

1 **Smart tourism destination experiences: The mediating impact of arousal levels**

2 **Abstract**

3 This research explored the relationship between environmental stimuli and tourist experiences by  
4 considering the mediating impact of arousal level. Designed around the arousal theory of  
5 environmental psychology, this framework suggests that novel environmental stimuli create  
6 optimal arousal levels and lead to optimal performance. An on-site survey was distributed to  
7 tourists at Hu Li Shan Fortress in Xiamen, Fujian Province, China, which is a smart tourism  
8 destination recognized by the Chinese government. Completed self-administered questionnaires  
9 were obtained from 372 respondents who had used the smart facilities. The findings through the  
10 SEM (structural equation modeling) method revealed that physical and psychological stimuli had  
11 positive effects on arousal levels and tourist experiences and arousal level was a moderator  
12 between environmental stimuli and tourist experiences. Thus, destinations should offer optimal  
13 environmental stimuli to tourists by increasing smart facilities and services and continuously  
14 updating them.

15 **Keywords:** Tourist experiences; arousal theory; arousal levels; smart tourism destinations;  
16 information-sharing service platform (ISSP); environmental stimuli; destination management;  
17 China

18 **1. Introduction**

19 The concept of smartness is thought to have originated in the 1990s, corresponding to the  
20 introduction of new information communication technologies or ICTs (Angelidou, 2015). Since  
21 then, it has been attracting great attention (Hollands, 2008; 2015). Smart cities are often seen as  
22 urban areas making intelligent use of social media, big data, artificial intelligence (AI), cloud  
23 computing, Internet of Things (IoT), mobile communications, and other technologies to improve

24 the information infrastructure and urban living services (Bakici et al., 2013). However, there are  
25 broader conceptions of the meaning of smartness. For example, Cohen (2014) defined six  
26 ‘smartness’ dimensions as governance, environment, mobility, economy, people, and living. Not  
27 all smart destinations and cities are exactly the same as the smart dimension emphasis can vary  
28 from country to country, and even from city to city. Smart tourism was derived from the smart  
29 city concept (Coca-Stefaniak, 2019). Logically, smart destinations have similar strategies to  
30 smart cities and the support provided by institutions for the development of smart destinations is  
31 mostly related to their management (Boes et al., 2016). In Spain, smart tourism destinations are  
32 innovative, sustainable and accessible to everyone. They adopt the most advanced technologies  
33 to increase the quality of visitor experiences and also improve resident quality of life (Ivars-  
34 Baidal et al., 2019; Molinillo et al., 2019). However, in China there is much greater emphasis on  
35 smart destinations using ICTs rather than on broader and ‘softer’ management and governance  
36 strategies (Wang et al., 2013; Wang & Xiang, 2012; Xiang et al., 2015). Smart destinations in  
37 China are based on advanced ICTs that improve tourist flows (due mainly to overcrowding  
38 issues) and increase visitor engagement.

39 With the support of the Internet and mobile Internet technology, smart tourism is  
40 gradually changing patterns of travel, profoundly affecting the enjoyment tourists experience and  
41 amenities they require (Buhalis, 1998; Buhalis & O’Connor, 2005; Neuhofer et al., 2013). Smart  
42 infrastructure at the destination effectively integrates physical spaces of destinations with virtual  
43 spaces, providing tourists with multiple experiences. This generates diversified experiences and  
44 greater personalization, which enhance tourist experiences and satisfaction (Lee et al., 2018;  
45 Neuhofer et al., 2013; Zatori et al., 2018). For example, people enjoy interpersonal  
46 communications by sharing their experiences with others in the virtual world, which allows the

47 senders to receive comments and feedback anytime and anywhere (Neuhofer et al., 2015), and  
48 they also can promptly respond. During the feedback process, positive feelings can be expressed  
49 about tourist experiences, as well as satisfaction associated with physical and virtual spaces.  
50 However, negative emotions are also attracting wider attention, such as “technology anxiety”  
51 (Meuter et al., 2001) and the need for “digital detox” (Li et al., 2018; Floros et al., 2019). This  
52 implies that some travelers are unwilling or unable to use smart technologies, or lack contacts  
53 with whom to communicate. Smart facilities have changed the social interaction of temporal-  
54 spatial organization (Dickinson et al., 2014) and allowed for a continuous “absence state”. There  
55 are still significant research gaps to fill before we can fully comprehend the interaction of smart  
56 technologies and experiences (Hunter et al., 2015; Gretzel et al., 2015; Zhong et al., 2017).

57         This research utilizes the arousal theory of environmental psychology to investigate the  
58 impacts of smart technologies on tourist experiences. Arousal theory has been widely used in  
59 environmental aesthetics, environmental emotional response, environmental psychology, and  
60 other aspects (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; McDonnell et al., 2015). Arousal theory can predict  
61 different outcomes caused by low-arousal behavior (the sleep end of the continuum) and high  
62 arousal behavior. Also, it can effectively explain the behavioral consequences of environmental  
63 factors such as temperature, congestion, and noise (Gnoth,1997; Kagan & Snidman, 1991).This  
64 theory may partially explain how smart environments influence tourist experiences with the  
65 support of technology, by indicating the relationship between environmental stimuli and  
66 individual emotions or behavioral changes (Reisenzein,1994). Environmental stimuli supported  
67 by technology at smart destinations, and characterized by complexity, novelty, and accidentality,  
68 are key factors affecting tourist experiences (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2013). Amato and  
69 McInnes (1983) reported significant pleasure-arousal interactions on affiliation measures of city

70 environments, corresponding to Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) research findings. Wirtz et al.  
71 (2000) tested the pleasure-arousal interaction with affiliation behaviors in Russell's framework.  
72 Furthermore, the extant research indicates that emotional arousal has a mediating effect on  
73 natural 'toursapes' and tourist experiences and the level of arousal is dependent on visitors'  
74 purposes for being in particular environments, hence reflecting goal-directed behavior (Wirtz et  
75 al., 2000; Zhang & Xu, 2019).

76 Therefore, the principal goal of this research is to contribute more on the antecedents of  
77 tourist experiences at smart destinations. Two specific objectives were to utilize arousal theory of  
78 environmental psychology to investigate the impacts of environments at smart destinations on  
79 tourist experiences with the support of ICTs, by revealing the relationships between  
80 environmental stimuli and individual emotions and behavioral changes; and to determine  
81 whether arousal level is a mediating variable critical to understanding the interplay between  
82 environments and people's experiences at smart destinations.

## 83 **2. Literature review, conceptual framework, and research hypotheses**

### 84 *2.1. Arousal theory*

85 Arousal theory, also known as activating theory, is a theory about the relationship  
86 between individual emotional changes and environmental stimuli in environmental psychology  
87 and was put forward by Berlyne (1960), a British behavioral psychologist. Berlyne pointed out  
88 that people gained pleasurable emotions in aesthetic activity caused by two types of arousal. One  
89 is gradualness arousal, meaning the intensity of aesthetic emotion increases gradually with the  
90 process of perception and acceptance and finally reaches the critical point of degree to produce  
91 pleasurable experience. The other is hyperactivity arousal in which emotions are rapidly raised to  
92 a summit by sudden shock and then a drop-off pleasure relieves intensity when arousal

93 dissipates. Arousal is widely used in environmental psychology because it is deemed to be a  
94 variable that influences behavior (Carrol et al., 1982; Picard et al., 2015). Arousal theory holds  
95 that a specific environment will stimulate individuals' perceptions and make them aroused, thus  
96 affecting their behavior (Loewen and Suedfeld, 1992).

97         Tourist experiences represent a special process in which people perceive pleasure  
98 (Vandenbosch and Dawar, 2002). This process is relaxing, changeable, experienced, and real  
99 psychological pleasure sensed by tourists in the process of watching, communicating, imitating  
100 and so on (Agapito et al., 2013). Xie and Peng (2006) suggested that the ultimate purpose of  
101 tourist experiences is to seek happiness or pleasure and its basic level of expression is in  
102 emotions. The surrounding environment often plays a subtle role in influencing these emotions  
103 and behaviors. The essence of tourist experiences may result from the interaction among tourism  
104 environmental stimuli and tourists' emotions and behavior. Thus, this research adopted arousal  
105 theory to explore the relationship between tourism environmental stimuli and tourist experiences.  
106 Individuals have varying preferences for complex environments. This affects the degree to which  
107 people respond physically and psychologically, as well as how much influence there is on  
108 emotions and behavioral changes. Therefore, arousal levels play an important role in individual  
109 emotional and behavioral changes (Wirtz et al., 2000). Due to the variety of individual  
110 preferences, the degrees of individual arousal are different. People who are well-planned or goal-  
111 oriented, will first experience low-level pleasure; those who pay more attention to the current  
112 situation and lack goals, experience high-level arousal pleasure first (Kerr & Tacon, 1999). On  
113 the basis of this theoretical model, this research constructed a conceptual framework and  
114 evaluation model (Figure 1) of environmental stimuli - arousal level-tourist experience to  
115 measure the antecedent relationships of tourist experiences.

116  
117  
118  
119  
120  
121  
122  
123  
124  
125  
126  
127  
128  
129  
130  
131  
132  
133  
134  
135  
136  
137  
138

[Insert Figure 1 about here]

## 2.2. Conceptual framework and research hypotheses

Experiences are becoming a popular topic in tourism studies (Moon & Han, 2019) and in destination management practice. The research literature mainly focuses on connotations, experience dimensions, satisfaction, motivation, preferences, and behavior based on a multiplicity of approaches from phenomenology, psychology, anthropology, management, and economics (Russell and Lanius, 1984; Radic, 2019; Ritchie et al., 2011; White, 2005;).

Tourist experiences are a special process in which people feel or do not feel pleasure, through relaxation, change and real psychological perception, in the process of admiration, communication, and imitation (Rojas and Camarero, 2008). They are also considered to be a general impression of something cognitive and perceptible, produced by a variety of sensory stimuli in a particular tourism situation (Chhetri et al., 2004). The tourist experience process is assumed to be complex. It can be measured by experience intensity, perceived coupling, emotional factors, and tourist diversity. Tourists absorb local experiences and overall experiences of destinations through perception, involving visual, auditory, tactile, olfactory, and taste. So, perceptions, emotions, cognitions, physiology, and relationships also can be used to measure the tourist experience (Uriely, 2005). Kastenholz et al. (2012) have shown that tourist experiences are not only functional or have utility, but also include social, emotional, entertaining, and symbolic dimensions. Compared with other places, tourist experiences within smart tourism destinations can be more comprehensive and consist of multi-functional, smart service, and new interactive experiences (Buonincontri & Micera, 2016). Scholars have not yet established any concrete tourist experience scales for smart destinations (Xu et al., 2018). In fact and in general, the dimensions of tourist experience vary from one study to another (Vespestad &

139 Lindberg, 2011; Filep & Laing, 2018). Considering the specific characteristics of smart tourism  
140 destinations, this research proposed the five dimensions of functional, perceptual, entertainment,  
141 interactive, and emotional experiences as the observed factors.

142 In the 1970s, the analysis emerged of the influential factors in creating tourist  
143 experiences. Ryan (2008) suggested that these factors should be divided into previous  
144 experience, mediator variables, behavior, and results. This implies that experience quality is  
145 impacted by tourists themselves, residents, practitioners, tourism products, and all other related  
146 factors. For example, tourists' relative knowledge and the group to which they belong have been  
147 proven to be significant factors (Kim, 2010). Furthermore, the environment, activities,  
148 infrastructure, and level of service have an impact on experiences (Loureiro, 2014; Teixeira et  
149 al., 2012).

150 Some scholars have noted that the environment is one of the most important indicators  
151 affecting tourist experiences (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009; Volo, 2009). People try to acquire the  
152 necessary details on environments to reduce the uncertainty that they feel when they are  
153 stimulated by destination information. They adjust their emotions correspondingly, which greatly  
154 affects their experiences (Gnoth, 1997). For example, according to the theory of staged  
155 authenticity (Ryan, 1997), tourism spaces and staging (Rojas and Camarero, 2008) play an  
156 important role in influencing experiences.

### 157 *2.2.1. Relationships between tourism environment stimuli and tourist experiences*

158 Environmental stimuli are external environmental factors that may affect and change  
159 tourist experiences in different ways (Ali & Amin, 2014). Generally, these can be divided into  
160 two types: physical and psychological environmental stimuli. Arousal theory proposes that the  
161 tourist experience can be evaluated from the physical elements of the environment, the

162 performance of the people around us, and the information on our internal state through  
163 answering whether the arousal is pleasant or unpleasant (Sundstrom et al., 1996).

164         This research used three dimensions to measure physical environmental stimuli: object,  
165 human, and natural. Object environmental stimuli is the stimulation on tourists generated by the  
166 smart facilities in destinations. Too many or too few people around us can cause psychological  
167 anxiety (Wohlwill, 1966), so the extent of crowds and people's behavior surrounding smart  
168 facilities is a human environmental stimuli. Natural environmental stimuli are the influence of  
169 natural resources in smart destinations, such as plants, landscapes, and scenery (Zhang et al.,  
170 2012).

171         Smart destinations should gather information about tourists' needs and preferences  
172 through their technological platforms. With this approach, active engagement between tourists  
173 and service providers is encouraged to continuously offer innovations in products that best suit  
174 tourist preferences (Schaffers et al., 2011). According to arousal theory, pleasant environmental  
175 stimuli raise arousal levels and provide more pleasure for individuals.

176         Tourist experiences are considered to be principally psychological (Ritchie et al., 2011).  
177 Therefore, instinct motivation, part of the psychological environment, is also an important  
178 determinant of all tourist experience factors (Iso-Ahola, 1981). Instinct motivation is when an  
179 individual wants to engage in activities to experience pleasure and satisfaction (Deci & Ryan,  
180 2008). Personal demands, interests, and emotions are significant factors influencing intrinsic  
181 motivation, which refers to curiosity, interest in activities, enjoyment, and individual growth.  
182 Gnoth (1997) found that tourist motivation depended on satisfaction with products and services,  
183 including in relation to their thirst for knowledge and curiosity. Tourists with a high interest in  
184 the smart products, facilities and services of smart destinations have more desire for knowledge



185 exploration (Bion,1963). As a type of instinct motivation, the essence of curiosity is to seek  
186 excitement, while the expression of curiosity is that individuals take the initiative to explore the  
187 environment (Berlyne, 1960).

188 Instinct motivation is often accompanied by a positive emotional experience (Fanselow,  
189 2018). People who are stimulated by instinct motivation will more readily have enjoyable  
190 feelings. So, if tourists are very interested in exploring and are continuously curious, they will  
191 tend to make greater effort to explore and be fascinated by the environment.

192 Chhetri et al. (2014) concluded that tourist experiences were influenced by attitudes  
193 based on the social cognitions of visitors. Attitude is defined as a consumer's evaluative  
194 inclinations toward or against any element in his or her market domain (Rahman &Reynolds,  
195 2019). Attitudes have the function of cognition; to understand the world, humans must know and  
196 try to control the world around them, giving their behavior a clear direction. Therefore, people  
197 need to attach a significance to all objects surrounding them through forming attitudes (Giddy &  
198 Webb, 2018). When tourists are content with the overall environment, they are likely to have a  
199 positive attitude toward destinations and intend to revisit them (Loureiro, 2014). Favorable  
200 attitudes toward a destination are related to perceptions of experience quality and value (Moon &  
201 Han, 2019). So, if people have more positive attitudes about a smart destination, they may be  
202 more willing to use the smart facilities and more inclined to have in-depth participation in  
203 tourism activities, even if the activities require greater effort. Tourists judge their experiences to  
204 be more meaningful and satisfactory when they are engaged in the process of traveling. Thus this  
205 research hypothesizes that each variable in the environment has a positive effect on tourist  
206 experiences and the hypotheses were as follows:

207 H<sub>1</sub>: Physical environmental stimuli positively influence tourist experiences.

208 H<sub>2</sub>: Intrinsic motivation stimuli positively influence tourist experiences.

209 H<sub>3</sub>: Attitude stimuli positively influence tourist experiences.

### 210 2.2.2. Relationships between environmental stimuli and arousal levels

211 Arousal is a state of individual vigilance, whether or not the person is ready to react to a  
212 psychological and physiological stimulus. When the environment is calm, it is less stimulating,  
213 and people are in a relaxed rather than alert state. People do not readily respond, and so they are  
214 not arousable. As a result, a calm environment is pleasant but not arousable. Motivation-arousal  
215 theory suggests that people have optimal arousal levels; they reduce stimulation when there is  
216 excessive arousal and increase stimulation when there is insufficient arousal (Caber & Albayrak,  
217 2016).

218 The feelings of stimulation in a novel environment are developed with the repetition and  
219 duration of the stimuli. The more the stimuli are repeated and the longer the time, the novelty of  
220 the perceived image will gradually decrease. In addition, the theory indicates that experienced  
221 individuals prefer stimulation in complex environments, and people always tend to give positive  
222 evaluations of moderate levels of arousal (Berlyne, 1960). The smart systems in destinations not  
223 only provide dynamic services, but also can be a platform for sharing travel experiences. As  
224 such, the systems can capture the real demands and preferences of tourists through collecting  
225 data on platforms (Tan, 2017). Then, according to the actual feedback from tourists, the physical  
226 environments may be adjusted and constantly changed. This decreases repetition and prolongs  
227 stimuli, creating the optimal stimulus environment. It is believed that the environments in smart  
228 tourism destinations are complex and novel, but do not have excessive stimuli for tourists. The  
229 hypothesis was as follows:

230 H<sub>4</sub>: Physical environmental stimuli positively influence arousal levels.

231 Arousal is derived from motivation and it is the external reflection of the motivation  
232 system (Caber, Albayrak, & Ünal, 2016). Arousal level depends on the activation intensity of  
233 motivation in the activation system (Bradley et al., 2001). The assessment of arousal indicates  
234 the activation intensity of motivation (Bradley & Lang, 2007). Stimulation with high motivation  
235 intensity generally induces higher arousal levels, while stimulation with low motivation intensity  
236 induces lower arousal levels (Datu, 2017). When people are in comfortable and favorable  
237 environments, their intrinsic motivations are activated and they develop higher motivation levels,  
238 and arousal levels are also elevated. The hypothesis was as follows:

239 H<sub>5</sub>: Intrinsic motivation stimuli positively influence arousal levels.

240 As suggested in past research, people have desired levels of arousal associated with  
241 service environments. These arousal levels are dependent on the people's affective expectations  
242 for the environment. It is believed that humans are intrinsically pleasure seeking (Holbrook &  
243 Hirschman, 1982) and they want to feel pleasure (rather than displeasure) from service  
244 experiences (Carbone & Haeckel, 1994). Therefore, it is proposed that affective expectations are  
245 determined by attitudes toward environments. For example, if tourists have positive pre-  
246 consumption expectations for smart tourism destinations, where they perceive their individual  
247 needs will be met (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2013), they are likely to have positive attitudes  
248 toward these destinations leading to higher arousal levels. The hypothesis was as follows:

249 H<sub>6</sub>: Attitude stimuli positively influence tourist arousal levels.

### 250 *2.2.3. Arousal levels and tourist experiences*

251 American psychologist Arnold (1960) believes that once stimuli are perceived,  
252 individuals will automatically generate an "evaluation of whether it is good or bad for me at this  
253 time," which in turn produces an emotional feeling about the relationship between stimuli and

254 their own interests. They exhibit behaviors that approach or diverge from the stimuli. How then  
255 do environmental stimuli affect tourist experiences?

256           According to arousal theory, arousal levels are important to performance. Arousal is a  
257 dynamic process, which describes the degrees to which individuals' emotional states are  
258 activated by their surrounding environments. Arousal states significantly influence subsequent  
259 behaviors. Different levels of arousal affect physical activation and have an impact on people's  
260 judgment and behavior. Negative arousal directly leads to negative strategic tourist behaviors.  
261 The ranges of individual preference levels for complex environments cause differences in arousal  
262 levels from environments. Individuals psychologically or physiologically increase or reduce the  
263 degree of response, which in turn affects their emotional and behavioral changes. Tourists are  
264 affected by their emotions, intelligence and participation levels. Stefanucci & Storbeck (2009)  
265 pointed out that arousal has mediating effects on individual perceptions. When tourists immerse  
266 themselves in the activities of destinations (medium arousal level), they are more likely to have  
267 unforgettable travel experiences. Thus, there is a need for a new mediating variable, arousal  
268 level, to understand the interplay between environmental stimuli and tourist experiences. The  
269 hypotheses were as follows:

270           H<sub>7</sub>: Arousal levels positively influence tourist experiences.

271           H<sub>8</sub>: Arousal levels mediate the relationship between environmental stimuli and tourist  
272           experiences.

### 273 **3. Methods**

#### 274 *3.1. Data collection procedures*

275           Questionnaires were distributed during the Lunar New Year holidays since many people  
276 travel with their relatives and friends at that time and it can yield a broader representation of

277 gender, age, occupation, and other demographic characteristics. The forms were distributed near  
278 the information-sharing service platform (ISSP) at the Fortress and were randomly handed out to  
279 respondents who used the ISSP. Respondents completed the questionnaires and then handed  
280 them back directly to the fieldwork team. So, the sample collected was a convenience one. Under  
281 the observation of field workers, some of the respondents filled in forms too quickly and in a  
282 perfunctory way; after checking, their completed questionnaires were withdrawn. Other forms  
283 which showed a distinct tendency in completion (eight consecutive items marked in the same  
284 way) were also deleted.

285         Hu Li Shan Fortress is located in Siming District, Xiamen. Xiamen was selected among  
286 the first batch of *National Smart Tourism Pilot Cities* in China. Taking Hu Li Shan Fortress as a  
287 pilot unit for exploring the construction of smart tourism destinations, Xiamen was striving to  
288 formulate the *Smart Hu Li Shan Fortress Construction Plan* and built Hu Li Shan Fortress as a  
289 model project of national smart tourism destinations. Hu Li Shan Fortress was founded in 1896,  
290 with a total area of more than 70,000 m<sup>2</sup> and its castle covers an area of 13,000 m<sup>2</sup>. It's a  
291 national AAAA tourist attraction. Hu Li Shan Fortress is surrounded by the sea on three sides  
292 and has unique natural tourism resources. The architectural style reflects the Ming and Qing  
293 dynasties. Its smart tourism system includes free WiFi, self-service audio-guides, information  
294 sharing service platforms (ISSP), and other facilities providing convenient services to tourists.  
295 Beautiful natural vistas, unique historical and cultural characteristics, and a convenient smart  
296 destination service system attract millions of domestic and international tourists every year.

297         Hu Li Shan Fortress is a typical demonstration area of smart tourism in Fujian  
298 Province, so Hu Li Shan Fortress was selected as a case study. This research chose the  
299 information sharing service platform (ISSP) as the object of investigation in order to support the

300 theoretical framework. The ISSP provides standard and consistent business process and data  
301 access interface for destination service applications and public service systems. Tourists can get  
302 information about scenic spots, tour routes, beautiful four-season photos, sightseeing places, and  
303 catering services around them. In addition, the way of displaying information on the ISSP is not  
304 only in text and photos, but there are also audio and video files. The ISSP delivers more  
305 convenient travel services and experiences for tourists. There are two ISSPs in the Hu Li Shan  
306 Fortress; one is located at the roadside near the entrance gate, and the other is in front of the  
307 washrooms where there is a resting area. Some use the ISSP when they need help; others may  
308 just notice the ISSP when they are taking a break. People use the ISSP mainly by selecting and  
309 viewing the contents on the display touchscreen. When first viewing the ISSP, tourists explore its  
310 main functions and subsequently pick the information they want to peruse. Tourists who are  
311 familiar with smart destinations prefer to thoroughly understand its offerings through using  
312 ISSPs. Younger children and teenagers may use the ISSP for entertainment, casually clicking the  
313 display screen. Middle-aged and older people seemed more reluctant to use ISSP, but they  
314 clicked and watched videos onscreen when the researchers invited them to do so. Therefore, the  
315 ISSP was chosen as an example for field investigation. Table 1 describes the variable selection as  
316 they related to using the ISSP.

317 [Insert Table 1 about here]

318 The survey was conducted from December 30, 2018 to January 1, 2019 at Hu Li Shan  
319 Fortress. A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed and 400 were returned. Of the completed  
320 forms, 372 were valid and the valid response rate was 93%. Forty-nine children with their  
321 parents' consent and help were surveyed.

### 322 *3.2. Measurement development*

323 The survey questionnaire used five-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree; 5 =  
324 strongly agree) and was organized into two parts. The first included the five measurement items  
325 of physical stimuli, intrinsic motivation, attitude stimuli, arousal level, and tourist experiences.  
326 The second part collected respondents' demographic information including gender, age, income,  
327 educational level, occupation, and visit times. A copy of the questionnaire is included in an  
328 appendix.

## 329 **Results**

### 330 *4.1. Respondent profile*

331 SPSS 22.0 was used to prepare the descriptive statistics and the respondent profile is  
332 displayed in Table 2. The proportion of males and females in the sample was balanced; 54.3%  
333 were male and 45.7% were female. The majority of the respondents were in their twenties or  
334 thirties, showing a normal distribution overall. More than half had a college degree or higher  
335 education. Some 41.4% responded that their annual incomes were more than 30,000 yuan  
336 (\$4,360). More than one third were students, 16.7% were white-collar workers, and the other  
337 respondents were freelancers, teachers, civil servants, or in other occupations. Most (66.9%)  
338 responded it was the first time they had visited Hu Li Shan Fortress.

339 [Insert Table 2 about here]

### 340 *4.2. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA): Reliability and validity*

341 The appraisal of construct validity was accomplished through confirmatory factor  
342 analysis (CFA) conducted after an exploratory factor analysis. For the exploratory factor  
343 analysis, principal components analyses with a Varimax rotation identified an interpretable  
344 solution of five factors from the 16 items (Table 1): physical stimuli, intrinsic motivation,  
345 attitude stimuli, arousal level, and tourist experiences. Physical stimuli included object, natural

346 environment, and human stimuli. Intrinsic motivation was formed by thirst for knowledge,  
347 curiosity, and interest. Attitude stimuli comprised attitude, emotion, and willingness. Arousal  
348 level just had one item, and this factor was the observation variable. Five items constituted  
349 tourist experiences: sense, functional, emotional, enjoyable, and social experiences. The factor  
350 loadings of the measurement items were all satisfactory, ranging from 0.505 to 0.769 (Kaiser-  
351 Meyer-Olkin = 0.865,  $\chi^2 = 1578.427$ ,  $df = 120$ ,  $p < 0.000$ ). Therefore, the validity of the survey  
352 questionnaire items was satisfactory. Cronbach's alpha tests were employed to check reliability,  
353 and the range was acceptable at from 0.600 to 0.801. In addition, the normality of the data was  
354 acceptable as the values of skewness and kurtosis were within the range of  $\pm 2$  and  $\pm 5$   
355 respectively (Bentler, 2006). The normality distribution tests showed that absolute skewness  
356 values of each observation variable were less than two and the absolute kurtosis value were less  
357 than five. So, the test results indicated that the data were normally distributed.

358 CFA was conducted on the observed and latent variables, and reliability and validity were  
359 tested. Two items with factor loadings less than 0.5 were eliminated (*The location of ISSP is*  
360 *conspicuous* and *You are interested in ISSP*). CFA and SEM were used to test the conceptual  
361 model. CFA was carried out using the maximum likelihood method and the results are presented  
362 in Table 3 (Lu et al., 2017; Moon & Han, 2019). The model showed a good fit to the data ( $\chi^2/df$   
363 = 1.842 ( $< 3$ ), RMSEA = 0.048 ( $\leq 0.08$ ), CFI = 0.958 ( $> 0.9$ ), TLI = 0.943 ( $> 0.9$ ), RMR =  
364 0.032 ( $< 0.05$ ), GFI = 0.955 ( $> 0.9$ ), AGFI = 0.930 ( $> 0.9$ ). The factor loadings of all the  
365 measurement items were satisfactory, exceeding the threshold of 0.5 at the significance level of  $p$   
366  $< 0.001$ . The construct reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted (AVE) were also  
367 computed for the latent constructs. The CR of the four latent variables (physical stimuli, intrinsic  
368 motivation, attitude stimuli, and tourist experiences) were 0.68, 0.56, 0.67, and 0.80 respectively.



369 The CR of the latent variables surpassed the suggested threshold of 0.6 except for intrinsic  
370 motivation. The AVEs ranged between 0.40 and 0.45. Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that  
371 an acceptable AVE is between 0.36 and 0.5, and ideally AVE values should be higher than 0.5.  
372 Therefore, all constructs of the model had acceptable convergent validity. Discriminant validity  
373 was checked and compared with the squared root of AVE and correlations. As the values of the  
374 squared root of AVE were all larger than the correlations, discriminant validity was acceptable.

[Insert Table 3 about here]

375  
376

### 377 *4.3. Structural equation model (SEM) and hypotheses tests*

#### 378 *4.3.1. Model fit and modification*

379 The fit of the research model was tested with AMOS 22.0 software. The results indicated  
380 that the suggested model did not fit the data,  $\chi^2/df = 3.089 (> 3)$ , RMSEA = 0.075 ( $\leq 0.08$ ), CFI  
381 = 0.890 ( $< 0.9$ ), TLI = 0.859 ( $< 0.9$ ), RMR = 0.083 ( $> 0.05$ ), GFI = 0.921 ( $> 0.9$ ), AGFI = 0.883  
382 ( $< 0.9$ ), and thus the model had to be modified. Allowable model modification generally includes  
383 two approaches; one is increasing the fit of the model by increasing the path with the highest  
384 modification index (usually MI  $> 4$  is meaningful for model updating). If the chi-square value  
385 decreases significantly after the path increases when compared with the original model, it shows  
386 that the updated model is meaningful. The other approach is to delete or restrict some paths. If  
387 the simplified model shows that the chi-square value of the model does not increase significantly,  
388 the deletion of the path is feasible.

#### 389 *4.3.2. First model modification*

390 The path analysis results showed that the modification index (MI) of physical stimuli for  
391 attitude stimuli was 31.256 (greater than 4); so, the path of physical stimuli and attitude stimuli  
392 was increased. In the modified model, the chi-square decreased significantly; both  $\chi^2/df$  (2.604),  
393 RMR (0.062) and RMSEA (0.066) were lower than before. The CFI (0.917), GFI (0.937), and

394 AGFI (0.905) were all higher than 0.9; however, TLI was lower than 0.9. Therefore, the model  
395 still needed to be further modified.

### 396 *4.3.3. Second model modification*

397 The path analysis results showed the modification index (MI) of physical stimuli for  
398 intrinsic motivation was 22.056 (greater than 4) and the path of physical stimuli for intrinsic  
399 motivation was increased. The chi-square decreased significantly. The model fit indices indicated  
400 that the suggested model fitted the data, ( $\chi^2/df = 2.259 (< 3)$ ), RMSEA = 0.058( $\leq 0.08$ ), CFI =  
401 0.936 ( $> 0.9$ ), TLI = 0.915 ( $> 0.9$ ), RMR = 0.038 ( $< 0.05$ ), GFI = 0.944 ( $> 0.9$ ), AGFI = 0.914  
402 ( $> 0.9$ ). Thus, the model modification was reasonable.

### 403 *4.4. Hypotheses testing*

404 SEM was used to test the proposed structural model (Figure 2). The results are shown in  
405 Table 4 and the estimated factor loadings and path coefficients are indicated in Figure 2. Physical  
406 stimuli ( $\beta = 0.25$ ,  $t = 2.829$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), intrinsic motivation ( $\beta = 0.23$ ,  $t = 2.787$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and  
407 attitude stimuli ( $\beta = 0.29$ ,  $t = 3.585$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) had positive effects on tourist experiences, which  
408 supported H<sub>1</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, and H<sub>3</sub>. Physical stimuli ( $\beta = 0.20$ ,  $t = 2.343$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), intrinsic motivation ( $\beta$   
409 = 0.31,  $t = 3.839$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), and attitude stimuli ( $\beta = 0.23$ ,  $t = 3.119$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) were all  
410 significant influences on arousal levels. This supported H<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>5</sub>, and H<sub>6</sub>. H<sub>7</sub> was also supported,  
411 showing that arousal level was a significant influence factor for tourist experiences.

412 [Insert Figure 2 about here]

413 [Insert Table 4 about here]

414  
415

### 416 *4.5. Mediation effect of arousal level*

417 Does arousal level play a mediation role between environmental stimuli and tourist  
418 experiences? There are three main methods available to test the mediation effect; one was

419 suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) and is named the causality regression method, and the  
420 others represent a method based on the distribution of the product of two normal random  
421 variables and resampling methods. In recent years, many scholars queried the causality  
422 regression method. MacKinnon (2002) used a simulation study to evaluate two alternatives  
423 (distribution of the product of two normal random variables and resampling methods) and the  
424 study demonstrated that more accurate confidence limits are obtained using resampling methods,  
425 with the bias-corrected bootstrap the best method overall. The resampling methods are better, as  
426 suggested by Efron (1979), and include the nonparametric and parametric bootstrap methods.  
427 The most commonly adopted method is the nonparametric bootstrap method, which uses uniform  
428 sampling with replacement. Repeated sampling with replacement is carried out under the  
429 condition that the probability of each observation until being sampled is equal (all of them are  
430  $1/n$ ). The nonparametric bootstrap method was used, and the results are presented in Table 5.  
431 Physical stimuli (estimate = 0.307,  $p < 0.001$ ), intrinsic motivation (estimate = 0.090,  $p < 0.05$ ),  
432 and attitude stimuli (estimate = 0.055,  $p < 0.05$ ) indirectly influenced tourist experiences through  
433 arousal levels.

434         According to Taylor et al. (2008), the z value should be higher than 1.96. Additionally, at  
435 the 95% confidence level, the confidence intervals of the bias-corrected percentile method and  
436 percentile method for indirect effects do not contain 0 and this means that the effect is  
437 significant. Baron & Kenny (1986) defined the partial mediation effect as if: (1) Independent  
438 variables significantly influence dependent variables; (2) in the causal variable model,  
439 independent variables significantly influence mediator variables, mediator variables significantly  
440 influence outcome variables; and (3) independent variables significantly influence dependent  
441 variables after adding mediator variables, then there is a partial mediation effect. If the

442 independent variables have no obvious influence on dependent variables after adding mediator  
443 variables, then there is a complete mediation effect (Judd and Kenny, 1981). The results of the  
444 bootstrapping test are presented in Table 5. The z value of the estimated indirect effect of  
445 physical stimuli on tourist experiences was 3.987. The confidence intervals for the bias-corrected  
446 percentile and percentile methods for indirect effects did not contain 0, indicating that the  
447 indirect effect of physical stimuli, arousal level and tourist experience was significant. Because  
448 the physical stimuli had a significant effect on tourist experiences, arousal level played a partial  
449 mediation role between physical stimuli and tourist experiences. Similarly, arousal levels played  
450 a partial mediation role between attitude stimuli (estimate = 0.055,  $p < 0.05$ ) and tourist  
451 experiences. Attitude stimuli (estimate = 0.090,  $p < 0.01$ ) indirectly influenced tourist  
452 experiences through arousal levels. But the direct effect of intrinsic motivation ( $z = 1.872 < 1.96$ )  
453 on tourist experiences was not significant, so arousal level played a complete mediation role  
454 between intrinsic motivation and tourist experiences. Therefore,  $H_8$  that arousal levels play a  
455 mediation role between environmental stimulus was supported.

456 [Insert Table 5 about here]

## 457 **5. Conclusions, discussion, and implications**

### 458 *5.1. Conclusions*

459 The relationships among environmental stimuli, arousal levels, and tourist experiences  
460 were analyzed within a smart tourism destination. The results suggested that environmental  
461 stimuli including physical stimuli, intrinsic motivation, and attitude stimuli are antecedents of  
462 tourist experiences. Additionally, the mediating role of arousal levels cannot be ignored.

463 Environmental stimuli had a positive influence on tourist experiences. Specifically,  
464 physical stimuli, intrinsic motivation, and attitude stimuli had positive effects on tourist

465 experiences. The effect values of attitude stimuli were higher than for intrinsic motivation and  
466 physical stimuli. After tourists are stimulated by the environment (facilities, equipment, and the  
467 natural resources) in a smart tourism destination, their experiences are positively affected.

468         Intrinsic motivation also had a positive effect on tourist experiences. With more intensive  
469 sightseeing and increases in visit duration, tourists are influenced by real or perceived stimuli  
470 within smart tourism destinations. For example, increasing curiosity about the facilities,  
471 equipment, and natural environment, or increasing desires for information about services  
472 available and the history of the destination, make tourists more stimulated and this increases  
473 positive tourist experiences.

474         Attitude stimuli had a positive influence on tourist experiences. Tourist perceptions may  
475 constantly change in the process of touring a smart destination. A series of favorable evaluations  
476 of smart tourism destinations result from attitude stimuli which influence tourist experiences.

477         Environmental stimuli had a positive influence on arousal levels and the environment  
478 stimuli were not excessive. Intrinsic motivation was the most influential factor affecting arousal  
479 levels. Whether tourists are willing to encounter all types of new things in the process of touring  
480 depends on their intrinsic curiosity with respect to the smart tourism destination. The more  
481 willing they are to explore, the more environmental stimuli they will receive. With constant  
482 changes in these stimuli, arousal levels are accentuated.

483         Arousal levels affected tourist experiences. This research demonstrated that arousal levels  
484 have a positive effect on tourist experiences. The level of arousal is an important factor affecting  
485 tourist experiences. Arousal level is a mediating variable between environmental stimuli and  
486 tourist experiences. Arousal levels play a complete mediation role between intrinsic motivation  
487 and tourist experiences, while they perform a partial mediation role between physical stimuli,

488 attitude stimuli, and tourist experiences. The novel environments of smart tourism destinations  
489 and the psychological environment of tourists stimulate tourists' cognition and they are aroused,  
490 thus affecting their experiences.

## 491 *5.2. Discussion*

492 The environment at destinations or attractions is considered to be one of the most critical factors  
493 affecting tourist experiences and previous research has confirmed that it has an effect on tourist  
494 experiences (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009; Volo, 2009). Generally, in past studies, this environment  
495 is defined as the physical environment, including infrastructure and landscapes (Loureiro, 2014;  
496 Teixeira et al., 2012). Tourists' prior knowledge, the groups to which they belong, and emotions  
497 also are significant factors (Kim, 2010). However, so far scholars have not paid adequate  
498 attention to these factors, which belong to the psychological environment. This research had the  
499 goal of testing the main factors influencing tourist experiences in a smart destination from the  
500 perspective of a more complete set of environmental factors, including physical and  
501 psychological. The results indicated that environmental stimuli, involving the three major  
502 dimensions of physical, intrinsic motivation, and attitudes affected experiences. Attitude stimuli  
503 and intrinsic motivation, both belonging to psychological stimuli, were the main factors affecting  
504 arousal levels and tourist experiences.

505 How do smart environments influence tourist experiences with the support of technology?  
506 Arousal theory holds that a specific environment stimulates people's mental processing and  
507 makes them aroused, thus affecting their behavior (Loewen and Suedfeld, 1992). This research  
508 put forward arousal as a mediating effect in understanding the interplay between environmental  
509 stimuli and tourist experiences using arousal theory (Stefanucci & Storbeck ,2009). The results  
510 indicated that the novel environments of smart tourism destinations and the psychological  
511 environments of tourists stimulate people's perceptions and they are aroused, thus affecting their  
512 experiences. Arousal levels had a positive effect on tourist experiences. Environmental stimuli  
513 not only had direct effects on tourist experiences, but also had a significant effect on arousal  
514 levels. Intrinsic motivation was the key factor in influencing arousal levels.

### 515 *5.3. Theoretical implications*

516 This research has several meaningful implications for tourist experience research. First,  
517 although environmental stimuli and tourist experiences have long been studied in tourism, the  
518 interrelationships between these two constructs have not been exhaustively examined. These  
519 relationships were investigated based on arousal theory. It was proposed that environmental  
520 stimuli had a significant effect on tourist experiences. Furthermore, the research posited that the  
521 psychological environment, including attitudes and intrinsic motivation, was also a significant  
522 stimulus affecting tourist experiences, which expands the scope of research on environmental  
523 stimuli. Consequently, the findings are of significance to theoretical research in exploring the  
524 antecedents of tourist experiences.

525 In addition, this investigation attempted to understand how each facet of environmental  
526 stimuli (physical, intrinsic motivation, and attitudes) influenced tourist experiences. Within smart  
527 tourism destinations, people are exposed to different and unique physical environments as well  
528 as novel social and natural environments. Their experiences are formed via the process of

529 internalizing interactions and creating responses (Moon and Han, 2019). This research  
530 introduced arousal theory to explain this phenomenon. Environmental stimuli affected tourist  
531 experiences through arousal levels. If people consider the environment in a smart tourism  
532 destination to be more convenient and intellectually fulfilling than other places they have visited  
533 before, their arousal levels will be positively strengthened after stimulation. Similarly, individual  
534 tourists have their own preferences. Those who prefer smart tools and service will have higher  
535 positive arousal levels when they are stimulated by the environment. This suggests that people in  
536 novel, dynamic environments are inclined to have more positive arousal levels.

537         Arousal theory is often used to represent the relationship between environments and  
538 individual psychology in the field of environmental aesthetics and environmental psychology.  
539 This research introduced the theory into tourism research and expanded the range of its  
540 application. The results showed that tourist experiences can be modified by arousal levels and  
541 explains how the same stimuli can generate different tourist experiences.

#### 542 *5.4. Practical implications*

543         This analysis also has several meaningful implications for smart tourism destinations.  
544 Smart tourism began in China in recent years. It is concluded that smart tourism facilities and  
545 services can increase feelings of aesthetic emotions and create pleasant experiences. If the  
546 stimuli are not excessive or insufficient, environmental stimuli at an optimal level will lead to  
547 pleasant experiences. Thus, the key concern for smart tourism is how to generate an optimal  
548 environment. The needs and requirements of tourists should be the first consideration, rather than  
549 building as many facilities and other contents as possible. For example, people want to be given  
550 introductions on the history, routes and itineraries, weather, and on the destination. This  
551 information should be provided in a simple way that can incorporate some humor, and not be



552 overly complicated. Second, destinations must pay attention to the location of smart facilities.  
553 such as having them in places which are visible and easy to find, as well as being in pleasant  
554 surroundings. This encourages instinct motivation to engage with smart activities and people are  
555 more likely to acquire optimal arousal levels. Third, the findings of this study showed that  
556 increasing curiosity encouraged intrinsic motivations and improved people's psychological  
557 environments, which had a positive effect on experiences. As such, it is advisable for smart  
558 destinations to continually vary and update their smart product offers. Outdated facilities and  
559 systems should be replaced, including products that create adverse impacts on the environment.  
560 Novelty is an antecedent of arousal (Kim, 2010; Ma et al, 2017; Mitas & Bastiaansen, 2018), so  
561 providing novel and easily navigable environments for tourists is essential. Intelligent means  
562 need to be developed to enhance tourists' desire for understanding the cultural contents of  
563 heritage attractions. For example, the history and culture of destinations can be displayed on  
564 ISSPs in the form of stories or games encouraging people to be actively engaged and participate,  
565 thereby enhancing the desire for greater understanding of historical and cultural information and  
566 enhancing experiences.

## 567 **6. Limitations and future research needs**

### 568 *6.1. Limitations*

569 Although this research offers useful findings with regard to smart tourism destinations,  
570 there are still several limitations. To capture the effects of environmental factors on tourist  
571 experiences, people were selected who used the information sharing service platform (ISSP). The  
572 two ISSPs are located in areas that are busy and crowded, this might have influenced people's  
573 perceptions of the destination and experiences.

574 This research proposed that arousal level was a mediator between environmental stimuli

575 and tourist experiences. Arousal levels were measured through the completion of survey  
576 questionnaires; however, arousal levels are a continuously changing process of physical and  
577 psychological status. Sometimes, they cannot be described accurately in words ,which may have  
578 affected their mediating effect in either a positive or negative way.

579 Individual optimal arousal levels vary with differences among tourists. even when being  
580 stimulated by a similar environment. For instance, educational background and age may exert  
581 and influence, and this research did not classify people according to their socio-demographic  
582 characteristics.

583 Finally, the respondents included in this survey represented a convenience sample with  
584 all the attendant limitations of non-representativeness. The results may also not be generalizable  
585 to other smart tourism destinations.

## 586 *6.2. Suggestions for future research*

587 The emergence of smart environments will redefine how customers navigate their  
588 experiences (Buhalis, 2019). With greater popularization of smart tourism destinations, the core  
589 components of smartness in physical environments will be extended, and more tourists will have  
590 experiences with smart tourism. Future research should explore other dimensions of physical and  
591 psychosocial environments. For example, people’s previous experiences with smart destination  
592 can be included as a main factor of the psychosocial environment.

593 Questionnaires were used to measure arousal levels in this research. Brainwave tests  
594 could be carried out, and these have been widely used in psychological studies. However, the  
595 environments of tourism destinations are so complex that it will be a challenge to build  
596 experimental laboratory simulations.

597 This research found that optimal environmental stimuli positively influence tourist

598 experiences. However, how to maintain an optimal environmental stimulus in smart tourism  
599 destinations remains a gap in the tourism literature that needs to be addressed.

## 600 **References**

601 Arnold, M. B. (1960). *Emotion and personality*. New York, NY: Columbia University Press.

602 Amato, P. R., & McInnes, I. R. (1983). Affiliative behavior in diverse environments: A  
603 consideration of pleasantness, information rate, and the arousal-eliciting quality of settings.  
604 *Basic and Applied Psychology*, 4(2),109-122.

605 Agapito, D., Mendes, J., & Valle, P. (2013). Exploring the conceptualization of the sensory  
606 dimension of tourist experiences. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 2(2), 62-  
607 73.

608 Ali, F., & Amin, M. (2014). The influence of physical environment on emotions, customer  
609 satisfaction and behavioural intentions in Chinese resort hotel industry. *Global Business*,  
610 7(3), 249-266.

611 Angelidou, M. (2015). Smart cities: A conjuncture of four forces. *Cities*, 47, 95-106.

612 Ballantyne, R, Packer J., & Falk, J. (2011). Visitors' learning for environmental sustainability:  
613 Testing short- and long-term impacts of wildlife tourism experiences using structural  
614 equation modelling. *Tourism Management*, 32(6), 1243-1252.

615 Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social  
616 psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of*  
617 *Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.

618 Bakici, T., Almirall, E., & Wareham, J. (2013). A smart city initiative: The case of Barcelona.  
619 *Journal of the Knowledge Economy*, 4(2), 135-148.

620 Berlyne, D. E. (1960). *Conflict, arousal, and curiosity*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

621 Bentler, P. M. (2006). EQS 6 structural equations program manual. Encino, CA: Multivariate  
622 Software.

623 Bradley M. M., Codispoti, M., Cuthbert, B. N., & Lang, P. G. (2001). Emotion and motivation  
624 I: Defensive and appetitive reactions in picture processing. *Emotion, 1*(3), 276-298.

625 Bradley, M. M., & Lang P. G. (2007). *The International Affective Picture System (IAPS) in the*  
626 *study of emotion and attention. Handbook of emotion elicitation and assessment.* New  
627 York, NY: Oxford University Press.

628 Bion, B. W. R. (1963). Elements of psycho-analysis. *Quarterly Review of Biology, 145*(4) 1389.

629 Binkhorst E., & Dekker, T. D. (2009). Agenda for co-creation tourism experience research.  
630 *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 18*(2), 311-327.

631 Boes, K., Buhalis, D., & Inversini, A. (2016). Smart tourism destinations: Ecosystems for  
632 tourism destination competitiveness. *International Journal of Tourism Cities, 2*(2). 108-124.

633 Buhalis, D. (1998). Strategic use of information technologies in the tourism industry. *Tourism*  
634 *Management, 19*(5), 409-421.

635 Buhalis, D., & O'Connor, P. (2005). Information communication technology revolutionizing  
636 Tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research, 30*(3), 7-16.

637 Buhalis, D., Harwood, T., Bogicevic, V., Viglia, G., Beldona, S., & Hofacker, C. (2019).  
638 Technological disruptions in services: Lessons from tourism and hospitality. *Journal of*  
639 *Service Management, 30*(4), 484-506.

640 Buhalis D., & Amaranggana, A. (2013). Smart tourism destinations. In: Xiang Z., Tussyadiah I.  
641 (eds) *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2014*. Springer: Cham.

642 Buonincontri, P., & Micera, R. (2016). The experience co-creation in smart tourism destinations:  
643 A multiple case analysis of European destinations. *Information Technology & Tourism, 16*(3),

644 1-31.

645 Carrol, E. N., Zuckerman, M., & Vogel, W. H. (1982). A test of the optimal level of arousal  
646 theory of sensation seeking. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 42(3), 572-575.

647 Coca-Stefaniak, J. A. (2018). Marketing smart tourism cities – a strategic dilemma. *International*  
648 *Journal of Tourism Cities*, 5(4), 513-518.

649 Cohen, B. (2014). The 10 smartest cities in Europe. Fast Company. Retrieved April 8, 2020.  
650 <https://www.fastcompany.com/3024721/the-10-smartest-cities-in-europe>

651 Carbone, L. P., & Haeckel, S. H. (1994). Engineering customer experiences. *Marketing*  
652 *Management*, 3(3), 8-19.

653 Caber, M., Albayrak, T., & Ünal, C. (2016). Motivation-based segmentation of cruise tourists:  
654 A case study on international cruise tourists visiting Kuşadası, Turkey. *Tourism in Marine*  
655 *Environments*, 11(2), 101-108.

656 Caber, M., & Albayrak, T. (2016). Push or pull? Identifying rock climbing tourists' motivations.  
657 *Tourism Management*, 55(8), 74-84.

658 Chhetri, P., Arrowsmith, C., & Jackson, M. (2004). Determining hiking experiences in nature-  
659 based tourist destinations. *Tourism Management*, 25(1), 31-43.

660 Charters, S., & Ali-Knight, J. (2000). Wine tourism. A thirst for knowledge. *International*  
661 *Journal of Wine Marketing*, 12(3), 70-80.

662 Cui, F., Liu, J., & Li, Q. (1998). Study of the theory and application of tourism bearing capacity  
663 index. *Tourism Tribune*, 13(3), 41-44.

664 Datu, J. A. D. (2017). Peace of mind, academic motivation, and academic achievement in  
665 Filipino high school students. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 20, E22.

666 Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Facilitating optimal motivation and psychological wellbeing

667 across life's domains. *Canadian Psychology*, 49(1), 14–23.

668 Dickinson, J. E., Ghali, K., Cherrett, T., Speed, C., Davies, N., & Norgate, S. (2014). Tourism  
669 and the smartphone app: Capabilities, emerging practice and scope in the travel domain.  
670 *Current Issues in Tourism*, 17(1), 84-101.

671 Efron, B. (1979). Bootstrap methods: Another look at the Jackknife. *Annals of Statistics*, 7(1), 1-  
672 26.

673 Fanselow, M. S. (2018). Emotion, motivation and function. *Current Opinion in Behavioral*  
674 *Sciences*, 19(2), 105-109.

675 Flynn, L. R., & Goldsmith, R. E. (2010). Application of the personal involvement inventory in  
676 marketing. *Psychology & Marketing*, 10(4), 357-366.

677 Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and  
678 measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(3), 1-12.

679 Filep, S., & Laing, J. (2019). Trends and directions in tourism and positive psychology. *Journal*  
680 *of Travel Research*, 58(3), 343-354.

681 Floros, C., Cai, W., McKenna, B., & Ajeeb, D. (2019). Imagine being off-the-grid: millennials'  
682 perceptions of digital-free travel. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, DOI:  
683 [10.1080/09669582.2019.1675676](https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2019.1675676)

684 Garrett, J. J. (2010). Customer loyalty and the elements of user experience. *Design Management*  
685 *Review*, 17(1), 35-39.

686 Gnoth, J. (1997). Tourism motivation and expectation formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*,  
687 24(2), 283-304.

688 Gretzel, U., Sigala, M., Xiang, Z., & Koo, C. (2015). Smart tourism: Foundations and  
689 developments. *Electronic Markets*, 25(3), 179-188.

690 Griffin, J. (1995). *Customer loyalty, how to earn it and how to keep it*. San Francisco, CA:  
691 Jossey-Bass Publishers.

692 Giddy, J. K., & Webb N. L. (2018). Environmental attitudes and adventure tourism motivations.  
693 *GeoJournal*, 83(2), 275-287.

694 Hunter, W. C., Chung, N, Gretzel, U., & Koo, C. (2015). Constructivist research in smart  
695 tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Information Systems*, 25(1), 105-120.

696 Holbrook, M. B., & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption:  
697 Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(2), 132-140.

698 Hollands, R. G. (2008). Will the real smart city please stand up? Intelligent, progressive or  
699 entrepreneurial? *City*, 12(3), 303-320.

700 Hollands, R. G. (2015). Critical interventions into the corporate smart city. *Cambridge Journal of*  
701 *Regions, Economy and Society*, 8(1), 61-77.

702 Ivars-Baidal, J. A., Celdrán-Bernabeu, M. A., Mazón, J., & Perles-Ivars, Á. F. (2019). Smart  
703 destinations and the evolution of ICTs: A new scenario for destination management? *Current*  
704 *Issues in Tourism*, 22(13), 1581-1600.

705 Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1981). Leisure counseling at the crossroads. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 9(3),  
706 71-74.

707 Judd, C. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1981). Process analysis estimating mediation in treatment  
708 evaluations. *Evaluation Review*, 5(5), 602-619.

709 Kagan, J., & Snidman, N. (1991). Temperamental factors in human development. *American*  
710 *Psychologist*, 46(8), 856-862.

711 Kang, H., Jiang, X., & Chow, M. (2006). Study on the behavioral intention toward caring  
712 mechanically ventilated patients among nurses in ICU and non-ICU settings in Chengdu.

713 *Journal of Nurses Training*, 22(1), 7-9.

714 Kastenholz, E., Carneiro, M. J., Marques, C. P., & Lima, J. (2012). Understanding and managing  
715 the rural tourism experience: The case of a historical village in Portugal. *Tourism  
716 Management Perspectives*, 4(10), 207-214.

717 Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1970). The social psychology of organizations. *Administrative Science  
718 Quarterly*, 10(1), 118.

719 Kerr, J. H., & Tacon, P. (1999). Psychological responses to different types of locations and  
720 activities. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 19(3), 348-361.

721 Kim., J.-H. (2010). Determining the factors affecting the memorable nature of travel experiences.  
722 *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27(8), 780-796.

723 Lee, C. S., Hwang, Y. K., & Jang, H. Y. (2018). Moderating effect of growth mindset on the  
724 relationship between attitude toward tourism and meaning in life. *International Journal of  
725 Pure and Applied Mathematics*, 120(6), 5523-5540.

726 Li, J., Pearce, P. L., & Low, D. (2018). Media representation of digital-free tourism: A critical  
727 discourse analysis. *Tourism Management*, 69(12), 317-329.

728 Loewen, L. J., & Suedfeld, P. (1992). Cognitive and arousal effects of masking office noise.  
729 *Environment & Behavior*, 24(3), 381-395.

730 Loureiro, S. M. C. (2014). The role of the rural tourism experience economy in place attachment  
731 and behavioral intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 40(7), 1-9.

732 Lu, D., Liu, Y., Lai, I., & Yang, L. (2017). Awe: An important emotional experience in  
733 sustainable tourism. *Sustainability*, 9(12), 2189.

734 Ma, J., Scott, N., Gao, J., & Ding, P. (2017). Delighted or satisfied? Positive emotional responses  
735 derived from theme park experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 34(1), 1-19.



736 Mitas, O., & Bastiaansen, M. (2018). Novelty: A mechanism of tourists' enjoyment. *Annals of*  
737 *Tourism Research*, 72(9), 98-108.

738 MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., Hoffman, J. M., West, S. G., & Sheets, V. (2002). A  
739 comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects.  
740 *Psychological Methods*, 7(1), 83-104.

741 McDonnell, A., McCreadie, M., Mills, R., Deveau, R., Anker, R., & Hayden, J. (2015). The role  
742 of physiological arousal in the management of challenging behaviors in individuals with  
743 autistic spectrum disorders. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, 36, 311-322.

744 Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). A verbal measure of information rate for studies in  
745 environmental psychology. *Environment & Behavior*, 6(2), 233-252.

746 Moon, H., & Han, H. (2019). Tourist experience quality and loyalty to an island destination: The  
747 moderating impact of destination image. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 36(1), 43-  
748 59.

749 Meuter, M. L., Ostrom, A. L., Bitner, M. J., & Roundtree, R. (2001). The influence of technology  
750 anxiety on consumer use and experiences with self-service technologies. *Journal of Business*  
751 *Research*, 56(11), 899-906.

752 Molinillo, S., Anaya-Sánchez, R., Morrison, A. M., & , Coca-Stefaniak, J. A. (2019). Smart city  
753 communication via social media: Analysing residents' and visitors' engagement. *Cities*, 94,  
754 247-255.

755 Neuhofer, B., Buhalis, D., & Ladkin, A. (2013). A typology of technology-enhanced tourism  
756 experiences. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(4), 340-350.

757 Neuhofer, B., Buhalis, D., & Ladkin, A. (2015). Smart technologies for personalized  
758 experiences: A case study in the hospitality domain. *Electronic Markets*, 25(3), 243-254.

759 Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Malhotra, A. (2005). E-S-QUAL: A multiple-item scale for  
760 assessing electronic service quality. *Journal of Service Research*, 7(3), 213-233.

761 Picard, R. W., Fedor, S., & Ayzenberg, Y. (2015). Multiple arousal theory and daily-life  
762 electrodermal activity asymmetry. *Emotion Review*, 8(1), 62-75.

763 Radic, A. (2019). Towards an understanding of a child's cruise experience. *Current Issues in*  
764 *Tourism*, 22(2), 237-252.

765 Rahman, I., & Reynolds, D. (2019) The influence of values and attitudes on green consumer  
766 behavior: A conceptual model of green hotel patronage. *International Journal of Hospitality*  
767 *& Tourism Administration*, 20(1), 47-74.

768 Reisenzein, R. (1994). Pleasure-arousal theory and the intensity of emotions. *Journal of*  
769 *Personality & Social Psychology*, 67(3), 525-539.

770 Ritchie, J. R. B., Tung, V. W. S., & Ritchie, R. J. B. (2011). Tourism experience management  
771 research. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(4), 419-438.

772 Rojas, C. D., & Camarero, C. (2008). Visitors' experience, mood and satisfaction in a heritage  
773 context: evidence from an interpretation center. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 525-537.

774 Russell, J. A., & Lanius, U. F. (1984). Adaptation level and the affective appraisal of  
775 environments. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 4(2), 119-135.

776 Ryan, C. (1997). *The tourist experience: A new introduction*. London: Cassell.

777 Ryan, C. (2002). Tourism and cultural proximity: Examples from New Zealand. *Science News*,  
778 153(1), 8-10.

779 Ryan, C. (2008). Tourism and welfare: Ethics, responsibility and sustained well-being. *Annals of*  
780 *Tourism Research*, 35(1), 284-286.

781 Schaffers, H., Komninos, N., Pallot, M., Trousse, B., Nilsson, M., & Oliveira, A. (2011). Smart

782 cities and the future Internet: Towards cooperation frameworks for open innovation. *The*  
783 *Future Internet Assembly*, 6656, 431-446.

784 Stefanucci, J. K., & Storbeck, J. (2009). Don't look down: Emotional arousal elevates height  
785 perception. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 138(1), 131-145.

786 Schmitt, B., & Zarantonello, L. (2013). Consumer experience and experiential marketing: A  
787 critical review. *Review of Marketing Research*. 10(7), 25-61.

788 Sundstrom, E., Bell, P. A., & Busby, P. L., & Asmus, C. (1996). Environmental psychology  
789 1989-1994. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 47, 485-512.

790 Tan, W. (2017). The relationship between smartphone usage, tourist experience and trip  
791 satisfaction in the context of a nature-based destination. *Telematics and Informatics*, 34(2),  
792 614-627.

793 Taylor, A. B., MacKinnon, D. P., & Tein, J. (2008). Tests of the three-path mediated effect.  
794 *Organizational Research Methods*, 11(2), 241-269.

795 Teixeira, J., Patrício, L., Nunes, N. J., Nobrega, L., Fisk, R. P., & Constantine, L. (2012).  
796 Customer experience modeling: from customer experience to service design. *Journal of*  
797 *Service Management*, 23(3), 362-376.

798 Uriely N. (2005). The tourist experience: Conceptual developments. *Annals of Tourism Research*,  
799 32(1),199-216.

800 Vandenbosch, M., & Dawar, N. (2002). Beyond better products: Capturing value in customer  
801 interactions. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 43(4), 35-42.

802 Vespestad, M. K., & Lindberg, F. (2011). Understanding nature-based tourist experiences: An  
803 ontological analysis. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(6), 563-580.

804 Volo S. (2009). Conceptualizing experience: A tourist-based approach. *Journal of Hospitality*

805        *Marketing & Management*, 18(2),111-126.

806        Wirtz J., Mattila A. S., & Tan, R. L. P. (2000). The moderating role of target-arousal on the  
807        impact of affect on satisfaction - an examination in the context of service experiences.  
808        *Journal of Retailing*, 76(3), 347-365.

809        White, C. (2005). Satisfaction emotions and consumer. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 19(6),  
810        411-420.

811        Wohlwill, J. F. (1966). The physical environment: A problem for a psychology of stimulation.  
812        *Journal of Social Issues*, 22(4), 29-38.

813        Wang, D., Li, X. R., & Li, Y. (2013). China's "smart tourism destination" initiative: A taste of the  
814        service-dominant logic. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 2(2), 59-61.

815        Wang, D., & Xiang, Z. (2012). The new landscape of travel: A comprehensive analysis of  
816        smartphone apps. *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2012*, 308-319.

817        Xie, Y. J., & Peng, D. (2006). Tourism, tourist experience and signs: A review of related studies.  
818        *Tourism Science*, 19(6), 1-6.

819        Xu, J., & Chan, A. (2010). Service experience and package tours. *Asia Pacific Journal of*  
820        *Tourism Research*, 15(2), 177-194.

821        Xu, S., Kim, H. J., Liang, M., & Ryu, K. (2018). Interrelationships between tourist involvement,  
822        tourist experience, and environmentally responsible behavior: A case study of Nansha  
823        Wetland Park, China. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 35(7), 856-868.

824        Xiang, Z., Wang, D., O'Leary, J. T., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2015). Adapting to the Internet trends  
825        in ravelers' use of the Web for trip planning. *Journal of Travel Research*, 54(4), 511-527.

826        Zatori, A., Smith, M. K., & Puczko, L. (2018). Experience-involvement, memorability and  
827        authenticity: The service provider's effect on tourist experience. *Tourism Management*, 67(8),

828 111-126.

829 Zhang, H., Zhang, J., Cheng, S., Lu, S., & Shi, C. (2012). Role of constraints in Chinese  
830 calligraphic landscape experience: An extension of a leisure constraints model. *Tourism  
831 Management, 33*(6), 1398-1407.

832 Zhang, H., & Xu, H. G. (2019). A structural model of liminal experience in tourism. *Tourism  
833 Management, 71*(4), 84-98.

834 Zhong, Y. Y., Busser, J., & Baloglu, S. (2017). A model of memorable tourism experience: The  
835 effects on satisfaction, affective commitment, and storytelling. *Tourism Analysis, 22*(2), 201-  
836 217.

837