

BLOGS VS VLOGS: EVALUATION OF CHINESE AUDIENCE RESONANCE IN SLOW TOURISM

Meng WANG ¹

*School of Business and Economics, University
Putra Malaysia*
ORCID: 0009-0000-9146-3577

Azmawani ABD RAHMAN

Putra Business School, University Putra Malaysia
ORCID: 0000-0002-7590-6427

Yuhanis Abdul AZIZ

*College of Business and Administration,
University of Sharjah, UAE*
ORCID: 0009-0009-7597-8883

Nor Azura ADZHARUDDIN

*Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication,
University Putra Malaysia*
ORCID: 0000-0002-4924-1054

ABSTRACT

Slow tourism has been implemented in rural areas and small towns in China for over a decade. However, the effectiveness of utilizing blogs or vlogs for promoting slow tourism destinations varies significantly. This study explored the reasons for the differences in marketing effectiveness of slow tourism destinations from the perspective of audience resonance. A total of 231 college students participated in the study and PLS-SEM was employed for hypothesis testing. The study results revealed positive impacts of value accord, expectation fitting, and cultural credibility on cognitive resonance. Additionally, there were positive impacts of slowness, self-congruence, and entertainment on emotional resonance. These factors further contribute to audience resonance in slow tourism. Emotional resonance turned out to be the driving factor of audience resonance. In addition, this research has also proved that the degree of resonance is the same whether the information carrier is text, photo, or video. No prior research has quantitatively validated the audience resonance in a slow tourism setting. This study addresses this knowledge gap and adds to the body of knowledge on slow tourism marketing and resonance theory.

Article History

Received 14 June 2023

Revised 3 May 2024

Accepted 15 May 2024

Published online 7 June 2024

Keywords

audience resonance
cognitive resonance
emotional resonance
slow tourism
travel vlogs
travel blogs

¹ Address correspondence to Meng Wang, Ph.D. Candidate in School of Business and Economics, University Putra Malaysia & Teaching Assistant in Department of Culture and Tourism, Yuncheng University, China; Yellow River Cultural Ecology Research Institute, China. E-mail: 779363846@qq.com or gs60325@student.upm.edu.my

INTRODUCTION

With the arrival of the leisure era (Hong, 2020; Li & Wu, 2020), Chinese tourists are highly inclined to stay in one place for several days, experience the local folklore and slow-paced life, and live like the locals (Ji, 2021). Concurrently, Chinese nationals also tend to choose leisure tourism activities in villages or small towns near their residences due to the influence of COVID-19 in recent years (Chao & Chen, 2020; Dai et al., 2021). During the Qingming Festival in 2022, the percentage of orders for trips to rural areas increased by 20% compared to 2019. Additionally, the proportion of local urban residents booking countryside B&Bs in hotels rose to 60%, marking a 35% year-on-year increase (Surging Views, 2022). The surge in travel demand and evolving preferences are expected to spur a new wave of growth in slow tourism within villages and small towns.

However, the promotion of slow tourism in rural China has faced challenges in marketing. Slow tourism offers a distinct experience from mass tourism (Mavric et al., 2021) and requires tailored marketing strategies to attract travelers to embrace this alternative travel style. Moreover, many villages and small towns in rural China are lesser-known tourist destinations, lacking a strong economic foundation and visibility. Limited marketing funds have forced many villages and small towns to choose low-cost marketing methods, such as incentivizing travelers to post travel blogs (texts and photos as the information carrier) or vlogs (video as the information carrier), to highlight the destinations. Nevertheless, the marketing outcomes achieved show significant disparities. For instance, the number of likes garnered by vlogs showcasing slow tourism on the Douyin platform varies widely, ranging from just a few to hundreds of thousands. Additionally, the engagement levels (e.g. likes and shares) for travel vlogs featuring the same slow tourism destination also show considerable fluctuations. In explaining this phenomenon, the sociological and communication literature has proposed the resonance theory (McDonnell et al., 2017). Many scholars believe the information will have a better dissemination effect if external information can resonate with the audience (Snow et al., 1986; Giorgi, 2017; McDonnell et al., 2017) and can cause changes in the audience's attitude and behavior (Wan, 2008).

Although resonance theory has been applied in previous empirical tourism research, these applications have primarily focused on exploring the relationship between various theoretically proposed factors of resonance and variables such as tourists' attitudes (Wan, 2008) and travel intentions (Cheng et al., 2020). It neglected to verify the relationship

between influencing factors and resonance, which was the basis of previous research. Therefore, this research attempts to fill in the missing link by utilizing quantitative research methods to clarify the influencing factors of cognitive resonance and emotional resonance and verify the relationship between cognitive, emotional, and audience resonances. In addition, some scholars mentioned that vlogs are superior to traditional blogs in information dissemination when studying the marketing effects of travel blogs and vlogs separately (Safko, 2010; Shao et al., 2019; Sizan et al., 2022) but this assertion lacks empirical evidence, and only a small number of scholars have conducted comparative studies on blogs and vlogs, with little research exploring their impact on the degree of resonance. Therefore, this study also utilized different information carriers (blogs or vlogs) as control variables to explore the degree of their influence on resonance.

This paper is structured as follows. Literature review provides insight into slow tourism, resonance theory, and the two information carriers, outlining the research hypotheses. Later, the research methodology is detailed, focusing on data collection and analysis. The research findings based on the five hypotheses followed by discussions and conclusions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Slow Tourism

Slow tourism originated from a “Slow Food Movement” against fast food initiated by Carlo Petrini in 1986 (Petrini & Padovani, 2009; Dickinson & Lumsdon, 2010; Meng & Choi, 2016; Shang et al., 2020; Huang & Jordan, 2021). The Slow Food Movement gave rise to the Cittaslow movement in Italy in 1999, which developed slow tourism (Dickinson & Lumsdon, 2010; Heitmann et al., 2011).

In the 1990s, slow tourism focused primarily on its sustainable characteristics, but today it is evident that it encompasses much more than that (Ildikó & Zsuzsanna, 2020). Although slow tourism has not been clearly defined in tourism literature, some scholars attempted to define it from the perspective of multiple principles, thoughts, and behavior patterns (Calzati & de Salvo, 2017). Slow tourism advocates reducing travel frequency and encouraging tourists to stay longer at their destination rather than travel more frequently. This encouragement leads tourists to prefer local resources and products and choose short-distance travel destinations by utilizing sustainable transportation modes (Caffyn, 2012; Losada & Mota, 2019). In addition to transportation, slow tourists are more likely to have an

immersive experience by buying from local vendors, enjoying local food, walking in the countryside, and interacting with locals in the local market (Rand & Heath, 2009; Losada & Mota, 2019). Chinese scholars primarily concentrated on the quality experience facilitated by slow tourism and underscored the importance of minimizing journey duration to maximize tourists' stay in the destination (Zong, 2011). Nevertheless, they did not pay sufficient attention to the mode of transportation as a significant experiential aspect (Chen & Yu, 2018). Resultantly, in recent years, the focus of slow tourism has shifted from purely environmental sustainability to time and space studies in ways that promote personal satisfaction and well-being (Li & Wu, 2020).

The Theory of Resonance

In the sociology of culture, media, and social movements, resonance is one of the most commonly utilized metaphors (Snow et al., 1986) and is employed to explain "how culture works" (Schudson, 1989). When examining the reasons behind the advantage of specific discourses, messages, or cultural objects over others, resonance serves as a criterion, whereby aligning with the general cultural worldview of the receiving audiences confers an advantage (McDonnell et al., 2017).

In the articles by McDonnell et al. (2017) and Giorgi (2017), resonance is discussed and analyzed as a theoretical concept. Both articles introduce the notion of resonance and explore the factors that contribute to its development. Giorgi (2017) refined various interpretations of resonance and defined it as the audience's personal and experiential connection to the content, emphasizing a fit on both cognitive and emotional levels. In contrast, McDonnell et al. (2017) viewed resonance as a dynamic process of formation rather than a static state, highlighting the interactions among individuals that lead to resonance when cultural elements assist in problem-solving or meaning-making. While these two perspectives differ, they both underscore the significance of cognitive resonance and emotional resonance in the formation of resonance.

Giorgi (2017) highlighted the importance of familiarity in creating cognitive resonance, contrasting with McDonnell et al. (2017), who emphasized the role of novelty in eliciting cognitive resonance experiences. Both researchers emphasized emotional resonance, with McDonnell et al. (2017) noting the potential for strong emotions to trigger resonance. Recognizing the critical roles of cognitive and emotional resonance, scholars in the tourism field have incorporated these aspects into their studies (Su et

al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2020). According to the discussions above, H1 and H2 are formulated as follows:

H1: *Cognitive resonance has a positive effect on audiences' resonance.*

H2: *Emotional resonance has a positive effect on audiences' resonance.*

Cognitive resonance

Cognitive resonance is based on the object's attraction to the audience's values, beliefs, and understanding (Shang et al., 2017), which is the perceived alignment of a message with central or prominent understandings and ideas for a certain audience (Giorgi, 2017). Wan (2008) has proposed that "expectation fitting" and "value accord" affect the generation of cognitive resonance, which encompasses the concept of overlap between those features stored in an individual's long-term memories and those contained in messages. A good fit between what is expected by audience and what is received from information is referred to as "expectation fitting". Similarly, "value accord" refers to the congruence of the message content with the values held by the individual. The match between external stimuli and the individual's expectations or values can have a resonance effect if the received information adequately matches the individual's expectations or targets their values (Wan, 2008).

Cognitive resonance may seem easy to achieve by getting to know the audience and connecting with their understandings, expectations, values, or beliefs. Nevertheless, even if the content fits the audience's beliefs, the process can be threatened by "empirical credibility," "cultural credibility," and "moderate novelty" (Giorgi, 2017). The message's relationship with the audience's personal experiences and lifestyles is referred to as "empirical credibility" (Snow et al., 1986; Benford & Snow, 2000). If the message is not aligned with the audience's lived experience, it may fail to resonate (Babb, 1996; Giorgi, 2017). On the other hand, "cultural credibility" refers to a relationship to the "cultural codes" that are prevalent and present in the public sphere at a given moment (Steinberg, 1998; Giorgi, 2017). According to "cultural credibility", the process of familiarity is enhanced when framing can align with accessible cultural norms, while it is hindered when it lacks coherence with the broader cultural context (Giorgi, 2017; Weber et al., 2008). Familiarity is fundamental to achieving resonance (Wan, 2008; Cornelissen & Clarke, 2010). Mixing familiar and unfamiliar elements can create a "moderate novelty" (Giorgi & Weber, 2015), ensuring intelligibility while stimulating audiences' interests, which is conducive to achieving cognitive resonance (Giorgi, 2017).

A similar concept of “moderate novelty” is also mentioned by Cheng et al. (2020), who argued that information acquisition could cause cognitive resonance among audiences. A moderate mix of familiarity and unfamiliarity enables the audience to acquire useful information driven by curiosity and need (Berger, 2014), thereby generating cognitive resonance (Cheng et al., 2020). Furthermore, another cognitive resonance driving factor in their investigation was “source credibility”. “Source credibility” refers to the perceived credibility of information sources by individual audiences, which is the likelihood that the speaker will provide reliable information (Chen et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2020). According to previous studies on influencer marketing and communications, the credibility of “micro-speakers” substantially impacts customers, and these individuals are more susceptible to being persuaded by more reliable speakers (Xiao et al., 2018; Schouten et al., 2021). H3a-H3f are formulated as follows in light of the aforementioned discussions:

H3a-H3f: (a) *Expectation fitting*, (b) *value accord*, (c) *empirical credibility*, (d) *cultural credibility*, (e) *moderate novelty*, and (f) *source credibility have positive effects on cognitive resonance*.

Emotional resonance

The arousal of an audience’s emotions, enthusiasms, and wishes is the foundation of emotional resonance (Shang et al., 2017), which is a message’s emotional connection to the audience’s “passions,” “wishes,” or “aspirations” (Giorgi, 2017). It is the feeling of an emotion, or a collection of emotions, which binds a product or service to the target audience’s identity (Giorgi, 2017). In order to enhance this sense of identity, embedding emotion (Giorgi, 2017) when disseminating a product or service is necessary, which indicates embedding the main emotional concept to be expressed by the product or service into the dissemination content to evoke the audience’s corresponding emotions.

According to a previous theoretical analysis of emotional resonance, it is evident that measuring the emotional resonance of slow tourism necessitates focusing on the key emotional concepts expressed by slow tourism. Although slow tourism is a broad concept covering all aspects, from slowing down activities to the pursuit of happiness (Fullagar et al., 2012), some scholars have made conclusions regarding its characteristics. McKercher and Du Cros (2003) summarized the core value of slow tourism as bringing a slower rhythm to tourists. Honoré (2004) pointed out that making time to relax and enjoying the journey are principles of slow travel.

Yang and Zhou (2018) believed its characteristics include slow, pleasant, and self-actualization. Lin et al. (2020) indicated that slow tourism is characterized by the wise use of time, the free mentality of wandering, and enjoying the details of local life and the destination's scenery.

Based on the research by the aforementioned scholars on the characteristics of slow tourism, it can be concluded that the emotional concepts associated with slow tourism primarily encompass "entertainment" and "slowness". The term "entertainment" in the realm of social media pertains to how users utilize platforms for leisure and relaxation (Bronner & de Hoog, 2011; Lee & Ma, 2012); its value lies in fulfilling users' needs for escapism, enjoyment, emotional release, and anxiety reduction (McQuail, 2005). Consequently, "entertainment" serves not only as a key motivator for media consumption (Cheng et al., 2020) but also as a crucial aspect of the slow tourism experience (Conway & Timms, 2012). The slow tourism approach enhances the enjoyment and satisfaction of slow tourists or travelers (Oh et al., 2016; Kostilnikova et al., 2022). Hence, this study contends that "entertainment", as an emotional element, has the potential to evoke emotional resonance among audiences towards slow tourism.

Another essential feature of slow tourism is "slowness". The definition of "slowness" in this article is not literal but has two distinct meanings. On the one hand, "slowness" refers to modifying the daily time relationship (Yurtseven & Kaya, 2011). On the other hand, it indicates slowing down the whole process of the holiday (Lumsdon & McGrath, 2011). The adjustment in time allocation and utilization starkly contrasts the sense of time urgency experienced under the pressures of daily life. This adjustment enables individuals to experience a slower sense of time and a more relaxed, comfortable emotional state. Thus, the slowness experience is anticipated to promote the audience's emotional resonance.

Emotional resonance also depends on enthusiastically identifying with a particular individual or product's connection to the self-concept (Voronov & Weber, 2016; Giorgi, 2017), leading to the concept of "self-congruence". The matching of a person's authentic or imagined self-concept with the image of another consumer is referred to as "self-congruence" (Sirgy & Su, 2000). Furthermore, researchers proposed that agreement with others' desired identity, image, or consistency between one's own beliefs and those of others would boost involvement (Rich et al., 2010). Therefore, it is posited that the consistency between the real or desired image of viewers and travel bloggers or vloggers could drive viewers' emotional

resonance. According to these statements, this study will test the following hypotheses:

H4a-H4c: *(a) Entertainment, (b) slowness, and (c) self-congruence have positive effects on emotional resonance.*

The Information Carrier: Travel Blogs and Vlogs

Travel blogs are personal online diaries regarding future, present, or past travel experiences to make the travel experience accessible to the public (Litvin et al., 2008), including friends, family, and other travelers (Pühringer & Taylor, 2008). This form of writing emerged with the advent of the internet, which is now flooded with travel blogs (Sales Oliveira, 2020). Travelers' online distribution narratives regarding their trip experiences are valuable information sources for gaining insight into their perspectives, actions, and expectations (Alrawadieh et al., 2018). Furthermore, as travel and tourism services are intangible (Law & Cheung, 2010), and blogs are considered more reliable than traditional marketing communications (Akehurst, 2009), travel blogs play a significant role as a form of electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) that travelers consult during their vacation planning process (Tse & Zhang, 2013).

Compared with blogs, travel vlogs primarily record video bloggers' travel stories and personalized travel-related information through videos rather than texts and photos (Griffith & Papacharissi, 2010). Multimedia resources, such as images and videos, would simplify a text detailing a vacation experience (Chen et al., 2014). While browsing blogs containing such content, individuals are more likely to experience vivid, engaged, and emotive psychological states (Hoffman & Novak, 1996; Govers et al., 2007). Hence, according to Safko (2010), vlogging is an effective means of communication since the audience can see body language, feelings, and voice. Video is a more effective technique than photographs or written information for communicating with viewers (Sizan et al., 2022). Other authors' qualitative research findings revealed that short videos and textual travel blogs thrive at revealing location images in distinct ways (Shao et al., 2019). Information carrier was used as a control variable in this study based on the discussions above. Specifically, we will test the following hypotheses:

H5: *Travel vlog (video as the information carrier) regarding slow tourism has stronger positive effect on audiences' resonance than travel blog (texts and photos as the information carrier).*

For illustration purposes, Figure 1 depicts the theoretical model that guided the investigation of the research hypotheses.

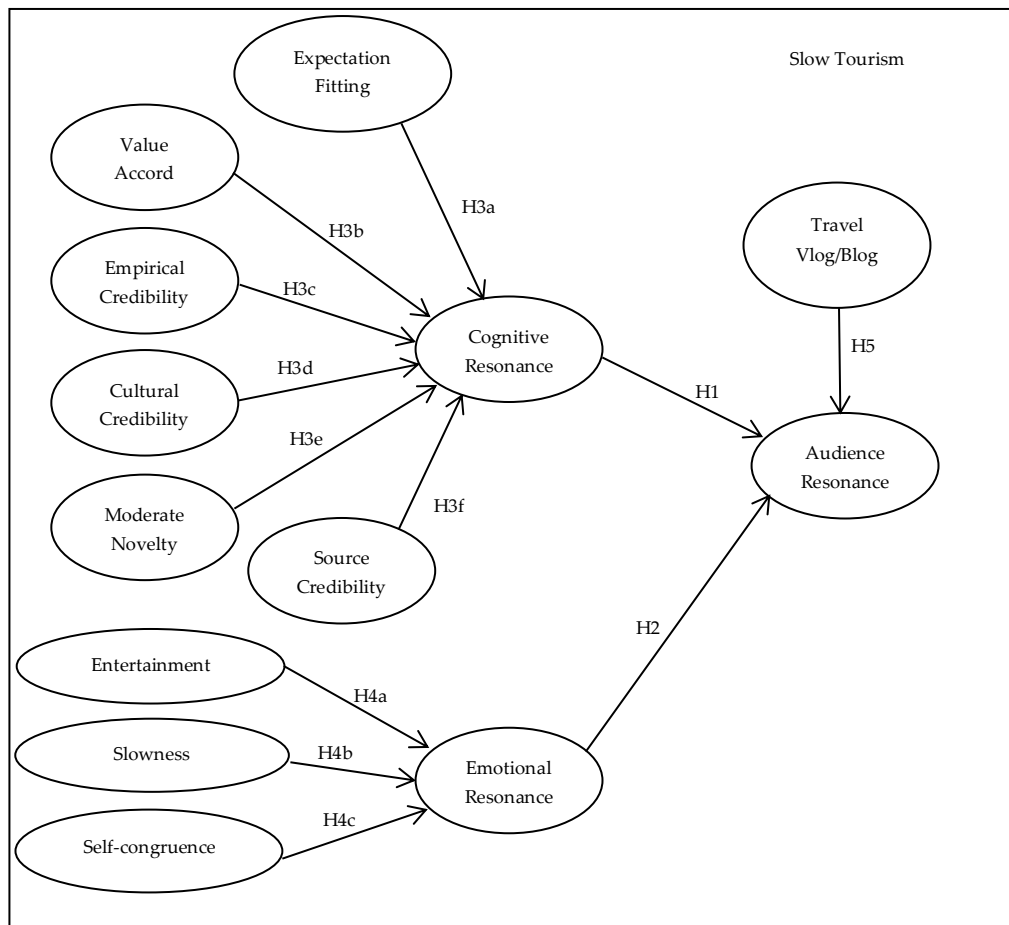


Figure 1. *Theoretical model and research hypotheses*

METHODOLOGY

Sample Procedure and Data Collection

This paper primarily verifies the applicability of resonance theory in slow tourism marketing. Hence, the theoretical application is the goal of this study. According to the conclusion of Calder et al. (1981), the theory must be evaluated by falsification procedures to evaluate its scientificity. In addition, a homogeneous sample of respondents must be selected and verified by experiment. Sample representativeness is less important in theory application (Calder et al., 1981) since the study aims to examine the impact in a specific research environment rather than extrapolate the findings to a real-world situation (Cook et al., 1979). Typically, theory

application studies involve lab experiments with student participants in carefully controlled circumstances (Sarstedt et al., 2018).

By following these principles, an experiment was conducted on college students at the same university in China. The subjects were randomly divided into two groups. One group filled out the questionnaire after reading a travel blog, and the other group filled out the questionnaire after watching a travel vlog. The travel blog and vlog both document slow tourism activities in Chinese villages or small towns. When choosing the travel blog, the search focused on the travel blog channel on Mafengwo, one of the three major travel websites in mainland China (Wu & Huang, 2014), using the keyword “slow tourism”, and the selection was based on the highest reading volume. Next, we chose a Chinese blog focusing on slow tourism in Qingmuchuan town. The blog comprises 733 words and 35 photos, primarily highlighting the slow tourism resources of Qingmuchuan. When selecting the travel vlog, a search was conducted using the keyword “slow tourism” on Douyin, one of the major video social platforms in mainland China (NETEASE, 2021). After considering the vlogs based on the number of likes, we ultimately chose a 42-second video showcasing a travel guide for Enhe Town. In the vlog, the video creator shared her slow tourism experience in Enhe in Chinese.

After a week of subject recruitment, 320 college students finished the experiment, and eventually, 320 questionnaires were returned in June 2022. As actual visitors tend to gather more information about a destination compared to potential tourists (Baloglu, 1998), there may be a variance in how potential and actual tourists resonate with destination travel blogs and vlogs. Thus, this study implemented a screening question to exclude actual visitors. 6 participants selected “Yes” for the screening question (“Have you been to the place in the travel blog or vlog?”), while 83 respondents failed to provide complete answers for all variables. Following the deletion of these replies, 231 (72.18%) legitimate responses were available for data analysis. A total of 104 responses were for the travel blog group, while 127 responses focused on the travel vlog group.

Measurement

All the measures and the corresponding items shown in Appendix 1 were mostly adapted or developed from previous studies. This study specifically utilized two items to measure expectation fitting and value accord, respectively, adopted from Wan (2008). Additionally, one item was added, measuring expectation fitting (“The information provided in the travel blog

or vlog met my expectations.”). Furthermore, another item was included, measuring value accord (“The information provided in the travel blog or vlog was very valuable to me.”). These items were developed based on the definitions of these variables in Wan’s (2008) study. Four items with moderate novelty were derived from Giorgi’s (2017) definition, which was adapted from the concept of ‘information acquisition’ in the research of Cheng et al. (2020). The scale for entertainment (Bronner & de Hoog, 2011; Lee & Ma, 2012), source credibility (Bhattacharjee & Sanford, 2006; Zha et al., 2018), and self-congruence (Sirgy & Su, 2000) were previously validated in Cheng et al. (2020).

The items developed to measure empirical and cultural credibility were based on definitions by Giorgi (2017). Four items of slowness were developed by the authors in this study according to the meaning of slowness based on the conclusions by Serdane et al. (2020). Similarly, the audiences’ cognitive and emotional resonance instruments were developed by Shang et al. (2017) and Giorgi (2017). All items are measured by a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Analytical Methods

PLS-SEM was employed to estimate the measurement model and test the hypotheses using the statistical program SmartPLS version 3.3.9 (Ringle et al., 2015). The PLS-SEM technique provides the extra benefit of estimating the measurement and structural models (Hair et al., 2017). For PLS-SEM, previous research has suggested a sample threshold of as little as 100 samples (Reinartz et al., 2009). Alternatively, a more limited minimum sample size based on statistical power might be used (Roldan & Sanchez-Franco, 2012; Hair et al., 2014). G*Power was utilized to compute the sample size based on statistical power (Faul et al., 2009), which suggested that a sample size of 98 was needed for model testing. Resultantly, it can be fairly inferred that the sample sizes were sufficient to address the study’s objectives in both circumstances.

RESULTS

Common Method Bias

When the data is gathered by self-reported questionnaires, common method variance (CMV) must be addressed, particularly when both the predictor and criterion variables are received from the same individual (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, the common method bias was tested using a

marker variable, attitude toward the color blue, as suggested by Miller and Simmering (2022). In this method, the R^2 of the three variables of cognitive resonance ($R^2 = 0.730$), emotional resonance ($R^2 = 0.689$), and audience resonance ($R^2 = 0.639$) was first calculated. Subsequently, the marker variable was added to the model, and the R^2 of the three variables was calculated. The results were 0.734, 0.690, and 0.644, respectively. The variation range of R^2 is less than 10%, indicating that common method bias is not a serious issue with the data.

Profile of The Respondents

The research sample for this study is composed of university students, aged between 18 and 26 years old, from the same institution. The detailed sample profiles of the group blog and group vlog participants are presented in Table 1. In the group blog, there were 73 women (70%) and 31 men (30%), resulting in an imbalanced gender ratio, which was even more pronounced in the group vlog. Within the group vlog, 73% of the participants were science and engineering students majoring in mathematics, statistics, and computer engineering, while the remaining 27% studied business management, tourism management, or hospitality management. In contrast, the distribution of majors in the group blog was closer to a 1:1 ratio. The primary motivations for travel among both groups were physical health and cultural experiences. Due to the impact of COVID-19, over 60% of respondents in both groups typically took 1-2 trips per year, with 24% and 14% respectively indicating that they did not engage in any tourism activities during the year.

Table 1. *Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents*

Variable	Category	Blog		Vlog	
		Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	31	30	26	20
	Female	73	70	101	80
Travel motivation	Physical health motivation	45	43	43	34
	Cultural motivation	42	40	53	42
	Communication motives	9	9	19	14
	Motivation of status and prestige	6	6	7	6
	Other motivations	2	2	5	4
Annual number of trips	Never	25	24	17	14
	1-2 times	65	62	88	69
	3-4 times	10	10	17	14
	4-5 times	3	3	2	1
	6 times and above	1	1	3	2

Measurement Model

This study tested the model established utilizing a two-step approach, as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). Following the recommendations of Hair et al. (2019) and Ramayah et al. (2018), the measurement model was first evaluated to determine the reliability and validity of the instruments utilized. Subsequently, to verify our proposed hypothesis, the structural model was examined. As shown in Table 2, the Average Variance Extracted (AVEs) all exceed 0.5, and the Composite Reliability (CRs) all surpass 0.7. Only one loading was below 0.7, which is as well acceptable (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 2. *Measurement Model for Constructs*

Variable	Item	Loadings/Weights	CR	AVE
Cultural Credibility	CC1	0.890	0.933	0.823
	CC2	0.933		
	CC3	0.898		
Cognitive Resonance	CR1	0.953	0.961	0.892
	CR2	0.947		
	CR3	0.933		
Empirical Credibility	EC1	0.934	0.919	0.792
	EC2	0.927		
	EC3	0.802		
Expectation Fitting	EF1	0.949	0.955	0.877
	EF2	0.927		
	EF3	0.932		
Entertainment	EN1	0.694	0.904	0.704
	EN2	0.880		
	EN3	0.891		
	EN4	0.875		
Emotional Resonance	ER1	0.876	0.935	0.827
	ER2	0.927		
	ER3	0.925		
Moderate Novelty	MN1	0.871	0.925	0.755
	MN2	0.880		
	MN3	0.907		
	MN4	0.817		
Source Credibility	SC1	0.932	0.962	0.865
	SC2	0.926		
	SC3	0.919		
	SC4	0.943		
Self-congruence	SFC1	0.920	0.944	0.809
	SFC2	0.866		
	SFC3	0.923		
	SFC4	0.887		
Slowness	SL1	0.877	0.934	0.781
	SL2	0.895		
	SL3	0.893		
	SL4	0.868		
Value Accord	VA1	0.927	0.947	0.856
	VA2	0.924		
	VA3	0.925		

In step 2, the discriminant validity was examined by using the HTMT criterion, which was proposed by Henseler et al. (2015) and revised by Franke and Sarstedt (2019). The values of HTMT were all less than the mode lenient criterion of ≤ 0.90 , as indicated in Table 3. These validation evaluations demonstrated the reliability and validity of the scale items.

Table 3. *Discriminant Validity (HTMT)*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Audiences Resonance													
2. Cognitive Resonance	0.657												
3. Cultural Credibility	0.553	0.745											
4. Emotional Resonance	0.831	0.746	0.609										
5. Empirical Credibility	0.551	0.723	0.817	0.572									
6. Entertainment	0.563	0.611	0.517	0.674	0.537								
7. Expectation Fitting	0.613	0.842	0.754	0.718	0.738	0.627							
8. Moderate Novelty	0.549	0.758	0.737	0.643	0.710	0.585	0.808						
9. Self-congruence	0.746	0.743	0.631	0.848	0.624	0.644	0.714	0.621					
10. Slowness	0.760	0.765	0.640	0.866	0.632	0.683	0.730	0.641	0.850				
11. Source Credibility	0.624	0.746	0.785	0.643	0.778	0.624	0.781	0.746	0.671	0.682			
12. Travel blog/vlog	0.040	0.060	0.106	0.033	0.065	0.152	0.075	0.088	0.055	0.042	0.107		
13. Value Accord	0.647	0.877	0.705	0.730	0.745	0.641	0.893	0.827	0.722	0.694	0.769	0.156	

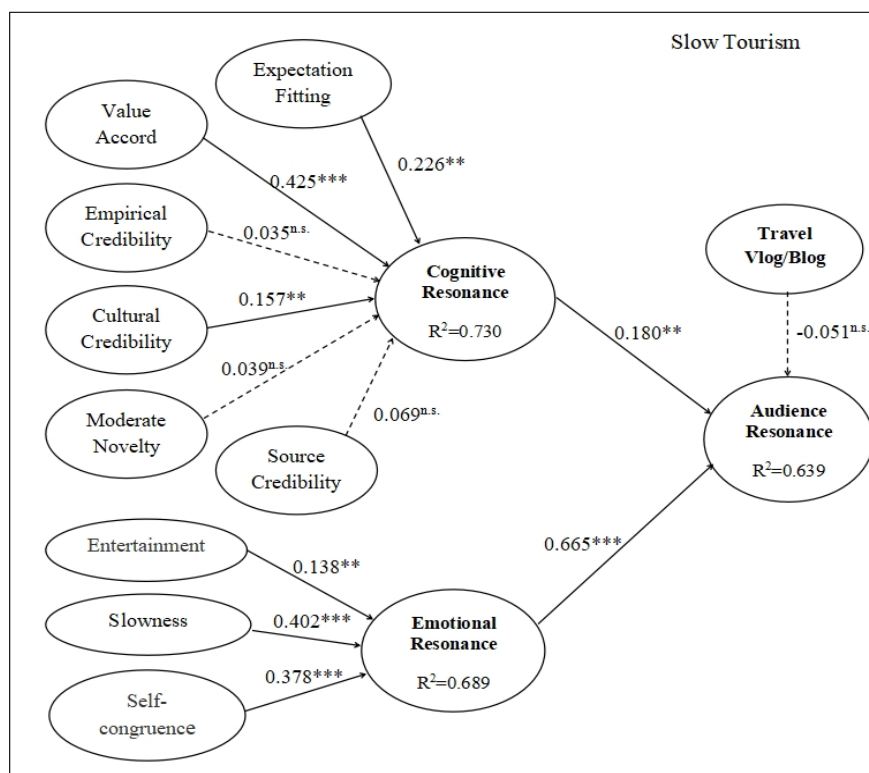


Figure 2. *PLS results for the research model testing*

Structural Model

The multivariate skewness and kurtosis were evaluated, as indicated by Hair et al. (2017) and Cain et al. (2016). The findings indicated that the data was not multivariate normal, Mardia's multivariate skewness ($\beta = 34.785$, $p < 0.01$) and Mardia's multivariate kurtosis ($\beta = 270.154$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, using a 5,000-sample re-sample bootstrapping approach (Ramayah et al., 2018), the path coefficients, the standard errors, t-values, and p-values for the structural model were calculated in accordance with Hair et al.'s (2019) recommendations. It was suggested to use a variety of criteria, including p-values, confidence intervals, and effect sizes, in response to the argument made by Hahn and Ang (2017) that p-values are not trustworthy criteria for testing the significance of hypotheses. The criteria that were used to evaluate the developed hypotheses are listed in Table 4.

Table 4. *Hypothesis Testing Direct Effects*

	Relationships	Std.Beta	Std.Dev.	t-value	p-value	BCI LL	BCI UL	f ²	Supported
H1	Cognitive Resonance -> Audiences Resonance	0.180	0.063	2.867	0.002	0.076	0.283	0.047	Yes
H2	Emotional Resonance -> Audiences Resonance	0.665	0.058	11.516	$p < .001$	0.567	0.758	0.646	Yes
H3a	Expectation Fitting -> Cognitive Resonance	0.226	0.084	2.701	0.003	0.096	0.373	0.048	Yes
H3b	Value Accord -> Cognitive Resonance	0.425	0.100	4.269	$P < .001$	0.264	0.587	0.174	Yes
H3c	Empirical Credibility -> Cognitive Resonance	0.035	0.058	0.599	0.275	-0.061	0.129	0.002	No
H3d	Cultural Credibility -> Cognitive Resonance	0.157	0.068	2.294	0.011	0.043	0.267	0.032	Yes
H3e	Moderate Novelty -> Cognitive Resonance	0.039	0.068	0.579	0.281	-0.062	0.158	0.002	No
H3f	Source Credibility -> Cognitive Resonance	0.069	0.067	1.029	0.152	-0.036	0.186	0.006	No
H4a	Entertainment -> Emotional Resonance	0.138	0.058	2.354	0.009	0.038	0.228	0.035	Yes
H4b	Slowness -> Emotional Resonance	0.402	0.075	5.331	$p < .001$	0.272	0.521	0.185	Yes
H4c	Self-congruence -> Emotional Resonance	0.378	0.072	5.215	$p < .001$	0.257	0.496	0.173	Yes

Note: 95% confidence interval with a bootstrapping of 5,000 was used

The six predictors' impact on Cognitive Resonance was examined first. As indicated in Figure 2, the R^2 was 0.730 ($Q^2 = 0.641$), which shows that the six predictors explained 73.0% of the variance in Cognitive Resonance. Expectation fitting ($\beta = 0.226$, $p < 0.01$), value accord ($\beta = 0.425$, $p < 0.01$), and cultural credibility ($\beta = 0.157$, $p < 0.05$) were all significantly related to CR. Thus, H3a, H3b, and H3d were accepted. The remaining three variables did not pass the test. Therefore, H3c, H3e, and H3f were not supported. The three predictors' impact on Emotional Resonance was tested. The R^2 was 0.689 ($Q^2 = 0.561$), which shows that all the predictors explained 68.9% of the variance in Emotional Resonance. Entertainment ($\beta =$

0.138, $p < 0.01$), slowness ($\beta = 0.402$, $p < 0.01$), and self-congruence ($\beta = 0.378$, $p < 0.01$) were all significantly related to ER. Thus, H4a, H4b, and H4c passed the test. The effect of Cognitive Resonance and Emotional Resonance on audience resonance was tested, with an R^2 of 0.639 ($Q^2 = 0.627$), indicating that Cognitive Resonance and Emotional Resonance explain 63.9% of the variance in audience resonance, which supports H1 and H2. And the control variable ($\beta = -0.051$, $p = 0.102 > 0.05$) did not pass the test. So H5 was not supported.

DISCUSSION

This paper first demonstrated the resonance theory of Giorgi (2017) and McDonnell et al. (2017) in the slow tourism context. Audience resonance arises from cognitive resonance and emotional resonance. Interestingly, the effect of emotional resonance was far greater than cognitive resonance ($f^2_{ER} = 0.646 > f^2_{CR} = 0.047$). This conclusion demonstrates the importance of emotional resonance in resonance theory, which is consistent with Wan (2008) and Cheng et al. (2020). The effect of cognitive resonance on audience resonance was smaller than expected, which is different from previous theoretical studies that equate the role of cognitive resonance with emotional resonance (Giorgi, 2017; Shang et al., 2017).

Another interesting finding, which is consistent with Wan (2008), is that expectation fitting and value accord positively affect cognitive resonance. Nonetheless, the factors of empirical credibility and moderate novelty for cognitive resonance proposed by Giorgi (2017) had not passed the verification. Nevertheless, only cultural credibility passed, but the effect was small ($0.02 < f^2 = 0.032 < 0.15$). Contrary to Cheng et al. (2020), source credibility did not affect cognitive resonance. Empirical credibility, moderate novelty, and source credibility were not the conditions for cognitive resonance. This situation may be due to the current prevalence of blogs and vlogs, which exposes the audience to various bloggers' blogs or vloggers' vlogs daily. Each blog or vlog has a different degree of novelty, which has given birth to a phenomenon of exaggeration and distortion of facts, including rumors and false information (Deng & Wang, 2014). This phenomenon has led to a hidden and profound crisis of trust among the public (Li & Wu, 2020; Wang, 2020). In the case of an unfamiliar blogger's or vlogger's work, the audience's judgment of the blogger's or vlogger's credibility is insufficient to form a cognitive resonance. Similarly, the novelty of the information cannot promote cognitive resonance. Cognitive

resonance can be generated by information content only when it caters to the audience's expectations or values.

Third, consistent with previous studies (Rich et al., 2010; Lumsdon & McGrath, 2011; Oh et al., 2016; Kostilnikova et al., 2022), this study also confirmed the positive effects of entertainment, slowness, and self-congruence on emotional resonance. Nevertheless, the effect sizes of these three factors were different. Both slowness ($0.15 < f^2 = 0.185 < 0.35$) and self-congruence ($0.15 < f^2 = 0.173 < 0.35$) had a medium effect size on emotional resonance, while entertainment ($0.02 < f^2 = 0.035 < 0.15$) had only a small effect size. In addition, travel vlog had been proven to haven't stronger effect on audience resonance than travel blog, in contrast to the previous speculations (Safko, 2010; Shao et al., 2019; Sizan et al., 2022). In the slow tourism context, no difference exists between travel blogs (texts and photos as the information carrier) and travel vlogs (videos as the information carrier) in the process of audience resonance.

CONCLUSION

Theoretical Implications

The literature in the areas of media consumption, slow tourism marketing, and resonance theory is uniquely enriched by this study. First, this study validates the resonance theory through quantitative research methods within the context of slow tourism. Although this study is not the first to introduce resonance theory into tourism issues, it is the first to validate the internal structure of resonance with quantitative data. The theoretical conjecture of cognitive and emotional resonance in previous literature (Giorgi, 2017; McDonnell et al., 2017) was confirmed. Besides, three factors affecting cognitive resonance and emotional resonance were verified, respectively. Concurrently, emotional resonance is a more important resonance condition than cognitive resonance. These findings offer two pathways for slow tourism blogs or vlogs to resonate with the audience, through cognitive and emotional connections, thus contributing to the advancement of resonance theory.

Second, this research verifies that value accord, expectation fitting, and cultural credibility can promote cognitive resonance in publicity for slow tourism. Besides, slowness, self-congruence, and entertainment can enhance emotional resonance in slow tourism promotion. The study's results provide useful inspiration for the research on slow tourism marketing. On the cognitive level, slow tourism marketing must cater to the

audience's own views, opinions, and expectations of slow tourism in a specific regional culture. On the emotional level, slow tourism marketing should incorporate the elements of slowness and entertainment while simultaneously ensuring that the audience perceives alignment with the image portrayed by the blogger or vlogger. From a resonance perspective, this study provides an in-depth analysis and validation of the characteristics of slow tourism as described in previous literature (Lumsdon & McGrath, 2011; Fullagar et al., 2012; Yang & Zhou, 2018; Lin et al., 2020). Hence, this study contributes significantly to the theory and marketing research of slow tourism.

Finally, by exploring how blogs and vlogs resonate in the setting of slow tourism, this study contributes a new viewpoint to the literature on media consumption. Previous literature has shown the important role of travel blogs (Wang et al., 2019; Xu & Zhang, 2021) and travel vlogs (Le & Hancer, 2021; He et al., 2022), respectively, for travel marketing. Some scholars (Safko, 2010; Shao et al., 2019; Sizan et al., 2022) believe that travel vlogs (videos as the information carrier) have a better communication effect than travel blogs (texts and photos as the information carrier). This study found that travel blogs and vlogs have the same effect on audience resonance in the communication process. This study further reveals that emotional resonance plays a crucial role in achieving audience resonance, regardless of whether it is through blogs or vlogs. This finding enriches the existing literature on the impact of social media in the field of tourism (Cheng et al., 2020; Madriz & Tejedor, 2020).

Managerial Implications

Practical implications could be suggested for slow tourism destinations, travel bloggers, and vloggers. This study provides insights into leveraging travel blogs or vlogs for slow tourism destination marketing agencies to resonate with potential customers. Results demonstrate that the content of a blog or vlog is more significant in evoking emotional resonance among audiences than the specific format of the medium itself. Based on the clarification of potential tourists' perspectives and expectations toward slow tourism, slow tourism destination marketing agencies need to go beyond mere product promotion through collaboration with travel bloggers or vloggers. Instead, they should emphasize three factors that have the potential to stimulate emotional resonance within the context of slow tourism. By setting creative activities around the theme of slowness and entertainment, ordinary tourists are encouraged to publish their blogs or

vlogs to inspire potential tourists to resonate with these blogs or vlogs regarding slow tourism destinations.

Travel bloggers and vloggers need to work on inspiring their audiences' emotional resonance if they want their audience to resonate with their message. When creating blogs or vlogs regarding slow tourism destinations, bloggers and vloggers need to start with the three elements of slowness, self-congruence, and entertainment, and create content that can convey slowness and entertainment emotions and inspire audiences to identify with the image of bloggers or vloggers in the destination. Hence, the content will resonate with the audience, and getting the audience's preference is easier.

Limitations of The Study

This study has several limitations, which will provide opportunities for future research. First and foremost, the influencing factors of cognitive resonance and emotional resonance in this study are all from the previous literature. Although six of the nine variables finally passed the test, the possibility of other variables cannot be completely ruled out. In particular, some factors (cultural credibility, expectation fitting, and entertainment) had small effect sizes, suggesting that other variables may fully explain people's resonance or that there are deeper reasons to be discovered. Future research may consider qualitative research methods to address this limitation.

Second, this study reveals the resonance principle of travel blogs or vlogs regarding slow tourism but does not involve other tourism activities or information. In the future, it can be expanded in terms of application breadth. Similar methods can be used to verify the information resonance principle of other tourism activities and social fields.

Third, this study is one of the first to employ quantitative research to investigate the factors that influence people's resonance with information. In the future, the relationship between information resonance and factors such as customer satisfaction, destination image, and audience's WOM can be examined, and the research depth of resonance theory in the field of tourism should be explored.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The researchers acknowledge that this study was funded by Yellow River Cultural Ecology Research Institute Project, which is “Study on Rural Tourism Development in Traditional Villages along the Yellow River in Shanxi (HH202014)”. And the authors appreciate the respondents for their participation in this survey.

REFERENCES

- Akehurst, G. (2009). User generated content: the use of blogs for tourism organizations and tourism consumers. *Service Business*, 3(1), 51-61. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11628-008-0054-2>
- Alrawadieh, Z., Dincer, M. Z., Istanbulu Dincer, F., & Mammadova, P. (2018). Understanding destination image from the perspective of Western travel bloggers: the case of Istanbul. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 12(2), 198-212. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-12-2017-0124>
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411-423. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.103.3.411>
- Babb, S. (1996). ‘A true American system of finance’: Frame resonance in the U.S. Labor Movement, 1866 to 1886. *American Sociological Review*, 61, 1033-52. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2096307>
- Baloglu, S. (1998). An empirical investigation of attitude theory for tourist destinations: A comparison of visitors and non-visitors. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 22(3), 211-224. <https://doi.org/10.1177/109634809802200301>
- Benford, R. D., & Snow, D. A. (2000). Framing processes and social movements: An overview and assessment. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 26, 611-39. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.26.1.611>
- Berger, J. (2014). Word of mouth and interpersonal communication: a review and directions for future research. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 24(4), 586-607. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcps.2014.05.002>
- Bhattacharjee, A., & Sanford, C. (2006). Influence processes for information technology acceptance: an elaboration likelihood model. *MIS Quarterly*, 30(4), 805-825. <https://doi.org/10.2307/25148755>
- Bronner, F., & De Hoog, R. (2011). Vacationers and eWOM: who posts, and why, where, and what?. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(1), 15-26. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287509355324>
- Caffyn, A. (2012). Advocating and implementing slow tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 37(1), 77-80. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2012.11081690>
- Cain, M. K., Zhang, Z., & Yuan, K. H. (2016). Univariate and multivariate skewness and kurtosis for measuring nonnormality: Prevalence, influence and estimation. *Behavior Research Methods*, 49(5), 1716-1735. <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-016-0814-1>
- Calder, B.J., Phillips, L.W., & Tybout, A.M. (1981). Designing research for application. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 8(2), 197-207. <https://doi.org/10.1086/208856>
- Calzati, V. & De Salvo, P. (2017). Slow tourism: A theoretical framework. In M. Clancy (Ed.), *Slow Tourism, Food and Cities, Pace and the Search for the Good Life* (pp. 33-48). Oxford: Routledge.
- Conway, D., & Timms, B. F. (2012). Are slow travel and slow tourism misfits, compadres or different genres?. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 37(1), 71-76. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2012.11081689>
- Chao, X. J., & Chen, Y. (2020). Research on the integrated development of suburban tourism and nighttime economy under the influence of the new crown pneumonia epidemic. *China Travel Review*, 2, 79-85.
- Chen, X. L., & Yu, L. L. (2018). Research Progress of Slow Tourism in Foreign Countries. *Tourism Research*, 10(5), 55-63.

- Chen, Y.-C., Shang, R.-A., & Li, M.-J. (2014). The effects of perceived relevance of travel blogs' content on the behavioral intention to visit a tourist destination. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 30, 787-799. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2013.05.019>
- Cheng, Y., Wei, W., & Zhang, L. (2020). Seeing destinations through vlogs: implications for leveraging customer engagement behavior to increase travel intention. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(10), 3227-3248. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijchm-04-2020-0319>
- Cook, T.D., Campbell, D.T., & Day, A. (1979). *Quasi-experimentation: Design and analysis issues for field settings*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Cornelissen, J. P., & Clarke, J. S. (2010). Imagining and rationalizing opportunities: Inductive reasoning and the creation and justification of new ventures. *Academy of Management Review*, 35, 539-57. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.35.4.zok539>
- Dai, Z. R., Lin, N. R., & Wang, J. (2021). Analysis of tourists' perception and behavior under the influence of the new crown pneumonia epidemic. *Times Economic and Trade*, 3, 93-95.
- Deng, Y., & Wang, M. (2014). Characteristics of public opinion risk in the era of network new media: Taking the social ripple effect of haze weather as an example. *China Soft Science*, 8.
- Dickinson, J., & Lumsdon, L. (2010). *Slow Travel and Tourism*. Earthscan: London, UK.
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.-G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, 41(4), 1149-60. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149>
- Fullagar, S., Markwell, K., & Wilson, E. (2012). *Slow tourism: Experiences and mobilities*. U.K.: Channel View.
- Franke, G., & Sarstedt, M. (2019). Heuristics versus statistics in discriminant validity testing: a comparison of four procedures. *Internet Research*, 29(3), 430-447. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IntR-12-2017-0515>
- Giorgi, S. (2017). The mind and heart of resonance: the role of cognition and emotions in frame effectiveness. *Journal of Management Studies*, 54(5), 711-738. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joms.12278>
- Giorgi, S., & Weber, K. (2015). Marks of distinction: framing and audience appreciation in the context of investment advice. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 60, 333-67. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0001839215571125>
- Govers, R., Go, F. M., & Kumar, K. (2007). Virtual destination image: A new measurement approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(4), 977-997. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2007.06.001>
- Griffith, M. & Papacharissi, Z. (2010). Looking for you: an analysis of video blogs. *First Monday*, 15(1). available at: <https://firstmonday.org/ojs/index.php/fm/article/download/2769/2430>
- Hahn, E. D., & Ang, S. H. (2017). From the editors: New directions in the reporting of statistical results in the Journal of World Business. *Journal of World Business*, 52(2), 125-126. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2016.12.003>
- Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Hair, J. F., Thomas, G., Hult, M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2017). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (2nd ed.)*. Thousand Oakes, CA: Sage.
- Hair, J., Risher, J., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C. (2019). When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM. *European Business Review*, 31(1), 2-24. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EBR-11-2018-0203>
- He, J., Xu, D., & Chen, T. (2022). Travel vlogging practice and its impacts on tourist experiences. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 25(15), 2518-2533. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2021.1971166>
- Heitmann, S., Robinson, P., & Povey, G. (2011). Slow food, slow cities and slow tourism. In P. Robinson, S. Heitmann, & P. Dieke (Eds.), *Research themes for tourism*, (pp. 114-127). Wallingford: CAB International.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43(1), 115-135. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8>
- Hoffman, D. L., & Novak, T. P. (1996). Marketing in hypermedia computer-mediated environments: Conceptual foundations. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(3), 50-68. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224299606000304>

- Hong, S. (2020). Research on the Construction of Rural Characteristic Towns under the Background of Slow Tourism. *Agricultural Economy*, 7, 51-53.
- Honoré, C. (2004). *In Praise of Slowness: How a Worldwide Movement is Challenging the Cult of Speed*. Harper, San Francisco.
- Huang, T.-Y. T., & Jordan, E., J. (2021). Exploring tourists' slow food experience: Perspectives from slow tourism. *Travel and Tourism Research Association: Advancing Tourism Research Globally*, 1, 1-6.
- Ildikó, E., & Zsuzsanna, M. (2020). Sensing the destination in a slow or in a fast style? – The lessons of a Hungarian survey. *ENTRENOVA - ENTerprise REsearch InNOVAtion*, 6(1), 605–615. <https://hrcak.srce.hr/ojs/index.php/entrenova/article/view/13514>
- Ji, J. (2021). Talking about the transformation of China's tourism industry after the normalization of the epidemic. *Journal of Liaoning Teachers College (Social Sciences Edition)*, 1, 18-19.
- Kock, N. (2015). Common method bias in PLS-SEM: A full collinearity assessment approach. *International Journal of e-Collaboration*, 11(4), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.4018/ijec.2015100101>
- Kostilnikova, K., Matlovcova, K., Demkova, M., Mocak, P., Mishra, P. K., Bujdosó, Z., ... & Zawilinska, B. (2022). Slow travel in tourism-an outline of conceptual frameworks: potential and limits in the context of post-pandemic recovery. *Geo Journal of Tourism and Geosites*, 42, 751-758. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.422spl14-885>
- Law, R., & Cheung, S. (2010). The perceived destination image of Hong Kong as revealed in the travel blogs of mainland Chinese tourists. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 11(4), 303-327. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2010.518521>
- Le, L. H., & Hancer, M. (2021). Using social learning theory in examining YouTube viewers' desire to imitate travel vloggers. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 12(3), 512-532. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTT-08-2020-0200>
- Lee, C.S., & Ma, L. (2012). News sharing in social media: the effect of gratifications and prior experience. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 28(2), 331-339. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2011.10.002>
- Li, J., & Wu, C. B. (2020). Knowledge Graph Analysis of Development Paths and Hotspots of Slow Tourism Research: Quantitative Analysis Based on A Citespace. *Market Forum*, 1, 70-71.
- Li, M. B., & Wu, Y. (2020). Research on social trust in new media: Based on the perspective of "deep forgery" short video. *Theory Monthly*, 12, 81-90.
- Lin, L.-P., Huang, S.-C., Ho, Y.-C. (2020). Could virtual reality effectively market slow travel in a heritage destination?. *Tourism Management*, 78, 104027. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.104027>
- Litvin, S.W., Goldsmith, R.E., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 458-468. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.05.011>
- Losada, N., & Mota, G. (2019). Slow down, your movie is too fast': Slow tourism representations in the promotional videos of the Douro region (Northern Portugal). *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 11, 140-149. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2018.12.007>
- Lumsdon, L. M., & McGrath, P. (2011). Developing a conceptual framework for slow travel: A grounded theory approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(3), 265-279. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2010.519438>
- Madriz, S., & Tejedor, S. (2020). Analysis of Effective Digital Communication in Travel Blog Business Models. *Communication & Society*, 33(4), 75-87. <https://doi.org/10.15581/003.33.4.75-87>
- Mavric, B., Öğretmenoğlu, M., & Akova, O. (2021). Bibliometric analysis of slow tourism. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 9(1), 157-178. <https://doi.org/10.30519/ahtr.794656>
- McDonnell, T.E., Bail, C.A. & Tavory, I. (2017). A theory of resonance. *Sociological Theory*, 35(1), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0735275117692837>
- McKercher, B. & Du Cros, H. (2003). Testing a cultural tourism typology. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 5(1), 45-58. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.417>
- McQuail, D. (2005). *McQuail's mass communication theory*. Singapore: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Meng, B., & Choi, K. (2016). The role of authenticity in forming slow tourists' intentions: Developing an extended model of goal-directed behavior. *Tourism Management*, 57, 397-410. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.07.003>

- Miller, B. K., & Simmering, M. J. (2022). Attitude Toward the Color Blue: An Ideal Marker Variable. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1-32. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10944281221075361>
- NETEASE. (2021, Feb). *Global social media gains 1.3 million new users daily, China social media adds 110 million new users (Latest Data)*. Retrieved 24 May, 2024, from <https://www.163.com/dy/article/G39RQ7N60527ANJM.html>
- Oh, H., Assaf, A.G., & Baloglu, S. (2016). Motivations and goals of slow tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(2), 205-219. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287514546228>
- Petrini, C., & Padovani, G. (2009). *Slow Food Revolution: A New Culture for Eating and Living*. New York: Rizzoli International.
- Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N.P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879>
- Pühringer, S., & Taylor, A. (2008). A practitioner's report on blogs as a potential source of destination marketing intelligence. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 14(2), 177-187. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766707087524>
- Ramayah, T., Cheah, J., Chuah, F., Ting, H., & Memon, M. A. (2018). *Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) using SmartPLS 3.0: An Updated Guide and Practical Guide to Statistical Analysis* (2nd ed.). Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Pearson.
- Rand, G. E., & Heath, E. (2009). Local food as a key element of sustainable tourism competitiveness. In J. Saarinen, F. Beckher, H. Manwa, & D. Wilson (Eds.), *Sustainable Tourism in Southern Africa: Local Communities and Natural Resources in Transition* (pp. 253-268). Channel View Publications.
- Reinartz, W., Haenlein, M., & Henseler, J. (2009). An Empirical Comparison of the Efficacy of Covariance-Based and VarianceBased SEM. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 26(4), 332-44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijresmar.2009.08.001>
- Rich, B.L., Lepine, J.A., & Crawford, E.R. (2010). Job engagement: antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(3), 617-635. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.51468988>
- Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Becker, J.-M. (2015). *SmartPLS 3*. Boenningstedt: SmartPLS GmbH, <http://www.smartpls.com>.
- Roldan, J. L., & Sanchez-Franco, M. J. (2012). Variance-Based Structural Equation Modeling: Guidelines for Using Partial Least Squares in Information Systems Research. In M. Mora, O. Gelman, A. Steenkamp, and M. Raisinghani (Eds.), *Research Methodologies, Innovations and Philosophies in Software Systems Engineering and Information Systems* (pp. 193-221). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.
- Safko, L. (2010). *The social media bible: Tactics, tools, and strategies for business success*. New Jersey: Wiley.
- Sales Oliveira, C. (2020). My trip in my words: Subjectivities, time(s) and mobilities in slow travel blogs. *Time & Society*, 29(1), 223-255. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0961463X18820740>
- Sarstedt, M., Bengart, P., Shaltoni, A. M., & Lehmann, S. (2018). The use of sampling methods in advertising research: a gap between theory and practice. *International Journal of Advertising*, 37(4), 650-663. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02650487.2017.1348329>
- Schouten, A. P., Janssen, L., & Verspaget, M. (2021). Celebrity vs. Influencer endorsements in advertising: the role of identification, credibility, and Product-Endorser fit. In *Leveraged marketing communications* (pp. 208-231). Routledge.
- Schudson, M. (1989). How Culture Works: Perspectives from Media Studies on the Efficacy of Symbols. *Theory and Society*, 18(2), 153-80.
- Serdane, Z., Maccarrone-Eaglen, A., & Sharifi, S. (2020). Conceptualising slow tourism: a perspective from Latvia. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 45(3), 337-350. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2020.1726614>
- Shang, S.S., Wu, Y.L. and Sie, Y.J. (2017). Generating consumer resonance for purchase intention on social network sites. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 69, 18-28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2016.12.014>
- Shang, W., Qiao, G., & Chen, N. (2020). Tourist experience of slow tourism: From authenticity to place attachment—A mixed-method study based on the case of slow city in China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 25, 170-188. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2019.1683047>

- Shao, T., Wang, R., & Hao, J. X. (2019). Visual destination images in user-generated short videos: An exploratory study on douyin. *International Conference on Service Systems and Service Management (ICSSSM)* (pp. 1-5). IEEE. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICSSSM47389.2019>
- Sirgy, M.J., & Su, C. (2000). Destination image, self-congruity, and travel behavior: toward an integrative model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(4), 340-352. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728750003800402>
- Sizan, M. H., Latif, W. B., & Karim, Md. M. (2022). Travel vloggers as a source of information about tourist destination: A study in Bangladesh. *Webology*, 19(2).
- Snow, D. A., Rochford, E. B. J., Worden, S., & Benford, R. D. (1986). Frame alignment processes, micromobilization, and movement participation. *American Sociological Review*, 51, 464-81. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2095581>
- Steinberg, M. W. (1998). Tilting the frame: considerations on collective action framing from a discursive turn. *Theory and Society*, 27, 845-72. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/658033>
- Su, N., Mariadoss, B.J., & Reynolds, D. (2019). Emotional and cognitive involvement of consumers with hotel brands on social networking sites. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, 2 (4), 377-390. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTI-10-2018-0064>
- Surging Views. (2022, Dec). *Slow tourism in the countryside, do a day of idyllic poet*. Retrieved 24 May, 2024, from <https://baijiahao.baidu.com/s?id=1753527804493182149&wfr=spider&for=pc>
- Tse, T.S.M., & Zhang, E.Y. (2013). Analysis of blogs and microblogs: a case study of Chinese bloggers sharing their Hong Kong travel experiences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(4), 314-329. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2012.658413>
- Voronov, M., & Weber, K. (2016). The heart of institutions: Emotional competence and institutional actorhood. *Academy of Management Review*, 41, 456-78. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2013.0458>
- Wan, Hua-H. (2008). Resonance as a mediating factor accounting for the message effect in tailored communication—examining crisis communication in a tourism context. *Journal of Communication*, 58, 472-489. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-2466.2008.00395.x>
- Wang, D. Q. (2020). Research on self-media communication and its trust degree. *China Media Science and Technology*, 11, 36-38.
- Wang, R., Hao, J.-X., Law, R., & Wang, J. (2019). Examining destination images from travel blogs: a big data analytical approach using latent Dirichlet allocation. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 24(11), 1092-1107. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2019.1665558>
- Weber, K., Heinze, K. L., & DeSoucey, M. (2008). Forage for thought: Mobilizing codes in the movement for grass-fed meat and dairy Products. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 53, 529-67. <https://doi.org/10.2189/asqu.53.3.529>
- Wu, M. Y., & Huang, K. J. (2014). Appraising netnography: Its adoption and innovation in the smart tourism era. *Tourism Tribune*, 29(12), 66-74. <https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1002-5006.2014.12.007>
- Xiao, M., Wang, R., & Chan-Olmsted, S. (2018). Factors affecting YouTube influencer marketing credibility: a heuristic-systematic model. *Journal of Media Business Studies*, 15(3), 188-213. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16522354.2018.1501146>
- Xu, W., & Zhang, X. (2021). Online expression as Well-be(com)ing: A study of travel blogs on Nepal by Chinese female tourists. *Tourism Management*, 83, 104224. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2020.104224>
- Yang, L., S., & Zhou, X. (2018). Research on the concept, nature and characteristics of slow tourism: Based on the perspective of tourists. *Tourism Research*, 10(1), 20-30.
- Yurtseven, H. R. & Kaya, O. (2011). Slow Tourists: A Comparative Research Based on Cittaslow Principles. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 1(2), 91-98.
- Zha, X., Yang, H., Yan, Y., Liu, K., & Huang, C. (2018). Exploring the effect of social media information quality, source credibility and reputation on informational fit-to-task: moderating role of focused immersion. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 79, 227-237. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2017.10.038>
- Zong, R. (2011). International Cittaslow and its realistic meaning in China. *Modern Urban Studies*, 2011(9), 14-17.

Appendix 1

Construct	Indicator	Description
Expectation Fitting (Wan, 2008)	EF1	The information provided in the travel blog or vlog met my expectations.
	EF2	The information provided in the travel blog or vlog was consistent with what I think should be provided when introducing slow tourism.
	EF3	The information provided in this travel blog or vlog was what I expected if I will travel to the same destination.
Value Accord (Wan, 2008)	VA1	The information provided in the travel blog or vlog was very valuable to me.
	VA2	The information provided in the travel blog or vlog was valuable for me to decide whether to go to the same destination.
	VA3	The information provided in the travel blog or vlog was very valuable for me to decide whether to take a slow tourism.
Empirical Credibility (Giorgi, 2017)	EC1	I thought what I just read/watched is true.
	EC2	I thought what I just read/watched is credible.
	EC3	Just read/ watched was consistent with my travel experience or lifestyle.
Cultural Credibility (Giorgi, 2017)	CC1	I discovered the slow culture shown in the reading/watching material.
	CC2	I agreed with the slow culture shown in the reading/watching material.
	CC3	I thought slow culture in reading or watching material is consistent with popular perceptions of slow culture in society.
Moderate Novelty (Giorgi, 2017; Cheng et al., 2020)	MN1	I found out something new about this travel destination that I did not know before.
	MN2	I found out something new about slow tourism that I did not know before.
	MN3	I got travel information that interested me.
	MN4	I learned how to plan my trip if I were to go to this destination.
Source Credibility (Cheng et al., 2020)	SC1	The blogger/vlogger was trustworthy.
	SC2	The blogger/vlogger was authentic.
	SC3	The blogger/vlogger was knowledgeable.
	SC4	The blogger/vlogger was credible.
Entertainment (Cheng et al., 2020)	EN1	It helped me to pass time.
	EN2	It helped me to combat with boredom.
	EN3	It helped me to relax.
	EN4	It was entertaining.
Slowness (Serdane et al., 2020)	SL1	It gave me a feeling of slowing down.
	SL2	It gave me a leisurely state of mind.
	SL3	Different from the previous travel (life) experience, it gave me a new sense of time experience.
	SL4	It freed me from the shackles of not having enough time in my daily life.
Self-congruence (Cheng et al., 2020)	SFC1	The image of the blogger/vlogger was consistent with how I see myself.
	SFC2	The image of the blogger/vlogger was consistent with how I like to see myself.
	SFC3	The image of the blogger/vlogger was consistent with how I believe others see me.
	SFC4	The image of the blogger/vlogger was consistent with how I would like others to see me.
Cognitive Resonance (Giorgi, 2017; Shang et al., 2017)	CR1	From my understanding of slow tourism, I resonated with this travel blog/vlog.
	CR2	From my point of view on slow tourism, I resonated with this travel blog/vlog.
	CR3	From my values about slow tourism, I resonated with this travel blog/vlog.
Emotional Resonance (Giorgi, 2017; Shang et al., 2017)	ER1	This travel blog/vlog stirred up a change in my emotions (mood).
	ER2	This travel blog/vlog aroused my passion for slow tourism.
	ER3	This travel blog/vlog inspired me to participate in slow tourism.
Audience Resonance	AR	In general, I resonated with this travel blog/vlog.