness" (adapted from Barney (1991, p. 101)). They also develop a hierarchy of operand resources within a SDL perspective. This hierarchy divides resources into basic and higher-order resources, as follows:

- Basic operand resources, which are the 'building blocks' of higher-order operand resources. These resources include, for instance, the skills and knowledge of individual employees.

- Higher-order operand resources, which are bundles of basic resources (similar to competences or capabilities). Higher-order resources are, in turn, classified in two categories in accordance with the level of interactivity of the lower-order resources they include. Composite operand resources are understood as a combination of basic resources, with low levels of interactivity. Examples include market orientation, price-setting capability, network competence, technological competence, and internal market orientation. Interconnected operand resources consist of a combination of basic resources in which lower order resources significantly interact, reinforcing each other, enabling the firm to produce valuable market offerings productively. Examples include product innovation competence and market orientation–innovativeness capability.

The competitive advantage of firms becomes more sustainable as firms go up the hierarchy because resources become more inimitable and non-substitutable.

Translated to our context, we apply the name of destination resources to all the resources related to the visited place, including public and private resources. The latter are mostly hospitality-related services (e.g., hotels, transportation, restaurants, nightlife clubs, museums). In this case, all types of destination resources are critical in tourism experience co-creation. For instance, natural resources in destination (operand resource), skills of the hotel employees (basic operand resources), the travel agency's technological competence (higher-order composite resources), and the bundle of tourism directed services in destinations (higher-order interconnected resources), all would affect the tourism experience co-creation. Specifically, more attentive service workers, better technological applications available for travel organization, and more complete tourism offers will lead to that tourists will manage service exchange and resource integration processes more easily, specially in those involving third-party interactions. Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015) proposed an interesting and SDL-driven (coherent with SDL's 'value proposition') variable: *Tourist Experience Proposition (TEP)*, which refers to a holistic evaluation of the factors mentioned above.

#### *V.3.4.1.c) Effect of Tourist and Destination Resources on Value Co-creation Processes*

To meet their goals, consumers need to integrate their own resources and resources from others, which they access through service exchanges (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). However, service exchange and resource integration are time-, money-, and effort-consuming processes. Consumers can therefore make decisions over whether to enter such processes, considering both benefits and costs. Consequently, they need to: (i) examine and evaluate their own resources and the resources of others; (ii) proxy the costs and benefits of accessing others' resources and integrating them; and (iii) act accordingly. This approach is consistent with consumer culture theory. Thus, Arnould et al. (2006) argue that the type, quantity, and quality of consumer operand resources, brought to an exchange process, impact the value consumers seek from exchange and the roles they expect themselves and firms to play in exchange. Low-literacy and older consumers might, for instance, prefer to use a travel agency to arrange their trip instead of searching on the Internet. In short, tourism experience co-creation processes and value perceptions will be influenced by the resources of all actors in the service ecosystem, that is, influenced by tourist and destination resources (Barrutia & Gilsanz, 2013).

#### *V.3.4.2) Value as an Outcome of Tourism Experience Co-creation*

According to SDL, the first consequence of the integration of resources is the *formation, emergence, or creation* of value, broadly understood as enhancement of customer wellbeing or making the customer better off in some respect (Vargo et al., 2008). Recent SDL-related views on value co-creation suggest that value perception: (i) is linked to consumer goals (Arnould et al., 2006); (ii) depends not just on the provider's resources but also on those of consumers (Macdonald, Kleinaltenkamp, & Wilson, 2016) and other actors (Vargo & Lusch, 2016); (iii) is not predetermined in the exchange process but is, rather,

continually enhanced by both parties and by other service ecosystem actors (Vargo & Lusch, 2016); and (iv) arises not only through product usage processes but at any point on a customer's journey (Macdonald et al., 2016).

This understanding of value (i.e. the outcome of the co-creation process) (Gummerus, 2013) has led to the term *value-in-context* (Vargo & Lusch, 2016), which is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary (FP10, in Vargo and Lusch (2016)). When using the term 'phenomenological', the authors express the idiosyncratic, experiential, contextual, and meaning-laden character of value. Therefore, instead of value-in-use, which might be linked with the usage of goods, they adopt the term 'value-in-context'. Further, they prefer to use the term 'beneficiary' to talk about the actor who determines the value, instead of referring to a 'customer' or 'consumer', as the term 'beneficiary' "centers the discussion on the recipient of service and the referent of value co-creation" (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 10).

The concept of value-in-context is similar to the concept of *experiential value* (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982), which fits the tourism experience context particularly well (Gentile et al., 2007).

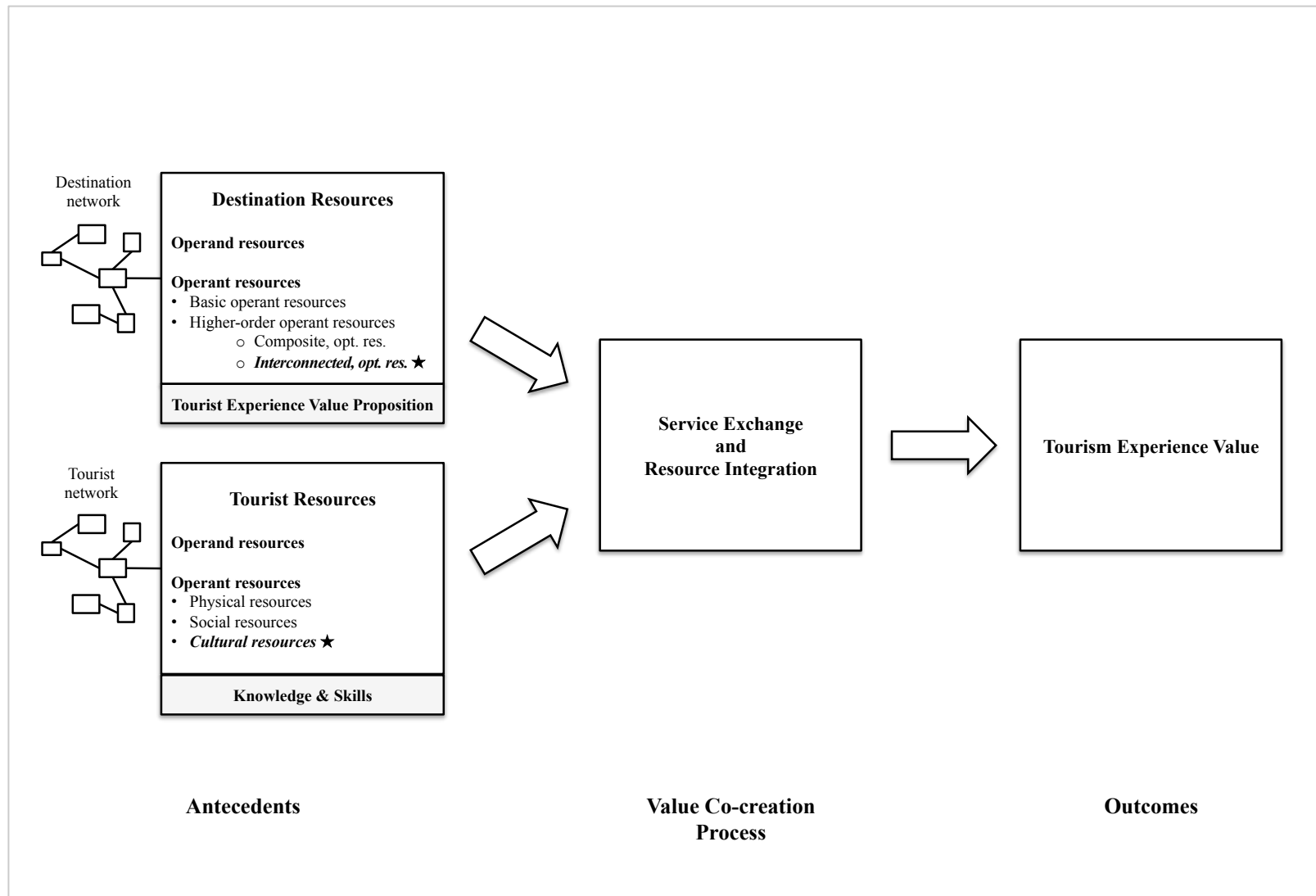
#### **V.4. Baseline Model**

This section presents the results of the conceptualization of tourism experience co-creation based on SDL. Figure V.2 shows an extended theoretical model for our study research.

The central point of the baseline model is the tourist-driven value co-creation process, understood as service exchange and resource integration (for more detail see Figure V.1). Then, both tourist's resources and destination resources, understood as co-creation antecedents, facilitate co-creation of the travel experience. A complete analysis of resources in this case would imply an additional research, due to the extended literature available around resources. For that reason, this study underlines the relevance of what we have considered the most important tourism resources, following SDL and resource-advantage theory (Madhavaram & Hunt, 2008): *knowledge and skills* in the tourist's sphere, and *tourist experience value proposition* in the destination's sphere. Finally, the outcome attributed to co-creation is *value*, contextual (travel-related) and experiential in nature, and always determined by the customer (i.e., tourist).

Focusing on the value co-creation process, we have described it as a set of interactive and non-interactive (i.e., behavioral, attitudinal, and mental) processes driven by the tourist before, during and after travel. Even though this being an advance by itself when it comes to define and unfold co-creation in travel contexts, we still acknowledge a lack of concreteness in the provided concept. Therefore, our objective in the following section is to uncover the 'black box' that represents value co-creation in the baseline model (in terms of service exchange and resource integration), adding clarity by detailing specific co-creation processes.

Figure V.2 Tourism Experience Co-creation: An Extended Baseline Model



Source: Own elaboration.

## V.5. Value Co-creation Process: Detailed Concepts

The specification of value co-creation processes in a travel context was not a biased decision, but a pondered agreement based on previous work. We specifically based, first, on the implications of tourism experience co-creation (see Section V.3.3), and second, on the background reviews about value co-creation and value co-creation in destination and tourism contexts. The latter were derived to a large extent from the literature reviews described in Chapter II, Chapter III, and Chapter IV. In this part of the investigation we identified already developed measurement scales for value co-creation, as well as relevant conceptual and qualitative information about co-creation that could well be used to integrate and complete the former. The searching process consisted on two steps:

(1) First, we detected two important references dealing formally with co-creation as a construct (Ranjan & Read, 2016; Yi & Gong, 2013). Then, we performed additional searches on *service exchange* and *resource integration* measurements, but the rigorousness of such proposals was low. Few authors were considered in this case (Edvardsson, Kleinaltenkamp, Tronvoll, McHugh, & Windahl, 2014; Karpen, Bove, Lukas, & Zyphur, 2015; Kleinaltenkamp et al., 2012; Neghina, Caniëls, Bloemer, & van Birgelen, 2015).

(2) The 155 documents dealing with co-creation in place marketing (urban marketing, hospitality marketing, destination marketing) were screened (see Chapter IV). Here, we compiled all the variables and items used in the quantitative works to measure co-creation or any other process representing partial co-creation approaches (Table IV.5) (e.g., personalization, co-production, customization, participation) (Ahn et al., 2016; Chekalina et al., 2014; Chen & Raab, 2017; Chen et al., 2015; Fakharyan et al., 2014; Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Hsiao et al., 2015; Mohd-Any et al., 2015; Morosan, 2018; Nusair et al., 2013; Santos-Vijande et al., 2018; Suntikul & Jachna, 2016; Tsai, 2017; Victorino et al., 2005; Yang, 2016). In a deeper analysis, we added to the previous approaches other behaviors that we considered important to explain a comprehensive concept of co-creation but that had only been described in the literature conceptually and qualitatively (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, et al., 2012; Neuhofer et al., 2014a; Nunes et al., 2014; Park & Allen, 2013; Pera, 2017; Prebensen et al., 2014; Warnaby & Medway, 2015).

The resulting two-dimensional matrix is illustrated in Table V.1, where all the detected ideas were distinguished following two criteria: (a) co-creation *before*, *during* or *after* the tourism experience, and (b) *interactive* and *non-interactive* processes.

Experts and collaborators were used to corroborate the concepts to include as ‘value co-creation processes’. Finally, nine different co-creation processes were defined:

- Two *interactional* co-creation processes, both *during* travel.
- Three *behavioral* co-creation processes, one *before*, one *during*, and one *after* travel.
- Two *attitudinal* co-creation processes, both *during* travel.
- Two *mental* co-creation processes, one *before* and the other *after* travel.



Table V.1 Two-Dimensional Matrix with Co-creation Processes Found in the Literature (Before, During, and After / Interactive and Non-interactive) (n=155)

	<b>Interaction</b>	<b>No interaction</b>
Before (10)	<p>I have been actively involved in my trip arrangement: booking accommodation, booking mobility services as flight, bus or train, rent a car, manage insurances, perform direct payments of travel expenses, etc. (Grissemann &amp; Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Mohd-Any et al., 2015).</p> <p>I have been actively involved in the packaging of my destination activities: booking tickets for amenities such as museums, sightseeing, natural parks, etc. (Grissemann &amp; Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Mohd-Any et al., 2015).</p> <p>The ideas of how to arrange this trip were predominantly suggested by myself (Grissemann &amp; Stokburger-Sauer, 2012).</p> <p>I have customized any of the travel services (hotel room, flight, etc.) (Victorino et al., 2005).</p> <p>I have asked others for information on what this destination offers (Hsiao et al., 2015).</p> <p>I have asked people I know for their opinions about the destination (Chen &amp; Raab, 2017; Chen et al., 2015).</p>	<p>I have read about the destination before travelling in magazines, newspapers, internal website, blogs, guidebooks, etc. (Ahn et al., 2016; Chekalina et al., 2014; Chen &amp; Raab, 2017; Chen et al., 2015; Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, et al., 2012; Mohd-Any et al., 2015; Suntikul &amp; Jachna, 2016).</p> <p>I have searched for information on where this destination is located and how to arrive (Hsiao et al., 2015).</p> <p>I imagine the experience well before travelling (Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, et al., 2012).</p> <p>I have spent a considerable amount of time arranging this trip (Grissemann &amp; Stokburger-Sauer, 2012).</p>
During (16)	<p>I have participated in workshops/exhibits where local experts taught visitors about local specialties such as gastronomy, art, pottery, painting, dancing, learning the language etc. (Binkhorst &amp; Den Dekker, 2009).</p> <p>I have interacted with local people (Suntikul &amp; Jachna, 2016).</p> <p>I have provided real-time information through ICTs to destination service providers to adapt the experience to specific needs and requirements (Neuhofer et al., 2014a; Nunes et al., 2014).</p> <p>My interaction with other tourists has been helpful: I have assisted, taught, and help them if they needed (Hsiao et al., 2015; Yang, 2016).</p> <p>My interaction with other tourists has been harmonious/friendly: they made my time more enjoyable (Fakharyan et al., 2014; Yang, 2016).</p> <p>My interaction with other tourists has been cooperative: we talked about the destination, shared experiences, and mutually gave advice about what to see in this destination (Hsiao et al., 2015; Suntikul &amp; Jachna, 2016).</p> <p>I use online social networks during my trip to discuss activities performed at the destination with friends and family (Nusair et al., 2013).</p> <p>I have helped destination organizations to improve or</p>	<p>Assemble a variety of services, amenities and other elements of the destination to make my personal experience (Warnaby &amp; Medway, 2015).</p> <p>If services at destination are not delivered as expected, I would be willing to put up with it (Hsiao et al., 2015).</p> <p>If I have to wait longer than I normally expected to receive the service, I would be willing to adapt (Hsiao et al., 2015).</p>

	<p>develop tourism-directed services at the destination by providing ideas (Santos-Vijande et al., 2018; Tsai, 2017).</p> <p>I have been friendly with the service providers at the destination (Ahn et al., 2016; Chen &amp; Raab, 2017; Chen et al., 2015; Hsiao et al., 2015).</p> <p>I have been respectful with the service providers at the destination (Chen &amp; Raab, 2017; Chen et al., 2015; Hsiao et al., 2015).</p> <p>I have clearly explained what I wanted to do in the destination (Hsiao et al., 2015).</p> <p>I have given the corresponding employees (travel agency, airline, hotel, retailing, etc.) proper information (Hsiao et al., 2015).</p> <p>I have intervened when something is not right in any of the services offered at the destination (Chen &amp; Raab, 2017; Chen et al., 2015).</p>	
After (7)	<p>I give feedback if services related to the journey ask my opinion about my experience at the destination (e.g., through surveys) (Mohd-Any et al., 2015).</p> <p>I take the initiative to propose improvements on services at the destination (Ahn et al., 2016).</p> <p>I share the photos and videos of my experience in social networks (self-developed).</p> <p>I talk to friends and relatives my experience at the destination (self-developed).</p>	<p>I recall my tourist experience days after returning home (Prebensen et al., 2014).</p> <p>I voluntarily post online reviews about my experience at the destination (Mohd-Any et al., 2015; Morosan, 2018; Park &amp; Allen, 2013).</p> <p>I voluntarily give my opinions and write reviews about specific service companies at destination (Pera, 2017).</p>

Source: Own elaboration.

### V.5.1. Interactional Co-creation Processes

The relationship between *co-creation* and *interactions* is based on social construction theories (Berger & Luckmann, 1966), which encourage shifting the emphasis away from customer's subjective perceptions to focus on socially constructed value (Helkkula, Kelleher, & Pihlström, 2012; Holt, 1995). Following this perspective, 'knowledge' and 'meanings', and by extension 'value', are created by social actors in an inter-subjective manner (Edvardsson, Tronvoll, et al., 2011; Voima, Heinonen, & Strandvik, 2010). Thus, co-creation, which is by definition a phenomenon embedded in the social world, can be studied by interpreting shared social structures and their interaction and reproduction by individuals (Edvardsson, Tronvoll, et al., 2011). In a tourism context, Crompton (1979) acknowledged *social interaction* as a travel motivation and source of pleasure.

In this study we are giving to interactions an important meaning in value co-creation; however, it is difficult to get away completely from the 'individual', because the needs, preferences and habits of individuals still play a part in those value co-creation practices. This conflict can be reconciled drawing on the notion of *social practices*, which are not simply bodily actions or behaviors in a sociological sense, but 'ways of doing' or contexts in which these bodily actions, tasks and behaviors that the practice requires are carried out (Schatzki,

2001). This view is coherent with our SDL-driven co-creation perspective, where interactions are studied together with individual behaviors, attitudes and mental processes.

In this section we are focusing on *interactional practices*. Observing social interactions among tourists, there can be identified various ‘consumption practices’ through which the tourist co-create value. Based on the reviewed literature, we will distinguish two interaction types: interactions *with local people* and interactions *with other tourists*. Due to its relevance, we will give a broader space to interactions with providers and analyze them in following paragraphs.

#### ***V.5.1.1) Interaction with Local People***

The tourism literature has thoroughly studied the impact of local population on tourists’ travel experiences, not only as a destination conservation factor (Sekhar, 2003), and a place image factor (typical stereotyped local people) (Freire, 2009), but also as something that affects the experience *in-situ* through *interactions*. In fact, Salazar (2005, p. 629) argued that: “a great deal of scholarly energy has been devoted to showing that the local is not and never was the passive, bounded and homogeneous entity it is frequently assumed to be.” Likewise, tourism-aid social interactions with tourists also reveal the significance of residents in the tourism experience (Marsh & Henshall, 1987). For those reasons, we can assume that the tourist-local relationship (in terms of intensity and quality) established at destinations is a key value driver. Additionally, we can conclude that when tourists interact with local people, they are co-creating their experience (Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Peixeira Marques, 2012), even though the tourist does not have a total control over the situation, as those interactions require attitudes by residents that favor those interactions (Marsh & Henshall, 1987).

Interactions with local population have special meaning in rural tourism (Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Peixeira Marques, 2012), volunteer tourism (Raymond & Hall, 2008), backpacking travelling (Huxley, 2004), and creative tourism (Richards, 2010). However, other authors in our literature review emphasized the co-creative nature of interaction with local people in any kind of trip (e.g., Suntikul & Jachna, 2016). For instance, Binkhorst and Den Dekker (2009) cited ‘having (or not having) participated in workshops/exhibits where local experts taught visitors about local specialties such as gastronomy, art, pottery, painting, dancing, learning the language etc.’ as a sign of co-creation in the tourism experience.

#### ***V.5.1.2) Interaction with Other Tourists***

Intensive research has been done about interactions between consumers in service environments (e.g., Alam, 2006; Libai et al., 2010; Moore, Moore, & Capella, 2005). Tourism is one of those contexts. Here, tourist-to-tourist interactions are addressed within the destination (e.g., Huang & Hsu, 2010; Rihova et al., 2015; Wu, 2007). Recursively-studied issues in tourist-to-tourist interactions include cross-nationality/cultural effects (e.g., Nicholls, 2011) and managerial performances to improve, support and facilitate interactions between tourists (Arnould & Price, 1993; Getz, 2007). Regardless of the heterogeneous views adopted in the field, a consensus is achieved when saying that the presence of other tourists is an integral part of the tourist experience, and, hence, gazing upon other tourists is an inevitable part of being a tourist (Holloway, Green, & Holloway, 2011). Following previous

ideas, social interactions are one of the most important motivations for pleasure vacation. Those social interactions in a travel-related context include, not only local population, but also other tourists. In fact, Crompton (1979) revealed that most interaction was with other tourists in the area. Moreover, he concluded that “there was little common identity with local people who were serving as waitresses, and much more with other tourists who were also waiting in line or visiting a particular attraction for the first time.”

In a rather conceptual approach, Rihova et al. (2015) provided a conceptual model for C2C co-creation in tourism. In this framework the authors focused on the tourists’ C2C value co-creation as taking place on three social levels, including the ‘communitas level’. According to Rihova et al. (2015, p. 360), “in the ‘communitas level’, which emerges particularly within the confines of the liminoid space [i.e., at the destination], a degree of homogeneity, sense of togetherness and belonging is developed among the tourists that share their experiences.” As in interactions with local people, we can assume that tourist’s personal features will affect the degree and quality to which tourists engage with strangers (Levy & Getz, 2012). Additionally, these interactions will also be guided by other factors, as the other tourists and institutions (social structures), and how both parties interpret and negotiate those ‘spaces’.

We also found more specific studies, where the objective was to identify and empirically examine the co-creation practices of tourists in concrete social contexts. In these studies, authors emphasized helpfulness, friendliness and cooperation in the relationship between tourists, and described interactional situations where the central tourist assists, teaches, and helps other tourists (Hsiao et al., 2015; Yang, 2016), or he/she shares experiences, talks about the destination with other tourists, and gives advice about what to see (Hsiao et al., 2015; Suntikul & Jachna, 2016). Others addressed the *mutual* interaction, by wondering if those tourist-to-tourist interactions make their respective times more enjoyable (Fakharyan et al., 2014; Yang, 2016).

## **V.5.2. Behavioral Co-creation Processes**

Even though our co-creation perspective exceeds customer’s ‘behaviors’ (Payne et al., 2008), several studies focused on *co-creation behaviors*. For instance, Yi and Gong (2013) developed a measurement scale for *value co-creation behavior*, distinguishing customer *participation* and *citizenship* behaviors.

Based on our literature review (see Table V.1), we identified three main tourist co-creation behaviors. The three are, to a large extent, ascribed to the tourist-provider relationship. However, in contrast to previously described *interactions*, the main responsibility of behavioral co-creation processes falls on the customer (i.e., the tourist). We refer to: behaviors associated with the travel preparation, behaviors related to providing the necessary information to providers, and feedback behaviors.

### ***V.5.2.1) Travel Organization***

The tourists’ behaviors associated with travel preparation are, probably, one of the most examined processes in the tourism experience co-creation literature. Already in that

time, Hsieh, O’Leary, Morrison, and Chan (1993) provided a pioneering definition for *independent travelers*, in contrast to *all-inclusive packaged travelers*. They refer to them as adult citizens who make their own transportation and accommodation arrangement, choosing not to buy prearranged packages or tours, that is, packages that include all ground activities (i.e., transportation, food, travel itinerary, guide service, entertainment) sold at an all-inclusive price.

Under our point of view, travel organization involves experience-arrangement-related behaviors that represent *co-production*, a more GDL-driven view of the co-created tourism experience that is no more than a limited part of value co-creation. However, we found this piece of co-creation relevant to complete a comprehensive co-creation framework in a travel-related context. The evident relevance of co-production in co-creation of value is founded on the centrality of customers’ inputs to define ‘service’/‘experience’. Customers’ inputs are partially defined as *customer self-input*, that is, the employment of customer labor in the service/experience development process (Sampson & Froehle, 2006).

Based on the narrow but useful definition that Grisseman and Stokburger-Sauer (2012) gave to ‘customer co-creation of tourism services’, this study outlines travel organization as *the customer’s provision of input in the development of their travel arrangement*. The ‘travel arrangement/organization’ concept is a well-known concept in the field (Liu, Li, & Yang, 2015; Morrison, Hsieh, & O’Leary, 1994; Yoon & Shafer, 1997), and in this study is addressed from an ‘experience’ perspective, understanding the process as something that exceeds a particular service. Travel organization enables customers to tailor a ‘product’ (i.e., a trip) that fits their individual needs. Thus, this idea leads to the assumption that tourists are willing to engage in co-creating their travel experience, preferring a ‘self-designed experience’ rather than a ‘standardized experience’ (Grisseman & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012, based on Franke and Piller (2004) and Schreier (2006)). Likewise, there are other relevant publications that supported this view (e.g., Bettencourt, 1997; Lengnick - Hall, Claycomb, & Inks, 2000). In sum, when tourists wholly or partially prepare their trip, they are contributing to their experience, and therefore, co-creating value.

These behaviors have obtained an increasing interest with the development of technology and the growing number of online platforms that support tourists to prepare and organize travel-related details themselves (e.g., *Airbnb*, *Kayak*, *Mamondo*, *Skyscanner*) (Buhalis & Law, 2008; Guttentag, 2015; Kaynama & Black, 2000; Neuhofer et al., 2014a; Novak & Schwabe, 2009; Werthner & Klein, 1999). In the context of travel websites, customers participate directly in service creation through the utilization of the features and functionalities of websites, and consequently, co-create service experiences, and finally, also their own value experience (Mohd-Any et al., 2015; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004d).

Several authors addressed tourist’s travel self-arrangement behaviors. Among the specific travel organization behaviors, we found: the active involvement of travellers to book accommodation, mobility services (flight, bus, train to destination, or car rental), or destination activities (e.g., booking museum tickets) (Grisseman & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012); direct payment of travel expenses (Mohd-Any et al., 2015); travel services customization (e.g., flexible check-in, childcare, kitchen) (Victorino et al., 2005); and

searching and asking for information about the destination, both in magazines, websites, blogs and guidebooks, or asking people he/she knows (Ahn et al., 2016; Chekalina et al., 2014; Chen & Raab, 2017; Chen et al., 2015; Hsiao et al., 2015; Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Peixeira Marques, 2012; Mohd-Any et al., 2015; Suntikul & Jachna, 2016). In these travel arrangement behaviors, it is important not only the *arrangement/organization* itself but also the *resources* devoted to it, for example, in terms of ‘time’ and ‘ideas’ (i.e., the *extent* to which the input is provided) (Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012).

#### ***V.5.2.2) Information Sharing with Providers***

Closely related to the previous section, where we have included tourist’s travel organization as a value co-creation (co-production) behavior, we now describe another important behavior acknowledged in the SDL and value co-creation literatures: *information sharing* with providers. In SDL, co-creation of value is accomplished through resource integration. If we limit the analysis to the most obvious customer-provider relationship, sometimes, the provider provides inputs into the customer’s own value creating activities; and occasionally is the customer who assists the firm in the ‘service-provision’ process in varying degrees, through information sharing, for example. These ‘collaborative behaviors’ pertain to the co-production domain, a relatively optional and more effortful form of the co-creation of value (McColl-Kennedy, Vargo, Dagger, & Sweeney, 2009). Sampson and Froehle (2006), included customer-provided information as one of the two basic types of customer input, together with self-inputs (already analyzed in section V.5.2.1)). Customer-provided information was defined as the provision of information by the customer that is indispensable for the service delivery. Similarly, Yi and Gong (2013) argued that customer value co-creation is a behavioral and multidimensional construct that includes *information sharing* as a factor that explains *customer participation*, one of the two higher-order factors of value co-creation. Therefore, information sharing is defined as a required (in-role) behavior necessary for successful value co-creation consisting on providing essential information to employees to be able to perform their duties. Other authors have also deal with the pertinence of providing resources as information to use in value co-creation processes to ensure that employees provide the service that meets their particular needs (Ennew & Binks, 1999; Lengnick-Hall, 1996). We can conclude, thus, that information sharing (knowledge of facts and data) is one of the critical dimensions of effective interaction and co-creation (Barile, Saviano, & Polese, 2014).

Maybe one of the contexts where the co-creative nature of information sharing is more evident is healthcare, as patients should be able to describe their symptoms adequately to relate their condition to a particular type of treatment (Barile et al., 2014). The value derived from the medical care service is, therefore, totally dependent on customers information sharing. Equally, tourism has also relied on information sharing with providers to provide a comprehensive perspective of value co-creation in this context. For instance, (Chathoth et al., 2013) emphasized the relevance of information sharing in hotels to accomplish and improve the provided service. In the same vein, Grisseemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012) understood customer co-creation of tourism services as the customer’s provision of input in the development of their travel arrangement, understanding the ‘input’

partially as customer-provided information (e.g., telling the travel agency their wants and needs).

We can therefore, define information sharing with destination providers as the willingness of tourists to provide employees of tourism firms at destination (e.g., hotels, museums, tour guides, restaurants) with personal information to ensure that tourist's expected services can satisfy their personal needs (Hsiao et al., 2015; Yi & Gong, 2013).

Some of the explicit information sharing behaviors of the tourist include, for instance, to explain clearly what he/she wants to do in the destination (Hsiao et al., 2015), to give the proper (sometimes real-time) information to the corresponding service providers (Hsiao et al., 2015; Neuhofer et al., 2014b; Nunes et al., 2014), and to intervene when something is not right (Chen & Raab, 2017; Chen et al., 2015).

### ***V.5.2.3) Feedback***

Based on the *resource integration* concept that drives value co-creation in this study, we considered necessary to include an additional after travel behavior in our analysis: *feedback*. Customer feedback behaviors imply customer's information and knowledge provision to *providers* (i.e., about their provided service) or *other customers* (i.e., service evaluations and recommendations). In the present work we are focusing on the former, which is the one that received more attention.

Following Yi and Gong (2013), customer value co-creation is a behavioral and multidimensional construct that includes *feedback* as a factor that explains *customer citizenship behavior*, one of the two higher-order factors of value co-creation. Therefore, feedback is defined as a voluntary (extra-role) behavior (not necessarily required for value co-creation) that provides extraordinary value to the firm (to improve service creation process in the long run), consisting on the customer's solicited or unsolicited information provision to the employees (Groth, Mertens, & Murphy, 2004).

Feedback has been widely studied in the literature, especially in virtual customer environments (Füller, 2010; Nambisan & Baron, 2009). Those studies focusing on feedback as a co-creative behavior are, in our opinion, under a more GDL-based perspective of co-creation, where the service provider seems to be the main beneficiary. Specifically, the studies dealing with feedback as a co-creative behavior, are build on CL and base their arguments on the DART model. Usually, the objective of those studies is to emphasize the need of better encounter platforms that would encourage customer feedback behaviors through dialogue and access to information (Kumar et al., 2010; Potts et al., 2008; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004b). The tourism field was equally interested in feedback behaviors, especially from a managerial perspective (e.g., Sotiriadis & Van Zyl, 2015).

In our literature review we identified various feedback behaviors, both *voluntary* and *customer-driven* (unsolicited) online reviews or written opinions about the destination itself and the specific service companies (Mohd-Any et al., 2015; Morosan, 2018; Park & Allen, 2013; Pera, 2017), or *voluntary* and *provider-driven* (solicited) customer feedbacks based on firm surveys asking for opinions and service improvements (Ahn et al., 2016; Mohd-Any et al., 2015; Santos-Vijande et al., 2018; Tsai, 2017).

### V.5.3. Attitudinal Co-creation Processes

A large body of literature in cognitive science and related fields suggests that even relatively mild shifts in affective states (current moods) can exert powerful effects on both cognitive and overt behavior (Nambisan & Baron, 2007). Therefore, customers' friendliness, respect, and resilience can well influence the value creation process by improving service exchange. For that reason, in this study we opted for considering tourists' *attitudes* as part of co-creation. Nevertheless, we should acknowledge a noticeable GDL character in this type of co-creation processes, as long as requiring a friendly and tolerant attitude to customers is usually related to improving the provider's circumstances more than the customer's itself. However, our objective is to provide an all-inclusive view of tourism experience value co-creation. Therefore, we consider necessary but not sufficient the inclusion of attitudinal co-creation processes in the study.

This study is focusing on two attitudinal co-creation processes: *personal interaction with providers* and *tolerance*.

#### V.5.3.1) *Personal Interaction with Providers*

Personal interaction refers to interpersonal relations between customers and employees, which are necessary for successful value co-creation (Yi & Gong, 2013, based on Ennew and Binks (1999)). It may include interactional aspects such as courtesy, friendliness, and respect. According to Yi and Gong (2013), personal interactions can be described as a *customer participation behavior*.

In our context, we can define personal interaction with providers as the courtesy, friendliness and respect that the tourist shows in his/her contextual interpersonal relationships at destination with the multiple service providers, including, for instance, hotel employees and tour guides.

Various authors in the literature review about co-creation in place marketing were found to deal with this type of attitudinal co-creation process (Ahn et al., 2016; Chen & Raab, 2017; Chen et al., 2015; Hsiao et al., 2015).

#### V.5.3.2) *Tolerance*

Tolerance refers to customer willingness to be patient when the service delivery does not meet the customer's expectations of adequate service, as in the case of delays or equipment shortages (Yi & Gong, 2013, based on Lengnick - Hall et al. (2000)). According to Yi and Gong (2013), tolerance can be described as a *customer citizenship behavior*. This classification is related to the thought that customer's tolerance will plausibly help the firm in the aggregate overall (Keaveney, 1995).

In our context, we can define tolerance as the patience and resilience that the tourist shows when something goes wrong (or does not go as expected or promised) at destination, usually referring to the different services, including, for instance, accommodation details or recreation performances.

There was little evidence of tolerance in our literature review (Hsiao et al., 2015).



#### **V.5.4. Mental Co-creation Processes**

The present study is interested in analyzing all kinds of co-creation processes. However, we believe that mental processes deserve special attention in co-creation. Specifically, two mental processes have been recursively found in the literature review about co-creation in place marketing: imagining the trip before going on travel (Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Peixeira Marques, 2012) and recalling the tourism experience after the arrival (Prebensen et al., 2014). This means that the tourism experience is restricted neither to the host-guest encounter at the lodging unit nor to the larger experience onsite. On the contrary, tourists' 'purchase' frequently happens at a physical, temporal and even cultural distance. Here *imagery* and *dreams* are crucial. For that reason, the following sections are devoted to delve into these concepts: *pre-visualization* and *memorability*, co-creative mental processes of particular concern.

##### ***V.5.4.1) Pre-visualization***

The aim of this section is to argue that the image that the tourist creates in his/her mind around the tourism experience before travelling is a relevant mental process in tourist co-creation. According to Aho (2001), the entire tourist experience commences with orientation and attachment as an enjoyable anticipation of the holiday, which is, in turn, connected to idealized experiences, fantasy, imagination, and daydreaming (Buck, 1993). There is an extensive literature that confirms the importance of destination image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). However, it is not only the *destination* that the tourist can imagine before going on travel, but the *whole experience*, which includes him/herself. This 'experience image' is related to our concept of pre-visualization.

*Pre-visualization* or visualizing the trip well before going on travel is related with two ideas: (1) expectation formation (Gnoth, 1997) and (2) uncertainty avoidance (Quintal, Lee, & Soutar, 2010). First, the act of 'expecting' incorporates a range of meanings and understandings that include, among others, eager anticipation of an event (i.e., tourism experience) and prospects and gains one might hold or lose (i.e., benefits and drawbacks of travelling) (Skinner & Theodossopoulos, 2011). Several authors suggest that expectations are critical for tourism (e.g., Mazursky, 1989; Skinner & Theodossopoulos, 2011), as it plays a fundamental role in shaping the tourist experience. This study supports that pre-visualizing the tourism experience creates expectations. Expectation formation, in turn, leads us to the second issue, as it helps reducing uncertainty. Uncertainty is the situation in which something is not known or certain. Usually consumers are found to be averse to uncertainty, thus engaging in risk and uncertainty-reducing strategies. This study holds that pre-visualization helps diminishing such uncertainty.

##### ***V.5.4.2) Memorability***

The goal in this section is to introduce the concept of *memorability*, explaining its importance in tourism and its connection with co-creation processes. According to Hoch and Deighton (1989), remembered purchase experiences are important due to three reasons: (i) level of motivation and involvement are high when information is drawn from individual's

past experiences; (ii) individuals perceive their recalled past experiences as highly credible; and (iii) remembered experiences greatly influence future behavior. Buck (1993) argues that the recall of the experience is a frequently embellished discourse and shared imagination of dreamlike situations. Remembrance has been widely recognized in tourism settings (Kerstetter & Cho, 2004; Raju & Reilly, 1980; Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, & Diener, 2003). According to Aho (2001), the tourist experience is prolonged after travel through memorabilia, networks and reflection on the experience. Specifically, Kim, Ritchie, and McCormick (2012, p. 13) defined *memorable tourism experience* as “a tourism experience positively remembered and recalled after the event has occurred”. Even though both positive and negative experiences can be recalled, the former definition gives an idea about the constructive and beneficial role of memorability.

Another issue is the *subjectivity* of memorability. Tourists have different experiences, different interpretations, and therefore, different memories about the events, even if they are doing the same thing in the same place (Ooi, 2005). In the same vein, Small (1999) argues that participant memories are constructed within a specific social context. Thus, the subjective experience of remembering (Schmidt, 1991; Tulving, Kapur, Craik, Moscovitch, & Houle, 1994) is created, or rather, co-created, by the customer (i.e., the tourist).

## **V.6. Development of Research Hypotheses**

This section consists on presenting the study hypotheses that will be empirically contrasted in the next chapter (Chapter VI). The concepts described in the hypotheses will be likewise operationalized in following sections with concrete constructs and measured variables (items).

### **V.6.1. Effect of Tourist’s Resources on Tourism Experience Co-creation**

Our first hypothesis is grounded on section V.3.4.1). Based on the SDL perspective of co-creation, which describes co-creation in terms of service exchange and resource integration, it can be deduced that resources are a fundamental part in tourism experience co-creation processes. Specifically, operant resources and especially knowledge and skills (cultural resources) are of great importance. Besides, this study adopts a customer perspective, and describes travel experiences as tourist-driven. For all these reasons, we conclude that tourist’s travel-related knowledge and skills will have an effect on co-creation processes. However, we cannot forget that co-creation processes are diverse in nature, concerning time (i.e., before, during, after travel) and typology (i.e., interactions, behaviors, attitudes, mental processes). Thus, we ask: will tourist’s travel-related knowledge and skills influence all kind of co-creation processes?

First, customer resources will be available for him/her along the whole trip. This means that the specific travel-related knowledge and skills of the tourist, which are individual and personal resources, will influence co-creation processes before, during and after the trip.

Second, knowledge and skills are resources connected to cognitive and memory-based processes. For that reason, we can argue that tourist’s specific travel-related knowledge and

skills will influence co-creation behaviors and mental processes, but not interactions and attitudes. The latter are, on the contrary, contextually influenced by other actors and mood, and they are, therefore, outside the scope of tourist resources. For instance, it was already contended that an association exists between the depth of cognitive processing and individual's memory ( Craik & Lockhart, 1972). Depth of cognitive processing is defined, in turn, as the degree of semantic or cognitive analysis, which is part of knowledge and skills (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987). Knowledge is, besides, among the variables affecting memorability (Kim et al., 2012).

In relation to the effect's sign, the relationship is thought to be positive. That is, more knowledgeable and skillful tourists will co-create tourism experience more satisfactorily, adapting and carrying out behaviors according to their needs.

In sum, it can be concluded that tourist's specialized travel-related knowledge and skills positively affect behavioral co-creative processes and mental co-creative processes of a tourism experience. Based on section V.5, this statement is represented by the following five study hypotheses (H1a-H1e):

**H1: *Tourist's specialized travel-related knowledge and skills positively affect tourist's (a) travel organization behaviors, (b) information sharing behaviors with providers, (c) feedback behaviors, (d) pre-visualization, and (e) memorability of a tourism experience.***

### **V.6.2. Effect of Destination Resources on Memorability**

Our second hypothesis is grounded on section V.3.4.1). It has already been acknowledged that SDL emphasizes the importance of resources, especially that of operant resources. Regarding destination resources, which in our tourism context have to do more with the generally known firm/provider resources, interconnected operant resources are highlighted. Additionally, the present study is focused on customers. For those reasons, we adopted a holistic, gathering perspective, understanding destinations as a whole, formed by a network of service providers' private resources, public resources, and natural resources (Horbel, 2013). This network of resources can be represented, based on SDL, in terms of Tourist Experience Value Proposition (based on FP7 in Vargo and Lusch (2016)). Tourist Experience Value Proposition is defined as a multidimensional construct that includes the multiple resources and characteristics of the tourist destination, and is hypothesized to affect co-creation (Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015). But, why do destination resources (i.e., tourist experience value proposition) affect memorability?

First, the tourist perceives destination resources mostly during travel, and therefore, appreciation and evaluation of these resources is made during and after the trip. For that reason, destination resources will predominantly affect tourist's after-travel co-creative processes, but not before-travel co-creative processes. Co-creation before travel will be out of the scope of destination resources.

Second, concerning the type of tourist co-creative processes affected, our objective is to corroborate its relationship with tourist's mental processes, specifically 'memorability' or

'remembrance'. Although destination resources may have an effect on other tourist co-creative processes in form of interactions, behaviors and/or attitude, this is out of the objective of this work. In this regards, Kim et al. (2012) place assessment of service (i.e., perceived quality of service provided by tourism businesses) as influencing memorable tourism experiences.

In relation to the effect's sign, the relationship is thought to be positive. That is, destination resources (i.e., tourist experience value proposition) will lead to higher memorability levels. This is associated with the positive nature of memorability.

In sum, it can be concluded and hypothesized that:

**H2: *Tourist Experience Value Proposition (destination resources) positively affects the memorability of a tourism experience.***

### **V.6.3. Effect of Tourist's Co-creation Processes on Memorability**

Our third hypothesis is grounded on section V.3.3.3). In this section, we explained the special role of memorability or remembrance in tourism experience co-creation. However, in the present point we are wondering: what affects memorability?

First, experience recalling is a tourist's mental co-creative process occurring after the target event (i.e., after the trip). Due to memorability's timing (after travel), co-creation processes before, during and after travel will potentially affect it; that is, everything happening before such experience remembrance.

Second, in the memory literature, researchers have found various factors affecting the memorability of an event. Yet, affective feelings, such as being sociable, pleasant, happy, irritated, guilty, sad and worried (Larsen & Jenssen, 2004; Wirtz et al., 2003); cognitive evaluations; and novel events are found to be some of the most important (Kim et al., 2012). Affective feelings, cognitive evaluations and novel events encompass co-creation processes, including interactions, behaviors, attitudes and mental processes. For instance, social interaction, which is defined as a feeling of connection and group identity with travel partners and/or local people, is compiled within the potential constructs of the memorable tourism experience (Kim et al., 2012). In fact, Tung and Ritchie (2011) argue that general episodic memory (as the one derived from travelling), can have a large proportion of referencing involving others. Additionally, the level of involvement with the trip was also considered a memorable tourism experience creator (Kim et al., 2012).

Testing this hypothesis will favor discovering what exactly are the triggers for those memories, or in other words, which is the relationship between memory formation (i.e., the co-created experience) and memory retention (i.e., memorability) (Tung & Ritchie, 2011), a widely discussed link in the literature.

In relation to the effect's sign, the relationship is thought to be positive. That is, tourism experience co-creation processes will lead to higher memorability levels. This is, as in the previous hypothesis (H2), associated with the positive nature of memorability.

In sum, it can be concluded that tourist's interactive, behavioral, attitudinal, and mental co-creative processes, all positively affect memorability (i.e., experience recall/remembrance) of a tourism experience. Based on section V.5, this statement is represented by the following eight study hypotheses (H3a-H3h):

**H3: Tourist's (a) interactions with local people, (b) interactions with other tourists, (c) travel organization behaviors, (d) information sharing behaviors with providers, (e) feedback behaviors, (f) personal interaction with providers, (g) tolerance, and (h) pre-visualization, all positively affect the memorability of a tourism experience.**

#### **V.6.4. Effect of Tourist's Co-creation Process on Pre-visualization**

This hypothesis is directed to analyze an additional relationship within the value co-creation process. Specifically, our objective is to find the factor(s) that will affect pre-visualization or the visualization that the tourist makes before travelling. Therefore, we are referring to section V.3.3.3).

First, only co-creative behaviors taking place before travelling will potentially influence experience image or visualization, as the latter is a mental process developed prior to the on-site tourism experience.

Second, we believe that all interactions, behaviors, attitudes and other mental processes may have an effect on pre-visualization, as this is extremely sensitive to previous events, ideas and feelings (San Martín & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2008). As an example, information search and planning are demonstrated to be correlated with uncertainty avoidance and therefore with developing a pre-idea about the future tourism experience (Money & Crotts, 2003).

In relation to the effect's sign, the relationship is thought to be positive. That is, higher levels of co-creation before the trip will promote generation of experience images in tourist's mind.

In sum, it can be concluded that tourist's interactive, behavioral, attitudinal, and mental co-creative processes before travel positively affect tourist's pre-visualization of the tourism experience. Based on section V.5, this statement is represented by H4:

**H4: Tourist's travel organization behaviors positively affect the pre-visualization of a tourism experience.**

#### **V.6.5. Effect of Tourist's Co-creation Processes on Tourism Experience Value**

Our next hypotheses are based on section V.3.4.2). Based on SDL, value is the outcome of the co-creation process, and this value is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary (FP10, in Vargo and Lusch (2008)). When referring to 'phenomenological', the authors expressed the idiosyncratic, experiential, contextual, and meaning laden character of value. Therefore, the new goods-distanced premise moves us towards *value-in-context* or *experiential value*. At this point, the study's goal is to analyze (i) what co-creation processes affect value, and (ii) to what extent. Do every tourist co-creative process directly affect value?

First, regarding time, all co-creation processes can affect tourism experience value; that is, processes taking place before, during and after travel are potentially having an effect on value, as the latter is the end of the value-creation chain. Therefore, everything happened in advance is susceptible of changing beneficiary's (i.e., tourist's) final evaluation of the experience.

Second, concerning typology, all co-creation processes may affect experiential value. In fact, in the course of the present study, we have found no literature arguing otherwise. On the contrary, all interactive, behavioral, attitudinal, and mental co-creative processes have been considered to influence value. However, due to the lack of research on this issue, we are not able to determine if this effect is direct or indirect. We believe that tourist's on-site interactions, as well as tourist's behaviors related to travel preparation are going to directly and positively affect experiential value. This means, that first, the better the interaction of tourists with third parties on destination, the higher the perceived value; and second, the better the trip's fitting for the tourist's own needs and wants, the higher the perceived value. Instead, tourist's attitudes during the trip (before, during and after) have no direct relationship with value. For instance, the tourist being polite with providers does not necessarily result in a higher perceived value.

The impact of memorability on experience value deserves a special reference. Researchers have suggested that memory mediates behavioral intentions (Kozak, 2001; Lehto, O'Leary, & Morrison, 2004; Mazursky, 1989; Wirtz et al., 2003). This means that memorability does not only directly affect experience value, but that also contribute other tourist co-creative processes to affect that value.

In sum, it can be concluded that: first, tourist's interactive co-creative processes and travel organization and information sharing behavioral co-creative processes, positively affect tourism experience value; and second, tourism experience memorability positively affects tourism experience value. Based on section V.5, these statements are represented by H5 (H5a-H5d) and H6:

**H5: Tourist's (a) *interactions with local people*, (b) *interactions with other tourists*, and (c) *travel organization behaviors*, and (d) *information sharing with providers* positively affect *tourism experience value*.**

**H6: *Memorability of a tourism experience* positively affects *tourism experience value*.**

The combined effects of tourist co-creation processes in memorability and tourism experience value, lead to an additional conclusion: tourist's interactive, behavioral, attitudinal, and mental co-creative processes, all positively affect tourism experience value indirectly, mediated by memorability (i.e., remembrance). Based on section V.5, these statement is represented by H7 (H7a-H7h):

**H7: Tourist's (a) *interactions with local people*, (b) *interactions with other tourists*, (c) *travel organization behaviors*, (d) *information sharing behaviors with providers*, (e) *feedback behaviors*, (f) *personal interaction with providers*, (g) *tolerance*, and (h) *pre-***

***visualization, all positively affect tourism experience value, mediated by the memorability of the tourism experience.***

#### **V.6.6. Effect of Destination Resources on Tourism Experience Value**

The final hypothesis concerns the impact of destination resources, in this case a holistic tourism experience proposition, in the experiential value perceived by the beneficiary (i.e., the tourist). This issue is well known in the tourism literature and the evidences of the effect that destination resources have on perceived value and other behavioral intentions (i.e., satisfaction, loyalty) are numerous. The specific resources and tourism context investigated are diverse. Destination image is one of the most evaluated factors in relation to tourist's value perceptions (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Kim, Holland, & Han, 2013). For instance, Cheng and Lu (2013) studied destination image in island tourism, as well as novelty and hedonics of such places. But there are infinite resources on destinations to be considered. Flagestad and Hope (2001), in their sustainable value creation research in winter sport destinations, selected few literature references and listed previously evaluated activities, resources and capabilities included in destination value creation. These are, for instance, service providers, both private (e.g., hotels) and public (e.g., medical); collective services (e.g., information), touristic infrastructure (e.g., local transport), and environment management (e.g., culture). Other authors discuss in terms of 'destination product' (i.e., destination environment and service infrastructure to generate the tourist destination experience) and its impact on traveller perceptions (i.e., quality, value, and intention to return) (Murphy, Pritchard, & Smith, 2000). Results showed that tourism infrastructure is an important predictor of perceived trip value, while destination environment was found to be only a modest predictor. In the same vein, Zhou, Maumbe, Deng, and Selin (2015) addressed resource-based destination competitiveness, evaluating different factors comparatively. In all the reviewed works destination resources are hypothesized to positively affect tourist's different perceptions, including value.

In sum, it can be concluded and hypothesized that:

***H8: Tourist Experience Value Proposition (destination resources) positively affect tourism experience value.***

The following Chapter is devoted to empirically contrast the study hypotheses presented above.





# Chapter VI Empirical Analysis

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## VI.1. Introduction

Chapter V provided a challenging approach of tourism experience value creation based on SDL and supported on the central concept of ‘co-creation’. However, even though theory is a well-accepted pillar to set up new propositions, it is important to empirically contrast those conceptual models with reality. For that reason, this part of the Thesis is addressed to test the research hypotheses exposed previously (see Section V.6). The research questions we are focused on resolving in the present chapter are the following: (1) What specific variables can be used to measure tourist resources (i.e., travel-related knowledge and skills), destination resources, experience value, and most importantly, co-creation processes (i.e., interactions, behaviors, attitudes and mental processes) before, during and after travel? (2) What methods are the most appropriate (i) to measure such variables and (ii) to collect the data? (3) How is data being analyzed? (4) Which of the proposed hypotheses concerning co-creation of tourism experience value are supported? The latter implies numerous issues, such as: What is the exact relationship between tourist and destination resources and value co-creation processes in a travel-related context? And the exact relationship between value co-creation processes and final experience value? Do co-creative mental processes (experience image, memorability) have a special role in tourism experience as expected? Which is the relevance of the other processes (behaviors, interactions and attitudes)? Are the suggested relationships significant?

To answer to these questions, we moved our conceptual model of tourism experience value co-creation to the empirical side, by (i) developing a measurement scale for value co-creation in a travel-related context, and (ii) contrasting a series of hypotheses using SEM.

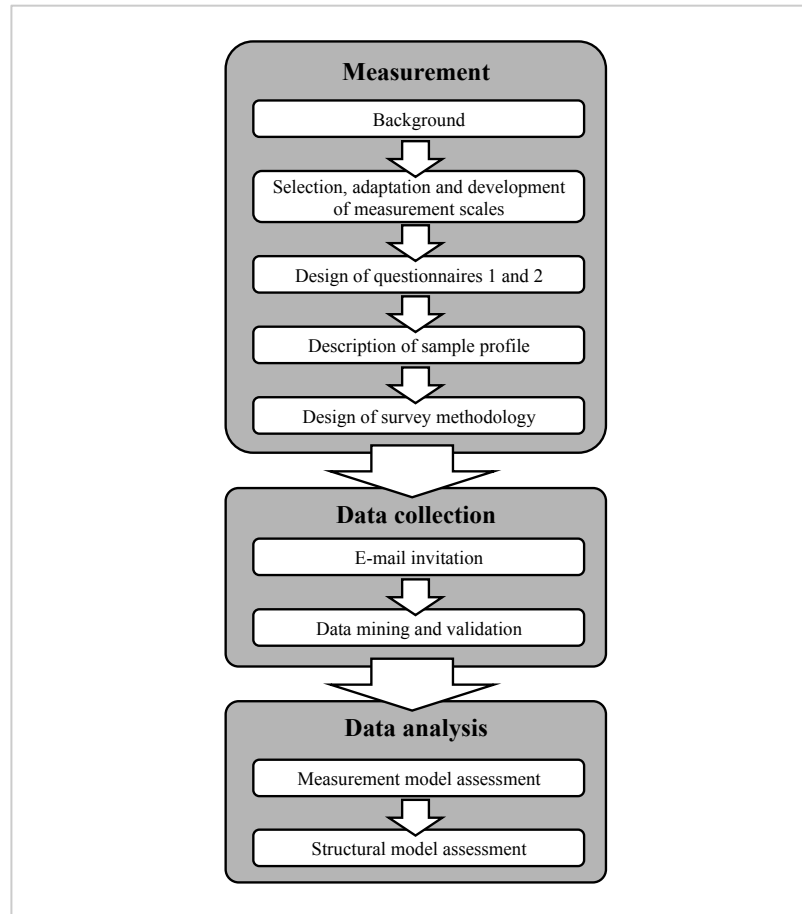
The relevance of this empirical analysis is fourfold. First, we provide a validated SDL-based co-creation measurement scale. Second, regarding the measurement method, an innovative survey design is applied. Third, hypothesis testing allows the detection of the most relevant value co-creation processes in tourism concerning final value perception. Fourth, the study permits advancing in the value co-creation literature by encouraging empirical approaches.

The chapter is organized as follows: Section VI.2 provides a concise frame of the research design carried out in the empirical analysis. Then, Section VI.3, Section VI.4, and Section VI.5 develop each of the phases undertaken in that analysis, which correspond to the data measurement method, the data collection, and the data analysis, respectively.

## VI.2. Research Design of the Empirical Part

The research design used in our study is explained in Figure VI.1 below. The process is divided in three phases: (1) Measurement, (2) Data collection, and (3) Data analysis. Each phase is, in turn, composed of different steps.

Figure VI.1 Research Design of the Empirical Part of the Study



Source: Own elaboration.

## VI.3. Measurement

The measurement phase involves 5 steps (see Figure VI.1).

### VI.3.1. Background

First, we carried out general reviews about measurement scales on value co-creation, paying special attention to possible tools used to assess value co-creation in tourism contexts. This review was performed as a continuation of the background report used to designate specific value co-creation processes in the tourism experience, (Section V.5). Additionally, particular interactional, behavioral, attitudinal and mental co-creation processes were again reviewed in the general literature (e.g., Celuch, Robinson, & Walsh, 2015; Munar & Jacobsen, 2014; Parra-López, Bulchand-Gidumal, Gutiérrez-Taño, & Díaz-Armas, 2011).

Second, measurement scales for co-creation antecedents (consumer resources and provider resources) and outcomes (value) were found. Specifically, most cited scale contributions on *knowledge and skills*, *tourist proposition* and *value in context* were studied thoroughly. Appendix VIII.2.1 provides a summary of the measurement scales found in the literature for each construct.

### VI.3.2. Selection, Adaptation, and Development of Measurement Scales

Table VI.1 illustrates the selected constructs, their description and factors (if exist), number of items, source(s), original items, and adapted items.

Considering cultural resources as the most relevant tourist resources for our study, we measured *tourist's specialized travel-related knowledge and skills*. Even though an individual's knowledge and skills are usually defined as the combination of *familiarity* and *expertise* (e.g., Alba & Hutchinson, 1987), this work is limited to the second (i.e., expertise). Therefore, tourist's knowledge and skills were measured as *Tourist Expertise*, understanding familiarity as an antecedent (Gursoy, 2003). We predominantly follow Kleiser and Mantel (1994), who, in turn, echoed Alba and Hutchinson (1987)'s *Expertise*, but reducing the construct from five to four factors (e.g., *Cognitive Effort*, *Analysis*, *Elaboration*, and *Memory*). Besides, we rely on previous adaptations of expertise to tourism contexts to formulate the items (Gursoy & McCleary, 2004b; Teichmann, 2011). Therefore, we obtained a multidimensional scale composed of four factors consisting on 3 items each (12 items in total). Selection of items was done according to relevancy with our study.

Resources of the provider, understood as the physical and natural resources of the destination and the tourism providers there, were measured as *Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition*. This is the evaluation that the tourist makes of the *tourist experience value proposition* (derived from Vargo and Lusch (2004)'s concept). To measure *Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition*, we specifically developed a scale, based on 12 destination characteristics deduced from a complementary literature review about tourism resources (e.g., Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015; Enright & Newton, 2004; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Co-creation is described in this study following the SDL as the service exchange and resource integration carried out by a consumer that takes place before, during and after service. This implies, as explained in the previous chapter, interactional, behavioral, attitudinal, and mental co-creation processes. In our case, we need to measure *co-creation process* in terms of the service exchange and resource integration occurring before, during and after the tourism experience, considering the own tourist as the central player, but also contemplating the rest of actors involved in such experience (e.g., provider, friends and family, local people, other tourists). Due to the lack of scales to measure co-creation attending to our needs, we developed a specific measurement tool. This measurement tool was predominantly based on Yi and Gong (2013). Likewise, we identified other relevant co-creative processes that were missing on prior scales. These co-creative processes had only developed conceptually or qualitatively. We ended up with 32 items, grouped in 9 variables, and classified, in turn, in three experiential phases: before (2 variables), during (5 variables), and after (2 variables). These variables were conceptually proposed in Section V.5, and are now being operationalized.

Table VI.1 Selection, Adaptation and Development of Measurement Scales for the Model

Descriptor	Variable Definition	Factors Definition	# items	Source	Original items	Adapted items
<b>Tourist's specialized travel-related knowledge &amp; skills (Tourist resources)</b>	Expertise <i>Ability to perform product/[service]-related tasks successfully</i> (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987, p. 411).	Cognitive effort <i>Factual knowledge (i.e., beliefs) that consumers have about products [service] and the ways in which that knowledge is organized. Its principal function is to differentiate various products and services in ways that are useful for decision making</i> (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987, p. 414).	3	Based on the 2 items with higher factor loadings (4 items are originally available) from the factor <i>Expertise in building cognitive structures</i> of the <i>Expertise</i> construct in Gursoy and McCleary (2004a), who echoed Alba and Hutchinson (1987). An extra item was added inspired on the factor <i>Cognitive structure/Automaticity</i> in Kleiser and Mantel (1994) (general idea of the 5 items available), who also echoed Alba and Hutchinson (1987) but reducing the number of factors from 5 to 4. This reduction was, in turn, applied by Teichmann (2011) in the tourism context.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· I can easily differentiate vacation destinations based on the attractions offered.</li> <li>· If I am given a list of vacation destinations, I can easily group those vacation destinations that offer similar attractions.</li> </ul>	<p>C1. Puedo diferenciar fácilmente entre las distintas opciones relativas a un viaje (distintos destinos, distintos alojamientos, distintos medios de transporte, etc.) en función de sus ventajas e inconvenientes.</p> <p>C2. Si me dan una lista con opciones relativas a un viaje (destinos, alojamientos, medios de transporte, etc.), puedo agrupar fácilmente las que son similares.</p> <p>C3. Me resulta fácil entender todo lo que se refiere a un viaje.</p>
		Analysis <i>The extent to which consumers access all</i>	3	Adaptation of the factor <i>Analysis</i> of the <i>Expertise</i> construct in Kleiser and Mantel (1994), who	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· I enjoy learning about cameras.</li> <li>· I will search for the latest</li> </ul>	A1. Me gusta estar informado sobre todo lo que tiene que ver con

		<i>and only the information that is relevant for a particular task</i> (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987, p. 417).		echoed Alba and Hutchinson (1987), although reducing from 5 to 4 the number of factors. This reduction was also applied in tourism by Teichmann (2011).	information on cameras before I purchase a brand. · I keep current on the most recent developments in cameras.	viajes vacacionales. A2. Soy capaz de seleccionar la información que realmente es útil para un viaje. A3. Me mantengo al día sobre lo que tiene que ver con viajes vacacionales.
		Elaboration <i>Number of intervening facts that must be computed in order for an inference to be made</i> (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987, p. 423).	3	Adaptation of the factor <i>Elaboration</i> of the <i>Expertise</i> construct in Kleiser and Mantel (1994), who echoed Alba and Hutchinson (1987), although reducing from 5 to 4 the number of factors. This reduction was also applied in tourism by Teichmann (2011).	· I consider myself knowledgeable on cameras. · My knowledge of cameras helps me to understand very technical information about this product. · I use my knowledge on cameras to verify that advertising claims are in fact true.	E1. Sé acerca de cómo organizar unas vacaciones. E2. Mi conocimiento me permite entender los entresijos de la organización de viajes. E3. Mi conocimiento acerca de la organización de viajes me permite no equivocarme en mis decisiones a la hora de contratar unas vacaciones (elegir destino, alojamiento, medio de transporte, etc.)
		Memory <i>Long-term retention of information</i> (based on Alba and Hutchinson (1987, p. 429)).	3	Based on 2 items (3 items are originally available) from the factor <i>Expertise in utilizing memory</i> of the <i>Expertise</i> construct in Gursoy and McCleary (2004a), who echoed Alba and Hutchinson (1987). An extra item was added	· I can easily recall activities offered in the destination I named at the beginning of the survey. · I can recall almost all existing brands of cameras from memory. · I still remember what I	M1. Puedo recordar fácilmente lo relativo a mis viajes vacacionales. M2. Puedo recordar fácilmente las marcas contratadas en mis viajes (alojamiento, líneas aéreas, etc.).

				inspired on the factor <i>Memory</i> in Kleiser and Mantel (1994) (general idea of the 4 items available), who also echoed Alba and Hutchinson (1987) but reducing the number of factors from 5 to 4. This reduction was, in turn, applied by Teichmann (2011) in the tourism context.	did during my vacation at the destination I named at the beginning of the survey.	M3. Guardo en mi memoria los diferentes aspectos relacionados con mis vacaciones.
<b>Tourist Experience Value Proposition (Destination resources)</b>	<p>Tourist Experience Value Proposition</p> <p><i>Integration (combination) of destination operand and operant resources that have potential to create value</i> (based on Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015) and Vargo and Lusch (2008)).</p> <p>When measuring this variable, it becomes <i>Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition</i>.</p>	-	12	Self-developed, based on a concise literature review on tourism resources and image, including Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015); Enright and Newton (2004); Yoon and Uysal (2005), and others.	-	<p>TEP1. Hospitalidad</p> <p>TEP2. Clima</p> <p>TEP3. Alojamiento</p> <p>TEP4. Acceso y transporte</p> <p>TEP5. Gastronomía y restauración</p> <p>TEP6. Comercio</p> <p>TEP7. Animación</p> <p>TEP8. Paisaje</p> <p>TEP9. Atracciones culturales</p> <p>TEP10. Atracciones naturales</p> <p>TEP11. Apoyo al turista</p> <p>TEP12. Seguridad</p>
<b>Interaction with local</b>	Interaction with Local People	-	3	Self-developed based on the factor <i>Personal</i>	-	LQ1. Mi relación con la gente local fue agradable.

<b>people</b>	<i>Involvement (depth) of consumers in direct (interpersonal) and indirect (shared environment) encounters with local people</i> (adapted from Yang (2016)).			<i>interaction</i> of the <i>Customer value co-creation behavior</i> scale of Yi and Gong (2013).		LQ2. Mi relación con la gente local fue educada. LQ3. Mi relación con la gente local fue positiva. LQ4. Mi relación con la gente local fue enriquecedora.
<b>Interaction with other tourists</b>	Interaction with Other Tourists <i>Involvement (depth) of consumers in direct (interpersonal) and indirect (shared environment) encounters with other consumers</i> (based on Yang (2016)).	-	3	Self-developed based on the factor <i>Personal interaction</i> of the <i>Customer value co-creation behavior</i> scale of Yi and Gong (2013).	-	TQ1. Mi relación con otros turistas fue agradable. TQ2. Mi relación con otros turistas fue educada. TQ3. Mi relación con otros turistas fue positiva. TQ4. Mi relación con otros turistas fue enriquecedora.
<b>Travel organization</b>	Travel Organization <i>Customers' provision of input in the development of their travel arrangement</i> (Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012).	-	6	The 4 items of the variable <i>Degree of co-creation</i> in Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012), as well as two additional self-developed items based on the theoretical ideas on <i>Customization</i> in Victorino et al. (2005), and the ideas about <i>Customer participation</i> in Mohd-Any et al. (2015).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· I have been actively involved in the packaging of my trip.</li> <li>· I have used my experience from previous trips in order to arrange this trip.</li> <li>· The ideas of how to arrange this trip were predominantly suggested by myself.</li> <li>· I have spent considerable amount of time arranging this trip.</li> </ul>	O1. Me he involucrado activamente en la organización del viaje. O2. He usado mi experiencia previa para organizar el viaje. O3. La organización del viaje se ha basado fundamentalmente en mis propias inquietudes. O4. He dedicado el tiempo suficiente a organizar el viaje. O5. He conseguido que la programación del viaje se

						adapte a mis necesidades. O6. Me he preocupado por los detalles relativos al viaje.
<b>Information sharing with providers</b>	Information Sharing <i>Process in which consumers provide essential information for the provider/ employee him/her to perform duties according to particular needs</i> (based on Yi and Gong (2013, p. 1280)).	-	3	Adaptation of the items with higher factor loadings (4 items are originally available) of the factor <i>Information sharing</i> of the <i>Customer value co-creation behavior</i> scale of Yi and Gong (2013).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· I clearly explained what I wanted the employee to do.</li> <li>· I gave the employee the proper information.</li> <li>· I provided the necessary information so that the employee could perform his or her duties.</li> </ul>	<p>PS1. Me preocupé de informar a cada uno de los proveedores en el destino (transporte, alojamiento, restauración, puntos de información, visitas guiadas, etc.) sobre mis necesidades.</p> <p>PS2. Explicué claramente a cada uno de los proveedores en el destino lo que quería.</p> <p>PS3. Di a los empleados de los servicios turísticos en el destino una información precisa de lo que quería.</p>
<b>Feedback</b>	Feedback <i>Complaints, compliments, or thoughts about the provider's performance publicly voiced to the provider or its employees after service</i> (based on Celuch et al. (2015, p. 282)).	-	3	Adaptation of the variable <i>Feedback</i> in Celuch et al. (2015).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Share your thoughts and feelings about products and services with the organization or its employees.</li> <li>· Provide a lot of feedback (positive or negative) about its products and services.</li> <li>· Take time to provide helpful suggestions.</li> </ul>	<p>F1. Contesté encuestas de proveedores (agencia de viajes, alojamiento, transporte, visitas guiadas, etc.) dando mi opinión.</p> <p>F2. Transmití mis sensaciones del viaje (positivas y/o negativas) a los proveedores.</p> <p>F3. Sugerí mejoras a los servicios turísticos</p>



						contratados en el destino.
<b>Personal interaction with providers</b>	Personal Interaction <i>Interpersonal relations between consumers and providers/employees</i> (based on Yi and Gong (2013, p. 1280)).	-	3	Adaptation of the items with higher factor loadings (5 items are originally available) of the factor <i>Personal interaction</i> of the <i>Customer value co-creation behavior</i> scale of Yi and Gong (2013).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· I was friendly to the employee.</li> <li>· I was polite to the employee.</li> <li>· I was courteous to the employee.</li> </ul>	<p>PPI1. Fui amable con los proveedores en el destino (transporte, alojamiento, restauración, puntos de información, visitas guiadas, etc.).</p> <p>PPI2. Fui educado con los proveedores en el destino.</p> <p>PPI3. Fui respetuoso con los proveedores en el destino.</p>
<b>Tolerance</b>	Tolerance <i>Customer willingness to be patient when the service does not meet his/her expectations of adequacy, as in delays, equipment shortages, etc.</i> (based on Yi and Gong (2013, p. 1281)).	-	3	Adaptation of the factor <i>Tolerance</i> of the <i>Customer value co-creation behavior</i> scale of Yi and Gong (2013).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· If the service is not delivered as expected, I would be willing to put up with it.</li> <li>· If I have to wait longer than I normally expected to receive the service, I would be willing to adapt.</li> <li>· If the employee makes a mistake during service delivery, I would be willing to be patient.</li> </ul>	<p>PT1. Fui capaz de soportar que algunas cosas no salieran como esperaba.</p> <p>PT2. Fui capaz de adaptarme a cambios de planes en último momento.</p> <p>PT3. Fui paciente para tolerar los errores de otros en el viaje.</p>
<b>Pre-visualization</b>	Pre-visualization <i>Consumer's image of his/her future experience.</i>	-	4	Self-developed from the theoretical ideas extracted from Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, et al. (2012).	-	<p>V1. Pienso en el viaje que voy a realizar.</p> <p>V2. He hablado sobre el viaje que voy a realizar.</p> <p>V3. Me he imaginado cómo será la experiencia.</p>

						V4. Pensar en el viaje que voy a realizar me ha servido para evadirme de mi rutina diaria.
<b>Memorability</b>	Memorability <i>Consumer's revival/remembrance on an experience and its 'use'.</i>	-	4	Self-developed from the theoretical ideas extracted from Prebensen et al. (2014).	-	IN1. Después de hacer el viaje pensé en él muchas veces. IN2. Después de hacer el viaje recordé a menudo la experiencia. IN3. Pensar en el viaje que había realizado me sirvió para evadirme de mi rutina diaria. IN4. Después de hacer el viaje reflexioné sobre lo que este viaje ha significado en mi vida.
<b>Tourism experience value</b>	Experience Value <i>The relativistic (comparative, personal, and situational) preference characterizing a consumer's experience of interacting with some object (i.e., any good, service, thing, place, event or idea) (Holbrook, 1999).</i>	Functional Value <i>Value received for the price paid (based on (P. Williams &amp; Soutar, 2009, p. 417).</i>	3	3 relevant items (4 items are originally available) from the factor <i>Value for money</i> of the <i>Customer perceived value</i> construct in Williams and Soutar (2009), who echoed Sweeney and Soutar (2001)'s PERVAL scale, which, in turn, was based on Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991).	· Reasonably priced. · Value for money. · Good one for the price paid.	FV1. La experiencia turística tuvo un precio razonable. FV2. La experiencia turística tuvo una buena relación calidad-precio. FV3. La experiencia turística fue buena, teniendo en cuenta el coste.

		Emotional Value <i>A social-psychological dimension that is dependent on product's [service's] ability to arouse feelings or affective states</i> (P. Williams & Soutar, 2009, p. 417).	4	Adapted from the factor <i>Emotional value</i> of the <i>Customer perceived value</i> construct in Williams and Soutar (2009), who echoed Sweeney and Soutar (2001)'s PERVAL scale, which, in turn, was based on Sheth et al. (1991).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Gave me feelings of well being.</li> <li>· Was exciting.</li> <li>· Made me elated.</li> <li>· Made me feel happy.</li> </ul>	<p>EV1. Me sentí bien en el viaje.</p> <p>EV2. La experiencia turística fue interesante.</p> <p>EV3. La experiencia turística fue un placer.</p> <p>EV4. La experiencia turística me hizo sentirme feliz.</p>
		Social Value <i>Perceived utility acquired from an alternative's association with one or more specific social groups</i> (P. Williams & Soutar, 2009, p. 417).	4	Adapted from the factor <i>Social value</i> of the <i>Customer perceived value</i> construct in Williams and Soutar (2009), who echoed Sweeney and Soutar (2001)'s PERVAL scale, which, in turn, was based on Sheth et al. (1991).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Gives social approval from others.</li> <li>· Makes me feel acceptable to others.</li> <li>· Improves the way a person is perceived.</li> <li>· Gives a good impression on other people.</li> </ul>	<p>SV1. La experiencia fue positiva para mis relaciones sociales.</p> <p>SV2. La experiencia me ayudó a reforzar el vínculo con mis amigos, familia, compañeros de trabajo/estudio, etc.</p> <p>SV3. La experiencia turística creó buena impresión en otras personas.</p> <p>SV4. La experiencia contribuyó a que otros tengan una buena percepción de mí.</p>

Source: Own elaboration.

*Interaction with Local People* at destination was specifically developed for our study, based on the conceptual ideas presented on the reviewed literature (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Suntikul & Jachna, 2016; Yi & Gong, 2013). Similarly, *Interaction with Other Tourists* during travel was measured in terms of ‘depth’ with 3 items. These items were developed on purpose for this work, based on prior scales (*Helping* and *Personal Interaction*, in Yi and Gong (2013)) and other conceptual works (Fakharyan et al., 2014; Hsiao et al., 2015; Suntikul & Jachna, 2016; Yang, 2016).

*Travel Organization*, included among tourism co-creation processes before travelling, was measured with 6 items adapted from various sources. We predominantly used *Degree of Co-creation* from Grisseemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012), and added 2 additional items referring to *Customization* (Victorino et al., 2005) and *Customer Participation* (Mohd-Any et al., 2015).

To measure *Information Sharing with Providers*, we used the variable with the same denomination found on Yi and Gong (2013), adapting the items provided in that study, until we get 3 appropriate items.

*Feedback* behaviors of the tourist after travelling were represented with the homonymous variable found in Celuch et al. (2015); specifically, through 3 items.

The present study included two attitudinal co-creation behaviors, both during travel: *Personal Interaction with Providers* and *Tolerance*. To measure both variables we adopted the items provided by Yi and Gong (2013) for the variables *Personal Interaction*, and *Tolerance*, respectively.

*Information Sharing with Providers*, *Personal Interaction with Providers*, and *Feedback* are processes that arise in tourist-provider relationships, which are defined as collaborative actions between consumers and providers/employees aimed at establishing a mutual understanding of each other’s resource integration processes, roles, and desired outcomes (Karpen et al., 2015; Neghina et al., 2015).

Finally, we encountered a problem when we confronted the measurement of mental co-creation processes: *pre-visualization* and *memorability*. The former represented a mental co-creation process before travelling, whereas the latter encompassed an after travel process. Both were deliberately developed for this study. Based on the conceptual ideas of Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, et al. (2012) and our reflexions on the concept (see section V.5.4.1)), we measured *Pre-visualization* with 4 items. Similarly, *Memorability* was generated from conceptual ideas of (Prebensen et al., 2014) and our own reflexions on ‘memorability’ (see section V.5.4.2)). 4 items were used to measure this variable.

*Tourism Experience Value* was measured adapting a previous scale from Williams and Soutar (2009), who based mostly on Sweeney and Soutar (2001)’s PERVAL scale (Sheth et al., 1991). For our study we used 3 factors measuring (i) *Functional Value*, assessing value for money (3 items), (ii) *Emotional Value* (4 items), and (iii) *Social Value* (4 items). In order to be able to distinguish what value dimensions are affected by which co-creation process, we will maintain each dimension as independent variables (not as a second-order construct).

The measurement tool was revised by 3 experts in the subject (people closely connected to this thesis) and by 12 individuals with no previous knowledge in the topic (family, friends, and colleagues). Additionally, 5 extra people were recruited to perform an assessment of the items through a test. They were given all the items disordered, and the corresponding variables (numbered) were provided separately. Each participant should allocate to each item the number of the variable that (s)he thought best fitted the item. These results and opinions were used to refine the measurement tool in terms of vocabulary and formulation.

### VI.3.3. Design of Questionnaires 1 (Before-Travel) and 2 (After-Travel)

In third place, we carried out the questionnaire design, following the study demands. We have already explained that the co-creation process described in this study can be divided in three phases. In a first phase, before a specific trip, the tourist possesses some resources - consumer resources (i.e., *Expertise*)-, and the destination has available its own resources – provider resources (i.e., *Tourist Experience Value Proposition*). Likewise, and referring to a specific tourism experience, tourists begin to co-create the forthcoming event –co-creation before travel (i.e., *Travel Organization, Vision*). In a second phase, during the trip, tourists perceive the tourism experience value proposition (it becomes the *perceived* tourism experience value proposition) and co-create on-site –co-creation during travel (i.e., interaction with providers, represented by *Information Sharing* and *Personal Interaction* with providers), *Interaction with Local People*, and *Interaction with Other Tourists*). Finally, in a last phase, after the travel experience, tourists continue co-creating –co-creation after travel (i.e., *Feedback, Internalization*), and assess the whole destination experience (*Tourism Experience Value*).

Trying to adapt the survey methodology to the real co-creation process and travel context, we decided to carry out the survey in two stages: a first questionnaire (Q1) was provided just before going on a trip, measuring *Tourist Expertise* (general questions) and *co-creation before travelling* (questions about a specific trip), whereas a second questionnaire (Q2) was launched soon after the return, measuring *co-creation during* and *after travel*, *Perceived Tourism Experience Value Proposition*, and *value of the tourism experience*, all of them referring to the specific trip.

Q1 (see Appendix VIII.2.2.1)) was composed of 41 questions, including screening questions (5), control questions (14), and study items (22). The latter involved items about *Tourist Expertise* (12 items) and *co-creation before travel* (10 items). In Q1, some questions were open questions (numerical or written), but most of them were multiple choice. Specifically, to measure the study items, a 0-10 scale was used (0=totally disagree/awful; 10=totally agree/wonderful). Control questions included sex, age, education level, occupation, family incomes, and nationality, as well as destination, expected date of departure, duration of the trip, person in charge of planning the trip, hiring methods, company, and previous visits to the destination. Screening questions were used to select a homogeneous and comparable sample. We detected that huge differences could be found

between trips, mostly concerning destinations and motivations. It can be easily appreciated that these differences could well drastically affect co-creation behaviors. For instance, co-creation patterns when taking a trip to a new and different country will be totally different to those that arise when travelling to a recurrent summer village or hometown. In the same vein, the motivation of the trip (leisure, work, health, family visit) will also shape consumer's co-creation. Therefore, screening questions involved age ( $\geq 18$ ), travelling expectations ('having thought to travel abroad for leisure reasons in the next 2 months'), destination country (different to country of origin), type of trip (cultural or urban), and planning ('having planned the trip in advance'). The participants that did not fill the inclusion criteria were automatically rejected.

Q2 (see Appendix VIII.2.2.2)) was composed of 61 questions, including screening questions (5), control/confirmatory questions (9), and study items (47). The latter involved items about *provider/destination resources* (12 items), *co-creation during travel* (17 items), *co-creation after travel* (7 items), and *destination experience value* (11 items). As in Q1, Q2 included open and multiple-choice questions, but the study items were measured using a 0-10 scale. Control questions included sex, age, destination, visited places, company, and return date. These questions were used to validate answers in Q1. Additionally, we asked the participants to express the most *positive* and *negative* aspects of the experience and asked for a *photo* of the trip. Screening questions involved final travelling behavior ('having finally done the trip'), type of trip (cultural or urban), duration of the trip ( $>0$ ), and nationality (different from the destination country). The participants that did not fill the inclusion criteria were automatically rejected.

Both questionnaires were translated to Spanish and French, languages of the target population. Finally, the order of the questions was inverted to avoid the common method bias, generating, therefore, two different models, A and B for each questionnaire regarding item organization.

A pretest with 14 people was launched in order to evaluate both questionnaires. Corresponding wording changes were made taking into account the doubts presented by the collaborators.

#### **VI.3.4. Description of the Sample Profile**

We approximately needed 500 completed questionnaires, calculating between 5 (Bentler, 2006) and 10 (Chin & Newsted, 1999) right answers (individuals) for each item (69 items in total). As we pretended to generalize our results, we did not want to restrict the research to a single country. For that reason, we chose Spanish and French adults to perform our study. This choice was done considering facility to obtain the data. Therefore, we estimated that we needed a final total number of 250 Spanish and 250 French men and women. Besides, as we explained in the previous section, we established some criteria regarding the trip to delimit the sample. These criteria were set because we were looking for a homogeneous sample to be able to extract concrete conclusions. In Q1, individuals should be potential travellers, having planned a forthcoming trip with the following characteristics:

(1) The trip should be *abroad*, avoiding Spaniards going on a trip to a destination within Spain and French(women) taking a trip within French frontiers.

(2) The trip should have *leisure/holiday purposes*, avoiding trips taken with work, study, health or family visiting intentions.

(3) The trip should be *cultural* or *urban*, avoiding sun and beach, adventure, and rural trips.

In Q2, the individuals should be the same that completed correctly and entirely Q1, having come back from the target trip. In fact, the most important restriction concerning Q2 was that the final travel (Q2) should be the one planned (Q1).

### VI.3.5. Design of Survey Methodology

The last step consisted on designing the survey methodology. We decided that the survey should be divided in two parts: *before* and *after* a holiday trip. Participants answered to Q1, and then were contacted again a month after their return to answer the second part of the survey (Q2). This method was found to be innovative, because prior survey-based quantitative studies in tourism are predominantly built around a single questionnaire on a unique point after the tourism experience. Therefore, our survey methodology is understood as an additional contribution to the literature.

Besides, the survey was carried out in two different periods: *Easter holiday* and *summer holiday*. These were identified as the two hot periods in Spain and France concerning vacations and trips. This was advertised as a result of a secondary statistical data search (Eurostat, 2017; Turespaña, 2017). August was shown as the month with higher outbound tourism, followed by July, April, September, June and March, respectively (corresponding with Easter and summer holidays).

Q1 was launched all at once, whereas Q2 was launched following a dripping method. This means that each participant received Q2 in a different date, depending on his or her personal situation. Therefore, launch date for Q2 was calculated ad hoc using responses in Q1, as:

*Expected departure date + duration of trip (upper number of range) → Expected return date.*

*Expected departure date + 30 days → Launch date for Q2.*

We decided to set the break between the end of the trip and Q2 in 30 days with the aim of establishing a balance between being able to co-create after travel and remembering the experience. That is, we thought that this period should be large enough to make possible the tourist's after-travelling co-creation behaviors, and reasonably short not to forget travel experience details to answer the questions.

## VI.4. Data Collection

Data collection implies two steps: (1) response gathering through e-mail invitations, and (2) data mining and validation.

### VI.4.1. E-mail Invitation

A quota sample approach was used in this study. Questionnaires were sent as a link in an e-mail invitation. Predominantly, responses were obtained from an online panel. An online access panel is a pool of people who have agreed to repeatedly take part in web surveys (Batinic, Reips, & Bosnjak, 2002). It is an important, if not the dominant, form of reactive web-based research in the medium term, and can be used as a sampling source for thematically and methodologically diverse studies. Online panel's advantages include reducing the cost associated with locating appropriate respondents and ensure their immediate availability, along with additional benefits such as easy identification of key sample segments, increased response, augmented response quality, shorter field times and ethical advantages (Goritz, 2004). However, respondents received an incentive to complete the task, so we should be cautious with possible bias in our results. Another minor data source was utilized: sending e-mail invitations with a link to the questionnaires using Google Drive.

Launching procedure was planned carefully. Table VI.2 represents the exact launching dates and periods. Even though there were already potential responses to obtain, data collection really finished on September 15th, 2017, after 5 months and a half.

Table VI.2 Launching Procedure of the Survey

	Q1		Q2		
	Launch	End of data collection	Launch		End of data collection
			Initial day	Final day	
<b>Easter</b>	April 3, 2017	April 9, 2017	May 9, 2017	July 20, 2017	July 14, 2017
<b>Summer</b>	June 2, 2017	June 16, 2017	July 7, 2017	September 17, 2017	September 15, 2017

Source: Own elaboration.

### VI.4.2. Data Mining and Validation

Review of responses was done in the two phases of the survey. First, responses from Q1 were screened. Responses including any of the following situations were rejected:

- Destination and country of origin are the same (they are not travelling abroad).
- Incoherencies or ambiguities on the destination.
- Expected departure date before e-mail invitation.
- Evidences of not being an already planned trip.
- Evidences of not being a leisure trip.
- Time for completing the questionnaire less than 2 minutes.

These participants did not receive Q2.

Second, responses from Q2 were screened, considering also answers obtained in Q1. Only those having completed both questionnaires were accepted as valid responses. Additionally, Q1 and Q2 should refer to the same destination. The observations that did not



fulfill these criteria and/or that employed less than 4 minutes to complete Q2 were not used in the final sample. Table VI.3 illustrates the number of valid responses obtained in every stage of the data collection process.

Table VI.3 Obtained Responses and Valid Responses in the Data Collection Process

Period	Country	Responses obtained from Q1		Launch Q2	Responses obtained from Q2		Final valid responses
Easter	Spain	358 (100%)	Screening 1	348 (97%)	104 (29%)	Screening 2	49 (14%)
	France	378 (100%)		336 (89%)	79 (21%)		45 (12%)
	Total	736 (100%)		684 (93%)	183 (25%)		94 (13%)
Summer	Spain	425 (100%)		409 (96%)	233 (55%)		152 (36%)
	France	400 (100%)		390 (98%)	261 (65%)		182 (46%)
	Total	825 (100%)		799 (97%)	494 (60%)		334 (40%)
Total	Spain	783 (100%)		757 (97%)	337 (43%)		201 (26%)
	France	778 (100%)		726 (93%)	340 (44%)		227 (29%)
	Total	1561 (100%)		1483 (95%)	677 (43%)		428 (27%)

Source: Own elaboration.

Response rate ascended to 5-6% in Easter, whereas in Summer was slightly higher, of 11%-12%. The data validation process left 428 usable responses, which represents 27.4% of the responses obtained in the first stage (after Q1). The sample profile is provided in Table VI.4. The sample obtained matched the demographic profile of Spanish and French travellers (Eurostat, 2017).

## VI.5. Data Analysis

Multivariate techniques such as multiple regression, factor analysis, multivariate analysis of variance, or discriminant validity all provide the researcher with powerful tools for addressing a wide range of managerial and theoretical questions. However, they all share one common limitation: each technique can examine only a single relationship at a time (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). In our case, however, we are facing a more complex situation, where a set of interrelated questions is being considered.

First, we are working with *unobserved* and *hypothesized* variables (latent constructs), represented and indirectly measured by other multiple indicators (manifest indicators) through a survey. This procedure is a prevailing method in social sciences and specially in marketing (Aaker & Bagozzi, 1979; Bagozzi, 1978, 1980; Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979), due to the difficulty of operationalizing some theoretical constructs in terms of a single measure (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Tourism has equally relied on latent variables to answer to research questions (e.g., Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, & Gursoy, 2013).

Table VI.4 Sample Profile (n=428)

<b>Sex</b>			<b>Duration of the trip</b>		
Male	186	43%	Less than 3 days	6	1%
Female	242	57%	From 3 to 7 days	226	53%
<b>Age</b>			From 8 to 14 days	134	31%
18-24	24	6%	More than 2 weeks	62	15%
25-34	73	17%	<b>Main organizer of the trip</b>		
35-44	135	32%	Himself/herself	326	76%
45-54	89	21%	A friend or family member	36	8%
55-64	68	16%	Equally divided	66	15%
65 or more	39	9%	<b>Company</b>		
<b>Education</b>			Without company	26	6%
Primary studies	1	0%	Couple	179	42%
Secondary studies	86	20%	Family members	143	33%
Vocational training	83	19%	Friends	73	17%
Bachelor's degree	186	44%	Other	7	2%
Master or Doctorate degree	72	17%	<b>Previous trips to the same destination</b>		
<b>Occupation</b>			0	235	55%
Student	14	3%	1	103	24%
Self-employed worker	24	6%	2-3	37	9%
Employee	299	70%	More than 3	53	12%
Unemployed	24	6%	<b>Country of destination</b>		
Homemaker	11	3%	Italy	55	13%
Retired	56	13%	Spain	51	12%
<b>Incomes</b>			France	45	11%
Less than 12.500€	28	7%	United Kingdom	35	8%
12.500-20.000€	74	17%	Portugal	28	7%
20.001-35.000€	146	34%	United States of America	27	6%
35.001-60.000€	139	33%	Greece	18	4%
More than 60.000€	41	10%	Germany	16	4%
<b>Nationality</b>			Belgium	10	2%
Spanish	196	46%	Norway	8	2%
French	224	52%	Croatia	7	2%
Other	8	2%	Ireland	7	2%
<b>Type of trip</b>			Turkey	7	2%
Cultural	130	30%	Morocco	6	1%
Urban	154	36%	Australia	5	1%
Sun and beach	78	18%	Japan	5	1%
Adventure	10	2%	Other	98	23%
Rural and nature	26	6%			
Other	30	7%			

Source: Own elaboration.

Second, we want to examine a series of *dependence relationships* simultaneously, where some variables act as dependent and independent variables within the entire model. On the one hand, we want to explain how tourist's knowledge and skills in tourism and travel issues (i.e., *Expertise*) affect some co-creation behaviors; and at the same time we want to know how those co-creation behaviors influence experience value. Therefore, in our model, some co-creation behaviors (e.g., *Travel Organization*) become together explained and explanatory variables.

As none of the multivariate techniques mentioned above enable us to address these study characteristics, we will apply the SEM technique. SEM's foundation lies in two familiar multivariate techniques: factor analysis and multiple regression analysis, as it allows assessing measurement properties, account for measurement errors, and testing key theoretical relationships in only one technique. Thus, SEM tests hypothesized patterns of directional and non-directional relationships among a set of observed (measured) and unobserved (latent) variables (MacCallum & Austin, 2000). In doing so, it examines the structure of interrelationships expressed in a series of equations. These equations depict all of the relationships among constructs involved in the analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

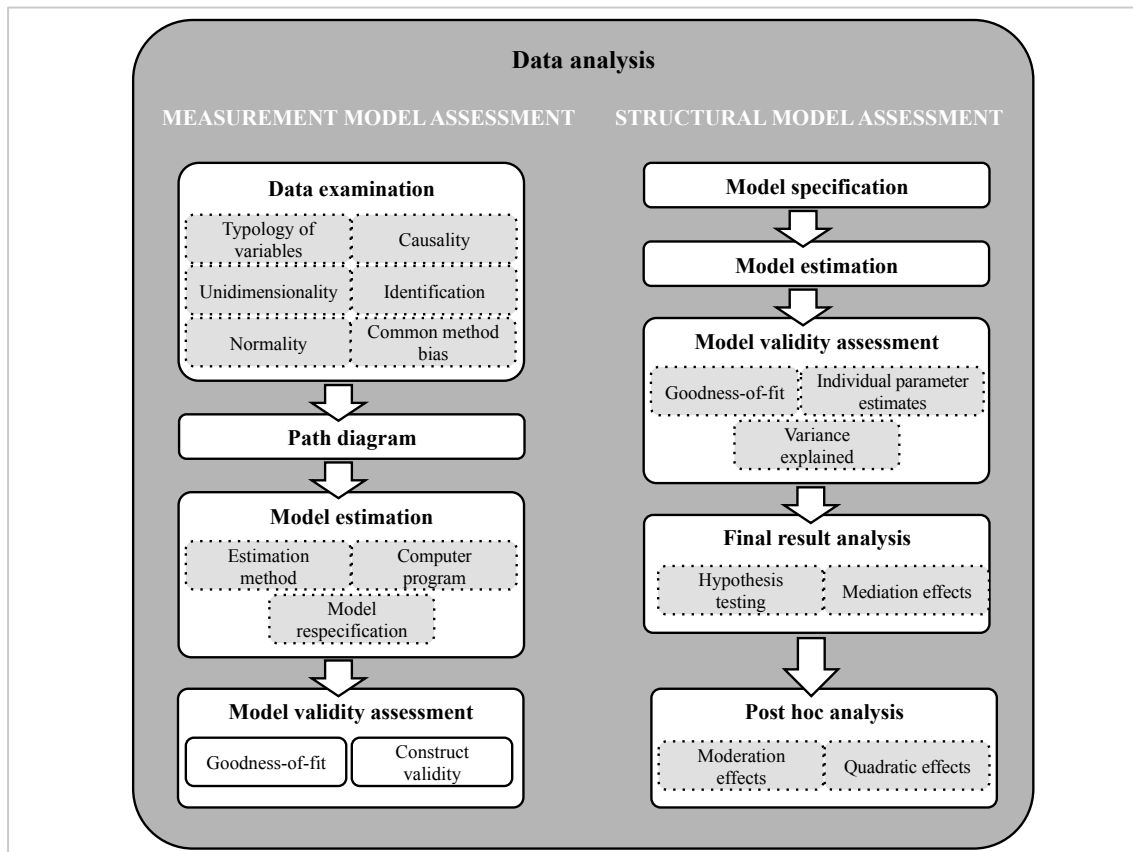
In short, SEM is a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory approach to the analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon (Byrne, 2012). Therefore, we have (i) a causal theory under study and (ii) observations on multiple variables (Bentler, 1988). Then, the hypothesized model (i) can be statistically tested in a simultaneous analysis of the entire system of variables to determine the extent to which it is consistent with the data (ii) (Byrne, 2012). SEM has, thus, two objectives: (i) to understand the patterns of correlation/covariance between a set of variables, and (ii) to explain as much of the variance as possible with the model specified (Kline, 1998).

A complete SEM model consists on (1) measurement model, and (2) structural model. The measurement model describes the relationships among latent and observed variables, and tests how well measured variables represent a smaller number of constructs. The structural model depicts the links among latent variables, that is, the dependence relationship between exogenous and endogenous variables (Hair et al., 2010). Logically, if the measurement model does not provide a reliable tool, it does not make sense to estimate and analyze the structural model. Figure VI.2 illustrates the process followed in this study concerning data analysis.

### **VI.5.1. Measurement Model Assessment**

We will proceed with the assessment of the measurement model using CFA. CFA is a tool that enables us either 'confirm' or 'reject' our preconceived theory. Therefore, CFA is used to provide a confirmatory test of our measurement theory, which specifies a series of relationships that suggest how measured variables represent a latent construct that is not measured directly. Thus, instead of allowing the statistical method to determine the number of factors and loadings as in EFA, CFA statistics tell us how well our theoretical specification of the factors (our a-priori theoretical pattern of factor loading on prespecified constructs) matches reality (the actual data) (Hair et al., 2010).

Figure VI.2 Data Analysis Process of the Study



Source: Own elaboration.

We divided the measurement model assessment process in 4 steps. They are explained below.

#### VI.5.1.1) Data Examination

Before carrying out the actual data analysis, we are going to examine the data we obtained and see if it is in the correct form to draw appropriate results. Here, there are several issues to do.

First, we have two **types of variables**: *study variables* (16) and *control variables*. Study (latent) variables are going to be estimated (Table VI.1), whereas control variables are being used to see if differences exist between groups within the sample, as well as to see if they actually affect latent variables. The latter are predominantly non-metric data, represented as binary (0,1) (i.e., sex) or multigroup (1, 2, 3, ...) (i.e., education), and include: nationality, vacation period, sex, age, education, occupation, incomes, destination, type of travel, duration of the trip, main organizer, organization means, company, and previous visits.

Second, concerning **causality**<sup>8</sup>, all our variables are *reflective*, which means that the latent factors are thought to ‘cause’ measured variables. However, we have *Perceived Tourist*

<sup>8</sup> Hair et al. (2010) refers to it as ‘causality’, but it is not strictly a cause-effect relationship what connects a variable with its items. We are here distinguishing *formative* versus *reflective* constructs.

*Experience Value Proposition* (PTEVP). Although similar variables (i.e., destination image) have been addressed in the literature as reflective (e.g., Chi & Qu, 2008), we do not believe that this is the real nature of the construct, as it gathers diverse destination factors that are not representations of the same measure. In this vein, there have been attempts to define the variable as formative (e.g., Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015), assuming that the measured variables ‘cause’ the construct. According to Hair et al. (2010), formative factors are not latent and are not validated, as are conventional reflective factors. For that reason, we decided to modify the nature of the PTEVP variable to become an additional control variable. To do so, we measured it as the average value of the 12 items used to measure PTEVP. Thus, it will be a measure that gathers the general perception of the tourist towards the destination and its services.

Third, it is important to examine **unidimensionality** of our constructs. In this case, the model is composed of one second order variable: *Expertise*, which is composed, in turn, of four factors (four first order variables). *Experience Value* is commonly considered a multidimensional variable. However, one of the objectives in this study is to analyze how each co-creation behavior affects each value dimension; that is, we want to answer to the following research question: what value dimension (i.e., functional, emotional, social) does each co-creation behavior influence the most? For that reason, we are not interested in building an experience value second order variable. Therefore, except from *Expertise*, every variable in the model is unidimensional. Even though this second order variable (i.e., *Expertise*), in the CFA we are going to work with individual constructs, where each measured variable can only be explained by only one underlying construct.

Fourth, all the constructs fulfill the **identification** criteria, as they have at least 3 items or indicators assigned (see Table VI.1).

Fifth, a critically important assumption in the conduct of SEM analyses is that the data distribution follows multivariate **normality**. This requirement is rooted in large sample theory from which the SEM methodology was spawned (Byrne, 2012). Multivariate normality describes the joint distribution of all variables in the sample. According to (DeCarlo, 1997), a prerequisite to multivariate normality is univariate normality, which, in turn, describes the distribution of only one variable in the sample. So, a first step in assessing multivariate normality is to separately test each variable for univariate normality, because univariate normality is necessary -but not sufficient- condition for multivariate normality (DeCarlo, 1997). First, we followed recommended strategies for assessing univariate normality, using tests and measures of skew and kurtosis (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). We carried out the Shapiro-Wilk test using a web test calculator (Statistics Kingdom) for each item. The test was made using right tailed normal distribution. The results of the Shapiro-Wilk test demonstrated that there is no univariate normality in our data. That is, the null hypothesis of our data distribution following a normal distribution is rejected at 1% significant level for almost all the items. Therefore, it is assumed that the difference between the data sample and the normal distribution is big enough to be statistically significant. Second, we carried out the Doornik-Hansen (DH) omnibus test for multivariate normality (Doornik & Hansen, 2008), even though there was no need to do so, considering the univariate normality results. We

performed the DH test for the whole sample using Stata. The results showed that there is no multivariate normality in our data. That is, DH test rejects the null hypothesis of multivariate normality at 1% significant level ( $p\text{-value}=0.0000$ ). In conclusion, we can definitely confirm the non-normality of our data. This will be considered in next sections to choose a right model estimator.

Sixth, and last, we should devote some attention to the potential **method bias**. Method biases are a problem because lead to measurement errors that can threaten the validity of empirical conclusions, yielding misleading results. Systematic measurement errors are especially risky, and one of the main sources of these systematic measurement errors is method variance (Bagozzi & Yi, 1990). Method variance refers to variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest (Fiske, Kinder, & Larter, 1983). In this study we are going to focus on the common method bias, which is the one derived from using a single data collection method. In these cases, the data share the variance (common method variance) due to sharing the measurement method, causing common method bias. In our case, to control the common method bias, we carried out several precautions. First, we tried to improve the scale items as much as possible, avoiding ambiguous and unfamiliar terms; avoiding vague concepts and using examples instead; keeping questions simple, specific and concise; and eliminating item social desirability and demand characteristics (Tourangeau, Rips, & Rasinski, 2000). This was achieved to a great extent using previously tested items. Second, the questionnaire design in terms of length and question types favored common method bias avoidance. The questionnaires were long enough not to have responses to previous items accessible in the short-term memory and to be recalled when responding to other items (i.e., consistency motif). The combination of open-ended questions with Likert scales with different wording also contributed to avoid ‘artifactual covariation’ (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Third, the data collection method (online panel) facilitated protecting respondents’ anonymity and reducing evaluation apprehension (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Fourth, as it was not possible to obtain data from different sources, we created a temporal separation by introducing a time lag between the measurement of the predictor and criterion variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Specifically, we made the survey in two different phases. Using two different questionnaires (Q1 and Q2), we asked the respondents about travel issues before and after the trip, reducing likewise the period between the measured experience and the response date (high recall). Fifth, we applied a remedy proposed by Podsakoff et al. (2003) to control for priming effects, item-context-induced mood states, and other biases related to the question context or item embeddedness. This remedy consisted on counterbalancing the order of the measurement of the predictor and criterion variables. Two versions of the same Q1 questionnaire were distributed, model A and B. Each of the models had the questions in a different order. After collecting approximately 350 answers in Easter and 400 answers in summer, the order of the questions was inverted in both periods, and the model B delivered, until all the necessary responses were obtained. Then, we checked that answers with one or other model (A or B) presented similar values, verifying that the order of the questions had no effects on the responses. We compared mean values of the 22 items, using separately responses in A and responses in B, and calculated the chi square for the null hypothesis of those mean values

being equal. Chi square value was low enough not to reject the null hypothesis and confirm that there are no substantial differences between responses in model A and model B ( $\chi^2=0.3978 < \chi^2(21)=32.67$ ). Additionally, we applied a post hoc technique: the so-called Harman's one-factor (or single factor) test (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This statistical solution consists on loading all of the variables in the study into a single variable (i.e., *CMV* – Common Method Variance). Following Malhotra, Kim, and Patil (2006)'s procedure, in the CFA approach (as an alternative to EFA), method biases are assumed to be substantial if the hypothesized model fits the data. Our results revealed unsatisfactory values of the single-factor model, with a very low model fit ( $\chi^2 = 11153.576$ ; CFI=0.393; TLI=0.370; RMSEA=0.121; SRMR=0.128). Therefore, we can assume that common method variance is not the major source of the variations in the observed items (i.e., it is better to use different constructs instead of a single factor). Acknowledging the Harman's test limitations (Kemery & Dunlap, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003), we finally examine the Lindell and Whitney (2001)'s marked-variable technique. This consists of analyzing the effect of implementing in the study an additional uncorrelated variable (i.e., marked variable). The marked variable should be theoretically unrelated to at least one variable in the study. Common method variance is here assessed based on such correlation. Our marked variable concerned the tourist's general interest with vacation destinations, which is presumably unrelated to *Feedback* variable (f3). The exact correlation, which is used to adapt the correlation matrix, ascends to 0.009. This low number provides sufficient evidence of the absence of common method variance, as the changes in the correlation matrix will reasonably not influence our results.

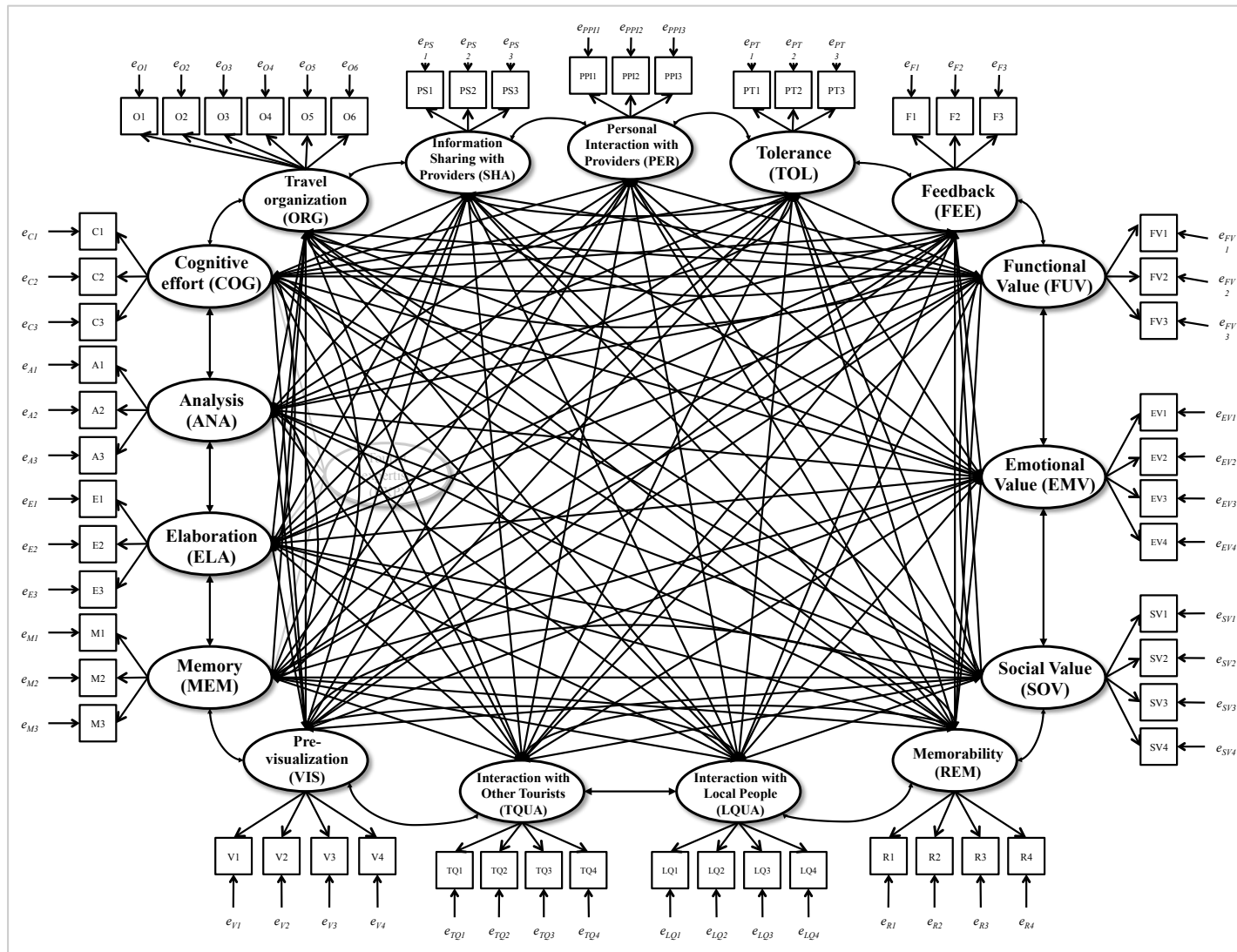
#### ***VI.5.1.2) Path Diagram of the Measurement Model***

We can now draw the measurement model we are going to estimate. We chose a path diagram-type representation (Figure VI.3). Here, latent constructs (only first variable latent constructs) are drawn as ellipses and the measured variables (indicators) are depicted by rectangles. Because in the measurement model there are no causal relationships yet, we can only appreciate correlational relationships, illustrated as two-headed curved arrows among constructs. In this step, therefore, all constructs are considered exogenous. The relationship between the latent construct and its respective indicators are represented by arrows from the latent variable to the indicator. These are called factor loadings. Finally, each measured indicator has an error term (*e*), which is the extent to which the factor loading does not explain the measured variable.

#### ***VI.5.1.3) Model Estimation***

The next step is estimating the measurement model. Model estimation consists on taking three important decisions.

Figure VI.3 Path Diagram (Visual Representation) of the Measurement Model



Source: Own elaboration.



First, we should decide the **estimation method**. Considering what we have previously found according to the non-normality of our data, we should rely on a *robust estimator* in order to obtain trustworthy results. There are several options, but we decided to use MLR estimator, which is “a maximum likelihood estimator with robust standard errors (SE) using a numerical integration algorithm” (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2010, p. 39). Regarding MLR estimator, it is also noted that numerical integration becomes increasingly more computationally demanding as the number of factors and the sample size increase.

Second, we should decide the **computer program** that is going to compute our data. In this study we used the software MPlus, version 5.21 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2010). This software involves building an input file based on the use of the Language Generator and running the desired job, to finally present all the results in an output file (Byrne, 2012).

Third, and before showing final estimation results, we should spend some time to explain model respecification. The ultimate goal of the CFA is to obtain and examine if a given measurement model is valid. For that reason, the process of testing using CFA provides additional information that can be used to make minor modifications in the measurement model, in order to address any unresolved problem or just improve the model’s fit. The most common change is deletion of items. This respecification of the model may, of course, alter the underlying measurement theory. However, if the transformations do not exceed dropping more than 20 percent of the measured variables, the research can continue using the prescribed model and data (Hair et al., 2010). Nevertheless, sometimes a ‘problematic’ item is retained in favor of theory, content validity, or identification. In our case, we achieved a satisfactory measurement model by deleting 8 items (A3, O2, V4, LQ4, TQ4, R4, EV4, and SV4). Therefore, our definite measurement model is composed of 16 latent variables and 49 items. The results of its assessment are discussed below.

#### ***VI.5.1.4) Measurement Model Validity Assessment***

Once specified the measurement model, we should answer to one of the most important issues in the SEM process: is the measurement model valid? Measurement validity depends on (1) establishing acceptable levels of goodness-of-fit (GOF) for the measurement model, and (2) finding specific evidence of construct validity (Hair et al., 2010).

##### ***VI.5.1.4.a) Goodness-Of-Fit***

GOF indicates how well the specified model reproduces the observed covariance matrix among the indicator items (i.e., the similarity of the observed and estimated covariance matrices). In other words, model fit compares the theory to reality by assessing the similarity of the estimated covariance matrix (theory) and reality (the observed covariance matrix) (Hair et al., 2010).

SEM’s statistical goal is to test a set of relationships representing multiple equations. Therefore, measures of fit or predictive accuracy for other techniques (i.e.,  $R^2$  for multiple regression) are not well suited for SEM, as we need one that reflects the accuracy of the overall model and not a single relationship (Hair et al., 2010).

$\chi^2$  statistic is a commonly used GOF measure. However, due to its sensitivity regarding number of observations and measured variables, today the  $\chi^2$  test is often not used as the sole GOF measure. Other alternative GOF measures have been developed for SEM procedures. They are absolute fit indices<sup>9</sup> (i.e., Goodness-Of-Fit index, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual), incremental fit indices<sup>10</sup> (i.e., Normed Fit Index, Tucker Lewis Index, Comparative Fit Index) and parsimonious fit indices<sup>11</sup> (i.e., Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index, Parsimony Normed Fit Index). With this information, we should first decide which GOF measures to use, and second, we should set the appropriate cutoff values to guarantee the necessary and sufficient validity/accuracy of the measurement model.

Regarding the best fit indices to objectively reflect our model's fit, Hair et al. (2010) suggests reporting the  $\chi^2$  value and the model degrees of freedom complemented with other GOF, typically other three or four fit indices, in order to provide adequate evidence of the model fit. MPlus provides the fit indices collected below (Table VI.5).

Concerning the appropriate cutoff values, Hair et al. (2010, p. 672) provide some guidelines for using fit indices in different situations (Table VI.6). In rough outlines, the guidance indicates that simpler models and smaller samples should be subjected to more strict evaluations than more complex models.

Considering all this information, we turn to assess the results that MPlus has drawn for our measurement model in terms of GOF (Table VI.7). Results of the model showed an acceptable GOF, with representative values according to the sample size ( $n=428$ ) and number of measured variables ( $m=49$ ) (see last column in Table VI.6).

We will proceed now to determine the construct validity of the measurement model (i.e., assessment of the scales used).

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<sup>9</sup> Absolute fit indices are a direct measure of how well the model specified by the researcher reproduces the observed data. They do not explicitly compare the GOF of a specified model to any other model, but each model is evaluated independent of other possible models.

<sup>10</sup> Incremental Fit Indices assess how well the estimated model fits relative to some alternative baseline model. The most baseline model is referred to as a null model, one that assumes all observed variables are uncorrelated. It implies that no model specification could possibly improve the model, because it contains no multi-item factors or relationships between them.

<sup>11</sup> Parsimony Fit Indices are designed specifically to provide information about which model among a set of competing models is best, considering its fit relative to its complexity. Parsimony ratio ( $PR = df_k/df_t$ ) is the basis.

Table VI.5 Goodness-Of-Fit Model Indicators

	Type of GOF	Mathematical expression	Description	Range	Optimum values
$\chi^2$ (chi-square)	Absolute	$\chi^2 = (N - 1)(S - \Sigma_k)^*$	It represents the Likelihood Ratio Test statistic: the discrepancy between the unrestricted (observed) sample covariance matrix $[S]$ and the restricted (estimated) covariance matrix $[\Sigma_k]$ that is proportional to the sample size $[N]$ .	No range	Low values
<b>Comparative Fit Index (CFI)</b> (Bentler, 1990)	Incremental	$CFI = 1 - \frac{(\chi_k^2 - df)}{(\chi_N^2 - df_N)}$	It provides a normed improvement in model fit, comparing the hypothesized model (researcher's specified model) $[\chi_k^2]$ with the less restricted nested baseline model (statistical null model) $[\chi_N^2]$ , and includes a relative but not complete insensitivity to model complexity ( $\chi^2$ are corrected with the degrees of freedom $[df]$ ).	0-1	Larger values (close to 1) indicate better fit
<b>Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)</b> (Tucker & Lewis, 1973)	Incremental	$TLI = \frac{\left[\frac{\chi_N^2}{df_N} - \frac{\chi_k^2}{df_k}\right]}{\left[\frac{\chi_N^2}{df_N} - 1\right]}$	It provides a non-normed improvement in model fit, comparing the hypothesized model (researcher's specified model) $[\chi_k^2]$ with the less restricted nested baseline model (statistical null model) $[\chi_N^2]$ , and to some degree takes into account model complexity ( $\chi^2$ are corrected with the degrees of freedom $[df]$ ).	No range	Larger values (close to 1) indicate better fit
<b>Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)</b>	Absolute	$RMSEA = \sqrt{\frac{(\chi^2 - df_k)}{(N - 1)}}$	It attempts to correct for the tendency of $\chi^2$ to reject models with a large sample or a large number of observed variables (model complexity) by including each $[N$ and $df]$ in its computation. It measures the discrepancy taking into account the error of approximation in the population, and asks the question: "How well would the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter values, fit the population covariance matrix if it were available?" (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999).	0-1	Lower values (close to 0) indicate better fit
<b>Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)</b>	Absolute	-	It represents the average discrepancy between the observed sample and hypothesized correlation matrices. Specifically, it measures the overall residual value of a model, by calculating the mean of the squared standardized residuals. Residuals represent the error in prediction for each covariance term, and standardization makes them directly comparable. Then, their square corrects the negative signs, and as we need to reflect overall model fit, the mean of those square residuals is considered. Finally, the square root expresses the real deviation (compensate for the square previously applied).	0-1	Lower values (close to 0) indicate better fit

\*: Although this statistic is typically calculated as  $(N-1)$ , Mplus uses only a value of  $N$  (Byrne, 2012, p. 67).

Source: Based on Hair et al. (2010) and Byrne (2012).

Table VI.6 Characteristics of Different Fit Indices Demonstrating Goodness-Of-Fit Across Different Model Situations

No. of Stat. vars. ( <i>m</i> )	<i>N</i> < 250			<i>N</i> > 250		
	<i>m</i> ≤ 12	12 < <i>m</i> < 30	<i>m</i> ≥ 30	<i>m</i> ≤ 12	12 < <i>m</i> < 30	<i>m</i> ≥ 30
$\chi^2$	Insignificant <i>p</i> -values expected	Significant <i>p</i> -values even with good fit	Significant <i>p</i> -values expected	Insignificant <i>p</i> -values even with good fit	Significant <i>p</i> -values expected	Significant <i>p</i> -values expected
CFI or TLI	0.97 or better	0.95 or better	Above 0.92	0.95 or better	Above 0.92	Above 0.90
RNI	May not diagnose misspecification well	0.95 or better	Above 0.92	0.95 or better, not used with <i>N</i> >1,000	Above 0.92, not used with <i>N</i> >1,000	Above 0.90, not used with <i>N</i> >1,000
SRMR	Biased upward, use other indices	0.08 or less (with CFI of 0.95 or higher)	Less than 0.09 (with CFI above 0.92)	Biased upward, use other indices	0.08 or less (with CFI above 0.92)	0.08 or less (with CFI above 0.92)
RMSEA	Values <0.08 with CFI=0.97 or higher	Values <0.08 with CFI of 0.95 or higher	Values <0.08 with CFI above 0.92	Values <0.07 with CFI of 0.97 or higher	Values <0.07 with CFI of 0.92 or higher	Values <0.07 with CFI of 0.90 or higher

Source: Hair et al. (2010, p. 672).

Table VI.7 Model Fit Indices of Our Measurement Model

Fit indices	n=428
$\chi^2$	1625.203
d.f.	1007
p-value	0.0000
CFI	0.953
TLI	0.945
RMSEA	0.038
SRMR	0.043

Source: Mplus outcome.

#### VI.5.1.4.b) Construct Validity

Validity is defined as the degree of research accuracy. Construct validity, therefore, refers to the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent construct those items are designed to measure (Hair et al., 2010). Specifically, construct validity addresses both the degree of agreement of indicators hypothesized to measure a

construct and the distinction between those indicators and indicators of (a) different construct(s) (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). According to Hair et al. (2010), construct validity is made up of four components: (i) convergent validity, (ii) discriminant validity, (iii) nomological validity, and (iv) face validity. In coming paragraphs we will analyze these components one by one for our measurement model.

#### *i. Convergent Validity*

The items that are indicators of a specific construct should converge or share a high proportion of variance in common; this is known as convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). In other words, convergent validity is the extent to which independent measures of the same trait are correlated (Byrne, 2012). There are different ways to assess convergent validity. However, we are now referring to three criteria that conjunctively can well guarantee the necessary amount of convergent validity among item measures.

- Factor Loadings

The first important consideration for construct validity is ensuring a certain size of factor loadings. High loadings on a factor will indicate high convergent validity, meaning that those items converge on a common point: the latent construct (Hair et al., 2010). We should have two concerns regarding factor loadings: statistical significance and strength. The strength criterion is normally set on 0.5 or higher, and ideally on 0.7 or higher. The square value of a standardized factor loading represents how much variation in an item is explained by the latent factor (i.e., variance extracted of the item). Therefore, the rule behind this cutoff value is that the square of a loading of 0.71 equals 0.5, which indicates that the factor is explaining half (50%) of the variation in the item, the rest representing the error variance.

We are showing our results as standardized values (range from -1 to +1) in order to facilitate interpretation. Results in Table VI.8 show acceptable and significant factor loadings (see column 5). Measures for first-order constructs exhibit good psychometric properties, as they load on their respective dimensions significantly, ranging from 0.702 to 0.961.

The model fit seems to corroborate the existence of the second-order construct *Tourist Expertise* loading on four factors (i.e., *Cognitive Effort*, *Analysis*, *Elaboration*, and *Memory*). It presents a  $\chi^2=101.594$  with 40 degrees of freedom (p-value=0.0000) and satisfactory model fits (CFI=0.966 and TLI=0.954). The factor coefficients are significant and fulfill the required criteria, above 0.849 (see Table VI.9).

- Average Variance Extracted

In line with prior discussion, we can conclude that if the latent variable explains its indicators, loadings should be significant and have a certain size. This can complementarily be measured with the AVE, which examines: in average, to what extent are the indicators explained by the latent variable? It is calculated as:

$$AVE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n L_i^2}{n}$$

Table VI.8 Measurement Model: Dimensionality, Basic Statistics, and Convergent Validity Assessment

Variable denom.	CONSTRUCT Item	Mean	Standard deviation	Standardized loading	AVE	CR
COG	COGNITIVE EFFORT				0.758	0.904
C1	Puedo diferenciar fácilmente entre las distintas opciones relativas a un viaje (distintos destinos, distintos alojamientos, distintos medios de transporte, etc.) en función de sus ventajas e inconvenientes	8.023	1.551	0.901***		
C2	Si me dan una lista con opciones relativas a un viaje (destinos, alojamientos, medios de transporte, etc.), puedo agrupar fácilmente las que son similares	7.893	1.621	0.837***		
C3	Me resulta fácil entender todo lo que se refiere a un viaje	8.084	1.596	0.872***		
ANA	ANALYSIS				0.670	0.800
A1	Me gusta estar informado sobre todo lo que tiene que ver con viajes vacacionales	7.645	1.995	0.702***		
A2	Soy capaz de seleccionar la información que realmente es útil para un viaje	8.002	1.570	0.921***		
A3	Me mantengo al día sobre lo que tiene que ver con viajes vacacionales	7.016	2.164	-		
ELA	ELABORATION				0.723	0.887
E1	Sé acerca de cómo organizar unas vacaciones	8.187	1.492	0.883***		
E2	Mi conocimiento me permite entender los entresijos de la organización de viajes	7.544	1.792	0.816***		
E3	Mi conocimiento acerca de la organización de viajes me permite no equivocarme en mis decisiones a la hora de contratar unas vacaciones (elegir destino, alojamiento, medio de transporte, etc.)	7.647	1.656	0.851***		
MEM	MEMORY				0.722	0.886
M1	Puedo recordar fácilmente lo relativo a mis viajes vacacionales	8.016	1.579	0.878***		
M2	Puedo recordar fácilmente las marcas contratadas en mis viajes (alojamiento, líneas aéreas, etc.)	7.671	1.813	0.803***		
M3	Guardo en mi memoria los diferentes aspectos relacionados con mis vacaciones	7.970	1.601	0.866***		

ORG	TRAVEL ORGANIZATION				0.643	0.900
O1	Me he involucrado activamente en la organización del viaje	8.180	1.893	0.825***		
O2	He usado mi experiencia previa para organizar el viaje	7.519	2.431	-		
O3	La organización del viaje se ha basado fundamentalmente en mis propias inquietudes	7.421	2.030	0.720***		
O4	He dedicado el tiempo suficiente a organizar el viaje	7.400	2.232	0.748***		
O5	He conseguido que la programación del viaje se adapte a mis necesidades	7.822	1.813	0.889***		
O6	Me he preocupado por los detalles relativos al viaje	7.762	2.070	0.817***		
VIS	PRE-VISUALIZATION				0.698	0.874
V1	Pienso en el viaje que voy a realizar	8.189	1.662	0.885***		
V2	He hablado sobre el viaje que voy a realizar	8.096	1.861	0.784***		
V3	Me he imaginado cómo será la experiencia	7.862	1.827	0.835***		
V4	Pensar en el viaje que voy a realizar me ha servido para evadirme de mi rutina diaria	7.895	1.836	-		
SHA	INFORMATION SHARING WITH PROVIDERS				0.744	0.897
PS1	Me preocupé de informar a cada uno de los proveedores en el destino (transporte, alojamiento, restauración, puntos de información, visitas guiadas, etc.) sobre mis necesidades	5.507	2.992	0.809***		
PS2	Explicué claramente a cada uno de los proveedores en el lo que quería	6.248	2.746	0.925***		
PS3	Di a los empleados de los servicios turísticos en el destino una información precisa de lo que quería	6.140	2.810	0.849***		
PER	PERSONAL INTERACTION WITH PROVIDERS				0.909	0.968
PPI1	Fui amable con los proveedores en el destino (transporte, alojamiento, restauración, puntos de información, visitas guiadas, etc.)	8.224	1.787	0.955***		
PPI2	Fui educado con los proveedores en el destino	8.327	1.728	0.961***		
PPI3	Fui respetuoso con los proveedores en el destino	8.360	1.719	0.944***		

TOL	TOLERANCE				0.704	0.877
PT1	Fui capaz de soportar que algunas cosas no salieran como esperaba	7.005	2.455	0.772***		
PT2	Fui capaz de adaptarme a cambios de planes en último momento	7.397	2.251	0.868***		
PT3	Fui paciente para tolerar los errores de otros en el viaje	7.164	2.351	0.874***		
LQUA	INTERACTION WITH LOCAL PEOPLE				0.840	0.940
LQ1	Mi relación con la gente local fue agradable	8.229	1.528	0.902***		
LQ2	Mi relación con la gente local fue educada	8.402	1.426	0.931***		
LQ3	Mi relación con la gente local fue positiva	8.364	1.454	0.916***		
LQ4	Mi relación con la gente local fue enriquecedora	8.224	1.650	-		
TQUA	INTERACTION WITH OTHER TOURISTS				0.889	0.960
TQ1	Mi relación con otros turistas fue agradable	7.381	2.212	0.961***		
TQ2	Mi relación con otros turistas fue educada	7.673	2.168	0.946***		
TQ3	Mi relación con otros turistas fue positiva	7.409	2.307	0.922***		
TQ4	Mi relación con otros turistas fue enriquecedora	7.002	2.568	-		
FEE	FEEDBACK				0.669	0.857
F1	Contesté encuestas de proveedores (agencia de viajes, alojamiento, transporte, visitas guiadas, etc.) dando mi opinión	5.381	3.433	0.800***		
F2	Transmití mis sensaciones del viaje (positivas y/o negativas) a los proveedores	6.037	3.063	0.929***		
F3	Sugerí mejoras a los servicios turísticos contratados en el destino	4.998	3.191	0.710***		
REM	MEMORABILITY				0.812	0.928
R1	Después de hacer el viaje pensé en él muchas veces	8.192	1.739	0.943***		
R2	Después de hacer el viaje recordé a menudo la experiencia	8.227	1.677	0.946***		
R3	Pensar en el viaje que había realizado me sirvió para evadirme de mi rutina diaria	8.182	1.819	0.808***		



R4	Después de hacer el viaje reflexioné sobre lo que este viaje ha significado en mi vida	7.488	2.273	-		
FUV	FUNCTIONAL VALUE				0.785	0.916
FV1	La experiencia turística tuvo un precio razonable	7.357	1.908	0.860***		
FV2	La experiencia turística tuvo una buena relación calidad-precio	7.572	1.743	0.961***		
FV3	La experiencia turística fue buena, teniendo en cuenta el coste	7.879	1.617	0.832***		
EMV	EMOTIONAL VALUE				0.820	0.932
EV1	Me sentí bien en el viaje	8.432	1.514	0.867***		
EV2	La experiencia turística fue interesante	8.430	1.547	0.915***		
EV3	La experiencia turística fue un placer	8.493	1.509	0.933***		
EV4	La experiencia turística me hizo sentirme feliz	8.505	1.509	-		
SOV	SOCIAL VALUE				0.604	0.820
SV1	La experiencia fue positiva para mis relaciones sociales	7.846	1.863	0.832***		
SV2	La experiencia me ayudó a reforzar el vínculo con mis amigos, familia, compañeros de trabajo/estudio, etc.	7.544	2.255	0.712***		
SV3	La experiencia turística creó buena impresión en otras personas	7.544	2.072	0.782***		
SV4	La experiencia contribuyó a que otros tengan una buena percepción de mí	7.023	2.355	-		

Note: CR: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted; \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.10$ .

Source: Mplus outcome.

Table VI.9 Second-Order Variable Testing: *Tourist Expertise*

Variable denomination	SECOND-ORDER CONSTRUCT Factors	Standardized loading	AVE	CR
EXP	TOURIST EXPERTISE		0.851	0.958
COG	Cognitive effort	0.921***		
ANA	Analysis	0.930***		
ELA	Elaboration	0.985***		
MEM	Memory	0.849***		

Note: \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.10$ .

Source: Mplus outcome.

The AVE is calculated for each latent construct. The  $L_i$  represents the standardized factor loading of the  $i^{th}$  item, from a total of  $n$  items (for a certain variable).

Using the same logic as in the previous section, an AVE of 0.5 or higher is a good rule of thumb suggesting adequate convergence (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). An AVE of less than 0.5 indicates that, on average, more error remains in the items than variance explained by the latent factor structure imposed on the measure. Considering the factor loadings obtained, we have manually calculated values for AVE. Results in Table VI.8 show acceptable AVE values (see column 6). Measures for first-order constructs indicate convergent validity among items for each latent construct, ranging from 0.604 to 0.909. The second-order construct also presents an appropriate value (i.e., exceeding 0.5) of 0.851 (Table VI.9).

- Reliability

Fundamentally, reliability concerns the extent to which an experiment, test, or any measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trials (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). There exist several reliability estimate alternatives (Bacon, Sauer, & Young, 1995). Reliability of each construct has traditionally been measured through the alpha of Cronbach (Cronbach, 1951). However, it is scarcely used nowadays due to diverse criticism. Some academics argue that the alpha of Cronbach may understate reliability, due to the influence the number of items have on it. Besides, it uses the average of correlations to make calculations, and therefore, it does not use the whole model. Contrarily, Composite Reliability (CR) test is thought to be a more general measure (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), because it uses loadings, which are affected by the whole model. We will lay on CR to check our construct validity. The underlying idea is that indicators of the same construct should be correlated. Thus, CR assures that the same criteria holds for all the indicators explained with the same construct. The formulae to calculate CR is expressed below:

$$CR = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n L_i)^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^n L_i)^2 + (\sum_{i=1}^n e_i)}$$

The CR is calculated for each latent construct. The  $L_i$  represents the standardized factor loading of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  item, from a total of  $n$  items (for a certain variable).  $e_i$  is the error variance terms, which can also be expressed as  $(1 - L_i^2)$ .

The rule of thumb for this reliability estimate is a value of 0.7 or higher. This suggests good reliability. Reliability between 0.6 and 0.7 may be acceptable, provided that other indicators of a model's construct validity are good (Hair et al., 2010). Bagozzi and Yi (1988) set the criterion above 0.6. High construct reliability indicates that internal consistency exists, meaning that the measures all consistently represent the same latent construct.

Considering once again the factor loadings obtained, we have manually calculated values for CR. Results in Table VI.8 show acceptable CR values (see column 7). Measures for first and second-order constructs all reveal good internal consistency, with construct reliabilities ranging from 0.800 to 0.968.

#### *ii. Discriminant Validity*

Discriminant validity makes reference to the fact that the scale used to measure different variables should be different. This means that indicators should be capable of distinguishing one variable from the rest. According to Hair et al. (2010), discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs. Thus, high discriminant validity provides evidence that a construct is unique and captures some phenomena other measures do not. Therefore, if we have two latent variables (i.e.,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ ), there will be discriminant validity problems when  $C_2$  explains more than  $C_1$  of the indicators of the latter (i.e.,  $C_1$ ). Likewise, if  $C_1$  explained more than  $C_2$  of the indicators of  $C_2$ , discriminant validity would also be at risk. We will base on the so-called Fornell-Larcker criterion to assess discriminant validity, which is considered as the most rigorous among the available options (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). It consists of comparing the AVE values for any two constructs with the square of the correlation estimate between these two constructs ( $\rho^2$ ). Specifically, the AVE estimates should be greater than the squared correlation estimates. Mathematically expressed,  $AVE_1 > \rho_{12}^2$  and  $AVE_2 > \rho_{12}^2$ , or, what is the same,  $\sqrt{AVE_1} > \rho_{12}$  and  $\sqrt{AVE_2} > \rho_{12}$ .

In order to assess discriminant validity, we extracted the required information from the MPlus outcome to build Table VI.10, which enables the comparison between construct pairs (square root of AVE vs. correlation). Results demonstrate that construct pairs meet, in general, the requirements of the criteria: the value in the diagonal for each construct ( $\sqrt{AVE}$ ) exceeds the values below (correlation between that construct and the rest of variables in the model). We found, however, three exceptions (in *italics* in the table). Two additional less strict tests were carried out with these problematic construct pairs to find evidence for discriminant validity.

Table VI.10 Discriminant Validity

	COG	ANA	ELA	MEM	ORG	VIS	SHA	PPI	TOL	LQUA	TQUA	FEE	REM	FUV	EMV	SOV
Cognitive effort	<b>0.870</b>															
Analysis	<i>0.860</i>	<b>0.819</b>														
Elaboration	<i>0.911</i>	<i>0.930</i>	<b>0.850</b>													
Memory	0.783	0.815	0.829	<b>0.850</b>												
Travel organization	0.616	0.681	0.682	0.637	<b>0.802</b>											
Pre-visualization	0.655	0.648	0.598	0.672	0.745	<b>0.836</b>										
Information sharing with providers	0.326	0.347	0.292	0.247	0.283	0.259	<b>0.862</b>									
Personal interaction with providers	0.435	0.427	0.387	0.364	0.285	0.390	0.352	<b>0.953</b>								
Tolerance	0.216	0.201	0.208	0.187	0.222	0.219	0.494	0.451	<b>0.839</b>							
Interaction with local people	0.450	0.452	0.414	0.426	0.356	0.429	0.289	0.682	0.403	<b>0.916</b>						
Interaction with other tourists	0.312	0.327	0.304	0.287	0.240	0.294	0.379	0.381	0.256	0.507	<b>0.943</b>					
Feedback	0.203	0.277	0.242	0.193	0.219	0.262	0.511	0.270	0.357	0.213	0.291	<b>0.818</b>				
Memorability	0.495	0.514	0.462	0.519	0.430	0.546	0.329	0.560	0.332	0.669	0.415	0.290	<b>0.901</b>			
Functional value	0.374	0.364	0.359	0.387	0.324	0.387	0.242	0.396	0.256	0.466	0.375	0.150	0.442	<b>0.886</b>		
Emotional value	0.450	0.419	0.398	0.445	0.365	0.479	0.251	0.642	0.330	0.758	0.481	0.241	0.751	0.595	<b>0.905</b>	
Social value	0.339	0.393	0.340	0.398	0.350	0.447	0.426	0.484	0.392	0.541	0.496	0.330	0.593	0.464	0.685	<b>0.777</b>

Note: Correlations between construct pairs are shown below the diagonal. Square root of the AVE for each construct is shown on the diagonal; significant level at a 1% level.

Source: Mplus outcome.

First, we built a confidence interval for the correlation between pairs of variables. Results in Table VI.11 (column 4) demonstrated that such intervals do not contain the value 1, which would mean a perfect correlation between studied dimensions. Second, the correlation between each pair of latent constructs was constrained to 1, and was compared with a model where this parameter was freely estimated. The Wald test performed proved satisfactory (column 5 in Table VI.11), estimating in less than 1% the possibility of the problematic dimension pairs being sufficiently similar to combine them in a single construct. Therefore, we can definitely corroborate that discriminant validity exists in our measurement model.

Table VI.11 Discriminant Validity: Further Evidence

	<b>Correlation</b>	<b>Standard error (SE)</b>	<b>Confidence interval [correlation <math>\pm</math> 2·SE]</b>	<b>Wald test of <math>\chi^2</math> differences (d.f.=1)</b>
Analysis-Cognitive effort	0.860	0.031	[0.798,0.922]	21.141 (p=0.0000)
Elaboration-Cognitive effort	0.911	0.028	[0.855,0.967]	10.368 (p=0.0013)
Elaboration-Analysis	0.930	0.026	[0.878,0.982]	7.088 (p=0.0078)

Source: Mplus outcome.

### *iii. Nomological Validity*

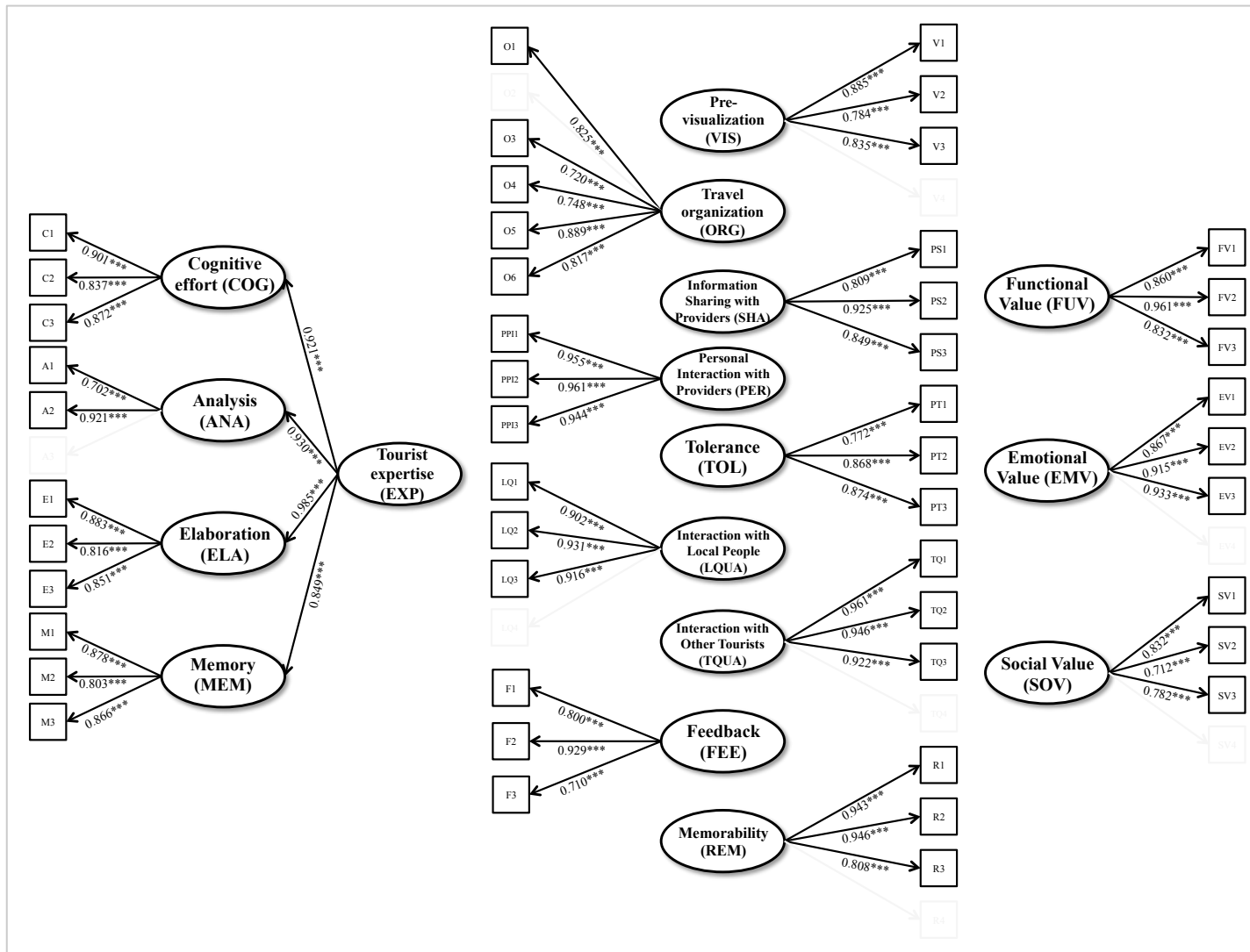
Nomological validity refers to the test that examines if the correlations between the constructs in the measurement theory make sense (Hair et al., 2010). The construct correlations can be useful in this assessment. In this respect, we appreciate, for example, that correlation between variables under the same second-order construct are highly correlated, which is understandable. In the same vein, variables representing co-creation before travel are also highly correlated. Therefore, being actively involved in travel organization will be related to visualizing the trip before going on it.

### *iv. Face Validity*

Face validity assesses whether the content of the items is consistent with the construct definition, based solely on the researcher's judgment (Hair et al., 2010). This has already been examined in the measurement phase.

Figure VI.4 shows the definite measurement model with the corresponding factor loadings.

Figure VI.4 Measurement Model with Confirmatory Factor Analysis Loading Estimates



Source: Own elaboration.

## VI.5.2. Structural Model Assessment

Once the measurement model has been validated (it has survived its reliability and validity tests), the next step in this two-step SEM process consists on testing the structural theory. The structural theory is a conceptual representation of the structural relationship between constructs and is expressed in terms of a structural model (also termed as ‘theoretical model’ and, occasionally, as ‘causal model’) that represents the theory with a set of structural equations. Following Hair et al. (2010), we will divide this second step in three stages: (1) Structural model specification, (2) Model estimation, and (3) Structural model validity assessment. This process is conceptually similar to that used in CFA: the theory is proposed and then tested based on how well it fits the data.

### VI.5.2.1) Structural Model Specification

First, we are going to specify the structural model by assigning relationships from one construct to another, and thus establishing the dependence relationships that exist among constructs under our perspective. The specific hypotheses to be empirically contrasted are the following (Table VI.12):

Table VI.12 Study Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Tested relationship
H1a: Tourist’s Expertise positively affects Travel Organization	EXP→ORG
H1b: Tourist’s Expertise positively affects Information Sharing with Providers	EXP→SHA
H1c: Tourist’s Expertise positively affects Feedback	EXP→FEE
H1d: Tourist’s Expertise positively affects Pre-visualization	EXP→VIS
H1e: Tourist’s Expertise positively affects Memorability	EXP→REM
H2: Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition positively affects Memorability	PTEVP→ REM
H3a: Interaction with Local People positively affects Memorability	LQUA→ REM
H3b: Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Memorability	TQUA→ REM
H3c: Travel Organization positively affects Memorability	ORG→ REM
H3d: Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Memorability	SHA→ REM
H3e: Feedback positively affects Memorability	FEE→ REM
H3f: Personal Interaction with Providers positively affects Memorability	PER→ REM
H3g: Tolerance towards Providers positively affects Memorability	TOL→ REM
H3h: Pre-visualization positively affects Memorability	VIS→ REM
H4: Travel Organization positively affects Pre-visualization	ORG→VIS
H5a(i): Interaction with Local People positively affects Functional Value	LQUA→FUV
H5a(ii): Interaction with Local People positively affects Emotional Value	LQUA→EMV
H5a(iii): Interaction with Local People positively affects Social Value	LQUA→SOV
H5b(i): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Functional Value	TQUA→FUV

H5b(ii): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Emotional Value	TQUA→EMV
H5b(iii): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Social Value	TQUA→SOV
H5c(i): Travel Organization positively affects Functional Value	ORG→FUV
H5c(ii): Travel Organization positively affects Emotional Value	ORG→EMV
H5c(iii): Travel Organization positively affects Social Value	ORG→SOV
H5d(i): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Functional Value	SHA→FUV
H5d(ii): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Emotional Value	SHA→EMV
H5d(iii): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Social Value	SHA→SOV
H6(i): Memorability positively affects Functional Value	REM→FUV
H6(ii): Memorability positively affects Emotional Value	REM→EMV
H6(iii): Memorability positively affects Social Value	REM→SOV
H7a(i): Interaction with Local People positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	LQUA→REM→FUV
H7a(ii): Interaction with Local People positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	LQUA→REM→EMV
H7a(iii): Interaction with Local People positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	LQUA→REM→SOV
H7b(i): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TQUA→REM→FUV
H7b(ii): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TQUA→REM→EMV
H7b(iii): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TQUA→REM→SOV
H7c(i): Travel Organization positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	ORG→REM→FUV
H7c(ii): Travel Organization positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	ORG→REM→EMV
H7c(iii): Travel Organization positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	ORG→REM→SOV
H7d(i): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	SHA→REM→FUV
H7d(ii): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	SHA→REM→EMV
H7d(iii): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	SHA→REM→SOV
H7e(i): Feedback positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	FEE→REM→FUV
H7e(ii): Feedback positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	FEE→REM→EMV



H7e(iii): Feedback positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	FEE→REM→SOV
H7f(i): Personal Interaction with Providers positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	PER→REM→FUV
H7f(ii): Personal Interaction with Providers positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	PER→REM→EMV
H7f(iii): Personal Interaction with Providers positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	PER→REM→SOV
H7g(i): Tolerance positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TOL→REM→FUV
H7g(ii): Tolerance positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TOL→REM→EMV
H7g(iii): Tolerance positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TOL→REM→SOV
H7h(i): Pre-visualization positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	VIS→REM→FUV
H7h(ii): Pre-visualization positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	VIS→REM→EMV
H7h(iii): Pre-visualization positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	VIS→REM→SOV
H8(i): Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition positively affects Functional Value	PTEVP→FUV
H8(ii): Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition positively affects Emotional Value	PTEVP→EMV
H8(iii): Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition positively affects Social Value	PTEVP→SOV

Source: Own elaboration.

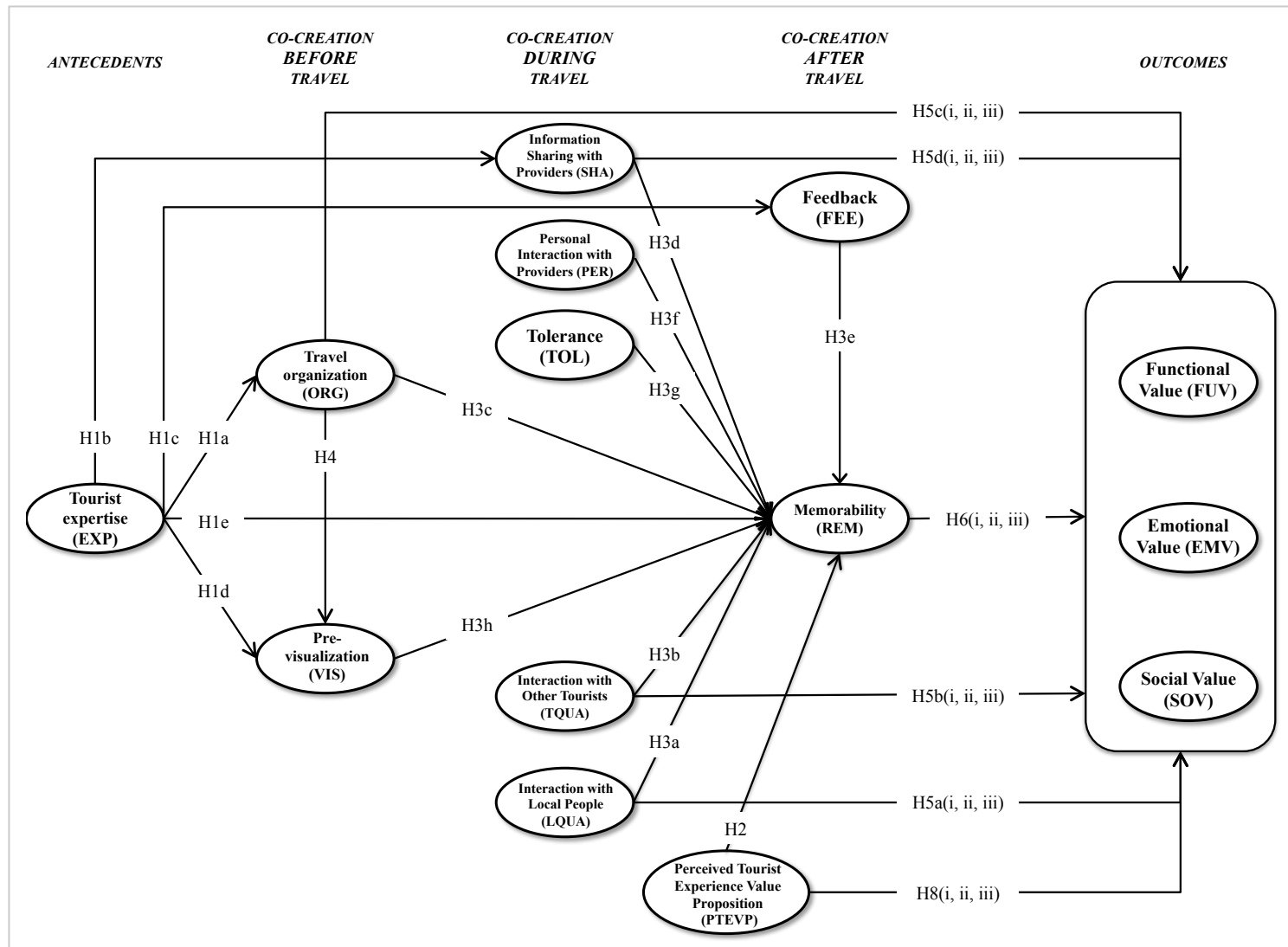
Based on our validated measurement model, Figure VI.5 shows a visual layout representing a path diagram with the specified hypothesized structural relationships. Indirect relationships (H7) are not represented.

Hypotheses from H1 to H8 (except H7) are depicted with single-headed directional arrows. Therefore, these structural paths replace the previous correlations in the measurement model, and all relationships not shown in the structural model are constrained to be equal to zero, with the exception of the correlational relationships among exogenous constructs (e.g., EXP-LQUA, PER-TOL).

### ***VI.5.2.2) Structural Model Estimation***

We entered the appropriate commands in MPlus and obtained direct and indirect effects for the proposed relationships. The estimation results are presented in Table VI.13.

Figure VI.5 Path Diagram (Visual Representation) of the Structural Model



Source: Own elaboration.

Table VI.13 Structural Model Estimations

Direct effects		Estimate	S.E	Est./S.E.	p-value	Level of significance
H1a	Tourist Expertise → Travel Organization (EXP→ORG)	0.706	0.049	14.286	0.000	***
H1b	Tourist Expertise → Information Sharing with Providers (EXP→SHA)	0.352	0.055	6.376	0.000	***
H1c	Tourist Expertise → Feedback (EXP→FEE)	0.271	0.058	4.688	0.000	***
H1d	Tourist Expertise → Pre-visualization (EXP→VIS)	0.319	0.127	2.517	0.012	**
H1e	Tourist Expertise → Memorability (EXP→REM)	0.085	0.073	1.171	0.242	n.s.
H2	Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → Memorability (PTEVP→REM)	0.109	0.060	1.825	0.068	*
H3a	Interaction with Local People → Memorability (LQUA→REM)	0.378	0.089	4.236	0.000	***
H3b	Interaction with Other Tourists → Memorability (TQUA→REM)	0.016	0.058	0.268	0.789	n.s.
H3c	Travel Organization → Memorability (ORG→REM)	-0.041	0.076	-0.544	0.586	n.s.
H3d	Information Sharing with Providers → Memorability (SHA→REM)	0.036	0.053	0.691	0.489	n.s.
H3e	Feedback → Memorability (FEE→REM)	0.044	0.044	0.999	0.318	n.s.
H3f	Personal Interaction with Providers → Memorability (PER→REM)	0.126	0.066	1.929	0.054	*
H3g	Tolerance → Memorability (TOL→REM)	-0.004	0.056	-0.075	0.940	n.s.
H3h	Pre-visualization → Memorability (VIS→REM)	0.255	0.075	3.422	0.001	***
H4	Travel Organization → Vision (ORG→VIS)	0.522	0.126	4.140	0.000	***
H5a(i)	Interaction with Local People → Functional Value (LQUA→FUV)	0.135	0.077	1.756	0.079	*
H5a(ii)	Interaction with Local People → Emotional Value (LQUA→EMV)	0.392	0.074	5.279	0.000	***
H5a(iii)	Interaction with Local People → Social Value (LQUA→SOV)	0.080	0.079	1.008	0.313	n.s.
H5b(i)	Interaction with Other Tourists → Functional Value (TQUA→FUV)	0.083	0.064	1.301	0.193	n.s.
H5b(ii)	Interaction with Other Tourists → Emotional Value (TQUA→EMV)	0.070	0.042	1.676	0.094	*

H5b(iii)	Interaction with Other Tourists → Social Value (TQUA→SOV)	0.158	0.066	2.402	0.016	**
H5c(i)	Travel Organization → Functional Value (ORG→FUV)	0.112	0.055	2.045	0.041	**
H5c(ii)	Travel Organization → Emotional Value (ORG→EMV)	0.010	0.040	0.248	0.804	n.s.
H5c(iii)	Travel Organization → Social Value (ORG→SOV)	0.041	0.059	0.692	0.489	n.s.
H5d(i)	Information Sharing with Providers → Functional Value (SHA→FUV)	0.013	0.057	0.235	0.814	n.s.
H5d(ii)	Information Sharing with Providers → Emotional Value (SHA→EMV)	-0.071	0.046	-1.519	0.129	n.s.
H5d(iii)	Information Sharing with Providers → Social Value (SHA→SOV)	0.171	0.056	3.062	0.002	***
H6(i)	Memorability → Functional Value (REM→FUV)	0.110	0.081	1.349	0.177	n.s.
H6(ii)	Memorability → Emotional Value (REM→EMV)	0.403	0.062	6.516	0.000	***
H6(iii)	Memorability → Social Value (REM→SOV)	0.287	0.085	3.374	0.001	***
H8(i)	Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → Functional Value (PTEVP→FUV)	0.307	0.076	4.024	0.000	***
H8(ii)	Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → Emotional Value (PTEVP→EMV)	0.138	0.059	2.343	0.019	**
H8(iii)	Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → Social Value (PTEVP→SOV)	0.244	0.068	3.565	0.000	***
<b>Indirect effects</b>						
<b>Hypothesized</b>						
H7a(i)	Interaction with Local People → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value (LQUA→REM→FUV)	0.042	0.031	1.341	0.180	n.s.
H7a(ii)	Interaction with Local People → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value (LQUA→REM→EMV)	0.153	0.038	4.006	0.000	***
H7a(iii)	Interaction with Local People → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value (LQUA→REM→SOV)	0.108	0.041	2.676	0.007	***
H7b(i)	Interaction with Other Tourists → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value (TQUA→REM→FUV)	0.002	0.007	0.264	0.792	n.s.
H7b(ii)	Interaction with Other Tourists → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value (TQUA→REM→EMV)	0.006	0.024	0.268	0.789	n.s.
H7b(iii)	Interaction with Other Tourists → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value (TQUA→REM→SOV)	0.004	0.017	0.266	0.790	n.s.
H7c(i)	Travel Organization → Functional Value (ORG→REM→FUV)	0.010	0.011	0.939	0.348	n.s.

	Travel Organization → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value	-0.005	0.009	-0.496	0.620	n.s.
	Travel Organization → <i>Vision</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value	0.015	0.013	1.161	0.246	n.s.
H7c(ii)	Travel Organization → Emotional Value (ORG→ <i>REM</i> →EMV)	0.037	0.030	1.248	0.212	n.s.
	Travel Organization → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value	-0.017	0.031	-0.544	0.587	n.s.
	Travel Organization → <i>Pre-visualization</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value	0.054	0.023	2.294	0.022	**
H7c(iii)	Travel Organization → Social Value (ORG→ <i>REM</i> →SOV)	0.026	0.024	1.116	0.265	n.s.
	Travel Organization → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value	-0.012	0.021	-0.562	0.574	n.s.
	Travel Organization → <i>Pre-visualization</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value	0.038	0.018	2.070	0.038	**
H7d(i)	Information Sharing with Providers → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value (SHA→ <i>REM</i> →FUV)	0.004	0.006	0.644	0.520	n.s.
H7d(ii)	Information Sharing with Providers → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value (SHA→ <i>REM</i> →EMV)	0.015	0.021	0.683	0.494	n.s.
H7d(iii)	Information Sharing with Providers → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value (SHA→ <i>REM</i> →SOV)	0.010	0.016	0.672	0.502	n.s.
H7e(i)	Feedback → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value (FEE→ <i>REM</i> →FUV)	0.005	0.005	0.925	0.355	n.s.
H7e(ii)	Feedback → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value (FEE→ <i>REM</i> →EMV)	0.018	0.017	1.021	0.307	n.s.
H7e(iii)	Feedback → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value (FEE→ <i>REM</i> →SOV)	0.013	0.013	0.932	0.352	n.s.
H7f(i)	Personal Interaction with Providers → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value (PER→ <i>REM</i> →FUV)	0.014	0.014	1.013	0.311	n.s.
H7f(ii)	Personal Interaction with Providers → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value (PER→ <i>REM</i> →EMV)	0.051	0.030	1.688	0.091	*
H7f(iii)	Personal Interaction with Providers → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value (PER→ <i>REM</i> →SOV)	0.036	0.023	1.608	0.108	n.s.
H7g(i)	Tolerance → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value (TOL→ <i>REM</i> →FUV)	0.000	0.006	-0.075	0.940	n.s.
H7g(ii)	Tolerance → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value (TOL→ <i>REM</i> →EMV)	-0.002	0.023	-0.075	0.940	n.s.
H7g(iii)	Tolerance → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value (TOL→ <i>REM</i> →SOV)	-0.001	0.016	-0.075	0.940	n.s.
H7h(i)	Pre-visualization → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value (VIS→ <i>REM</i> →FUV)	0.028	0.023	1.197	0.231	n.s.
H7h(ii)	Pre-visualization → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value (VIS→ <i>REM</i> →EMV)	0.103	0.035	2.916	0.004	***

H7h(iii)	Pre-visualization → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value (VIS→ <i>REM</i> →SOV)	0.073	0.029	2.508	0.012	**
Other indirect effects						
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → Pre-visualization	0.369	0.091	4.043	0.000	***
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Memorability</i>	0.171	0.057	3.004	0.003	***
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → <i>Memorability</i>	-0.029	0.054	-0.542	0.588	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → Pre-visualization → <i>Memorability</i>	0.094	0.038	2.459	0.014	**
	Tourist Expertise → Pre-visualization → <i>Memorability</i>	0.081	0.038	2.141	0.032	**
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Information Sharing with Providers</i> → <i>Memorability</i>	0.013	0.019	0.692	0.489	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Feedback</i> → <i>Memorability</i>	0.012	0.012	0.987	0.324	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → Functional Value	0.112	0.042	2.647	0.008	***
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → Functional Value	0.079	0.041	1.953	0.051	*
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value	-0.003	0.006	-0.494	0.621	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → Pre-visualization → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value	0.010	0.009	1.155	0.248	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → Pre-visualization → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value	0.009	0.008	1.060	0.289	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Information Sharing with Providers</i> → Functional Value	0.005	0.020	0.234	0.815	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Information Sharing with Providers</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value	0.001	0.002	0.643	0.520	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Feedback</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value	0.001	0.001	0.909	0.364	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Internalization</i> → Functional Value	0.009	0.011	0.876	0.381	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → Emotional Value	0.085	0.037	2.293	0.022	**
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → Emotional Value	0.007	0.029	0.247	0.805	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value	-0.012	0.022	-0.542	0.588	n.s.

	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → <i>Pre-visualization</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value	0.038	0.017	2.262	0.024	**
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Pre-visualization</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value	0.033	0.017	1.963	0.050	**
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Information Sharing with Providers</i> → Emotional Value	-0.025	0.017	-1.445	0.148	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Information Sharing with Providers</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value	0.005	0.008	0.684	0.494	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Feedback</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value	0.005	0.005	1.007	0.314	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Internalization</i> → Emotional Value	0.034	0.029	1.177	0.239	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → Social Value	0.162	0.045	3.631	0.000	***
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → Social Value	0.029	0.041	0.696	0.487	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value	-0.008	0.015	-0.560	0.575	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i> → <i>Pre-visualization</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value	0.027	0.013	2.054	0.040	**
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Pre-visualization</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value	0.023	0.013	1.844	0.065	*
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Information Sharing with Providers</i> → Social Value	0.060	0.022	2.731	0.006	***
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Information Sharing with Providers</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value	0.004	0.005	0.674	0.500	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Feedback</i> → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value	0.003	0.004	0.929	0.353	n.s.
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value	0.024	0.020	1.199	0.231	n.s.
	<i>Travel Organization</i> → <i>Pre-visualization</i> → <i>Memorability</i>	0.133	0.054	2.488	0.013	**
	Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → <i>Memorability</i> → Functional Value	0.012	0.011	1.041	0.298	n.s.
	Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → <i>Memorability</i> → Emotional Value	0.044	0.026	1.689	0.091	*
	Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → <i>Memorability</i> → Social Value	0.031	0.020	1.560	0.119	n.s.
<b>Total effects</b>						
	Tourist Expertise → <i>Travel Organization</i>	0.706	0.049	14.286	0.000	***

Tourist Expertise → Pre-visualization	0.688	0.056	12.368	0.000	***
Tourist Expertise → Information Sharing with Providers	0.352	0.055	6.376	0.000	***
Tourist Expertise → Feedback	0.271	0.058	4.688	0.000	***
Tourist Expertise → Memorability	0.256	0.051	4.971	0.000	***
Tourist Expertise → Functional Value	0.112	0.042	2.647	0.008	***
Tourist Expertise → Emotional Value	0.085	0.037	2.293	0.022	**
Tourist Expertise → Social Value	0.162	0.045	3.631	0.000	***
Travel Organization → Pre-visualization	0.522	0.126	4.140	0.000	***
Travel Organization → Memorability	0.092	0.071	1.287	0.198	n.s.
Travel Organization → Functional Value	0.122	0.056	2.201	0.028	**
Travel Organization → Emotional Value	0.047	0.046	1.020	0.308	n.s.
Travel Organization → Social Value	0.067	0.061	1.093	0.274	n.s.
Pre-visualization → Internalization	0.255	0.075	3.422	0.001	***
Pre-visualization → Functional Value	0.028	0.023	1.197	0.231	n.s.
Pre-visualization → Emotional Value	0.103	0.035	2.916	0.004	***
Pre-visualization → Social Value	0.073	0.029	2.508	0.012	**
Information Sharing with Providers → Memorability	0.036	0.053	0.691	0.489	n.s.
Information Sharing with Providers → Functional Value	0.017	0.057	0.306	0.759	n.s.
Information Sharing with Providers → Emotional Value	-0.056	0.050	-1.108	0.268	n.s.
Information Sharing with Providers → Social Value	0.182	0.059	3.067	0.002	***
Personal Interaction with Providers → Memorability	0.126	0.066	1.929	0.054	*
Personal Interaction with Providers → Functional Value	0.014	0.014	1.013	0.311	n.s.



Personal Interaction with Providers → Emotional Value	0.051	0.030	1.688	0.091	*
Personal Interaction with Providers → Social Value	0.036	0.023	1.608	0.108	n.s.
Tolerance → Memorability	-0.004	0.056	-0.075	0.940	n.s.
Tolerance → Functional Value	0.000	0.006	-0.075	0.940	n.s.
Tolerance → Emotional Value	-0.002	0.023	-0.075	0.940	n.s.
Tolerance → Social Value	-0.001	0.016	-0.075	0.940	n.s.
Interaction with Other Tourists → Memorability	0.016	0.058	0.268	0.789	n.s.
Interaction with Other Tourists → Functional Value	0.085	0.064	1.322	0.186	n.s.
Interaction with Other Tourists → Emotional Value	0.076	0.045	1.704	0.088	*
Interaction with Other Tourists → Social Value	0.163	0.066	2.461	0.014	**
Interaction with Local People → Memorability	0.378	0.089	4.236	0.000	***
Interaction with Local People → Functional Value	0.177	0.072	2.463	0.014	**
Interaction with Local People → Emotional Value	0.544	0.074	7.345	0.000	***
Interaction with Local People → Social Value	0.188	0.075	2.510	0.012	**
Feedback → Memorability	0.044	0.044	0.999	0.318	n.s.
Feedback → Functional Value	0.005	0.005	0.925	0.355	n.s.
Feedback → Emotional Value	0.018	0.017	1.021	0.307	n.s.
Feedback → Social Value	0.013	0.013	0.932	0.352	n.s.
Memorability → Functional Value	0.110	0.081	1.349	0.177	n.s.
Memorability → Emotional Value	0.403	0.062	6.516	0.000	***
Memorability → Social Value	0.287	0.085	3.374	0.001	***
Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → Memorability	0.109	0.060	1.825	0.068	*

	Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → Functional Value	0.319	0.073	4.357	0.000	***
	Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → Emotional Value	0.182	0.066	2.763	0.006	***
	Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition → Social Value	0.275	0.074	3.742	0.000	***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>						
	Travel Organization	0.499	0.070	7.143	0.000	***
	Pre-visualization	0.610	0.053	11.569	0.000	***
	Information Sharing with Providers	0.124	0.039	3.188	0.001	***
	Feedback	0.074	0.031	2.344	0.019	**
	Memorability	0.548	0.043	12.807	0.000	***
	Functional Value	0.338	0.051	6.618	0.000	***
	Emotional Value	0.709	0.038	18.457	0.000	***
	Social Value	0.482	0.060	8.021	0.000	***
<b>Fit indices</b>						
	$\chi^2$	1952.705				
	d.f.	1121				
	p-value	0.0000				
	CFI	0.937				
	TLI	0.932				
	RMSEA	0.042				
	SRMR	0.071				

Note: n.s.: not significant; \*\*\*p <0.01; \*\*p >0.05; \*p <0.1

Source: Mplus outcome.

### VI.5.2.3) Structural Model Validity Assessment

After the structural model estimation, the final stage involves assessing the structural model validity and its corresponding hypothesized theoretical relationships. The focus of the SEM analysis in this stage consists on examining two issues: (1) the overall model fit and (2) the structural parameter estimates. Thus, if the model shows good fit and the hypothesized paths are significant and in the proposed direction, then the model will be supported.

Concerning **goodness-of-fit**, the structural model shows satisfactory results: CFI=0.937, TLI=0.932, RMSEA=0.042 and SRMR=0.071 (Table VI.13). These numbers indicate a good global fit, with values above the established limits (see last column in Table VI.6). We can observe that GOF for the structural model in terms of CFI, TLI, RMSEA and SRMR is lower than the GOF for the measurement model (see Table VI.7) -in contrast to the  $\chi^2$  GOF, which shows higher values for the structural model. This 'worse' fit of the structural model is due to the restrictions set in it. The observed data are still represented by the observed sample covariance matrix, and therefore it should not change with respect to that of the measurement model. On the contrary, a new SEM estimated covariance matrix is computed, different from that for the measurement model, as a result of the structural relationships. In our case, the structural GOF measures are close to those reported in the measurement model, which indicates a better fit. SRMR is significantly higher, but is still within the restrictions set (<0.08).

Nevertheless, good model fit is not sufficient to support the proposed structural theory. We must analyze the **individual parameter estimates** for each hypothesis. These should be statistically significant and in the predicted direction, as well as nontrivial. Table VI.13 demonstrates that many of the proposed causal relationships in our model were supported, but not all.

First, *Tourist Expertise* has a positive and significant influence on *Travel Organization* (H1a,  $\beta = 0.706$ ), *Information Sharing with Providers* (H1b,  $\beta = 0.352$ ), *Feedback* (H1c,  $\beta = 0.271$ ), and *Pre-visualization* (H1d,  $\beta = 0.319$ ). An exception exists regarding *Memorability* (H1e): the effect was positive (supporting the positive relationship between *Tourist Expertise* and *Memorability*), but not statistically significant.

Second, the *Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition* has been demonstrated to positively affect *Memorability* (H2,  $\beta = 0.109$ ), although not very significantly (p-value=0.068).

Third, we only confirmed some of the hypotheses established around *Memorability*: just a few tourist co-creation process variables before, during and after travel influence *Memorability*. Specifically, we found that *Interaction with Local People* (H3a,  $\beta = 0.378$ ), *Personal Interaction with Providers* (H3f,  $\beta = 0.126$ ), and *Pre-visualization* (H3h,  $\beta = 0.255$ ) positively affect *Memorability*. On the contrary, we found that the effect of *Interaction with Other Tourists* (H3b), *Travel Organization* (H3c), *Information Sharing with Providers* (H3d), *Feedback* (H3e), and *Tolerance* (H3g) on *Memorability* was not significant.

Fourth, *Travel Organization* has a positive and significant influence on *Pre-visualization* (H4,  $\beta=0.522$ ).

Fifth, *tourist's interactive co-creation processes* and experience-arrangement-related behavioral co-creative processes (represented by *Travel Organization* and *Information Sharing with Providers*) have a direct, positive and significant influence on *travel experience value*, but on different dimensions (i.e., functional, emotional, social). Therefore, *Interaction with Local People* positively affects *Emotional Value* (H5a(ii),  $\beta=0.392$ ) and to a lesser extent (p-value=0.079) *Functional Value* (H5a(i),  $\beta=0.135$ ), but does not have a significant effect on the *Social* value dimension (H5a(iii)). *Interaction with Other Tourists* positively affects *Social Value* (H5b(iii),  $\beta=0.158$ ) and to a lesser extent (p-value=0.094) *Emotional Value* (H5b(ii),  $\beta=0.070$ ), but does not have any significant effect on the *Functional* value dimension (H5b(i)). *Travel Organization* positively affects *Functional Value* (H5c(i),  $\beta=0.112$ ), but not *Emotional* (H5c(ii)) and *Social* (H5c(iii)) value dimensions. *Information Sharing with Providers* positively affects *Social Value* (H5d(iii),  $\beta=0.171$ ), but not *Functional* (H5d(i)) and *Emotional* (H5d(ii)) value dimensions.

Sixth, *Memorability* positively affects *Emotional Value* (H6(ii),  $\beta=0.403$ ) and *Social Value* (H6(iii),  $\beta=0.287$ ), but not the *Functional* value dimension (H6(i)).

Seventh, indirect effects of *tourist co-creation processes* on *tourist experience value* dimensions mediated by *Memorability* are only partially confirmed. *Interaction with Local People* is demonstrated to positively affect *Emotional Value* (H7a(ii),  $\beta=0.153$ ) and *Social Value* (H7a(iii),  $\beta=0.108$ ) mediated by *Memorability*. *Functional Value*, on the contrary, was found not to be influenced by *Interaction with Local People*, as the relationship is positive but not significant. Exactly the same happens with *Pre-visualization*. This has a positive indirect effect on both *Emotional Value* (H7h(ii),  $\beta=0.103$ ) and *Social Value* (H7h(iii),  $\beta=0.073$ ), but not on *Functional Value*. Although with low significance (p-value=0.091), *Personal Interaction with Providers* also has an indirect positive effect on *Emotional Value* (H7f(ii),  $\beta=0.051$ ). The rest of co-creation processes (i.e., *Interaction with Other Tourists*, *Travel Organization*, *Information Sharing with Providers*, *Feedback*, and *Tolerance*) were found to have no indirect mediated effect on neither of the experience value dimensions.

Eighth, *Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition* has been demonstrated to positively affect *Functional Value* (H8(i),  $\beta=0.307$ ), *Emotional Value* (H8(ii),  $\beta=0.138$ ), and *Social Value* (H8(iii),  $\beta=0.244$ ).

Finally, we are going to examine the **variance explained** estimates for the endogenous constructs ( $R^2$ ). Except from *Feedback* (0.074) and *Information Sharing with Providers* (0.124), in the rest of independent constructs (i.e., *Travel Organization*, *Pre-visualization*, *Memorability*, *Functional Value*, *Emotional Value*, *Social Value*) a reasonable proportion of variance is explained (49.9%, 61%, 54.8%, 33.8%, 70.9% and 48.2%, respectively). As our main objective with our proposed model is to explain travel experience value, we are considering our outcomes valid.

#### VI.5.2.4) Final Result Analysis

To sum up, Table VI.14 summarizes the **relationships hypothesized** and their confirmation or disconfirming. We can see that almost 66% of the hypotheses are supported, while the remaining are not. This is common due to the exploratory character of the study. In fact, the tangible shortage of previous research in the field and the notorious generalization make difficult to confirm all the hypotheses established at the beginning of the study. Figure VI.6 depicts the structural model, confirming the validity of many of the hypotheses developed.

All the hypotheses proposed in our model except one (H7) describe direct effects, which represent relationships linking two constructs with a single arrow. However, it is equally important to analyze **mediating effects**, created when a third variable intervenes in the structural model (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Thus, mediation effects lead to indirect effects: relationships that involve a sequence of relationships with at least one intervening construct involved (Hair et al., 2010). Apart from the indirect relationships hypothesized in H7, which has been contrasted and explained in previous paragraphs, there are other indirect effects that are going to be summarized below.

We appreciate that: first, *Tourist Expertise* has a positive indirect effect on *Memorability* ( $\beta=0.171$ ) and on *Travel Experience Value*, either on *Functional* ( $\beta=0.112$ ), *Emotional* ( $\beta=0.085$ ), and *Social* ( $\beta=0.162$ ) dimensions. And second, we can support with a significance of 10% that a positive relationship exists between *Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition* and *Emotional Value* ( $\beta=0.044$ ), a relationship mediated by the tourism experience *Memorability*.

#### VI.5.2.5) Post Hoc Analysis

Various authors encourage performing post hoc analysis when statistically not significant results are found in our model (Dawson, 2014; Marsh, Wen, & Hau, 2006). Following this recommendation, in this section we will examine two types of effects in order to be able to extract additional conclusions: moderation effects and quadratic effects.

A **moderating effect** occurs when a third variable or construct changes the relationship between two related variables/constructs. In general terms, a moderator is a qualitative (e.g., sex, race, class) or quantitative (e.g., level of reward) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent variable and a dependent or criterion variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Moderation is usually analyzed in terms of interaction effects. Therefore, when an interaction effect is present, the effect of an independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) depends on the value of another variable (Z) (i.e., the moderator variable) (Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003). Our results showed that ‘commercial’ tourist co-creation behaviors and attitudes with providers during and after travel have little or no effect on *Memorability* and *Experience Value*. However, it may happen these relationships to be moderated by gender, age, or personal interaction with providers. For example, the relationship between *Information Sharing with Providers* and *Memorability* can differ significantly between males and females (gender), being significant for one group and not for the other.

Table VI.14 Hypotheses Confirmation

Hypotheses	Tested relationship	Effect	Support	Estimate (p-value)
H1a: Tourist's Expertise positively affects Travel Organization	EXP→ORG	Positive (+)	Supported	0.706 (0.000)
H1b: Tourist's Expertise positively affects Information Sharing with Providers	EXP→SHA	Positive (+)	Supported	0.352 (0.000)
H1c: Tourist's Expertise positively affects Feedback	EXP→FEE	Positive (+)	Supported	0.271 (0.000)
H1d: Tourist's Expertise positively affects Pre-visualization	EXP→VIS	Positive (+)	Supported	0.319 (0.012)
H1e: Tourist's Expertise positively affects Memorability	EXP→REM	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.085 (0.242)
H2: Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition positively affects Memorability	PTEVP→REM	Positive (+)	Supported	0.109 (0.068)
H3a: Interaction with Local People positively affects Memorability	LQUA→REM	Positive (+)	Supported	0.378 (0.000)
H3b: Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Memorability	TQUA→REM	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.016 (0.789)
H3c: Travel Organization positively affects Memorability	ORG→REM	Negative (-)	Not Supported	-0.041 (0.586)
H3d: Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Memorability	SHA→REM	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.036 (0.489)
H3e: Feedback positively affects Memorability	FEE→REM	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.044 (0.318)
H3f: Personal Interaction with Providers positively affects Memorability	PER→REM	Positive (+)	Supported	0.126 (0.054)
H3g: Tolerance positively affects Memorability	TOL→REM	Negative (-)	Not Supported	-0.004 (0.940)
H3h: Pre-visualization positively affects Memorability	VIS→REM	Positive (+)	Supported	0.255 (0.001)
H4: Travel Organization positively affects Pre-visualization	ORG→VIS	Positive (+)	Supported	0.522 (0.000)
H5a(i): Interaction with Local People positively affects Functional Value	LQUA→FUV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.135 (0.079)
H5a(ii): Interaction with Local People positively affects Emotional Value	LQUA→EMV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.392 (0.000)
H5a(iii): Interaction with Local People positively affects Social Value	LQUA→SOV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.080 (0.313)
H5b(i): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Functional Value	TQUA→FUV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.083 (0.193)

H5b(ii): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Emotional Value	TQUA→EMV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.070 (0.094)
H5b(iii): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Social Value	TQUA→SOV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.158 (0.016)
H5c(i): Travel Organization positively affects Functional Value	ORG→FUV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.112 (0.041)
H5c(ii): Travel Organization positively affects Emotional Value	ORG→EMV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.010 (0.804)
H5c(iii): Travel Organization positively affects Social Value	ORG→SOV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.041 (0.489)
H5d(i): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Functional Value	SHA→FUV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.013 (0.814)
H5d(ii): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Emotional Value	SHA→EMV	Negative (-)	Not Supported	-0.071 (0.129)
H5d(iii): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Social Value	SHA→SOV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.171 (0.002)
H6(i): Memorability positively affects Functional Value	REM→FUV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.110 (0.177)
H6(ii): Memorability positively affects Emotional Value	REM→EMV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.403 (0.000)
H6(iii): Memorability positively affects Social Value	REM→SOV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.287 (0.001)
H7a(i): Interaction with Local People positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	LQUA→REM→FUV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.042 (0.180)
H7a(ii): Interaction with Local People positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	LQUA→REM→EMV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.153 (0.000)
H7a(iii): Interaction with Local People positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	LQUA→REM→SOV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.108 (0.007)
H7b(i): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TQUA→REM→FUV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.002 (0.792)
H7b(ii): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TQUA→REM→EMV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.006 (0.789)
H7b(iii): Interaction with Other Tourists positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TQUA→REM→SOV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.004 (0.790)

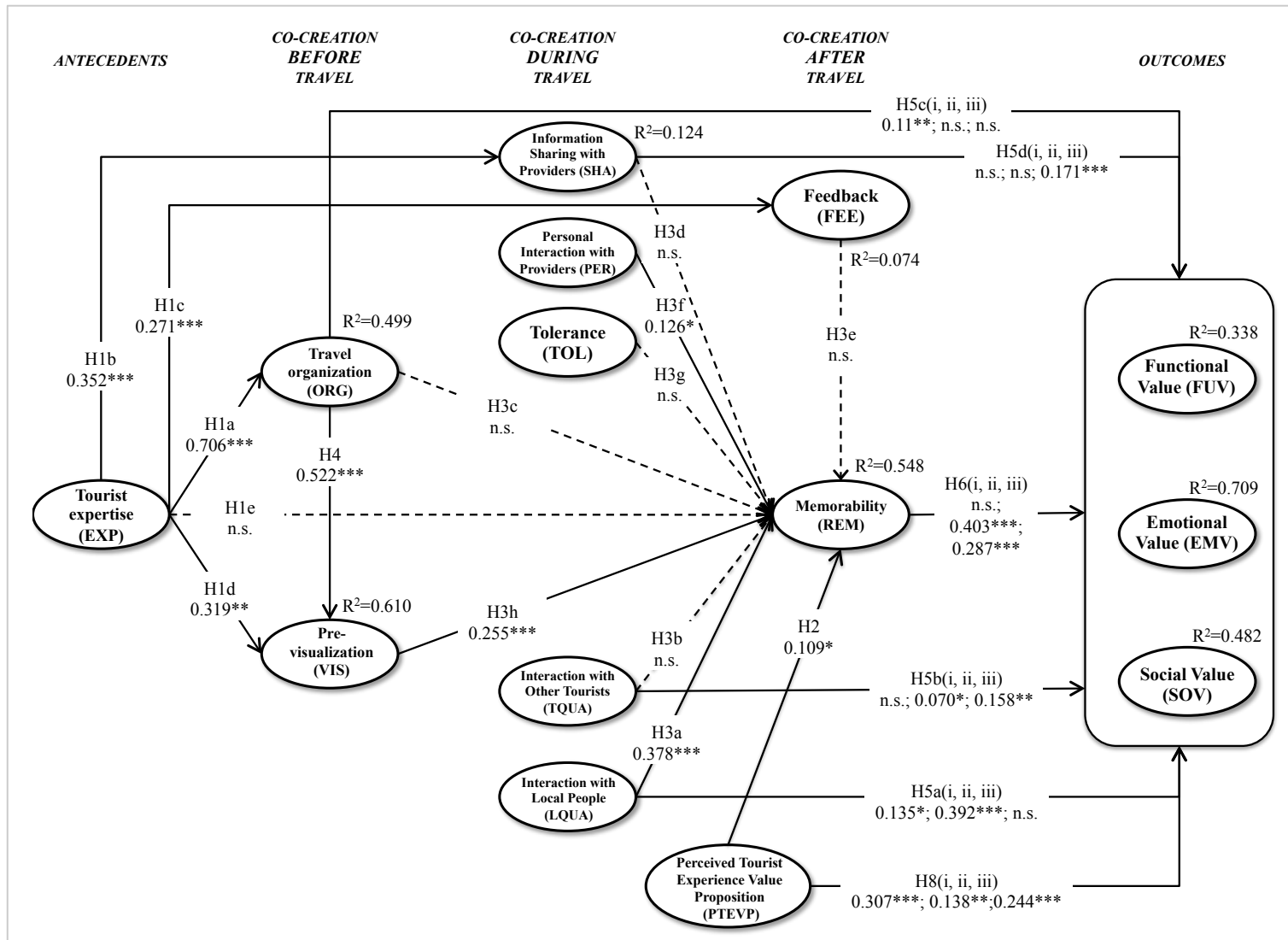
H7c(i): Travel Organization positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	ORG→REM→FUV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.010 (0.348)
H7c(ii): Travel Organization positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	ORG→REM→EMV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.037 (0.212)
H7c(iii): Travel Organization positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	ORG→REM→SOV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.026 (0.265)
H7d(i): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	SHA→REM→FUV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.004 (0.520)
H7d(ii): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	SHA→REM→EMV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.015 (0.494)
H7d(iii): Information Sharing with Providers positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	SHA→REM→SOV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.010 (0.502)
H7e(i): Feedback positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	FEE→REM→FUV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.005 (0.355)
H7e(ii): Feedback positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	FEE→REM→EMV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.018 (0.307)
H7e(iii): Feedback positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	FEE→REM→SOV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.013 (0.352)
H7f(i): Personal Interaction with Providers positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	PER→REM→FUV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.014 (0.311)
H7f(ii): Personal Interaction with Providers positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	PER→REM→EMV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.051 (0.091)
H7f(iii): Personal Interaction with Providers positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	PER→REM→SOV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.036 (0.108)
H7g(i): Tolerance positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TOL→REM→FUV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.000 (0.940)
H7g(ii): Tolerance positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated	TOL→REM→EMV	Negative (-)	Not Supported	-0.002 (0.940)



by Memorability				
H7g(iii): Tolerance positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	TOL→REM→SOV	Negative (-)	Not Supported	-0.001 (0.940)
H7h(i): Pre-visualization positively affects Functional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	VIS→REM→FUV	Positive (+)	Not Supported	0.028 (0.231)
H7h(ii): Pre-visualization positively affects Emotional Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	VIS→REM→EMV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.103 (0.004)
H7h(iii): Pre-visualization positively affects Social Value indirectly, mediated by Memorability	VIS→REM→SOV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.073 (0.012)
H8(i): Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition positively affects Functional Value	PTEVP→FUV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.307 (0.000)
H8(ii): Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition positively affects Emotional Value	PTEVP→EMV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.138 (0.019)
H8(iii): Perceived Tourist Experience Value Proposition positively affects Social Value	PTEVP→SOV	Positive (+)	Supported	0.244 (0.000)

Source: Own elaboration based on Mplus outcome.

Figure VI.6 Structural Estimations



Source: Own elaboration.

In this case, the moderator variable (i.e., gender) would be nonmetric (binary); but it can also be metric/continuous. It would be the case if we theorize that *Personal Interaction with Providers* moderates the former relationship. In this case, we would be adopting the ‘product approach’, which involves modeling interaction constructs as a function of the main effect constructs in SEM (Kenny & Judd, 1984). The product approach is the natural approach when both interacting variables (e.g., *Information Sharing with Providers* and *Personal Interaction with Providers*) are continuous (Rigdon, Schumacker, & Wothke, 1998).

Responding to some of the non-significant relationships in our structural model, we decided to analyze the moderation effect of *Personal Interaction with Providers* and *Tolerance* on four relationships: *Information Sharing with Providers-Memorability*; *Information Sharing with Providers-Functional Value*; *Information Sharing with Providers-Emotional Value*; and *Information Sharing with Providers-Social Value*, as well as the moderation effect of *Pre-visualization* on the *Travel Organization- Memorability* relationship. Results in Mplus (Table VI.15) show that the only significant interaction effect appears between SHA and PER affecting REM. This means that *Information Sharing with Providers* have a positive and significant influence on *Memorability* mediated by the *Personal Interaction with Providers*. In other words, to higher levels of interpersonal relations between tourists and providers/employees (PER), the tourist’s essential information supply to providers/employees in the destination (SHA) increases their revival of the travel experience (REM).

Table VI.15 Moderation/Interaction Effects

	Estimate	S.E	Est./S.E.	p-value	Level of significance
SHA X PER → REM	0.115	0.049	2.349	0.019	**
SHA X PER → FUV	-0.015	0.058	-0.256	0.798	n.s.
SHA X PER → EMV	-0.055	0.067	-0.818	0.413	n.s.
SHA X PER → SOV	-0.078	0.064	-1.210	0.226	n.s.
SHA X TOL → REM	0.055	0.039	1.388	0.165	n.s.
SHA X TOL → FUV	-0.012	0.056	-0.220	0.826	n.s.
SHA X TOL → EMV	-0.091	0.060	-1.519	0.129	n.s.
SHA X TOL → SOV	-0.019	0.065	-0.297	0.766	n.s.
ORG X VIS → REM	0.012	0.024	0.511	0.610	n.s.

Source: Mplus outcome.

To end up with the post hoc analysis and with the data analysis process, we are interested in examining non-linear effects. Specifically, we are going to see if **quadratic effects** appear to be significant in the *Memorability-Travel Experience Value* relationships. Results in Mplus (Table VI.16) show that the only significant quadratic effect appears between REM and FUV. This means that *Memorability* has a negative quadratic effect on

*Functional Value.* Therefore, we can conclude that tourist's revival on their experience (REM) quadratically decreases perceived functional value (FUV), but linearly and positively influence emotional and social values (EMV and SOV, respectively).

Table VI.16 Quadratic Effects

	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>S.E</b>	<b>Est./S.E.</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>Level of significance</b>
$REM^2 \rightarrow FUV$	-0.045	0.020	-2.299	0.022	**
$REM^2 \rightarrow EMV$	0.006	0.021	0.311	0.756	n.s.
$REM^2 \rightarrow SOV$	-0.025	0.019	-1.305	0.192	n.s.

Source: Mplus outcome.

# Chapter VII Conclusions

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## VII.1. Introduction

Largely, this Thesis is focused on place marketing co-creation from a tourism experience perspective. After detecting the lack of specification and concretion in the field, we performed a rather exploratory work to cover those gaps. As a consequence, quantitative outcomes were obtained. However, due to the extensive literature reviewed and the complex model provided, it might be not clear yet what can be concluded from this work and which are the most important consequences for marketing theory and practice. The research questions that we try to answer in this chapter are: (1) Which are the most important landmarks of the study? (2) What can be said in conceptual and practical terms concerning value co-creation in tourism experiences? Does it really affect tourism experience value? What kinds of processes have greater effect on the perceived value? Are those co-creation processes influenced by tourist resources? (3) Which is the added value of the present study with respect to the existing literature? (4) What issues are still understudied and can be developed in future research? To answer those research questions, we have summarized the content of the Thesis making a critical review of the obtained results.

The aim of this Chapter is, therefore, to present the general conclusions deduced from the Thesis. The relevance of this work is threefold: first, to understand the importance of this work for the academic literature in marketing and tourism; second, to get an idea about the work carried out during the Thesis at a glance; and third, to identify potential research avenues.

The chapter is organized as follows: Section VII.2 offers the theoretical, methodological, and empirical contributions of the Thesis. Empirical contributions lead to managerial implications in Section VII.3. Finally, study limitations are exposed in Section VII.4, together with suggestions for future research.

## VII.2. Contributions of the Thesis

We are going to differentiate two kinds of contributions. On the one hand, we present the *theoretical and methodological* contributions of the Thesis, more related to covering previous gaps of the literature. On the other hand, we introduce the contributions that are related to the *results* obtained in the *empirical* study carried out in the Thesis.

### VII.2.1. Theoretical and Methodological Contributions

This section is devoted to collect the academic benefits of the Thesis. These contributions are predominantly related to the research avenues found on previous chapters concerning place marketing, co-creation of value, and value co-creation in place marketing.

Our work tried to cover those theoretical and methodological gaps. The following paragraphs summarize the extent to which this was achieved. Other additional contributions were also added to the list. In total, we found 21 contributions. These are presented below. We include the research avenue (RA) to which the contribution is answering to between brackets.

First, the study dealt with value co-creation in tourism experiences. Due to the multiple conceptual backgrounds addressing this concept, we chose SDL to lead our proposal. A SDL-driven tourism experience value co-creation study contributed to:

(1) Addressing place marketing from a *specific theoretical background* (RA #1 in Section II.4).

(2) Achieving a *unified conceptual background* for place marketing in general and tourism experience in particular. Moreover, SDL is described as a *general theory for marketing*, which assists in consolidating a common understanding of marketing in all kinds of contexts, including place marketing and its branches (i.e., destination marketing and tourism experiences) (RA #1 in Section II.4).

(3) Providing a *more actual approach* for place marketing, far from the traditional 4Ps perspective and its adaptations. Actually, SDL was denominated as the ‘new marketing paradigm’ for a long time (RA #1 in Section II.4).

(4) Providing a *more adapted view* of destination marketing and tourism experiences, considering the *democratic, interactive* and *consumer-driven* nature of travel-related experiences. The co-created tourism experience view involves all the actors as service/experience co-creators. Specifically, Axiom 2 (previous FP6) in SDL reads: “value is cocreated by multiple actors, always including the beneficiary.” This premise, together with Axiom 4 (previous FP10), emphasize the importance of consumers (i.e., tourists) co-creating the experience and also final value. Axiom 4 argues that “value is uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary.” Then, FP8 supports the interactional nature of the experience: “a service-centered view is inherently beneficiary oriented and relational.” (RA #2 and #3 in Section II.4).

Second, the study carried out a *systematic review* about value co-creation and similar approaches in place marketing, including urban, hospitality, and destination contexts. We performed a comprehensive descriptive analysis and an exploratory thematic analysis based on the elements of the SDL narrative.

The descriptive analysis revealed *conceptual* and *qualitative* predominance in the studies’ scientific approach and research method, as well as a preference towards *destination* contexts, above urban and hospitality ones. Besides, we found that the discipline follows a habitual though *slow evolution*, stagnant in terms of conceptual clarification and empirical approaches.

The thematic analysis allowed noticing that value co-creation is usually founded on SDL, but that also drew upon other sources, such as service marketing, resource-based theory, network theory, and experiential marketing. Concerning *actors*, we found various stakeholders involved in co-creating experiences in places. These were: the customers or tourist, and its surrounding actors (i.e., friends and family and other customers or tourists);

providers (usually hospitality services) and their employees, and its surrounding actors (i.e., suppliers and partners); residents; and public organizations, specially DMOs. They are all present in the reviewed studies; however, the focus is predominantly directed to customers and tourists (56% of the times). Besides, *dyadic* customer-provider relationships are the most recurrent. Not surprisingly, *service exchange* and *resource integration* concepts remain as a black box in the literature, despite the efforts in identifying the most important resources affecting co-creation processes at places. On the one hand, customers are seen frequently as operant resources that provide knowledge and information to providers. Nevertheless, they are also recognized as actors with multiple resources that are integrated by themselves. Those resources include time, effort, motivation, involvement, social resources, and especially knowledge and skills. *Institutions* are found to be understudied, and although they are sometimes mentioned, there are no authors targeting institutions in a place environment as described in SDL.

In the literature review, we accomplished an inventory of co-creation approaches, proxies, and measures in place marketing. The results showed that co-creation was addressed predominantly as (i) consumers' co-production behaviors that support service delivery processes, (ii) consumers' involvement in suggesting innovative ideas to improve provider's service, (iii) consumers' citizenship behaviors towards the provider, and (iv) interactions between consumers and other guests and/or staff. An exhaustive record of prior co-creation approaches contributed to:

(5) Perceiving the *limited* perspectives, the *opportunism*, and the *lack of rigorousness* addressed in previous studies on co-creation of value applied to place contexts.

Third, the study provided an extended conceptual framework of the co-created tourism experience that led to concrete relationships between co-creation processes, antecedents and outcomes. These relationships (i.e., hypotheses) were *quantitatively* contrasted using SEM. An empirical quantitative study about tourism experience co-creation, its antecedents and outcomes contributed to:

(6) *Exceeding descriptive* approaches and *qualitative* techniques in place marketing and co-creation of value (RA #1 in Section II.4 and RA #1 in Table IV.9).

Fourth, the study provided a concrete definition of value co-creation in travel-related contexts based on the SDL narrative around co-creation (five elements) and derived elaborations. The definition read as follows: "Tourism experience value co-creation is the service exchange and resource integration process driven by the tourist, that involves a set of interactive and non-interactive behaviors, attitudes, and mental processes of the tourist with him/herself and with other actors (i.e., tourism service providers, local people, other tourists, family and friends), that take place before, during and after the trip, in all the travel-related environments, including the destination itself." The prior notion of tourism experience value co-creation contributed to:

(7) Providing a complete and exact conceptualization of co-creation through a *definition* of the concept in a tourism experience environment (RA #3 in Table IV.9 and RA #3 in Section III.7).

(8) Considering not only service providers (e.g., hotel providers, travel agents, airplane crew) and consumers (i.e., tourists), but also other contextual actors implicitly and explicitly involved in tourism experiences. This perspective allows moving *from dyadic to networked views* of marketing. However, the definition developed in our study gave a central role to the tourist (*consumer focused view*), the actor who perceives experience value (RA #6 and #7 in Table IV.9).

(9) Considering not only *interactive* co-creation processes, but also co-creation processes taking place *without explicit interactional* relationships (i.e., behavioral, attitudinal and mental co-creation processes) (RA #8 in Table IV.9).

(10) Considering not only co-creation processes before and during the core service (i.e., the trip), but also co-creation processes taking place *after* the experience (RA #11 in Table IV.9).

Fifth, the study presented a *baseline model* that suited our self-developed conceptualization of co-creation and its implications. Following SDL, tourist co-creation was understood as *service exchange* and *resource integration*. Specifically, tourist value co-creation was defined in terms of ‘a set of processes’, including *travel organization* and *pre-visualization* before travel; *interaction with local people*, *interaction with other tourists*, *information sharing with providers*, *personal interaction with providers*, and *tolerance* during travel; and *feedback* and *memorability* after travel. Additionally, *tourist* and *destination resources* preceded and facilitated those co-creation processes, and the latter affect *tourism experience value*. A SDL-driven value co-creation framework and a detailed roster of co-creative processes contributed to:

(11) Developing co-creation models based on SDL premises (RA #2 in Table IV.9 and RA #1 in Section III.7).

(12) Deepening knowledge about resource integration (RA #9 in Table IV.9).

Sixth, the study made one of the few attempts found in the literature to operationalize value co-creation. Specifically, we developed a *measurement tool* of consumer co-creation in a travel-related context, composed of nine factors. For that objective, we based on previous works on co-creation and co-creation on place/tourism/destination marketing. We considered interactional and non-interactional behavioral, attitudinal and mental co-creative processes before, during, and after the travel experience. The measurement scale included the following variables: *travel organization*, *pre-visualization*, *interaction with local people*, *interaction with other tourists*, *information sharing with providers*, *personal interaction with providers*, *tolerance*, *feedback*, and *memorability*. The measurement model also included *tourist expertise* (tourist resources) and *perceived tourism experience value proposition* (destination resources) as antecedents of co-creation, and *tourism experience value* as outcome of co-creation. The measurement model was validated using CFA and was found to fulfill all the validity assessment requirements (i.e., acceptable GOF, convergent validity, discriminant validity). A validated measurement scale on tourism experience co-creation contributed to:

(13) Measuring co-creation *explicitly* (instead of using proxies) and through quantitative methods (RA #4 in Table IV.9).



(14) Creating an *appropriate measurement instrument* to measure co-creation, based on SDL, applicable to other experiential contexts (RA #5 in Table IV.9 and RA #4 in Section III.7).

(15) Gathering different co-creation perspectives (e.g., co-production, customization, participation, citizenship behavior, feedback, interactions, service evaluation) to form a *comprehensive view* of the concept.

Seventh, the study implemented an *innovative data collection* process consisting on a survey divided in *two* phases. The first questionnaire was distributed before going on travel, while the second was delivered after the travel experience. An empirical research methodology based on a two-stage survey contributed to:

(16) Preventing *common method bias*.

(17) Improving *quality of the sample*.

(18) Encouraging new and more *rigorous* and *context-driven* data collection methods in marketing and consumer behavior investigations.

Eighth, the study proposed eight hypotheses where, in general terms, (i) tourist and destination resources were thought to positively affect some co-creation processes (H1, H2), and (ii) tourist co-creation processes were thought to positively affect tourism experience value. Some co-creation processes were believed to affect value directly, whereas others were suggested to affect it only indirectly (H5, H6, H7). An empirically supported structural model based on a *resources → co-creation processes → value* chain contributed to:

(19) Measuring the effect of consumer's knowledge and skills on co-creation processes and resource integration (RA #12 in Table IV.9).

(20) Measuring tourism experience value, which is phenomenological and contextual by nature, as the co-creation outcome (RA #14 in Table IV.9).

The structural model provided by the present study paid special attention to *mental co-creative processes* generated inside the tourists' minds before and after going on travel. These are represented by *pre-visualization* and *memorability*, which are, in turn, closely related to the notions of 'experience image' and experience remembrance, respectively. In our study, mental co-creative processes are hypothesized to play a central role in tourism value co-creation (H3, H4). Emphasizing tourist's mental co-creation processes in the tourism experience contributed to:

(21) Broadening the narrow perspective developed up to now in value co-creation literature, acknowledging and measuring other 'not so recognized' processes that involve only the consumers (i.e., tourists) and that do not imply any physical behavior in favor of the provider.

## VII.2.2. Empirical Contributions

This section is devoted to gather the empirical conclusions extracted from our study. These conclusions are predominantly related to the interpretation of the supported and not supported hypotheses proposed in our tourism experience co-creation model. Our work established relationships between tourist and destination resources and tourist co-creation

processes, and between tourist co-creation processes and experience value dimensions. Those relationships were then quantitatively measured. The following paragraphs summarize the extent to which our hypotheses are confirmed. We organized the section in four passages, inspired in Section V.6: (1) effect of tourist expertise on co-creation processes; (2) effect of other tourist's co-creation processes on pre-visualization and memorability; (3) effect of tourist's co-creation processes on tourism experience value; and (4) effect of destination resources on memorability and tourism experience value.

### ***VII.2.2.1) Effect of Tourist Expertise on Co-creation Processes***

For the first time in the literature, *tourist expertise* was hypothesized to affect his/her co-creation processes in a tourism experience context. Results showed that tourist expertise did not affect *memorability* significantly. On the contrary, it did affect *travel organization*, *information sharing with providers*, *feedback*, and *pre-visualization*.

The strongest relationship is the one established between expertise and travel organization ( $\beta_{EXP \rightarrow ORG} = 0.706$ ). This relationship confirms that the higher the tourist's ability to perform travel-related task successfully in terms of cognitive effort, analysis, elaboration, and memory, the higher the probabilities of the tourist spending time providing inputs for the development of their travel arrangement. In other words: experts have more complex knowledge structures and cognitive skills and they are open to process new information and thus self-arrange their trip more than non experts. As travel organization can be described as a tourist co-production behavior, our conclusions agree on a previous study on financial services, which argues that "expertise likely increases client involvement in co-production" (Auh, Bell, McLeod, & Shih, 2007, p. 362). Likewise, Teichmann (2011, p. 186) supported that "consumer product expertise positively influences the extent of travel information search during vacation planning", a precept that we believe extensible to travel organization, which involves searching information (e.g., checking brochures). To explain the positive effect of tourist expertise on travel organization we found three reasons in prior literature. First, as customers gain experience, they are able to better evaluate the various attributes of different service offerings (Moorthy, Ratchford, & Talukdar, 1997) and therefore, is easier for them to perform all the necessary procedures to organize their vacation trip. Second, inexperienced customers typically perceive higher decision-making risk (Heilman, Bowman, & Wright, 2000); therefore, these customers are unlikely to involve themselves in co-producing their trip because they fear producing a suboptimal outcome. Third, it is thought that expert customers usually have greater need for control in the service delivery process (O'Connor & Siomkos, 1994), which means that expert tourists will be more willing to prepare the details of their trip trying to control the whole tourism experience process.

Similarly, expert tourists were shown to be prone to share essential information (i.e., personal information and information about their needs and wants) to providers and employees, in order to facilitate better service provision. One of the reasons may be that as consumers gain more expertise in the product/service category (trip preparation), they can better assess where they might make a contribution (Auh et al., 2007). In other words, the

tourist will know what kind of information to share in common with service providers at destination to make their experience better -and what information to conceal.

Concerning the positive effect of tourist expertise on feedback, our results showed that more knowledgeable and skillful tourists are more given than non-experts to give feedback to providers, in terms of providing suggestions to improve the service and share their opinions with staff. One of the reasons behind this validated relationship is explained by Alba and Hutchinson (1987), who affirmed that expertise assists information processing. We found that our results were coherent with previous literature. Actually, there are several studies that established a relationship between customer expertise and online reviews (e.g., Kim, Mattila, & Baloglu, 2011), and the effect that online reviews may have on expert and novice customers (e.g., Park & Kim, 2008). Furthermore, the literature is full of authors addressing customers' knowledge for service innovation and improvement (e.g., Blazevic & Lievens, 2008).

Besides, expertise significantly affected pre-visualization of the travel experience. This may be due to the facility to retrieve previous travel experiences and elaborate information from the available information (Kerstetter & Cho, 2004), to then create future experience images.

Finally, contrary to what we thought, the hypothesis suggesting that tourist expertise affected memorability was not supported. Expertise was thought to enable tourist analyze incoming information from the environment and to recall information in memory (Kerstetter & Cho, 2004). However, this idea was only confirmed in our study as an indirect effect. This means that expert tourists were found to remember their experience after their arrival more than non-expert tourists not directly, but moderated by other intermediate co-creation processes (travel organization and pre-visualization). Those processes, which are facilitated by tourist expertise, really increase experience memorability.

#### ***VII.2.2.2) Effect of Other Tourist's Co-creation Processes on Pre-visualization and Memorability***

The study corroborated the relevance of tourist *mental* co-creation processes on experience value, especially that of *memorability*. Considering that some kind of interrelationship may exist between co-creation processes happening before, during and after travel, it was interesting to analyze which of the co-creative processes affected *memorability* and *pre-visualization*; that is, what tourist processes assisted the subsequent experience remembrance and imagination. First, there were only three co-creation variables that significantly affected memorability. These were, in order of importance: *interaction with local people*, *pre-visualization*, and *personal interaction with providers*.

Memorability refers to the level of recall felt by the tourist when returning home after his/her vacation trip; that is, the customer's revival and remembrance on an experience and its 'use'. Despite its relevance in marketing, limited explanations have been given to the travel-related characteristics that may affect experiences to be memorable (Kim et al., 2012). This study contributed to do so. After a deep analysis, we found that the most significant factors affecting memorability were *interaction with local people* ( $\beta_{LQUA \rightarrow REM} = 0.378$ ) and *pre-visualization* ( $\beta_{VIS \rightarrow REM} = 0.255$ ). Therefore, we can first affirm that tourists experiencing

more satisfactory encounters with the local population live a more memorable experience and therefore, remember their vacation days more vividly. This result was consistent with previous works on memorable experiences, where local culture was found to lead memorability (e.g., Chandralal, Rindfleisch, & Valenzuela, 2015; Kim, 2014; Tsai, 2016). Second, findings revealed that those tourists imagining the future experience and thinking and talking about it before going on travel tend to recall the experience when arriving home. This may be due to expectations; that is, those anticipating the trip build expectations in their minds that are ratified in the end of the trip by remembering the experience (Skinner & Theodossopoulos, 2011; Wong & Dioko, 2013). *Pre-visualization* was, in turn, found to be positively affected by *travel organization*, confirming that tourists involved personally in travel arrangement imagine their vacation trips easier.

To a lesser extent, *interaction with providers* also had a positive effect on *memorability*, which contemplated that tourist's attitudes towards service staff at the destination encourage memorable experiences. On the contrary, good-quality encounters with other tourists did not show any significant influence on memorability; and neither did any kind of behavioral or attitudinal tourist co-creation process.

### ***VII.2.2.3) Effect of Tourist's Co-creation Processes on Tourism Experience Value***

Based on our study, we can, in general terms, confirm the positive effect that tourist co-creation processes have on his/her experience value. Thus, it was corroborated that the influence of customers on the value creation process is an issue to be considered, also in travel-related contexts. This, in turn, supports the increasing attention that marketers have paid to consumer co-creation behaviors.

However, the effect of those tourist-driven co-creation processes in different value dimensions differs notoriously depending on the type of process. This means that, for instance, interactional co-creative processes do not affect tourism experience value in the same way behavioral or mental co-creative processes do, neither at the same level, nor to the same value dimensions. Our hypothesis-based work allowed clarifying which are the processes that influence to a greater extent each tourism experience value dimension.

*Interactional* co-creation processes of tourists with *local people* and *other tourists* at destinations were demonstrated to significantly and positively affect experience value. Specifically, *emotional value* and *social value* are, respectively, the most susceptible dimensions. Comparing degrees of influence, we discovered that interactions with local population are more powerful when evaluating tourism experience value ( $\beta_{LQUA \rightarrow EMV} = 0.392$  vs.  $\beta_{TQUA \rightarrow SOV} = 0.158$ ). While the effect of tourist-to-tourist (in general consumer-to-consumer) interactions on the experience value have been widely studied in previous literature (e.g., Huang & Hsu, 2010; Prebensen, Vittersø, et al., 2013; Wu & Liang, 2009), tourist-to-local people interactions have been examined rather from a resident's perspective, analyzing the attitude and reactions of the local population towards tourism (Carneiro, Eusébio, & Caldeira, 2018; Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997; Lindberg & Johnson, 1997). Exceptions include, for instance, that of Kastenholz, Carneiro, and Eusébio (2018).

Co-creation behaviors related to experience arrangement before going on travel and information sharing behaviors of the tourist with service providers at destinations were,

likewise, found to significantly and positively affect experience value. *Travel organization* influenced *functional value*, as expected. However, *information sharing with providers* was surprisingly found to affect the *social value* dimension. Highly associated with customization, travel organization and information sharing behaviors' effect on experience value confirm the customers' real preference towards products and services tailored to their preferences (Franke, Keinz, & Steger, 2009; Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Jin, He, & Song, 2012).

Tourist's *mental* co-creation processes, represented by *pre-visualization* and *memorability*, showed relevant results. Pre-visualization was found to significantly and positively influence experience value indirectly (through memorability), especially the *emotional* dimension of value. Not surprisingly, memorability revealed a positive, significant and direct effect on *emotional* and *social* values, especially on the former. Regarding the degree of influence, memorability is the co-creation variable with the highest effect on experience value ( $\beta_{REM \rightarrow EMV} = 0.403$ ). This is consistent with prior literature on experience economy. Following Hosany and Witham (2010), recollecting past events, behaviors and experiences as vacations, in which sensorial experiences predominate, can shape tourists' subsequent attitudinal evaluations, such as overall satisfaction and future intentions (based on Pine and Gilmore (1999) and Oh et al. (2007)). Therefore, it can be concluded that the creation of an arousing experience with enduring memories is central to generate high levels of experience outcomes (i.e., value, satisfaction, loyalty). In this statement two issues are important, the sensory-based experience itself and the action of recalling such experience (i.e., memorability).

On the other hand, we saw non-significant effects of *attitudinal* co-creative behaviors on value. Both, *tolerance* and *personal interaction with providers*, as well as *feedback* behaviors, did not affect experience value, even indirectly (through memorability). This confirms our view that the only beneficiary of customer citizenship behaviors is the provider and that it really do not improve tourism experience value.

#### **VII.2.2.4) Effect of Destination Resources on Tourism Experience Value**

Traditional marketing views focused on provider resources to explain service/experience value. In contrast, new marketing paradigms encouraged considering consumers' role on value creation, apart from those of the provider. Therefore, based on SDL, in a travel-related context tourist value co-creation processes would be of great importance, but destination resources should also be taken into account. For that reason, one of the objectives of our empirical study was first, to corroborate the effect that destination resources have on experience value; and second, compare that effect with that of tourist co-creation processes. Results showed that *perceived tourist experience value proposition*, which involved the tourist's mean evaluation of twelve destination-related features including hospitality services and natural resources, significantly and positively affected *tourism experience value*, in terms of *functional*, *emotional* and *social* values (e.g., Murphy et al., 2000). The degree of influence is rather high, especially on functional value ( $\beta_{PTEVP \rightarrow FUV} = 0.307$ ). However, compared with that of *memorability* and *interaction with local people*, is still behind.

Besides, compared with tourist co-creation processes, destination resources (i.e., *perceived tourism experience value proposition*) showed a less powerful effect when it comes to remember the travel experience when tourists are at home again after the trip (Barrutia, Echebarria, Paredes, Apaolaza, & Hartmann, 2015).

#### ***VII.2.2.5) Most Relevant Results: A Summary***

The aim of this section is to summarize the most important conclusions derived from our empirical study. Therefore, the following paragraphs gather the most relevant results about tourism experience value co-creation, its antecedents and outcomes.

- Tourist value co-creation processes have a positive effect on experience value. That is, co-creation processes taking place at any stage (i.e., before, during and after travel), show significant effect on tourism experience value, both directly and indirectly through memorability.

- Attitudinal co-creation processes, related to customer citizenship behaviors, are the ones demonstrating a lower influence on tourism experience value. On the other hand, mental, interactional, and behavioral co-creation processes are, respectively, the most influential. Interaction with local people deserves special attention.

- Memorability is the co-creation variable that affects tourism experience value to a greater extent. This means that if the tourist recalls the experience, he/she will be more given to perceive a higher value. Additionally, memorability plays a moderator role between other co-creation processes and experience value.

- Due to the relevance of memorability in the co-creation process, it is important to acknowledge what makes of an experience ‘memorable’. Results show that interaction with local people is what positively affects memorability the most, followed by pre-visualization (which is, in turn, preceded by travel organization), and personal interaction with providers at destination.

- Tourist co-creation processes predominantly affect emotional value of the experience, followed by the social dimension. However, tourist’s co-creation hardly affects functional value.

- Tourist expertise have a positive and significant effect on various co-creation processes, especially on travel organization, information sharing with providers and pre-visualization. It indirectly affects memorability in a positive way.

- In the extended tourism experience co-creation process there are different concatenations of processes leading to experience value. An interesting ‘value co-creation chain’ is: EXP→ORG→VIS→REM→VAL. This chain allows understanding value creation in a travel-related context with no need of considering any other actor but the tourist him/herself.

- Destination resources show a significant and positive effect on tourism experience value, influencing, from least to most, emotional, social, and functional value dimensions. However, its effect on memorability is low. This means that perceived tourism experience value proposition directly affects value, but does not help on recalling the experience.

- Both, destination resources and tourist co-creation processes affect tourism experience value but in different ways. First, destination mostly affects functional value, whereas tourist's co-creation affects emotional and social values. Second, the influence of the destination on value is direct, while tourist co-creation processes affect value also through memorability.

### **VII.3. Managerial Implications**

Our findings suggest that memorability is the most influential factor on experience value, affecting tourist's emotional value positively. Actually, memorability, which is a tourist's co-creative mental process was found to affect value more than destination resources, in general terms. For that reason, considering memorability as a value-driver of tourism experience value, those managers that at destinations pursue enhanced levels of consumer perceived value, need to consider memorability as a strategic lever. This means that managers should focus first on encouraging tourists to recall and remember their travel experience, and second, on improving those variables that make tourists remember the travel experience.

The former would imply, for instance, starting up after-travel consumer-contact actions that enable experience recall, not only asking for feedback, which has been demonstrated not to affect experience value, but through other 'not demanding', maybe rewarding, efforts.

Concerning the latter, our study showed that three variables influence memorability. These are: interaction with local people, pre-visualization, and personal interaction with providers. This means that destination managers (e.g., DMOs) should encourage local population to integrate on tourism projects, and to promote tourism as a source of wealth and cultural diversity, instead of an invasive economic activity. Although difficult to implement, tourist campaigns should, therefore, be focused on sustainable and respectful projects that, in turn, stands out the local population and its culture as a comparative advantage. This will hopefully imbue tourists in a destination experience led by an sense of escapism. Successful interaction with local population will positively affect tourism experience value directly and indirectly through memorability; so it is, definitely, an important factor to be considered.

Besides, managers should also stimulate pre-visualization, which likewise influence memorability positively. In this case, managers can be considered in terms of destination managers or specific hospitality service providers. To support tourists in creating pre-experience images in their mind and thinking about the trip well before going on travel, a well-founded strategy could consist on encouraging tourist's travel organization, that is, favouring tourists' self-arrangement of the trip. Organizing the trip includes, for example, tourists actively involving in their trip packaging or spending considerable amounts of time arranging the trip. To encourage these behaviors managers should provide adequate online platforms that would assist tourists in such behaviors. Doing so, managers will not only encourage memorability moderated by pre-visualization, but will also support an increasing tourism experience value, as travel organization was confirmed to have a positive and direct

effect on tourism experience value. Similarly, those strategies that invite tourists to organize their trips can also encourage information sharing, which was showed to increase tourist's perceived value.

The effect that tourist expertise has on different value-affecting co-creation processes provides managers with an additional tool to enhance consumer perceived value. That is, if experts are able to achieve more value, firms and destination managers should focus on the enhancement of tourist expertise, which could be done involving providers and managers in the education of their customers. Therefore, companies and tourism bureaus can enhance the specific knowledge of travellers in co-creating their experiences at destination, especially in terms of hiring transportation, accommodation, and other on-site activities. As people learn by doing, e-service processes should, thus, be thought as learning platforms that not only assist potential visitors to complete the specific 'purchase', but increase expertise of their users, by the design itself and by the experience they gain.

The last managerial implication implies considering the value dimension affected by the co-creation processes and by the destination resources, respectively. Depending on the type of tourism service or politic addressed, the dimension that managers may want to encourage is different. If the aim is to enhance functional value, attention should be paid on destination specific resources, while if the goal of managers is to enhance emotional and social value dimensions, the strategy should be directed to trying to improve tourist's co-creation processes, especially interaction with local people and memorability.

#### **VII.4.Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

Despite the theoretical, methodological, and empirical contributions made by the present study in the fields of value co-creation and tourism experience, our work is not free of limitations. On the contrary, this Thesis suffers from various constraints on the theoretical background, data collection, conceptual model, and scale development.

First, concerning **theoretical background**, the study focuses on value co-creation to explain the tourist experience process and the value creation in that context. However, value co-creation has been developed by several logics that sometimes differ notoriously in the perspective adopted regarding that concept (i.e., co-creation). In order to maintain a coherence along the study, we chose SDL and its elements as the main inspiration, and we based on such logic to perform our critical review (Chapter IV) and build our conceptual model (Chapter V). Yet, in spite of its long evolution, SDL is still in a meta-theoretical level, which does not help to establish a specific and context-driven baseline framework. Therefore, we might have analyzed the possibility of founding on other logics and theories or a combination of them (i.e., CL, consumer-dominant logic, SS, SL). This leads to our first research avenue: in future studies we could compare different value co-creation models based on different logics, and examine their adaptation to real world with empirical applications.

Additionally, we confront a second theoretical limitation in the *context specification*. As long as we advanced in the study, we found that the 'place marketing' denomination chosen at the beginning of the Thesis was too broad to deal with a tourism environment.



Place marketing included urban and public service issues that may have been excluded from the study, restricting, in turn, our search to ‘tourism experiences’. Nevertheless, we should acknowledge that it was of great relevance to adopt a first general view about places in holistical terms to be able to build a multiactoral, multidimensional, and overlapped reality of the experience space.

The lack of a unique, contrasted and theoretically well supported value co-creation definition in the previous literature rule over many of the limitations of the present work. Specifically, the *definition*, *implications* and *hypotheses* provided in this Thesis are predominantly based on our discussed interpretations of SDL elements in a tourism framework. For that reason, we should encourage more context-driven precise definitions about value co-creation.

Second, we found our **data collection methodology** remarkably innovative and contributing. However, we should also recognize three big limitations in the data collection method, in terms of *technique*, *source*, and *informants*. Concerning the data collection technique, we used surveys or questionnaires to obtain responses. The survey is one of the most used procedures to get data, but the reliability of that data is more and more being questioned (Armstrong & Overton, 1977; Assael & Keon, 1982; Sheehan, 2006). Similarly, regarding the data collection source, online panels are thought to be doubtful sources of information, due to the participants’ facility to deceive and their misleading motivations to answer the questionnaires (they are usually paid) (Bethlehem & Stoop, 2007; Bruggen, Wetzels, de Ruyter, & Schillewaert, 2011; Göritz, Wolff, & Goldstein, 2008; Hillygus, Jackson, & Young, 2014; Mcdevitt & Small, 2002). Finally, the present study is limited to a single informant; that is, we turned only to customers (i.e., tourists) to answer to the surveys. Although in our case this choice is laid on the *consumer behavior focus* of the study, we believe that future research should concentrate on obtaining the data with original methods, including experiments and neuromarketing, combined with direct tourist surveys that could be complemented with questions to other actors implied in the tourism experience process, such as service providers and employees, public organizations and local people. Additionally, the context could also be broadened. In our study, urban and cultural vacation trips to foreign destinations were chosen, but other types of trips may be introduced in forthcoming research.

Furthermore, the great complexity of our data collection methodology based on two stages (before and after travel) led to a scarce number of samples. We obtained 428 usable responses. This was sufficient to carry out the SEM procedure, but did not permit to reliably perform multigroup analyses, including multigroup invariance verification. Therefore, future works should try to obtain a necessary and sufficient sample size and do interesting multigroup analyses to discover differences on co-creation behaviors between people with, for instance, different nationality, gender and age. To do so, our response rates could be used to approximate the number of people to contact in the first instance (see Table VI.3).

Third, regarding the provided **conceptual model**, two main limitations arise. One involves the failing attempt to integrate two understudied SDL elements in our baseline framework. Particularly, *networks* (i.e., service ecosystem) and *institutions* are still elusive and need further elaboration. The other limitation implies broadening the scope of the model

in terms of antecedents and outcomes. For instance, we only analyzed tourist and destination resources; but resources from other actors could also be incorporated as antecedents of value co-creation processes. In the same vein, we identified *knowledge and skills* as the most important resources, and thus, we only included *tourist expertise* in our model. However, it would also be interesting to measure which is the influence of other non-cultural resources, as physical (i.e., involvement) and social resources, in tourism experience co-creation. Investigations are also needed to explore other metrics related to the final goals of tourists, such as *well-being*, as well as different measures of *tourism experience value*.

Finally, the **measurement scale** developed in the Thesis was based on previous co-creation studies and on the opinion and collaboration of experts in the area. Nonetheless, it still has a long way to go. Therefore, we think that future studies could improve our co-creation measurement tool using more systematic and recursive methods (e.g., DeVellis, 2012; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). In line with the aim of refining the measurement scale, it can also be adapted to other co-creation contexts and verify its validity.

Along the section we appreciated that the limitations found in our study can well be used to advance in the field. Thus, to conclude this piece of the work Table VII.1 provides twelve research avenues that derived from previous discussions.

Table VII.1 Final Research Avenues Derived from Study Limitations

#	Research avenue
1	Discuss the differences in tourism experience co-creation depending on the different co-creation logics available in the literature (e.g., SL, SS, CL).
2	Provide more theoretically well supported, context-driven and precise definitions of value co-creation.
3	Use alternative data collection methods (e.g., experiments, neuromarketing).
4	Employ multiple sources/informants in data collection (i.e., complement responses obtained from customers with answers from other actors)
5	Analyze empirically tourism experience co-creation in different travel contexts (e.g., different types of travel).
6	Perform SEM analyses of tourism experience with other samples.
7	Carry out multigroup analyses to examine the effect of nationality, gender, age, income, company, or duration of the trip, in tourism experience co-creation.
8	Include networks and institutions in tourism experience co-creation in a more evident manner.
9	Examine the potential effect of other resources (e.g., involvement, social resources, resources from friends and family, technology, resources from local people) in value co-creation processes in a travel-related context.
10	Explore alternative metrics to measure tourist co-creation outcomes (e.g., wellbeing, new experience value dimensions, satisfaction, loyalty).
11	Provide alternative measurement scales for value co-creation in a tourism experience context.
12	Adapt, test and validate the value co-creation scale provided in this Thesis in other non-touristic contexts.

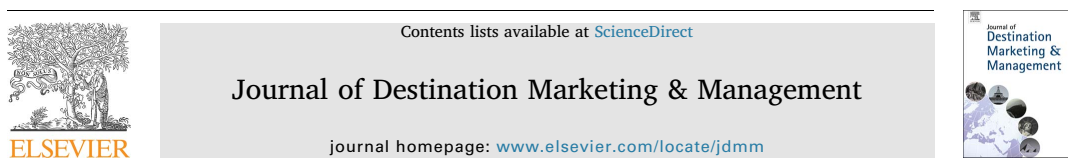
Source: Own elaboration.

# Chapter VIII Appendices

## VIII.1. Outcomes of the Thesis: Academic Articles

### VIII.1.1. Place marketing examined through a service-dominant logic lens: A review

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Critical Review

#### Place marketing examined through a service-dominant logic lens: A review

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#### ABSTRACT

The traveler (or city-customer) should be viewed as a major co-creator of the value extracted from her or his destination (or city) experience. Consumer resources such as energy, mental disposition, expertise, or involvement may be crucial to explain the final value perceived. It is not clear, however, how effectively the concept of co-creation has been incorporated within place marketing. This research takes a step forward toward covering this gap by: (1) drawing on service-dominant logic and related perspectives to propose a co-creation-led, baseline framework; (2) conducting a systematic review of quantitative place-marketing research that has attempted to incorporate the value co-creation perspective; (3) critically reviewing these research efforts; and (4) providing future research avenues. Overall, this research shows that quantitative place-marketing literature is advancing towards incorporating the co-creation proposal, although that is primarily so in destination and hospitality contexts. There is still a long way to go, however, before a consensus is reached on many fundamental aspects.

#### 1. Introduction

Like other marketing sub-disciplines, place marketing has predominantly drawn on good-dominant logic (GDL), in which products are viewed as imbued with value, and the responsibility and power for value creation is, therefore, given to the providers (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Under GDL, the place is viewed as a value-embedded product or bundling of products leading to a specific competitive position in the global market (Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993).

This perspective has been challenged by several place-marketing researchers who argue that place marketing has special characteristics related to: (1) the complexity and uniqueness of place as a product or bundling of products (Kotler, Asplund, Rein, & Heider, 1999), (2) the complexity of organizational mechanisms for marketing places derived from the dispersion of power and responsibility among many stakeholders (Bennett, 1999; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008), and (3) the ways in which branding theory can be applied (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Warnaby, 2009). Following these arguments, the traditional marketing practice structured around the four Ps framework was expanded to seven and eight Ps, to capture the singular characteristics of tourism and hospitality services (tourism marketing mix) (Morrison, 2010; Shoemaker & Shaw, 2008). Pike and Page (2014) go on to argue

that places are unique and marketing them is not a simple process of translating conventional marketing theory and practice derived from goods and services marketing. They see the role of events in transforming cities as a paradigmatic example of the singularities of place marketing.

This maladjustment with conventional goods-led marketing has also occurred in other disciplines, such as service marketing and industrial marketing. A crucial step towards a disruptive conceptualization of marketing was the consideration of the customer as co-creator of value. In the early 2000s, various related research streams challenged GDL, product-focused, and one-way marketing strategies, stressing the prominence of customers in value creation. Competitive logic (Pralhalad & Ramaswamy, 2004), service logic (Grönroos, 2008), service-science (Maglio & Spohrer, 2008; Vargo & Maglio, 2008), and service-dominant logic (SDL) (Vargo & Lusch, 2004; 2008; 2016) are some of the approaches that emphasize customer contribution in value creation, the latter probably being the most influential. These different approaches have been developed concurrently, although sometimes in a divergent manner.

While the concept of value co-creation applies to all sectors and contexts, it gains special meaning in experiential settings in which the participation and involvement of the consumer is more intense and

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vivid. Places are one of these contexts (Yuan & Wu, 2008). Activities and mental processes such as travelling, living within a city, and participating in events occur in the place environment and are strongly linked with the concept of experience. Tourist experiences specifically involve integration of a full range of resources (energy, mental disposition, expertise, or involvement) leading to sensorial perceptions, emotions, meanings, interpretations, and so on (Park & Vargo, 2012) that may enter long-term memory (Jensen & Prebensen, 2015). The traveler (or city-customer) should be viewed as a major co-creator of value extracted from his or her destination (or city) experience.

Place-marketing scholars tend to agree that the concept of co-creation should be introduced within theoretical and empirical contributions (Baron & Harris, 2010; Gallarza, Gil-Saura, & Holbrook, 2012; Hayslip, Gallarza, & Andreu, 2013; Li & Petrick, 2008; Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2012; Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011; Warnaby, 2009). Warnaby (2009), for instance, focuses on SDL and argues that its view of marketing is closer to the singularities of place marketing than previous marketing views. Binkhorst and Den Dekker (2009) argue that experience co-creation in tourism is a line of thought that deserves attention, because tourism is one of the greatest sources of experiences through which people construct their own unique narratives. Similarly, Li and Petrick (2008) argue that the view of tourists as co-creators of value and co-producers of their final experience introduces a paradigm shift that deserves attention. In the same vein, Shaw, Bailey, and Williams (2011) develop a case study showing that attitude towards co-creation is a crucial distinguishing characteristic of providers (hotels).

Place-marketing researchers therefore need to incorporate the co-creation view in their studies. If co-creation (actually) matters in place marketing, and research efforts do not take it into consideration in model devising and empirical tests, conclusions and recommendations could prove to be misleading, and place-marketing strategies might follow the wrong path. In addition, contextualization (i.e. applying the marketing view derived from the co-creation concept to the specific place-marketing context) could lead to a modification of the global logic of co-creation. Therefore, consideration of the co-creation approach in a place-marketing context might produce synergistic effects and improve both place-marketing views and strategies, as well as the way in which the co-creation tenets are altogether understood. Grönroos (2008) suggests that 'service logic studies services directly in their marketing context and reports on how changing marketing contexts influence the logic required for effective marketing' (p. 317).

It is not clear, however, how far the concept of co-creation has effectively been incorporated within place marketing. The conceptual plausibility of the co-creation view may face major difficulties of implementation. SDL, which is probably the most developed of the research streams that embrace the co-creation concept, is still at a meta-theoretical level, although it pays increasing attention to mid-range and micro theoretical perspectives (Vargo & Lusch, 2004; 2008; 2016). The co-creation concept is actually interpreted differently by different researchers and continues to be elusive, as advocates of SDL suggest in a recent work (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). In this controversial context, co-creation metrics are limited (Ranjan & Read, 2016; Yi & Gong, 2013) and ad-hoc interpretations are frequent. As widely accepted explanatory models of value co-creation processes are not available, moreover, it is not entirely clear what the antecedents and consequences of value co-creation are.

This research takes a step forward toward an effective incorporation of the value co-creation concept in place marketing by: (1) drawing on the SDL background to propose a normative value co-creation concept and a baseline framework; (2) conducting a systematic review of empirical quantitative place-marketing research that has tried to incorporate the value co-creation perspective; (3) critically reviewing these research efforts based on the normative value co-creation concept and framework proposed at the baseline; and (4) providing future research avenues.

To accomplish these aims, the paper is structured in five sections.

Section 2 provides conceptual and methodological support for this research. Section 3 draws on the conceptual background of value co-creation and proposes a value co-creation concept, along with its antecedents and consequences (baseline framework). Section 4 explains and presents the results of the literature review. The paper then contributes with a final discussion containing some conclusions, implications, and research avenues.

## 2. Conceptual and methodological choices

The aim of the paper is threefold: (1) to build a general normative baseline framework for marketing founded on value co-creation; (2) to discover to what extent prior research on co-creation in place marketing fits the proposed value co-creation approach; and (3) to propose further research avenues. Specifically, the research questions relating to the second and third objectives are: (1) How has co-creation been conceptualized in the place-marketing context? Do the concepts of co-creation used fit the SDL view?; (2) What resources have been considered as antecedents of place-marketing co-creation efforts?; (3) What outcomes of co-creation have been considered in place marketing?; (4) What actors and levels of analysis have been examined (e.g. dyadic vs. networking relationships) in places?; and (5) Where should further effort be directed for an appropriate integration of SDL into place-marketing literature? To respond to these questions, it was conducted a literature review of quantitative papers on place marketing that have considered the co-creation concept.

The need to integrate the co-creation concept and framework within the place-marketing literature was explained in the previous section. Consideration still needs to take place, however, of: (1) SDL as a framework; (2) place marketing as an object of study; and (3) quantitative papers. Furthermore, an explanation is needed for the methodological approach of this research and, in particular, the systematic process that was carried out in the literature review.

### 2.1. Service-dominant logic as a framework

This subsection seeks to explain the authors' preference towards SDL in building the value co-creation framework. The co-creation view has been proposed from different angles and there is no consensus on what approach is more powerful. The choice of SDL is not based on an alleged superiority of SDL but on three characteristics that make SDL particularly suitable for the purposes of this research:

- (1) When compared to similar approaches focusing on co-creation (i.e. competitive logic, service logic, and service science), only SDL is positioned as a foundation for a general theory of marketing (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). Since 2004, when Vargo and Lusch's seminal paper was published, SDL has successively incorporated broader conceptualizations such as resources, service ecosystems, and institutions, which are addressed to provide an extended co-creation framework, including antecedents and outcomes.
- (2) While SDL and related perspectives may differ in some views, these differences refer to nuances rather than to substantial aspects. For instance, Grönroos (2006) makes a break with SDL when taking to the extreme the concept of value co-creation and arguing that the only creator of value is the consumer. However, he acknowledges the similarities between service logic and SDL. SDL likewise recognizes that some of its tenets are built on prior co-creation research. Emphasis on the beneficiaries' phenomenological perception of value (value-in-context) is, for example, close to the concept of co-creation experience emphasized by competitive logic (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). Further, service science and SDL are strongly connected, as SDL is recognized as constituting the philosophical foundations of service science (Maglio & Spohrer, 2008), which focuses on people configuration.
- (3) Compared to other co-creation approaches, SDL is less business-

based in its aims and lexicon, which could be more appropriate for a place context (e.g. Neuhofer et al., 2012).

While the model presented in this paper is based on SDL, the framework is not free of limitations. It does not, for instance, specifically refer to brands and branding, which have an important role in destination and place-marketing literature (Brodie, Glynn, & Little, 2006; Warnaby, 2009). Then again, important SDL concepts such as co-creation, service ecosystems, or institutions are still elusive and need further elaboration. While these shortcomings could limit the authors' capacity to build a co-creation-led framework that is useful for place-marketing purposes, SDL is the broadest, most comprehensive and least business embedded of the co-creation proposals discussed above. It is why it was chosen as a research framework.

## 2.2. Place marketing as research object

The purpose of this subsection is to justify the choice of place marketing as an object of research in this paper. Overall, this choice is coherent with the selection of SDL as the conceptual framework. In agreement with SDL, places are seen as service ecosystems composed by an amalgam of actors and resources: actors using their resources to enter into service exchanges leading to value co-creation. The literature review did not, in consequence, preliminarily reject any place-related actor and form of co-creation. This holistic perspective was considered suitable because it did not neglect emerging novel linkages between place-related dimensions and co-creation. A wide range of actors is potentially considered in the literature review, including external actors (such as tourists or investors) and internal actors (citizens, businesses, DMOs, governments, public agencies, or NGOs) (Kotler et al., 1999). While it could be argued that this holistic view does not perfectly fit any of the conventional place- and marketing-related literatures (e.g. tourism marketing, destination marketing, hospitality marketing), the SDL-led approach may potentially lie closer to place marketing, as this field is more holistic and sees places as a mix of interdependent elements (Mill & Morrison, 1992) 'consumed' by multiple stakeholders including tourists, investors, citizens and local businesses (Warnaby, 2009), whose outcomes (e.g. satisfaction or value) may be interrelated (Kotler, Hamlin, Rein, & Haider, 2002) (e.g. good public transport and urban regeneration plans may affect both citizens' quality of life and tourists' experiences). It is not entirely clear whether the relationship between the hospitality industry and tourists should be considered as a part of place marketing, as a specialized literature (i.e. hospitality marketing) is specifically devoted to it. However, the role of local businesses in place-marketing planning processes is well established, particularly in the USA (Kotler et al., 1999; Warnaby, 2009). In harmony with the approach to literature searching in the present paper, place marketing is adopted as a general label for the research. The choice of this label does not condition the research findings. As detailed below, it was found that the co-creation approach had mostly been used to explain the perceptions of tourists regarding hospitality industry and destinations, and to a lesser extent to study links between internal stakeholders. This demonstrates a palpable overlap between place and destination marketing (Pike, 2015).

## 2.3. Quantitative papers

This subsection explains the authors' preference towards reviewing quantitative studies. Concerning study design, both qualitative and quantitative research have their strengths and weaknesses. While qualitative research is more explanatory, quantitative research should be more specific, providing detailed definitions and measures for the variables considered and hypothesizing concrete links between them. As an aim of this research was to know how co-creation has been conceptualized and measured in place-marketing literature and what variables had been considered as antecedents and consequences of co-

creation, the literature review focused on quantitative papers. This approach can be useful to provide a clear view of how co-creation has been understood, operationalized, and linked in a place context. As the study compares these efforts with a normative framework and provide a critical view, the approach is intended to guide further quantitative place-marketing studies.

## 2.4. Methodological approach and systematic literature review process

This subsection is addressed to disclose the methodological approach of this research and, particularly, the systematic literature review process. In essence, this research was conducted in three phases. First, the study was built on SDL to develop a normative co-creation framework that includes co-creation antecedents and outcomes. Secondly, a systematic literature review on co-creation in place marketing was conducted. Lastly, the selected studies were analyzed under the lens provided by the normative framework.

The literature review on co-creation in place marketing was performed in two steps, comprising: (1) study selection and (2) study analysis.

First, the studies dealing with co-creation in place marketing were selected by filtering predominantly: (a) records identified through Google Scholar, WoS, and Scopus; and (b) records identified when searching for *Hospitality, Leisure, Sport, & Tourism* JCR journals. Other JCR journals in the categories of *Business, Economics and Management* were also screened, as well as additional bibliographic references from documents already localized. The search method involved introducing the combination of the terms 'co-creation/co-production' and 'service (-dominant) logic' along with the terms 'city/place/destination/tourism marketing/branding'. Documents from the year 2000 onwards were included. A criterion for the study design was set: only quantitative empirical studies would be selected. The final number of studies was 39, suggesting that many quantitative studies on place marketing have not yet embraced the co-creation view. The studies selected included documents where place marketing was addressed as urban space<sup>1</sup> (five papers), tourism industry<sup>2</sup> (20 papers), and destinations<sup>3</sup> (14 papers). In addition, they included discussion of the co-creation approach in terms of: co-creation, customer-to-customer, engagement, experience, interaction, knowledge and skills, participation, relationship, service-dominant logic, service logic, service systems, and value-in-use.

Second, to draw conclusions and extract a final conceptual approximation, three principal categories were analyzed: (1) value co-creation, (2) antecedents of co-creation (resources), and (3) outcomes of co-creation, in place marketing. Value co-creation concepts and measures, antecedents, and outcomes were recognized, listed, condensed, and classified. An additional category was also analyzed: the systemic approach. The categories were extracted from the baseline value co-creation framework.

The following section (Section 3) explains and expounds a baseline value co-creation framework, setting out the key categories. Then, in Section 4, the findings of the literature review are presented and discussed on each of the categories previously set.

<sup>1</sup> Place marketing is referred to as: (a) promotional marketing strategy to attract different target groups to the city, including tourists, new citizens, and businesses, or (b) public marketing approach to improve public services in the city with customer-centric orientation.

<sup>2</sup> These studies involve strategic marketing applied by businesses in the tourism industry aimed at satisfying tourists with their services.

<sup>3</sup> Destination marketing from a holistic perspective, where the aim is to collaboratively develop a valuable touristic place through the efforts of the public administration and the network of services offered in the city to obtain satisfied and loyal visitors.

### 3. Conceptual background of value co-creation and baseline framework

Conventional marketing mind-sets and tools (e.g. the 4 Ps) were developed over the middle of the last century (e.g. McCarthy, 1960) and inspired by massive tangible production. They extended later to services, cities, ideas, and non-for-profit contexts. The underlying logic of conventional marketing is that providers create products imbued with value (value creators) which need to be promoted, sold, and delivered to consumers (value destroyers). While consumer orientation (a firm trying to please the customer) was an important addition to initial understandings of marketing, it did not change the role of customers as value destroyers. Conventional mind-sets were fruitfully challenged by several academics through the value co-creation perspective (e.g. Grönroos, 2006; Norman & Ramírez, 1994; Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Their theoretical developments (i.e. value constellations, SDL, service logic) gave a consistent form to many of the criticisms arising from the sub-disciplines of services marketing and industrial marketing, where the customer role in creating value is particularly obvious. This paradigm shift towards value co-creation was predominantly founded on understanding the sense and origin of value, recovering the concept of value-in-use (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) or, later, value-in-context (Chandler & Vargo, 2011) (instead of value in exchange), and emphasized the salience of value created through customers' own processes and/or those jointly created between the customer and supplier (Macdonald, Wilson, Martínez, & Toosi, 2011). Vargo and Lusch's SDL proposal, the focus of the present research, sparked off wide intense discussion and debate, and many interdisciplinary contributions leading to further refinements and developments (Vargo & Lusch, 2004; 2008; 2016).

#### 3.1. Value co-creation

The core concept of the SDL narrative and related perspectives is value co-creation (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004; Ranjan & Read, 2016). Value co-creation is understood as 'a process where actors are involved in resource integration and service exchange, enabled and constrained by endogenously generated institutions and institutional arrangements, establishing nested and interlocking service ecosystems of actors' (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 7). The key elements in this definition are: (1) the generic actor concept, (2) specification of the content of value co-creation as resource integration and service exchange, and (3) the systemic perspective of value co-creation. These elements are explained below.

##### 3.1.1. Generic actor concept

The interchangeable character of providers and consumers was already acknowledged in *prosumption* theory (Toffler, 1980), which afterwards came to be related with the role of consumers as co-creators of value (Xie, Bagozzi, & Troye, 2008). However, if co-creation involves joint value creation, it is important to refer not only to consumers empowered with new roles but also to every person/organization collaborating in the process. The generic term 'actors' (Norman & Ramírez, 1994) can therefore be used to refer to both providers and consumers, and also other parties such as governments. All actors do the same: they co-create value (i.e. entering into service exchanges and integrating resources). This view acknowledges the different profiles and characteristics of actors (e.g. providers and consumers) but does not pre-determine their role as in the case of GDL (e.g. as value creators or destroyers) (Vargo & Lusch, 2016).

##### 3.1.2. Value co-creation as service exchange and resources integration

Having established that all actors co-create value, we need to discuss the specific meaning of value co-creation. Co-creation has been defined in several ways. For instance, Grönroos and Voima (2013) analyze co-creation as a function of interaction between service provider and customer, while Zwass (2010) treats it broadly, as the

activities of individuals/consumers/users in the production domain, generated independently or at the behest of producer organizations. As a consensus has not yet arrived in terms of a clear definition for value co-creation, this study will predominantly rely on SDL to address the concept. The SDL narrative sees actors as continuously entering into reciprocal service-for-service exchanges to access additional and/or complementary resources and integrate them in context to meet their goals (Macdonald, Kleinaltenkamp, & Wilson, 2016; Ranjan & Read, 2016). Service (in the singular) is understood as doing something for others and considered to be: (1) usually bi-directional (e.g. a hotel providing accommodation to a consumer and a consumer providing money to the hotel), and (2) necessary, as all actors need others' resources to meet their goals (Barrutia & Gilsanz, 2013). Even the simplest form of traveling, backpacking, and walking, requires resources from others (e.g. shoes, backpack and information). Resource integration is idiosyncratic, phenomenological, and contextual (Vargo & Lusch, 2016).

While co-creation has usually been interpreted as co-production (e.g. Etgar, 2008), the latter is more limited in scope. Co-production involves engaging customers as active participants in the organization's work (Auh, Bell, McLeod, & Shih, 2007), and emphasizes a firm-centric view of customer involvement during service production (Chathoth, Altinay, Harrington, Okumus, & Chan, 2013). Co-production may refer to self-service, where there is a transfer of labor to the customer; to innovation, where consumers contribute new ideas during the company innovation process; or to customer self-selection, where they use the supplier's prescribed processes to solve a particular problem (Payne, Storbacka, & Frow, 2008).

Grönroos (2008) argues that the conventional perspective of the consumer as a co-producer in service processes is misleading, because it creates the impression that the provider invites the consumer to participate in the production process as a co-creator, when the opposite is actually the case; the consumer has the option of inviting the provider. Vargo and Lusch (2016) see co-production as a component of value co-creation that is relatively optional. A firm could be interested in involving its customers and other actors in the design, definition, creation, and completion of the output (i.e. co-production), but this depends on the knowledge and desire of the beneficiary, among many other factors. Co-creation, however, is strictly necessary for value creation as value is not embedded in products but derived in context by users.

While Vargo and Lusch (2004; 2016; 2008) do not provide a systematic understanding of what service-for-service exchanges and resources integration mean, co-creation may be interpreted to be an extensive set of processes that require a great variety of physical and mental activities from the consumer, which occur: (1) before, during, and after the core offering is provided; and (2) in interaction with others or not. Thus, travelers may co-create value when they see a nice brochure (before, interaction) or think about the vacation that is still to come (before, no interaction), search and arrange their trip on a website (before, interaction), visit the city (during, interaction), or assemble a vacation video (after, no interaction) and show it to friends (after, interaction). The different way in which consumers face these and other processes influence their value perceptions and their wellbeing (Ranjan & Read, 2016).

##### 3.1.3. Systemic approach for co-creation

Having established that all actors co-create value and provided a meaning of co-creation as service-for-service exchange and resources integration, the context of value co-creation needs to be considered. According to SDL narrative, resource integration and service exchange are enabled and constrained by service ecosystems characterized by endogenously generated institutions (i.e. rules, norms, meanings, symbols, practices, and similar aids to collaboration) and institutional arrangements (i.e. interdependent assemblages of institutions). This means that co-creation involves the actions of multiple actors, often unaware of each other, who contribute to each other's wellbeing (Vargo

& Lusch, 2016). SDL thus challenges GDL not only by blurring the differences between production and consumption, but by widening the perspective from a dyadic (consumer-provider) to a systemic view, where co-creation possesses not a two-sided, but a multisided interpretation (Vargo & Maglio, 2008). Several other approaches support this systemic approach of co-creation, although they are sometimes still grounded on the one-party focus of conventional marketing. These include the value constellation approach (Norman & Ramírez, 1994), relationship marketing (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995), many-to-many marketing (Gummesson, 2006), network perspective (Håkansson & Snehota, 1995), and service science (Maglio & Spohrer, 2008).

### 3.2. Resources as antecedents of value co-creation

Considering co-creation as service exchange and resource integration, resources become essential elements in value co-creation processes (Paredes, Barrutia, & Echebarria, 2014), which makes important to discuss its typology and role.

Under SDL, resources are categorized as operand and operant resources (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Operand resources are understood as resources on which an operation or act is performed to produce an effect. Their essence is typically physical, including natural resources, raw materials, or physical products. Operant resources are understood as resources employed to act on operand resources (and other operant resources). Knowledge and skills are the most recognizable operant resources. SDL confirms the supremacy usually attached to operant resources because: (1) they are, in essence, intangible, continuous and dynamic and can evolve, transform, and multiply; and (2) they may multiply the value of operand resources, as well as create new operant resources. Therefore, operant resources are the fundamental source of strategic benefit (FP4, in Vargo & Lusch, 2016). For simplicity, this paper will focus on provider (firm) and consumer resources.

#### 3.2.1. Firm resources

Based on resource-advantage theory, Madhavaram and Hunt (2008) propose a broad concept of resources: 'all assets, capabilities, processes, attributes, information, knowledge, etc., controlled by an actor (preferentially customer and provider) that enable him to conceive of and implement performances and strategies that improve his efficiency and effectiveness' (adapted from Barney, 1991, p. 101). They also develop a hierarchy of operant resources within a SDL perspective. This hierarchy divides resources into basic and higher-order resources, as follows:

- Basic operant resources, which are the 'building blocks' of higher-order operant resources. These resources include, for instance, the skills and knowledge of individual employees.
- Higher-order operant resources, which are bundles of basic resources (similar to competences or capabilities). Higher-order resources are, in turn, classified in two categories in accordance with the level of interactivity of the lower-order resources they include. Composite operant resources are understood as a combination of basic resources, with low levels of interactivity. Examples include market orientation, price-setting capability, network competence, technological competence, and internal market orientation. Interconnected operant resources consist of a combination of basic resources in which lower order resources significantly interact, reinforcing each other, enabling the firm to produce valuable market offerings productively. Examples include product innovation competence and market orientation–innovativeness capability.

The competitive advantage of firms becomes more sustainable as firms go up the hierarchy because resources become more inimitable and non-substitutable.

#### 3.2.2. Consumer resources

Arnould, Price, and Malshe (2006) developed a customer resource

classification for SDL. Based on the resource-based view and consumer culture theory, customer operant resources were categorized as physical, social, and cultural:

- Physical resources involve resources that are controlled by individuals and which they possess by nature (e.g. sensorimotor endowment, energy, emotions, and strength). Customers possess different physical and mental characteristics. This affects their life roles and projects (e.g. low literate and physically challenged consumer life roles and life projects appear to differ qualitatively from those with average physical resource endowments).
- Social resources refer to networks and relationships with traditional groups such as families, ethnic groups, and social class, or emergent groups such as brand communities, consumer tribes, and sub-cultures, over which consumers exert varying degrees of command. If people exert allocative capabilities over operand resources (e.g. money, garden space) it can be said that they exert authoritative capabilities over social operant resources (Arnould et al., 2006). Consumers can participate in co-consuming groups that represent a form of consuming agency. Such resources become fundamental in the context of SDL due to their network perspective and the assessment of value-in-context.
- Cultural resources consist of varying amounts and kinds of knowledge of cultural schemas, including specialized cultural capital, skills, and goals. Cultural resources refer to customers' specialized knowledge and skills, life expectancies and history, and imagination.

Now these resources have been categorized, their role in value co-creation processes can be discussed.

#### 3.2.3. Effect of consumer and firm resources on value co-creation processes

To meet their goals, consumers need to integrate their own resources and resources from others, which they access through service exchanges (Vargo & Lusch, 2016). However, service exchange and resource integration are time-, money-, and effort-consuming processes. Consumers can therefore make decisions over whether to enter such processes, considering both benefits and costs. Consequently, they need to: (1) examine and evaluate their own resources and the resources of others; (2) proxy the costs and benefits of accessing others' resources and integrating them; and (3) act accordingly. This approach is consistent with consumer culture theory. Thus, Arnould et al. (2006) argue that the type, quantity, and quality of consumer operant resources brought to an exchange process impact the value consumers seek from exchange and the roles they expect themselves and firms to play in exchange. Low-literacy and older consumers might, for instance, prefer to use a travel agency to arrange their trip instead of searching the Internet. In short, co-creation efforts, co-creation processes, and value perceptions will be influenced by the resources of all actors in the service ecosystem.

#### 3.3. Value-in-context as an outcome of value co-creation

According to SDL, the first consequence of the integration of resources is the formation, emergence, or creation of value, broadly understood as enhancement of customer wellbeing or making the customer better off in some respect (Vargo & Maglio, 2008). Recent SDL-related views on value co-creation suggest that value perception: (1) is linked to consumer goals (Arnould et al., 2006); (2) depends not just on the provider's resources but also on those of consumers (Macdonald et al., 2016) and other actors (Vargo & Lusch, 2016); (3) is not predetermined in the exchange process but is, rather, continually enhanced by both parties and by other service ecosystem actors (Vargo & Lusch, 2016); and (4) arises not only through product usage processes but at any point on a customer's journey (Macdonald et al., 2016).

This understanding of value (i.e. the outcome of the co-creation

process) (Gummerus, 2013) has led to the term value-in-context (Vargo & Lusch, 2016), which is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary (FP10). When using the term phenomenological, the authors express the idiosyncratic, experiential, contextual, and meaning-laden character of value. Therefore, instead of value-in-use, which might be linked with the usage of goods, they adopt the term value-in-context. Further, they prefer to use the term ‘beneficiary’ to talk about the actor who determines the value, instead of referring to a customer or consumer, as the term ‘beneficiary’ ‘centers the discussion on the recipient of service and the referent of value co-creation’ (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 10).

The concept of value-in-context is similar to the concept of experiential value (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982), which fits the place-marketing context particularly well (Gentile, Spiller, & Noci, 2007). We adopt the term value-in-context for consistency with SDL.

### 3.4. Baseline framework

This subsection is devoted to summarizing the above narrative in the form of a value co-creation baseline framework that will be used to insert prior quantitative literature on place marketing. From the SDL narrative and related perspectives, the paper proposes a baseline framework in which the value co-creation process (understood as service exchange and resource integration) is influenced by service ecosystem actor resources (for simplicity, the focus is on consumers and provider resources). Value co-creation activities are supposed to affect value-in-context, which is determined uniquely and phenomenologically by the beneficiary (see Fig. 1).

## 4. Findings of the systematic review on co-creation in place marketing

This section presents the results of the literature review under the lens of the SDL-driven baseline framework. Following the nomological order established by the framework, how place-marketing researchers have understood and operationalized resources is analyzed first. Attention then turns to the diverse co-creation views and measures adopted in each study. Lastly, the outcomes attributed to co-creation are analyzed.

### 4.1. Resources as antecedents of value co-creation in place marketing

As expected, it was found that place-marketing researchers acknowledge the importance of operand resources concerning: (1) providers (e.g. Edvardsson, Ng, Min Choo, & Firth, 2013), and (2) consumers (e.g. Prebensen, Woo, & Uysal, 2014). The search detected 30 quantitative studies where some kind of co-creation antecedent, referred to as a resource, was mentioned and measured. All told, 77 resource-related variables were found and these were categorized according to the baseline framework. For simplicity’s sake, a univocal attachment for each variable was used, while recognizing that some variables combine characteristics that could fit several categories.

#### 4.1.1. Provider resources

Table 1 summarizes and categorizes the specific provider resources found in the literature review. The categories used are consistent with the baseline framework (i.e. operand resources and operant resources). The latter are, in turn, categorized as BORs, CORs or IORs (Madhavaram & Hunt, 2008).

Consistent with SDL, operand resources (e.g. surrounding nature, in Prebensen, Vittersø et al., 2013) are marginal in quantitative place-marketing literature that has embraced the co-creation concept. Researchers have focused on operant resources. Within the operant resource category, there were found some variables that could, represented by individual resources in the organization; mostly individual employee-related resources such as *employee positive psychological capital* (understood as a provider resource that involves employee optimism, resilience, hope, and self-efficacy, thereby helping co-creation processes (Hsiao et al., 2015)), and *customer education* (understood as the capacity of the employee to educate the consumer (Wang et al., 2011)).

However, quantitative place-marketing literature has not focused on BORs but on higher-order operant resources (i.e. CORs and IORs). As explained in Section 2, CORs do not concern just individual resources, but are extended and developed collectively. CORs found in the literature review included variables that are concerned with: (1) engaging tourists, citizens, and other actors, such as *citizen orientation* (Cassia & Magno, 2009) and *stakeholder involvement* (Klijn et al., 2012); and (2) facilitating processes of interaction with tourists/citizens, such as *servicescape* (e.g. Chen et al., 2015), *service quality* (e.g. Prebensen, Vittersø et al., 2013), *company support to co-create* (Griseemann & Stokburger-

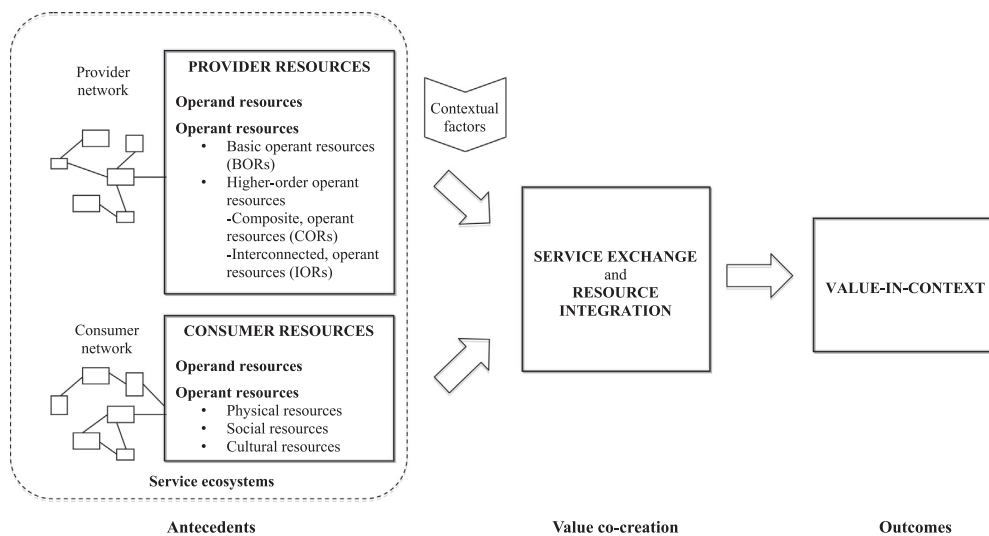


Fig. 1. Value co-creation: Baseline framework.



**Table 1**  
Provider resources in the literature review.

Type of resources/antecedents	Specific resources found in the literature	Authors
<b>1.1. Operand resources.</b> <i>Those resources that require some action to be performed on them to have value (Vargo &amp; Lusch, 2004).</i>	Surrounding nature	Prebensen, Vittersø, & Dahl, (2013a)
<b>1.2. Operant resources.</b> <i>Those resources that can be used to act on other resources (Vargo &amp; Lusch, 2004).</i>		
<b>1.2.1. Basic operant resources (BORs).</b> <i>Underlying, lower-level, resources that form the 'building blocks' of higher-order, operant resources (Madhavaram &amp; Hunt, 2008).</i>	Employee customer orientation [Employee] customer education Employee positive psychological capital Technology (basic facilities)	O'Cass and Sok (2015) Wang, Hsieh, and Yen (2011) Hsiao, Lee, and Chen (2015) Victorino, Verma, Plaschka, and Dev (2005)
<b>1.2.2. Higher-order operant resources</b>		
<b>1.2.2.1. Composite operant resources (CORs)</b> <i>A combination of two or more distinct, basic resources, with low levels of interactivity, that collectively enable the firm to produce efficiently and/or effectively valued market offerings (Madhavaram &amp; Hunt, 2008).</i>	Brand orientation Citizen orientation Stakeholder involvement Marketing activities Company support to co-create Social media strategies Perceived organizational support Top management support	Ahn, Hyun, and Kim (2016) Cassia and Magno (2009) Klijn, Eshuis, and Braun (2012) Klijn et al. (2012) Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012) Tussyadiah and Zach (2013) Xie, Peng, and Huang (2014) Santos-Vijande, López-Sánchez, and Pascual-Fernández (2015) Hsiao et al. (2015) Chen and Raab (2017); Chen, Raab, and Tanford (2015); Fakharyan, Omidvar, Khodadadian, Jalilvand, and Vosta (2014) Edvardsson et al. (2013); Heinonen and Strandvik (2009); Prebensen et al. (2013a)
<b>1.2.2.2. Interconnected operant resources (IORs)</b> <i>A combination of two or more distinct, basic resources in which the lower order resources significantly interact, thereby reinforcing each other in enabling the firm to produce efficiently and/or effectively valued market offerings (Madhavaram &amp; Hunt, 2008).</i>	Value proposition It includes Tourism Experience Proposition (TEP), destination resources, and value proposition and value offering. Destination branding Market orientation towards innovation It includes customer competence, market-focused strategies, and assessment of customer participation. Internal orientation towards innovation It includes assessment of employee participation and internal marketing. Service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior	Blazquez-Resino, Molina, and Esteban-Talaya (2015); Chekalina, Fuchs, and Lexhagen (2014); O'Cass and Sok (2015) García, Gómez, and Molina (2012) Ku, Yang, and Huang (2013); Rodríguez, Álvarez, and Vijande (2011) Rodríguez et al. (2011) Hsiao et al. (2015)

Sauer, 2012), *perceived organizational support* (Xie et al., 2014), *servant leadership* (Hsiao et al., 2015), and *top management support* (Santos-Vijande et al., 2015).

As also reported in Section 2, IORs are understood as more complex higher-order resources that are interrelated, generating cross-wise resources. Several variables that could be categorized as IORs were found in the literature review. These include *market orientation towards innovation* (e.g. Ku et al., 2013), *internal orientation towards innovation* (e.g. Rodríguez et al., 2011), *tourist experience proposition* (Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015), and *service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior* (Hsiao et al., 2015). Underlying these variables is the idea that what matters is the coherent and synergistic integration of multiple resources.

**4.1.2. Consumer resources**

Table 2 summarizes and categorizes the specific consumer resources found in the literature review.

Consumer resources considered in place-marketing literature are also mostly operant. In fact, only one operand resource was found: *money* (Prebensen, Vittersø et al., 2013). As explained in Section 3, the study draws on Arnould et al. (2006), who classified consumer operant resources as physical, social, and cultural resources.

The most repeated operant resources in the literature review were *involvement* (e.g. Prebensen et al., 2013a; Prebensen et al. 2013b) and *motivation* (e.g. Chen & Raab, 2017; Nusair et al., 2013). Both could be conceived of as physical operant resources, which include mental endowment, energy, and emotions (Arnould et al., 2006). As co-creation

entails costs, *involvement* and *motivation* are viewed as necessary to foster co-creation behaviors (Morosan, 2015; Wang et al., 2011). Other variables that could be categorized as physical operant resources are the *time* and *effort* a specific actor spends in the process (Prebensen et al., 2013).

Consumer social operant resources, which harness the relational and systemic nature of co-creation, were also found in place-marketing literature, although their presence is more limited. Predominantly, research efforts focus on virtual social resources, such as *the consumer's intensity of social media use* (Dijkmans et al., 2015), *need for interaction* (Morosan, 2015), and *information sharing* (Nusair et al., 2013).

Cultural resources are specially represented by the variable *knowledge* (Calver & Page, 2013; Prebensen et al., 2014). There is a strong conceptual and empirical basis to consider knowledge (i.e. familiarity and expertise) as an antecedent of co-creation behaviors and value (e.g. Arnould et al., 2006; Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2016). However, the results of quantitative place-marketing literature are not conclusive. Thus, Calver and Page (2013) did not find a significant impact of *knowledge and interest in art, history and natural environment* on the perceived value of heritage attractions. On the contrary, Prebensen et al. (2014) found that knowledge is one of the predictors of the perceived value of a trip. Other cultural resources found include *innovativeness* (e.g. Morosan, 2015), *role-clarity* perception (e.g. Wang et al., 2011), *self-efficacy* (e.g. Chen et al., 2015), and *ability* (Wang et al., 2011). While there are some ambiguities and inconsistencies in the literature, overall, it can be concluded that both knowing what to do (*role-clarity*) and being capable of doing it (*self-efficacy*) appear to be important factors to explain

**Table 2**  
Consumer resources in the literature review.

Type of resources/antecedents	Specific resources found in the literature	Authors
<b>2.1. Operand resources</b> <i>Tangible resources and, especially, various culturally constituted economic resources (e.g., income, inherited wealth, food stamps, vouchers, credit), and goods or raw materials over which the consumer has allocative capabilities to carry out behavioral performances including social roles or life projects (Arnould et al., 2006).</i>	Money spent	Prebensen et al. (2013a)
<b>2.2. Operant resources</b> <i>The configuration of operant resources influences how consumers employ their operand resources and their use of firms' operand and operant resources (Arnould et al., 2006).</i>		
<b>2.2.1. Physical resources</b> <i>Physical and mental endowments (Arnould et al., 2006).</i>	Involvement It includes involvement (5), purchase importance (2); perceived utility; and product involvement.	Altunel and Erkut (2015); Morosan (2015); Prebensen et al. (2014); Prebensen et al. (2013a); Prebensen, Woo, Chen, & Uysal, (2013b); Chen and Raab (2017); Chen et al. (2015); Nusair, Bilgihan, and Okumus (2013); Wang et al. (2011)
	Motivation (4)	Azevedo (2009); Prebensen et al. (2013b); Prebensen et al. (2014); Wang et al. (2011)
	Time spent	Prebensen et al. (2013a)
	Effort spent	Prebensen et al. (2013a)
	Commitment	Ahn et al. (2016)
	Perceived risk It includes trust, perceived security, and perceived risk.	Morosan (2015); Nusair et al. (2013)
	Ideal hotel choice preferences	Azevedo (2009)
	Perceived personalization	Morosan (2015)
	Demographic variables	Azevedo (2009)
	Information sources	Azevedo (2009)
<b>2.2.2. Social resources</b> <i>Networks of relationships with others including traditional demographic groupings (families, ethnic groups, social class) and emergent groupings (brand communities, consumer tribes and sub-cultures, friendship groups) over which consumers exert varying degrees of command (Arnould et al., 2006).</i>	Consumers' intensity of social media use	Dijkmans, Kerkhof, and Beukeboom (2015)
	Need for interaction	Morosan (2015)
	Information sharing	Nusair et al. (2013)
	Other tourists	Prebensen et al. (2013a)
<b>2.2.3. Cultural resources</b> <i>Varying amounts and kinds of knowledge of cultural schemas, including specialized cultural capital, skills, and goals (Arnould et al., 2006).</i>	Specialized knowledge and skills It includes previous category knowledge, knowledge and interest in art and history and knowledge and interest in natural environment, destination awareness, role clarity (3), self-efficacy (2), knowledge, and ability.	Azevedo (2009); Calver and Page (2013); Chekalina et al. (2014); Chen and Raab (2017); Chen et al. (2015); Prebensen et al. (2014); Wang et al. (2011)
	Innovativeness (2)	Morosan (2015); Nusair et al. (2013)

customers' co-creation behaviors. For instance, [Chen et al. \(2015\)](#) found that 'feeling capable of ordering food from a restaurant's menu' (item of role-clarity) and 'knowing how to use the services of a specific restaurant' (item of self-efficacy) have an impact on 'being cooperative with the restaurant staff', 'spending time searching for information about the restaurant', and 'openly discussing questions and concerns with the restaurant staff' (items of participation).

#### 4.1.3. Systemic approach

The qualitative place-marketing literature has paid attention to the concepts of networks and service ecosystems. For instance, [Melis, McCabe, and Del Chiappa \(2015\)](#) refer to the tourism experience network (TEN), as opposed to the experience supply chain. They describe TEN as a theatre for co-creation, where all the destination stakeholders participate in a complex network configuration system. The paper emphasized the role of destination marketing organizations (DMOs) as network coordinators, for which they should be recognized and legitimized.

However, the quantitative studies reviewed failed to make the systemic approach operative. Most papers mentioned several actors but, as usual in quantitative works, a single source of information was used; this is usually the consumer (e.g. [Grissmann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012](#)). The consumer is frequently asked about the provider service, and, to a lesser extent, about her/his interaction with the provider (e.g. [Prebensen, Kim, & Uysal, 2016](#)) and with other consumers and relatives (e.g. [Prebensen, Vittersø et al., 2013](#)). A dyadic, GDL approach is, therefore, common.

The concept of institutions and their role as a special type of systemic resource, within SDL, had not been profoundly developed until the latest contribution by [Vargo and Lusch \(2016\)](#). The term 'institutions' is, accordingly, not expected to be explicitly mentioned in the reviewed literature. Nonetheless, we found some variables connected to the concept of institutions as endogenously generated and articulated mechanisms of (often massive-scale) coordination and cooperation. These include *trust* (e.g. [Blazquez-Resino et al., 2015](#); [Nusair et al., 2013](#)), *culture* (e.g. [Chen et al., 2015](#)) and *governance mechanisms* ([Morosan, 2015](#)).

#### 4.2. Co-creation process in place marketing

While the literature on value co-creation is extensive, it is not entirely clear what the co-creation process specifically involves. Drawing on [Vargo and Lush \(2004; 2008; 2016\)](#) and subsequent elaborations (e.g. [Colurcio, Caridà, & Edvardsson, 2017](#); [Ranjan & Read, 2016](#)), it can be argued that the co-creation process involves service exchanges and resource integration activities that occur before, during, and after the core service is received.

Place-marketing researchers adopt very different approaches for conceptualizing and measuring value co-creation, which are summarized in [Table 3](#).

Some authors refer to the co-creation process and implicitly assume that such a process occurs, but do not explicitly conceptualize and measure it (e.g. [Azevedo, 2009](#); [Calver & Page, 2013](#); [Chekalina et al., 2014](#)). Other authors explicitly measure co-creation (sometimes

**Table 3**  
Co-creation approaches and variables in place-marketing literature.

Author	Co-creation approach	Measure for value co-creation
Ahn et al. (2016)	Residents are co-creators of city brand values and are encouraged to be involved in city branding.	Brand citizenship behavior
Azevedo (2009)	The hotel experience is largely determined by the customer's own characteristics.	–
Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015)	The value for a tourist is directly embedded in the co-creation of his/her experiences at the destination, and does not stem from products, services, or from the expertise of marketers and service providers.	Co-creation of value: measured through relationship quality (RQ)
Calver & Page (2013)	Perceived value and behavior of a visit depends on the visitor's knowledge and interest.	–
Cassia & Magno (2009)	Public services co-production is related primarily to the involvement of citizens. It means creating a circular link between services planning, provision and performance, and citizen feedback, based on two-way communication.	Co-production
Altunel & Erkut (2015)	Effect of involvement in recommendation intentions in tourism destinations.	–
Chekalina et al. (2014)	Destination stakeholders and tourists co-create places where tourism experiences may occur. Destination resources are perceived and integrated by tourists.	–
Chen & Raab (2017)	Service managers treat customers as active participants or service coproducers rather than as passive recipients or buyers.	Mandatory customer participation
Chen et al. (2015)	In service products such as restaurants, customers' mandatory participation is an important aspect of value co-creation, implying a significant point of leverage for service providers in managing desired outcomes. It considers the customer involvement in producing and delivering the service.	Mandatory customer participation
Dijkmans et al. (2015)	Empirical evidence for a relationship between a consumer's engagement in company social media activities and corporate reputation.	Consumer engagement in company's social media activities
Edvardsson et al. (2013)	Preference towards SDL mindset (over GDL) in public transport.	–
Fakharyan et al. (2014)	Effect of customer-to-customer interactions (CCI) on customer satisfaction with hotels	CCI
García et al. (2012)	Co-creating destination brand based on stakeholders.	–
Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012)	Customer co-creation of tourism services: the customer's provision of input in the development of their travel arrangement.	Degree of co-creation
Heinonen and Strandvik (2009)	Service providers supporting customers' value creation (rather than customer as co-creator).	–
Hsiao et al. (2015)	The level of customer value co-creation, defined as the meaningful and cooperative participation of customers during the process of service delivery, becomes important in tourism industry for organizational management and sustainability.	Customer value co-creation
Klijn et al. (2012)	Place branding co-production through stakeholder involvement.	–
Ku et al. (2013)	Influence of customer competence on service innovation in travel agencies.	–
Mohd-Any, Winkhofer, and Ennew (2015)	In travel websites, customers participate directly in service creation through the utilization of the features and functionalities of websites and co-create service experience as they think, act, and sense when using these features.	Participation (actual and perceived)
Morosan (2015)	Co-creation intentions in m-commerce in hotels.	Co-creation intentions
Nusair et al. (2013)	Social interactions in a travel-related online social network context.	Social interactions
O'Cass and Sok (2015)	Value creation as a multi-phase, multi-party theory: value proposition, value offering, perceived value-in-use.	–
Prebensen et al. (2016)	Tourist participation and presence in creating experience value (i.e., cocreation) is vital	Level of co-creation experience
Prebensen et al. (2013a)	Tourist inputs in value co-creation.	–
Prebensen et al. (2014)	Experience value is created and co-created during the process of planning, buying, enjoying, and recalling a tourist journey.	–
Prebensen et al. (2013b)	Tourist effect on the experience.	–
Rodríguez et al. (2011)	Employees' and customer's co-creation of new services in hotels.	–
Santos-Vijande et al. (2015)	New service development co-creation in hotels.	Customer co-creation
Seljeseth and Korneliusen (2015)	Brand personality co-creation.	–
Sigala and Chalkiti (2015)	Employees' influence in knowledge management.	–
Suntikul and Jachna (2016)	Conceptual link between place attachment and co-creation. Tourists construct their own experiences by appropriating the possibilities afforded by tourism amenities and service providers.	Activities in which tourists engage
Tsai (2015)	Co-creation capability directed to holistic innovations in hotels.	Co-creation capability
Tussyadiah and Zach (2013)	Destination's capacity for consumer co-creation and the influence of social media strategies in that capacity.	Co-creation capacity
Victorino et al. (2005)	Customization of the service: allowing guests to have flexible check-in/out times, personalizing room décor, or having childcare options available.	Customization
Wang et al. (2011)	Firms providing additional service offerings after the core service and customers engaging or not in those activities.	Intention to participate in proactive initiatives of service
Xie et al. (2014)	Hotel employees' implication on brand.	Employee brand citizenship behavior
Xu, Marshall, Edvardsson, and Tronvoll (2014)	Customer co-creation in service recovery: impact of initiation.	Co-recovery
Yang (2016)	Tourist-to-tourist interactions influence the destination image co-creation.	Tourist-to-tourist interactions
Zenker and Seigis (2012)	Implementation of a participatory place branding strategy.	Participation

without offering a proper definition) but identify it with partial elements of the whole process, which include: (1) co-production of the core service and customization; (2) interaction with other consumers or employees; (3) participation in innovation-related processes; and (4) responsible/citizenship behaviors of the consumer towards the provider.

First, some researchers focus on core service co-production (e.g. Cassia & Magno, 2009). For instance, Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer

(2012) measure co-creation as the customer's behavior when arranging a trip. Similarly, other authors focus on customization (e.g. Zenker & Seigis, 2012). For instance, Victorino et al. (2005) see co-creation as a consumer choosing among different customization options offered by the provider in a hotel setting. They show that co-creation leads to higher value perception.

Second, some researchers focus on interactions with other customers or tourists and with firm employees as antecedents of the final

perceived value (Fakharyan et al., 2014; Nusair et al., 2013; Yang, 2016).

Third, some authors see co-creation as using the consumer and his/her knowledge (as well as other actors) for innovation or service improvement purposes. Examples include: (1) the provider developing frequent meetings, active participation, and detailed consultation with customers in different phases of new service development (Santos-Vijande et al., 2015); (2) the provider using internal and external actors (employees, customers and partners) to obtain satisfactory innovation results (Tsai, 2015); and (3) the capacity of providers to acquire, assimilate, transform, and exploit customer knowledge (Tussyadiah & Zach, 2013).

Fourth, some studies focus on how consumer and employee citizenship behaviors can improve providers' circumstances. Thus, Ahn et al. (2016) and Xie et al. (2014) understand co-creation as, respectively, *resident* and *employee brand citizenship behavior*. They refer to the positive voluntary attitude of citizens and employees towards a destination or provider brand, using them as promotion tools. Similarly, Hsiao et al. (2015) (based on Yi & Gong, 2013) assess customer value co-creation with two second-order factors: *customer participation behavior* and *customer citizenship behavior*. Each dimension is in turn composed of four factors. Customer participation behavior includes customer activities necessary for 'service delivery': *information seeking*, *information sharing*, *responsible behavior*, and *personal interaction*. Customer citizenship behavior includes other kind of behaviors that are supposed to enhance final value: *feedback*, *advocacy*, *helping*, and *tolerance*. However, the latter second-order factor might be more oriented by a provider value focus rather than one guided by consumer value.

Most of the above approaches reflect a preference towards dealing with co-creation before and during the service. The former involves, for instance, new product development (e.g. Ku et al., 2013) or trip arrangement (e.g. Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012). The latter includes intervening, being cooperative, asking questions (Chen et al., 2015), and behaving responsibly (Prebensen et al. 2013b). An integrated co-creation view in place marketing would, however, embrace co-creation throughout the whole value creation process, including co-creation after the service.

Most studies also tend to assimilate co-creation with interactions between actors. While co-creation frequently implies interactions among different actors, there are co-creation processes in which interactions are missing. It occurs, for instance, when tourists think about their holidays, inform themselves about interesting places to visit at destination, or make a video recalling the experience.

In short, the study detected that co-creation is not explicitly measured in more than 40% of the quantitative studies that are grounded on this concept. It also found that most studies deal with partial elements of co-creation (i.e. co-production, interactions, 'co-innovation', and citizenship behavior). Only one paper (Hsiao et al., 2015) is based on a validated scale of co-creation.

#### 4.3. Value-in-context as co-creation outcome in places

Co-creation outcomes have undoubtedly awakened academics interest. Most of the studies reviewed concern co-creation consequences. Specifically, 32 studies reported concrete outcomes. The most repeated outcomes were variables that have been traditionally considered under GDL, such as *satisfaction* (e.g. Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Prebensen et al., 2016), and *loyalty* (e.g. Prebensen et al., 2014; Tsai, 2015). Satisfaction is usually presented as having a positive effect on loyalty (Grisseemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012). Other outcomes we found include: *innovation value* (Tsai, 2015), *new service outcomes* (Santos-Vijande et al., 2015), *trust* (Nusair et al., 2013), *corporate reputation* (Dijkmans et al., 2015), *DMO performance* (Tussyadiah & Zach, 2013), *justice* (Xu et al., 2014), and *feeling one is respected* (Zenker & Seigis, 2012).

Only seven studies specifically consider value as an outcome of the

value co-creation process. Some of these papers adopt a broad, idiosyncratic, phenomenological and contextual perspective of value, which fits SDL tenets. However, there is no consensus on the specific metrics considered. Thus, Prebensen et al. (2013b) and Prebensen et al. (2014) refer to experiential value and measure the perceived value of destination experience via three second-order dimensions: maintenance (functional value), social improvement (social value), and sense of wellbeing (epistemic value). The hedonic value dimension, missing in these studies, is included in Prebensen et al. (2016). Mohd-Any et al. (2015) conceptualized e-value (value experience when using a travel website) as a formative second-order construct, with utilitarian value, emotional value, social value, value for money, and users' cognitive efforts as first-order value dimensions. O'Cass and Sok (2015) measure customer's perceived *value-in-use* by considering a 30-item scale. Customers are asked to identify the extent of the value they receive from a firm's value offerings on key components: namely, service quality, service support, delivery, supplier know-how, time to market, personal interaction, and relationship building compared with those of other firms offering similar services.

Therefore, context-leading outcomes prevail in the literature. Without downplaying their importance, more emphasis could be paid to the first tacit result of co-creation: value.

#### 5. Final Discussion

The idea of co-creation has been widely accepted among place-marketing scholars. However, it is not entirely clear: (1) how much progress has been made to date in effectively incorporating the concept of co-creation in place marketing; or (2) what specific research avenues we could follow.

This research takes a step forward towards covering these gaps by: (1) drawing on the value co-creation background to propose a baseline framework; (2) conducting a systematic review of quantitative place-marketing research that has attempted to incorporate the value co-creation perspective; (3) critically reviewing these research efforts; and (4) providing future research avenues. The paper therefore adopted a literature review-led conceptual approach. The paper's contribution is mainly theoretical and directed toward advancing in both value co-creation and place-marketing literatures.

The first research question deals with the concept and measures of the co-creation process. The study found that the co-creation process has been mostly approached in a mixed, incomplete, and ad-hoc way. Thus, some authors refer to co-creation and implicitly assume that it occurs, but do not explicitly conceptualize and measure co-creation. Other authors explicitly measure co-creation but sometimes the metrics used are not accompanied by a proper definition, and when co-creation is defined, this is done in different ways. Authors usually identify co-creation with partial elements of the whole co-creation process such as core service co-production, customization, citizenship behavior of consumers, and consumer support for providers' innovation processes. Most of these approaches are close to GDL as consumers are viewed as partial employees who may improve providers' circumstances. Most papers tend to consider co-creation as a variable reflecting a new way for providers to extract value from customers; as a pretext, that is, for utilizing them as part-time workers or for internal processes, such as innovation.

Further, most of the studies that were reviewed reflected a preference towards dealing with co-creation before and during the service. However, an integrated co-creation view in place marketing would embrace co-creation throughout the whole value creation process, including co-creation after the core service is received.

Lastly, most studies tend to assimilate co-creation with interactions between actors. While co-creation frequently implies interactions among different actors, there are co-creation processes in which interactions are missing (e.g. positive thoughts about a future trip).

The second research question deals with the resources considered as

antecedents of value co-creation. The study found that authors have considered a wide range of consumers' and providers' resources as precursors of the level of consumer participation in the co-creation process. This approach fits the value co-creation-driven baseline framework proposed. Researchers focus on operant resources, which is consistent with SDL. Provider resources found include some BORs, and, to a great extent, higher-order operant resources (i.e. CORs and IORs). Consumer resources considered in place-marketing literature are also mostly operant, including physical, social, and cultural resources, as expected.

The third research question refers to the outcomes of co-creation considered by place-marketing researchers. The study found a wide range of co-creation outcomes. Value (i.e. the first outcome considered by SDL) is only one among the multiplicity of consequences considered. Interestingly, some papers understood value in a comprehensive way, considering the utilitarian, hedonic, social, and epistemic dimensions of value. There is no consensus, however, on how value should be measured.

The fourth research question refers to the actors and levels of analysis that have been examined. The study found that most papers mention several actors but, as is relatively common in quantitative research, a single source of information tends to be considered, and this is usually the consumer. The consumer is frequently asked about the provider service and, to a lesser extent, about her/his interaction with the provider and with other consumers and relatives. A dyadic, GDL approach is, therefore, still prevalent. The term 'institutions,' which is relatively new in SDL, has not been explicitly mentioned in the literature reviewed, despite some connected variables (e.g. trust and culture).

Overall, this research shows that quantitative place-marketing literature is advancing toward incorporation of the co-creation proposal. However, these advances should be regarded with caution, as the review shows a drastic preference towards destination- and hospitality-related perspectives. Indeed, there is still a long way to go before a consensus around many fundamental aspects is reached. While this conclusion could be considered unsatisfactory, it is relatively predictable, as SDL and related perspectives are still at a meta-theoretical level, and many constructs (such as value co-creation) are underdeveloped and elusive. It is not entirely clear what value co-creation means and how it should be measured. Therefore, additional research efforts in both value co-creation and place marketing are needed. Both literature streams could contribute to each other and progress in a synergistic way.

A clear research avenue stemming from this research consists of developing a comprehensive concept and metric of value co-creation in place marketing which: (1) considers behaviors before, during, and after the core service is received; (2) examines both interactions with third parties and internal processes; and (3) adopts a consumer view (i.e. behaviors that can improve consumer circumstances instead of those of the provider; what can I do for the consumer? instead of what can the consumer do for me?).

Investigations are also needed to identify those consumer and provider resources that really matter to foster co-creation processes, higher value perceptions, and other metrics related to the final goals of consumers, such as well-being. And we need to advance towards a consensual measure of value-in-context.

A final research avenue may consist of introducing the concepts of service ecosystems and institutions in further research. While acknowledging that putting forward these concepts in quantitative research requires a complex endeavor, it also seems obvious that the real world is better represented by networking relationships than by dyadic ones, and that the adoption of dyadic perspectives could lead to misleading conclusions.

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## VIII.2. Methodology of the Study

### VIII.2.1. Measurement Scales for Co-creation Antecedents and Outcomes: *Knowledge and Skills, Tourist Proposition, and Value in Context*

Construct	Reference	Factors	Items	Extra information
Knowledge and skills	Alba and Hutchinson (1987) They propose that consumer knowledge has two major components: familiarity and expertise. Consumer expertise They propose dimensions, not items	1. Cognitive effort/automaticity 2. Cognitive structure 3. Analysis 4. Elaboration 5. Memory	-	
	Kleiser and Mantel (1994)			
	Mitchell and Dacin (1996) Expertise (knowledge and experience) Product class: motorcycles	1. Subjective/objective knowledge 2. Magazines read/motorcycles owned 3. Friends owing motorcycles	Subjective/objective knowledge: includes self-reported measures of knowledge about, interest in, familiarity with the product class, knowledge of the characteristics of the product class, and the scores on the vocabulary quiz.  1. How familiar are you with motorcycles? (seven-point scale anchored by "not familiar at all" and "extremely familiar") 2. How clear an idea do you have about which characteristics are important in providing you maximum usage satisfaction? (seven-point scale anchored by "not very clear" and "very clear") 3. I know a lot about motorcycles (seven-point scale anchored by	



			<p>"agree" and "disagree")</p> <p>4. How would you rate your knowledge about motorcycles relative to the rest of the population? (seven-point scale anchored by "one of the most knowledgeable people" and "one of the least knowledgeable people")</p> <p>5. How interested are you in motorcycles? (seven-point scale anchored by "very interested" and "not very interested")</p> <p>6. Scores on the vocabulary quiz: give subjects a list of 11 motorcycle terms (e.g., "knobbies") and asked them to write a definition for each term. They used the number of correct responses in this vocabulary quiz as a measure of knowledge of motorcycles.</p> <p>Magazines read/motorcycles owned:</p> <p>7. Report the number of motorcycles you have owned</p> <p>8. How frequently do you read motorcycle magazines? (seven-point scale anchored by "never read them" and "read them all the time")</p> <p>Friends owing motorcycles:</p> <p>9. How many of your friends owned motorcycles?</p>	
	<p>Sharma and Patterson (2000)</p> <p>Product-norm experience: represents prior product knowledge and information about how a product would perform.</p>		<p>4 items:</p> <p>1. I can understand almost all the aspects of the services I purchase from my adviser</p> <p>2. I possess good knowledge of financial planning services and products</p> <p>3. I am quite experienced in this area</p> <p>4. I can very well understand my adviser's techniques and strategies</p>	

	<p>Context: financial firms New scale developed from in-depth interviews</p>			
	<p>Gursoy (2003) and Gursoy and McCleary (2004a) Approximation with Gursoy (2001) [dissertation] Prior knowledge is defined as expertise and familiarity, but Gursoy proposes familiarity as an antecedent of expertise. 1. Familiarity Based on Park, Mothersbaugh, and Feick (1994) (3 items), and one more item is added. 2. Expertise Dimensions based on Alba and Hutchinson (1987)</p>	<p>Familiarity: unidimensional Expertise: 1. Automaticity Based on Kaufman, Lane, and Lindquist (1991) (1 item) and Raju (1980) (1 item). The remaining items are self-developed. 2. Expertise in utilizing memory 3. Expertise in Building Cognitive Structures 4. Expertise in Analysis Self-developed and based on Cacioppo and Petty (1982) (3 items) 5. Expertise in Elaboration</p>	<p>Familiarity (3 items): 1. Compared to average person, I am very familiar with a wide variety of vacation destinations. 2. Compared to my friends, I am very familiar with a wide variety of vacation destinations. 3. Compared to people who travel a lot, I am very familiar with a wide variety of vacation destinations. 4. I try to improve my knowledge about vacation destinations (finally removed 4).  Expertise (17 items) Each of the dimensions that compose expertise are unidimensional. 1. Automaticity (4 items): 1. I am comfortable doing several things at the same time (finally removed). 2. If I like a vacation destination, I rarely switch from it just to go somewhere different. 3. I am likely to choose a different vacation destination every time I travel. 4. I prefer to stay at the same hotel brand (e.g. Holiday Inn, Marriott, etc.) whenever I travel. 5. When it comes to planning a vacation, I like to make all the decisions in a short period of time (finally removed 2).</p>	

			<p>6. I tend to go back to destinations I have visited before because of social contacts with either residents or other visitors (added afterwards).</p> <p>2. Expertise in utilizing memory (3 items):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I can easily recall activities offered in the destination I named at the beginning of the survey.</li> <li>2. Whenever I hear the word “vacation” I tend to think of the destination I named at the beginning of the survey (finally removed).</li> <li>3. I can easily compare vacation destinations based on what I know (finally removed 2).</li> <li>4. I still remember what I did during my vacation at the destination I named at the beginning of the survey.</li> <li>5. When I close my eyes, I can easily picture the destination I named at the beginning of the survey.</li> <li>6. I have often told others about my experience(s) at this destination (added afterwards) (finally removed 3).</li> </ol> <p>3. Expertise in Building Cognitive Structures (4 items):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I can easily differentiate vacation destinations based on the attractions offered.</li> <li>2. If I am given a list of vacation destinations, I can easily group those vacation destinations that offer similar attractions.</li> <li>3. I can easily list several destinations that are similar to the destination I named at the beginning of the survey.</li> <li>4. When I think of destinations that have specific attractions (for example, ancient Roman sites, theme parks, racing tracks or any</li> </ol>	
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			<p>other attractions) I can easily list several of them.</p> <p>5. I don't know any vacation destination that is similar to the destination I named at the beginning of the survey (finally removed 3).</p> <p>4. Expertise in Analysis (3 items):</p> <p>1. When I make vacation decisions I am likely to rely on other people's opinions (For example, travel agents and/or friends and relatives opinions) (finally removed).</p> <p>2. When I make vacation decisions I am likely to evaluate destination specific facts (e.g. number of attractions, dining facilities, etc.) (finally removed 3).</p> <p>3. I do not think that I need to analyze all the available information about a destination to make my vacation decision.</p> <p>4. I do not think that all of the available information is useful in choosing a vacation destination.</p> <p>5. I am usually tempted to put more thought into a vacation destination selection decision than it requires.</p> <p>6. More often than not, more thinking about vacation decision just leads to more errors (finally removed 3).</p> <p>7. I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities (finally removed 2).</p> <p>5. Expertise in Elaboration (3 items):</p> <p>1. Before I make a vacation decision, I am likely to simplify all the information I get from information sources such as travel agents, guidebooks, etc. (e.g., instead of remembering all the details, I simply say it is a good/bad and/or</p>	
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			<p>expensive/inexpensive) (finally removed).</p> <p>2. Before choosing a vacation destination, I am likely to consider all the facts I know about the destination (finally removed 3).</p> <p>3. If my friends and relatives are having a hard time making their vacation decisions they are likely to come to me for help.</p> <p>4. I am more likely to spend time thinking about a possible vacation destination information than other people.</p> <p>5. I like making vacation decisions that require a lot of thinking and elaboration.</p>	
	<p>Dellande, Gilly, and Graham (2004)</p> <p>Ability</p> <p>Context: losing weight (patients)</p> <p>They develop six-item scale based on the six separate components of Lindora's weight-loss program.</p>		<p>6 items for each construct</p> <p>Ability:</p> <p>1. I am not able to determine how to take the prepackaged food supplements (reverse coded).</p> <p>2. I am able to determine how to determine the number of prepackaged food supplements to take.</p> <p>3. I am able to determine my daily level of physical activity.</p> <p>4. I am able to determine my daily intake of carbohydrates.</p> <p>5. I am able to apply the skills my nurse has taught me to help control my environment.</p> <p>6. I am not able to keep a diary of my daily food/beverage intake (reverse coded).</p>	
	<p>Meuter, Bitner, Ostrom, and Brown (2005)</p> <p>They described ability as one of the measures for consumer readiness</p>		<p>Ability (6 items):</p> <p>1. I am fully capable of using the SST (*).</p> <p>2. I am confident in my ability to use the (*).</p> <p>3. Using the (*) is well within the scope of my abilities.</p> <p>4. I do NOT feel I am qualified for the task of ordering a prescription refill with the (*).</p>	

	<p>Ability Based on Jones (1986) and Oliver and Bearden (1985)</p> <p>Context: technology-based delivery options</p>		<p>5. My past experiences increase my confidence that I will be able to successfully use the (*).</p> <p>6. In total, using the (*) sometimes involves things that are more difficult than I am capable (finally dropped).</p>	
	<p>Tsaur, Yen, and Chen (2010)</p> <p>Independent tourist's knowledge and skills.</p> <p>Conceptualization and scale development.</p>	<p>Factor 1. Onsite travel capability</p> <p>Adaptation to local environment</p> <p>Knowledge in airport or in-flight</p> <p>Preparation of items on return trip</p> <p>Mobility</p> <p>How to shop in the tourist spot</p> <p>Factor 2. Pre-trip preparation</p> <p>Room reservation issues</p> <p>Trip planning techniques</p> <p>Document handling</p> <p>Understanding the sources of information</p>	<p>12/55 items:</p> <p>Factor 11. Adaptation to local environment</p> <p>I find that I can easily communicate with foreigners</p> <p>I can very quickly adapt to the local lifestyle</p> <p>I know how to respond to poor natural environments</p> <p>Factor 2. Knowledge in airport or in-flight</p> <p>I know how to use the in-flight facilities</p> <p>I know about the safety regulations in the cabin</p> <p>I know what preparations or actions would make me comfortable in-flight (avoid airsickness, lost of sleep and dehydration)</p> <p>I know about the immigration and customs regulations</p> <p>I know how to read the signs in the airport</p> <p>I know how to look for local tourism service centers</p> <p>I know about the regulations pertaining to hand-carry and check-in luggage</p> <p>At the airport, I know how to handle the check-in process and drop off my luggage</p> <p>Factor 4. Preparation for items on return trip</p>	

		<p>Factor 3. Emergency response</p> <p>Emergency handling</p> <p>Backup of contact information</p> <p>Handling document loss</p>	<p>I would always consider the transportation tools available from the airport to my home</p> <p>I would always make luggage arrangements for my return trip</p> <p>I would confirm in advanced my return seat</p> <p>I would always understand the airport's transportation system to avoid missing the flight</p> <p>When I have foreign currency or travelers check left over, I would know what to do with them</p> <p>Factor 9. Mobility</p> <p>I would always bring with me information such as travel book and map</p> <p>I know how to read maps</p> <p>I specialize in using local transportation tools to get to places I want to go</p> <p>Factor 3. How to shop in the tourist spot</p> <p>When I purchase expensive products, I always pay special attention to whether it is counterfeit or flawed</p> <p>After making a spending, I would immediately verify if the information on the bill or credit card receipt is correct</p> <p>If I exchange currency at the tourist spot, I would immediate check the amount and if the bills I received was genuine</p> <p>I would always find out more about commodity prices and compare them before making a consumption</p> <p>I would first evaluate the food and beverage health in the tourist spot before deciding whether to not to consume</p>	
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			<p>Factor 5. Room reservation issues</p> <p>I know how to obtain information about hotel prices and making reservation</p> <p>I know how to obtain flight information to the destination</p> <p>I know how to book a hotel room</p> <p>Before choosing the hotel, I know how to compare room prices, surrounding environment and quality</p> <p>Factor 7. Trip planning techniques</p> <p>I would always arrange my itinerary according to the distance and transit time between scenic spots</p> <p>I would always try to understand the local travel environment (such as language, currency exchange rate, time difference, weather, scenic spot, food and lodging, shopping, and transportation tools)</p> <p>When planning my itinerary, I would always pay attention to seasonal factors in the tourist spot (such as festivities, high and low travel season, and climate)</p> <p>I would always collect information on folklore, culture and social order conditions of the tourist spot.</p> <p>Factor 8. Document handling</p> <p>I would always understand the visa application information of the destination or transit countries</p> <p>I know how to apply for a visa</p> <p>I would always confirm whether the information on documents such as the plane ticket and visa is correct</p>	
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			<p>I know how to apply for a passport</p> <p>Factor 10. Understanding the sources of information</p> <p>I know how to search for travel information in books and magazines</p> <p>I know how to obtain travel information in official organizations</p> <p>I know how to obtain information on independent travel or tourist spots from local and foreign websites</p> <p>Factor 1. Emergency handling</p> <p>I know how to handle a situation in which a hotel is fully-booked</p> <p>I know how to handle a situation in which a transportation is missed or the schedule is delayed</p> <p>I know how to handle flight delay, cancellation, or overbooking</p> <p>I know how to handle a situation in which another party denies a confirmed room or ticket booking</p> <p>I know how to handle lost luggage, delay or damage</p> <p>In an emergency situation, I can quickly deal with post-incident affairs so as to minimize the effect on the trip</p> <p>I know how to handle a situation in which I am lost</p> <p>I know how to handle a situation in which I have a problem with my body (sick or hurt)</p> <p>I know what certificates to request for in order seek compensation upon my return if I run into an incident or am hospitalized</p> <p>In emergency situations, I can remain calm and handle the</p>	
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			<p>situation in an organized fashion</p> <p>I know how to handle a lost ticket</p> <p>Factor 6. Backup of contact information</p> <p>I would always copy down the ticket number and traveler check number</p> <p>I would often make a copy of the passport and visa and put the original and copy in separate locations</p> <p>I would also copy down the emergency contact information (such as credit card company, insurance company, and embassies)</p> <p>Factor 12. Handling document loss</p> <p>I know what to do if my passport is lost</p> <p>I know what to do if my visa is lost</p>	
	<p>Wang et al. (2011)</p> <p>Customer readiness for co-creation</p> <p>Based on Meuter et al. (2005) and Dellande et al. (2004)</p> <p>Context: travel agency</p>	<p>[1. Role clarity]</p> <p>[2. Motivation]</p> <p>3. Ability</p>	<p>3 items</p> <p>Not available</p>	
	<p>Teichmann (2011)</p> <p>He differentiates between:</p> <p>1. Specific/product-related knowledge:</p>	<p>Product expertise:</p> <p>1. Cognitive effort/automaticity (CA)</p> <p>2. Analysis (AN)</p> <p>3. Elaboration (EL)</p>	<p>Product expertise:</p> <p>15 items</p> <p>Not available</p> <p>CA: refers to habitual decision making and cognitive effort (5 items used),</p>	

	<p>product expertise, and 2. consumer (general) knowledge: consumer self-confidence.</p> <p>1. Product expertise Based on the 5 dimensions of Alba and Hutchinson (1987). One dimension is removed following Kleiser and Mantel (1994). Items are based on Kleiser and Mantel (1994), Gursoy and McCleary (2004a), and Schmidt and Spreng (1996)</p> <p>2. Consumer self-confidence Based on Bearden, Hardesty, and Rose (2001). The construct was originally formed by 6 dimensions but two are not applicable in the current context, so they have been removed</p>	<p>4. Memory (ME)</p> <p>Consumer self-confidence:</p> <p>1. Information acquisition (IA)</p> <p>2. Consideration-set formation (CS)</p> <p>3. Personal outcomes decision making (PO)</p> <p>4. Social outcomes decision-making (SO)</p>	<p>AN captures individuals' knowledge related to travel offers (3 items used),</p> <p>EL denotes the ability to make inferences based on prior experience (3 items used), and</p> <p>ME refers to the ability to remember suppliers of tourism products and services (4 items used).</p> <p>Consumer self-confidence: 20 items in total, 5 items for each dimension</p>	
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	Travel context (information search)			
	<p>Prebensen et al. (2014) Knowledge.</p> <p>Based on Tsaour et al. (2010).</p> <p>Based on a review process, items with the highest alpha scores were analysed with the aim of detecting the most important knowledge-related elements of a tourist trip.</p>	<p>Knowledge 1 (information sources)</p> <p>Knowledge 2 (knowledge process)</p>	<p>8 items:</p> <p>Knowledge 1 (information sources):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I always take information with me on holiday, such as travel guides and maps</li> <li>2. I know how to search for travel information in books and magazines</li> <li>3. I can easily obtain travel information at public offices</li> <li>4. I always ensure I have information about distances and transit times between different tourism experiences on a holiday</li> </ol> <p>Knowledge 2 (knowledge process):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>5. I know how to handle a situation in which a hotel or a flight is overbooked</li> <li>6. I know how to obtain information about hotel room rates and making a booking</li> <li>7. I find that I can easily communicate with the local population</li> <li>8. I can easily obtain information about unique and independent holiday destinations from local and foreign websites</li> </ol>	
	<p>Chen et al. (2015)</p> <p>Self-efficacy (1. knowledge, skills and ability to perform a task, or 2. perceived confidence in the ability</p>		<p>Self-efficacy (initially consisted on 6 items, but after CFA remained 3 items):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I know how to use the services of ABC restaurant.</li> <li>2. I know how to deal with employees at ABC restaurant.</li> <li>3. I know what I expect to receive from ABC restaurant.</li> </ol>	

	<p>to perform a task).</p> <p>Based on Sherer et al. (1982), Jones (1986), Namasivayam (2003), Meuter et al. (2005), McKee, Simmers, and Licata (2006), Pavlou and Fygenon (2006), and Beuningen, Wetzels, and Streukens (2009).</p> <p>Context: dining experience</p>			
Tourist proposition	<p>Enright and Newton (2004)</p> <p>Tourism Destination Competitiveness</p>	<p>1. Attractors</p> <p>2. Business-related factors</p>	<p>52 items</p> <p>Attractors:</p> <p>1. Safety, 2. Cuisine, 3. Dedicated tourism attractions, 4. Visual appeal, 5. Well-known landmarks, 6. Nightlife, 7. Different culture, 8. Special events, 9. Interesting festivals, 10. Local way of life, 11. Interesting architecture, 12. Climate, 13. Notable history, 14. Museums and galleries, 15. Music and performances</p> <p>Business-related factors:</p> <p>16. Political stability, 17. International access, 18. Internal transportation facilities, 19. Free port status, 20. Government policy, 21. Cleanliness of government, 22. Communication facilities, 23. Good retail sector, 24. Staff skills, 25. Overall economic condition, 26. Access to information, 27. China market potential, 28. Local managerial skills, 29. Transparency</p>	<p>Respondents were asked to (1) assess the importance of each factor contributing to competitiveness in urban tourism in (*), and (2) compare (*) with the relevant competitors and assess (*)'s relative competitiveness for each of the factors.</p>

			in policy making, 30. Investment incentives, 31. Banking and financial system, 32. Geographic location, 33. High quality accommodation, 34. Support from related industries, 35. Tax regime, 36. Long haul market potential, 37. Presence of international firms, 38. Other Asia Pacific market potential, 39. Education and training institutions, 40. Regulatory framework, 41. Level of technology, 42. Good firm cooperation, 43. Staff costs, 44. Other infrastructure, 45. Property-related costs, 46. Strategies of international firms, 47. Other costs, 48. Strong currency, 49. Strategies of local firms, 50. Community institutions, 51. Tough local competition, 52. Local market demand.	
	Yoon and Uysal (2005) Tourist pull motivation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Modern atmospheres &amp; activities</li> <li>2. Wide space &amp; activities</li> <li>3. Small size &amp; reliable weather</li> <li>4. Natural scenery</li> <li>5. ¿?</li> <li>6. Different culture</li> <li>7. Cleanness &amp; shopping</li> <li>8. Night life &amp; local cuisine</li> <li>9. Interesting town &amp; village</li> <li>10. Water activities</li> </ol>	<p>28 items</p> <p>Factor 1: Modern atmospheres &amp; activities:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Modern cities, 2. Exotic atmosphere, 3. Casino and gambling, 4. Live theaters/concerts, 5. First class hotels</li> </ol> <p>Factor 2: Wide space &amp; activities:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>6. Budget accommodation, 7. Wide spaces to get away from crowds, 8. Variety of activities to see</li> </ol> <p>Factor 3: Small size &amp; reliable weather:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>9. Manageable size, 10. Reliable weather, 11. Personal safety</li> </ol> <p>Factor 4: Natural scenery:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>12. Outstanding scenery, 13. Mountainous areas</li> </ol> <p>Factor 5:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>14. Inexpensive restaurants, 15. Tennis</li> </ol> <p>Factor 6: Different culture:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>16. Quality beach, 17. Interesting and friendly local people, 18. Different culture, 19. Historic old cities</li> </ol>	

			<p>Factor 7: Cleanness &amp; shopping: 20. Cleanness, 21. Shopping, 22. Reliance/privacy</p> <p>Factor 8: Night life &amp; local cuisine: 23. Night life and entertainment, 24. Local cuisine</p> <p>Factor 9: Interesting town &amp; village: 25. Interesting town/village, 26. High quality restaurants</p> <p>Factor 10: Water activities: 27. Seaside, 28. Water sports</p>	
	<p>Blazquez-Resino et al. (2015)</p> <p>Tourist Experience Proposition (TEP)</p> <p>The selection of the items took place after carrying out an exhaustive review of works analysing how tourists evaluate destinations. This may be through satisfaction with resources (Chen, Chen, &amp; Lee, 2009; Kozak &amp; Rimmington, 2000), quality (Baker &amp; Crompton, 2000; Narayan, Rajendran, Sai, &amp; Gopalan, 2009) or the evaluation of resources (Fallon &amp;</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Natural resources and infrastructure</li> <li>2. Environment</li> <li>3. Entertainment</li> <li>4. Hospitality and information</li> <li>5. Welfare</li> </ol>	<p>Natural resources and infrastructure:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Lodging infrastructure</li> <li>2. Places for activities</li> <li>3. Public transport</li> <li>4. Natural areas</li> </ol> <p>Environment:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>5. Cleanliness</li> <li>6. Resource preservation</li> <li>7. General prices</li> <li>8. States of road</li> <li>9. Pollution reduction</li> </ol> <p>Entertainment:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>10. Places to shop</li> <li>11. Restaurants</li> <li>12. Climatology</li> <li>13. Nightlife</li> <li>14. Cultural activities</li> </ol>	

	Schofield, 2006; Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010).		<p>Hospitality and information:</p> <p>15. Services for tourists</p> <p>16. Tourist information</p> <p>17. Hospitality</p> <p>18. Tourists assistance</p> <p>Welfare:</p> <p>19. Safety</p> <p>20. Traffic conditions</p> <p>21. Conditions for relaxation</p>	
Value-in-context	Bello and Etzel (1985) Novelty value of vacation experiencers	<p>Novelty of trip</p> <p>Trip deserved</p> <p>Destination advice sought</p> <p>Educational experience</p> <p>Restful experience</p>	<p>Novelty of trip:</p> <p>1. This vacation was a unique experience for me.</p> <p>2. Most people would describe this vacation as different.</p> <p>3. This vacation was a completely new experience for me.</p> <p>4. The activities on this vacation were completely different from those I usually engage in.</p> <p>5. On this vacation, I did new and unfamiliar things.</p> <p>Trip deserved:</p> <p>1. I “owed” this vacation to my family.</p> <p>2. I “owed” this vacation to myself.</p> <p>Destination advice sought:</p> <p>1. Before this trip, I asked the advice of friends regarding this vacation destination.</p> <p>2. This place was recommended to me as a vacation site.</p> <p>Educational experience:</p> <p>1. This vacation was intellectually enriching.</p> <p>2. This vacation had a lot of cultural value.</p>	



			<p>3. This vacation was a learning experience.</p> <p>4. On this vacation I increased my knowledge of different places.</p> <p>5. A large part of this vacation was spent visiting historical places.</p> <p>Restful experience:</p> <p>1. This vacation was very restful.</p> <p>2. I felt physically refreshed following this vacation.</p> <p>3. I felt emotionally refreshed following this vacation.</p> <p>4. I was more tired after this vacation than before it.</p> <p>5. This was a hectic vacation.</p>	
	<p>Sheth et al. (1991)</p> <p>The theory identifies 5 consumption values influencing consumer choice behaviour:</p> <p>Functional value</p> <p>Social value</p> <p>Emotional value</p> <p>Epistemic value</p> <p>Conditional value</p>			
	<p>Babin, Darden, and Griffin (1994)</p> <p>Precursor. Personal shopping value scale.</p>	<p>Hedonic</p> <p>Utilitarian</p>	<p>20 items finally refined in 15 items:</p> <p>Hedonic:</p> <p>1. This shopping trip was truly a joy.</p> <p>2. I continued to shop, not because I had to, but because I wanted to.</p>	

			<p>3. This shopping trip truly felt like an escape.</p> <p>4. Compared to other things I could have done, the time spent shopping was truly enjoyable.</p> <p>5. I enjoyed being immersed in exiting new products.</p> <p>6. I enjoyed this shopping trip for its own sake, not just for the items I may have purchased.</p> <p>7. I had a good time because I was able to act on the “spur-of-the-moment”.</p> <p>8. During the trip, I felt the excitement of the hunt.</p> <p>9. While shopping, I was able to forget my problems.</p> <p>10. While shopping, I felt a sense of adventure.</p> <p>11. This shopping trip was not a very nice time out.</p> <p>Utilitarian:</p> <p>12. I accomplished just what I wanted to on this shopping trip.</p> <p>13. I couldn’t buy what I really needed.</p> <p>14. While shopping, I found just the item(s) I was looking for.</p> <p>15. I was disappointed because I had to go to another store(s) to complete my shopping.</p>	
	<p>Mathwick, Malhotra, and Rigdon (2001)</p> <p>Experiential value (first order dimension) measured through 7 subscales: efficiency, economic value, visual appeal, entertainment, service excellence, escapism, and intrinsic</p>	<p>Visual Appeal</p> <p>Entertainment value</p> <p>Escapism</p> <p>Intrinsic enjoyment</p> <p>Efficiency</p> <p>Economic value</p> <p>Excellence</p>	<p>19 items after purification process:</p> <p>Visual Appeal:</p> <p>Y1. The way XYZ displays its products is attractive.</p> <p>Y2. XYZ’s Internet site is aesthetically appealing.</p> <p>Y3. I like the way XYZ’s Internet site looks.</p> <p>Entertainment Value:</p> <p>Y4. I think XYZ’s Internet site is very entertaining.</p> <p>Y5. The enthusiasm of XYZ’s Internet site is catching, it picks</p>	

	<p>enjoyment. Items for each factor based on previous literature. Internet shopping environment.</p>		<p>me up. Y6. XYZ doesn't just sell products-it entertains me. Escapism: Y7. Shopping from XYZ's Internet site "gets me away from it all". Y8. Shopping from XYZ makes me feel like I am in another world. Y9. I get so involved when I shop from XYZ that I forget everything else. Intrinsic Enjoyment: Y10. I enjoy shopping from XYZ's Internet site for its own sake, not just for the items I may have purchased. Y11. I shop from XYZ's Internet site for the pure enjoyment of it. Efficiency: Y12. Shopping from XYZ is an efficient way to manage my time. Y13. Shopping from XYZ's Internet site makes my life easier. Y14. Shopping from XYZ's Internet site fits with my schedule. Economic Value: Y15. XYZ products are a good economic value. Y16. Overall, I am happy with XYZ's prices. Y17. The prices of the product(s) I purchased from XYZ's Internet site are too high, given the quality of the merchandise. Excellence: X1. When I think of XYZ, I think of excellence. X2. I think of XYZ as an expert in the merchandise it offers.</p>	
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	<p>Sweeney and Soutar (2001)          Consumer perceived value scale (PERVAL).          With durable products.          Based on Sheth et al. (1991).</p>	<p>Functional value – performance/quality          Emotional value          Functional value – price/value for money          Social value</p>	<p>19 items loading on 4 factors, after all the validation process: (*)...          has consistent quality          is well made          has an acceptable standard of quality          has poor workmanship          would not last a long time          would perform consistently            is one that I would enjoy          would make me want to use it          is one that I would feel relaxed about using          would make me feel good          would give me pleasure            is reasonably priced          offers value for money          is a good product for the price          would be economical            would help me to feel acceptable          would improve the way I am perceived          would make a good impression on other people          would give its owner social approval</p>	<p>Compared to Sheth et al. (1991):          1. they divide functional value in two: quality and price, and          2. They do not identify epistemic and conditional values.          They explain that epistemic value may be more connected to experiential products and services, and not to durable products.</p>
	<p>Williams and Soutar</p>	<p>Functional value (with</p>	<p>20 items</p>	

	<p>(2009)</p> <p>Adventure tourism environment.</p> <p>Multidimensional value perspective often considered more appropriate in services contexts.</p> <p>Built from the PERVAL framework developed by Sweeney and Soutar (2001), which was in turn adapted from Sheth et al. (1991). PERVAL had not been applied to tourism.</p> <p>Novelty value was based on Bello and Etzel (1985) and Weber (2001).</p>	<p>value for money)</p> <p>Emotional value</p> <p>Social value</p> <p>Epistemic/Novelty value (not included in PERVAL, but added in this study)</p>	<p>Functional value:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Consistent quality</li> <li>2. Done well</li> <li>3. Acceptable standard of quality</li> <li>4. Well organized</li> </ol> <p>Value for money:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>5. Good return for money</li> <li>6. Value for money</li> <li>7. Good one for the price paid</li> <li>8. Reasonably priced</li> </ol> <p>Emotional value:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>9. Gave me feelings of well being</li> <li>10. Was exciting</li> <li>11. Made me elated</li> <li>12. Made me feel happy</li> </ol> <p>Social value:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>13. Gives social approval from others</li> <li>14. Makes me feel acceptable to others</li> <li>15. Improves the way a person is perceived</li> <li>16. Give a good impression on other people</li> </ol> <p>Novelty value:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17. Made me feel adventurous</li> <li>18. Satisfied my curiosity</li> <li>19. Was an authentic experience</li> <li>20. We did a lot of things on the tour</li> </ol>	
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	<p>Prebensen, Woo, et al. (2013)</p> <p>Perceived value of destination experience</p> <p>Based on Sweeney and Soutar (2001) (mirror the work of Sheth et al. (1991), Bello and Etzel (1985) and Weber (2001)).</p>	<p>Maintenance (functional value)</p> <p>Expressive I: Social improvement (social value)</p> <p>Expressive II: Sense of well-being (epistemic value)</p>	<p>18 items:</p> <p>Maintenance (functional value):</p> <p>This attraction represents ‘value for money’</p> <p>The service fees at this attraction are reasonable</p> <p>This attraction is well formed</p> <p>This attraction has an acceptable standard of quality</p> <p>This attraction is well organized</p> <p>This attraction has consistent quality</p> <p>This attraction makes me feel adventurous</p> <p>Expressive I: Social improvement (social value):</p> <p>This attraction makes me feel more socially accepted</p> <p>This attraction improves the way I am perceived</p> <p>This attraction helps me to feel acceptable to others</p> <p>This attraction enables me to impress others</p> <p>Expressive II: Sense of well-being (epistemic value):</p> <p>This attraction provides authentic experience</p> <p>This attraction satisfies my curiosity</p> <p>This attraction is exciting</p> <p>This attraction is stimulating</p> <p>This attraction makes me happy</p> <p>This attraction makes me feel adventurous</p> <p>This attraction is educational</p>	<p>After deleting 3 cross-loaded value indicators, the 18 perceived value items were factor analysed and resulted in 3 factors.</p> <p>Comparing to the original PERVAL scale (Sweeney &amp; Soutar, 2001) it lacks emotional value.</p>
	<p>Prebensen et al. (2016)</p> <p>Perceived value of travel experience</p> <p>Based on Sweeney and</p>	<p>Physical value</p> <p>Emotional value</p> <p>Social value</p>	<p>Physical value:</p> <p>This winter experience has a consistent level of quality</p> <p>This winter experience is well formed</p>	

	<p>Soutar (2001) (mirror the work of Sheth et al. (1991), Bello and Etzel (1985) and Weber (2001)).</p>	<p>Economic value Learning value</p>	<p>This experience has an acceptable standard of quality This experience is well organized Emotional value : This winter experience gives me a feeling of well-being This winter experience is exciting This winter experience is stimulating This winter experience makes me happy Social value : Participating in this winter experience enables me to create a good impression Participating in this winter experience enables me to impress other people Participating in this winter experience makes me feel more socially accepted Economic value : The price paid for this experience is reasonable The prices for additional services are acceptable This experience represents “value” for money This winter experience is correctly priced Learning value: This winter experience makes me feel like an adventurer This winter experience satisfies my curiosity This winter experience provides authentic/genuine experiences This winter experience is unique This is a once-in-a-lifetime experience</p>	
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**VIII.2.2. Questionnaires for the Empirical Study (Spanish versions)****VIII.2.2.1) Questionnaire 1****Cuestionario\_ Fase 1\_España\_Modelo A (1/4/2017)****P1. Sexo:** Hombre Mujer**A. Edad:** \_\_\_\_\_  $\geq 18$ **P2. Educación:** Estudios primarios Estudios secundarios Formación Profesional Licenciatura Máster o Doctorado**P3. Ocupación:** Estudiante Autónomo Empleado/a Desempleado/a Amo/a de casa Jubilado**P4. Ingresos familiares netos anuales:** Menos de 12.500€ 12.500-20.000€ 20.001-35.000€ 35.001-60.000€ Más de 60.000€



**P5. ¿Cuál es tu país de nacionalidad? \_\_\_\_\_ desplegable**

**B. ¿Tienes pensado viajar por ocio al extranjero en los próximos dos meses (Abril/Mayo 2017)?**

Sí

No screenout

**C. ¿A qué país viajarás? \_\_\_\_\_ desplegable ≠ P5**

**P6. Lugar principal: \_\_\_\_\_**

**D. Tipo de viaje:**

Cultural

Urbano (de ciudad)

Sol y playa screenout

Aventura screenout

Rural/Naturaleza screenout

Otro: \_\_\_\_\_ screenout

**E. ¿Te has preparado este viaje de antemano?**

Sí

No screenout

<b>Valora entre 0 (totalmente en desacuerdo) y 10 (totalmente de acuerdo) las siguientes afirmaciones acerca de las vacaciones y la organización de viajes vacacionales.</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
Puedo diferenciar fácilmente entre las distintas opciones relativas a un viaje (distintos destinos, distintos alojamientos, distintos medios de transporte, etc.) en función de sus ventajas e inconvenientes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Si me dan una lista con opciones relativas a un viaje (destinos, alojamientos, medios de transporte, etc.), puedo agrupar fácilmente las que son similares.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Me resulta fácil entender todo lo que se refiere a un viaje.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Me gusta estar informado sobre todo lo que tiene ver con posibles viajes vacacionales.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Soy capaz de seleccionar la información que realmente es útil para un viaje.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Me mantengo al día sobre lo que tiene que ver con viajes vacacionales.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sé acerca de cómo organizar unas vacaciones.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mi conocimiento me permite entender los entresijos de la organización de viajes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mi conocimiento acerca de la organización de viajes me permite no equivocarme en mis decisiones a la hora de contratar unas vacaciones (elegir destino, alojamiento, medio de transporte, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Puedo recordar fácilmente lo relativo a mis viajes vacacionales.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Puedo recordar fácilmente las marcas contratadas en mis viajes (alojamiento, líneas aéreas, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Guardo en mi memoria los diferentes aspectos relacionados con mis vacaciones.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**P7. Ahora piensa en el viaje que has preparado a \_\_\_\_\_ abierto (lugar que has nombrado al principio de la encuesta).**

**P8. Fecha prevista para el viaje (fecha aproximada de llegada)**

- a. Día desplegable
- b. Mes desplegable abril y mayo

**P9. Duración estimada del viaje:**

- Menos de 3 días
- De 3 a 7 días
- De 8 a 14 días
- Más de dos semanas

**P10. ¿Quién se ha encargado mayoritariamente de la organización del viaje?**

- Yo mismo
- Un amigo/familiar
- A partes iguales

**P11. Contratación del viaje (marca todas aquellas que se ajusten a tu preparación):**

He/Hemos contratado servicios a través de intermediarios presenciales (agencia de viajes)

He/Hemos contratado servicios a través de portales online (*Booking, Expedia, Hotelbeds, Orbitz, Rusticae ...*)

He/Hemos contratado servicios utilizando la infomediación (*Kayak, Trivago, TripAdvisor, LetsBonus, Smartbox, ...*)

He/Hemos contratado servicios por cuenta propia

Otra: \_\_\_\_\_

**P12. Compañía prevista:**

Sólo

En pareja

En familia

Con amigos

Otro: \_\_\_\_\_

**P13. ¿Has estado anteriormente en este destino?**

No

Sí, una vez

Sí, 2-3 veces

Sí, más de 3 veces

	<b>Valora entre 0 (totalmente en desacuerdo) y 10 (totalmente de acuerdo) las siguientes afirmaciones acerca de la preparación de este viaje.</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
	Me he involucrado activamente en la organización del viaje.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Me he preocupado de los detalles relativos al viaje.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	La organización del viaje se ha basado fundamentalmente en mis propias inquietudes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	He dedicado el tiempo suficiente a organizar el viaje.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	He conseguido que la programación del viaje se adapte a mis necesidades.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

He usado mi experiencia previa para organizar el viaje.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pienso en el viaje que voy a realizar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
He hablado sobre el viaje que voy a realizar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Me he imaginado cómo será la experiencia.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pensar en el viaje que voy a realizar me ha servido para evadirme de mi rutina diaria.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**P14. A partir de junio tenemos pensado contactar contigo de nuevo para hacerte algunas preguntas más sobre cómo fue este viaje y completar el cuestionario. ¿Estarías dispuesto a contestarnos?**

Sí

No

VIII.2.2.2) *Questionnaire 2*

## Cuestionario\_ Fase 2\_España\_Modelo A (5/5/2017)

Este cuestionario es la continuación de otro que realizaste el pasado mes de abril, dirigido a recoger tu preparación de un viaje al extranjero.

El presente cuestionario pretende completar tu experiencia en dicho viaje.

**P1. Recuérdanos, por favor, el país al que viajaste** \_\_\_\_\_ desplegable.

**P2. ¿Y el lugar principal?** \_\_\_\_\_ abierto

**A. ¿Viajaste finalmente a este destino?**

Sí

No screenout

**P3. Nombra 3 sitios relevantes que pudiste ver/experimentar allí (barrios, parajes, museos, monumentos, locales, ...):**

a. abierto

b. abierto

c. abierto

**B. ¿Qué tipo de viaje fue?**

Cultural

Urbano (de ciudad)

Sol y playa screenout

Aventura screenout

Rural/Naturaleza screenout

Otro: \_\_\_\_\_ abierto screenout

**P4. ¿Con quién viajaste finalmente?**

Sólo

En pareja

En familia

Con amigos

Otro: \_\_\_\_\_ abierto

**C. ¿Cuánto tiempo (en días) duró el viaje?:** \_\_\_\_\_ días abierto >0

Si la duración del viaje es 0, screenout con este mensaje: “Una o más preguntas no fueron contestadas de forma correcta . No podrá proseguir hasta que dichas respuestas sean válidas.”

**P5. Fecha de vuelta:**

Día \_\_\_\_\_ desplegable [1-31]

Mes \_\_\_\_\_ desplegable [mayo, junio, julio]

- Si la fecha es inferior a 30 días, screenout con este mensaje: “Para continuar este cuestionario deben haber transcurrido al menos 30 días desde su vuelta del viaje. Nos volveremos a poner en contacto contigo cuando sea oportuno para continuar con el cuestionario. Gracias.”

**D. Tu país de nacionalidad es** \_\_\_\_\_ desplegable ≠P2

**E. ¿Puedes confirmarnos tu edad?** \_\_\_\_\_ años ≥ 18

Si la duración del viaje es 0, screenout con este mensaje: “Una o más preguntas no fueron contestadas de forma correcta . No podrá proseguir hasta que dichas respuestas sean válidas.”

**P6. ¿Y sexo?**

Hombre

Mujer

- Ahora piensa en el viaje que realizaste a \_\_\_\_\_ autorrelleno

Valora entre 0 (pésimo) y 10 (excelente) las siguientes características en el destino.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Hospitalidad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Clima	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Alojamiento	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Acceso y transporte	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gastronomía y restauración	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Comercio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Animación	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Paisaje	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Atracciones culturales	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Atracciones naturales	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Apoyo al turista	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Seguridad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

<p><b>Valora entre 0 (totalmente en desacuerdo) y 10 (totalmente de acuerdo) las siguientes afirmaciones acerca de tu comportamiento DURANTE el viaje.</b></p> <p><i>Para contestar a las preguntas acerca de los proveedores en el destino, considera tu impresión global de los proveedores turísticos y otros establecimientos comerciales.</i></p>	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<p>Me preocupé de informar a cada uno de los proveedores en el destino sobre mis necesidades (en transportes, alojamientos, restaurantes, puntos de información, visitas guiadas, etc.).</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Explicé claramente a cada uno de los proveedores en el destino lo que quería (en transportes, alojamientos, restaurantes, puntos de información, visitas guiadas, etc.).</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Di a los empleados de los servicios en el destino una información precisa de lo que quería.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Fui amable con los proveedores en el destino.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Fui educado con los proveedores en el destino.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Fui respetuoso con los proveedores en el destino.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Fui capaz de soportar que algunas cosas no salieran como esperaba.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Fui capaz de adaptarme a cambios de planes en el último momento.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Fui paciente para tolerar los errores de otros en el viaje.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Mi relación con la gente local fue agradable.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Mi relación con la gente local fue educada.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Mi relación con la gente local fue positiva.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Mi relación con la gente local fue enriquecedora.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Mi relación con otros turistas fue agradable.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Mi relación con otros turistas fue educada.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mi relación con otros turistas fue positiva.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mi relación con otros turistas fue enriquecedora.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p><b>Valora entre 0 (totalmente en desacuerdo) y 10 (totalmente de acuerdo) las siguientes afirmaciones acerca de tu comportamiento <u>DESPUÉS</u> del viaje.</b>  <i>Para contestar a las preguntas acerca de los proveedores en el destino, considera tu impresión global de los proveedores turísticos y otros establecimientos comerciales.</i></p>											
	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
Contesté encuestas de proveedores dando mi opinión (en agencia de viajes, alojamientos, transportes, visitas guiadas, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Transmití mis sensaciones del viaje (positivas y/o negativas) a los proveedores (agencia de viajes, alojamiento, transporte, visitas guiadas, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sugerí mejoras a los servicios turísticos contratados en el destino.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Después de hacer el viaje pensé en él muchas veces.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Después de hacer el viaje recordé a menudo la experiencia.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pensar en el viaje que había realizado me sirvió para evadirme de mi rutina diaria.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Después de hacer el viaje reflexioné sobre lo que este viaje ha significado en mi vida.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p><b>Valora entre 0 (totalmente en desacuerdo) y 10 (totalmente de acuerdo) las siguientes afirmaciones acerca de tu experiencia turística.</b></p>											
	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
La experiencia turística tuvo un precio razonable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
La experiencia turística tuvo una buena relación calidad-precio.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
La experiencia turística fue buena, teniendo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



en cuenta el coste.												
Me sentí bien en el viaje.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
La experiencia turística fue interesante.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
La experiencia turística fue un placer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
La experiencia turística me hizo sentirme feliz.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
La experiencia fue positiva para mis relaciones sociales.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
La experiencia me ayudó a reforzar el vínculo con mis amigos, familia, compañeros de trabajo/estudio, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
La experiencia turística creó una buena impresión en otras personas.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
La experiencia contribuyó a que otros tengan una buena percepción de mí.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**P7. ¿Qué destacarías como lo más POSITIVO de tu experiencia?**

- abierto

**P8. ¿Qué destacarías como lo más NEGATIVO de tu experiencia?**

- abierto

**P9. Adjunta una fotografía del viaje que represente tu experiencia en el destino:**

Examinar... adjunto

**Muchas gracias por tu colaboración**



# References

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