THE INFLUENCE OF ETHNOCENTRISM, TOURIST-HOST SOCIAL CONTACT AND PERCEIVED CULTURAL DISTANCE ON TOURISTS' TRAVEL ATTITUDE: EVIDENCE FROM HONG KONG TOURISTS TO MAINLAND CHINA

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of
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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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Daisy Xuefeng Fan

ABSTRACT

Tourism has long been considered an industry that contributes to improved relationships between cultures by facilitating mutual understanding. However, there is insufficient literature with empirical evidence addressing this issue. The present study integrates related theories to simultaneously evaluate behavioral and perceptional effects on tourists' travel attitude. To test the inter-relationships among ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, tourist–host social contact, and travel attitude, the current study focuses on Hong Kong tourists traveling to mainland China. These two regions are selected because tourism between them has been booming, and because there have been increasing conflicts between residents in both groups.

Specifically, ethnocentrism has been found to be a good predictor of behavior and cognition in anthropological, sociological, and psychological research; however, it is a largely unexplored realm in the field of tourism. In addition, although cultural distance has been studied to a great extent, the perceived cultural distance encountered in travel has not yet been explored, and cultural differences between ethnically similar but ideologically different regions need to be identified. Regarding the concept of social contact, the existing applications in the tourist–host context are problematic due to inappropriate measurement instruments. In addition, the effects of those concepts on tourists' travel attitudes have yet to be explored.

To bridge the aforementioned research gaps, the current study adopts mixed methods to test the proposed conceptual framework using constructs of regional ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, tourist–host social contact, and travel attitude in the context of Hong Kong residents traveling to mainland China.

The results reveal that the construct of perceived cultural distance consists of three factors: cultural retention, civilization and sociality. Quantity of social contact includes two

factors: social- and service-oriented contact. Structural equation modeling (SEM) is applied to test the proposed framework. As a result, regional ethnocentrism is found to have negative effects on the quantity and quality of social contact, behavioral travel attitude, and perceived cultural distance. Perceived cultural distance is found to have a positive effect on the quantity of social contact and a negative effect on its quality. Finally, the quantity and quality of social contact are both found to have positive effects on travel attitudes. In addition, using a bootstrapping method, the mediating effect of social contact is identified in relationships between perceived cultural distance and affective and cognitive travel attitudes.

The findings of this study contribute to both academic and managerial fields of knowledge. Theoretically, this study pioneers the application of ethnocentrism in the tourism field. A framework regarding ethnocentrism, tourist–host social contact, perceived cultural distance, and travel attitude is established. The current study also empirically develops measurement instruments for tourists' perceived cultural differences and social contact with hosts. In addition, by examining the incoherence of the relationship between cultural distance and travel attitude, the current study identifies the effect of cultural distance from a new perspective. Practically, this study explores the largest inbound source market for mainland China. Suggestions are provided for many participants in the sector, including government officials and policy-makers. In addition, the Hong Kong–mainland case can be generalized to other regions or countries that face problems among residents who are ethnically similar but ideologically different. Understanding the ethnocentrism–attitude mechanism helps policy-makers in terms of regional cooperation and development.

Keywords: Ethnocentrism, cultural distance, tourist–host social contact, travel attitude.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Travel attitude, ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, and tourist–host social contact: A brief introduction

The study of attitude is well established in marketing theory and practice. Attitude is considered to be closely related to tourist satisfaction (Lee et al., 2014; Kwun, 2011), destination image (Kim & Richardson, 2003; Jalilvand et al., 2012), and intention to visit/revisit (Ajzen, 1991; Hsu & Huang, 2012), in addition to affecting the entire tourism experience at a destination. Attitude is a readily observable construct for understanding the market and evaluating the effect of persuasive communication.

Ethnocentrism is one of the internal factors affecting individuals' attitude toward the world. It represents internal social bonds shared within a group and hostility to or suspicion of those outside the group, a characteristic found in all organizational units across the world, such as a particular nation, ethnic identity, or religion, or even a particular company or family (Sumner, 1906). An ethnocentric perspective suggests that one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are judged with reference to one's own group. Highly ethnocentric people perceive other groups to be inferior, and hence ethnocentrism leads to poor attitude. The current study aims to verify this relationship in the context of tourism, testing the influence of ethnocentrism on tourists' travel attitude toward a destination. Tourist–host social contact and perceived cultural distance are found to affect travel attitude. Meanwhile, ethnocentrism is found to have a negative effect on tourist–host social contact and a positive effect on perceived cultural distance.

To test the aforementioned relationships, the current study chooses Hong Kong tourists traveling to mainland China as an example. These two regions are selected due to the boom in travel from Hong Kong to mainland China, and the increasing conflicts and cultural distance

between residents in both groups. The following sections outline this study's background and research goals, and is divided into six parts. The first two parts describe the phenomenon of Hong Kong residents traveling to mainland China, and the political and historical relationship between the regions. The third part provides a review of the existing tourism research concerning the two regions. Drawing on this review, the fourth part states the theoretical and practical problems that characterize this field of research. The fifth part lists the research objectives for the current study, and the last part outlines the theoretical and practical significance of the study.

1.2 Hong Kong residents traveling to mainland China

Mainland China has long been the most popular travel destination for Hong Kong residents' outbound travel. As indicated in Figure 1.1, according to the Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department [HKCSD] (2015), trips to mainland China represented 85.5% of Hong Kong residents' overall outbound trips in 2014. Moreover, between 2005 and 2014, the total number of Hong Kong residents' outbound trips to mainland China increased from 62.8 to 71.6 million.
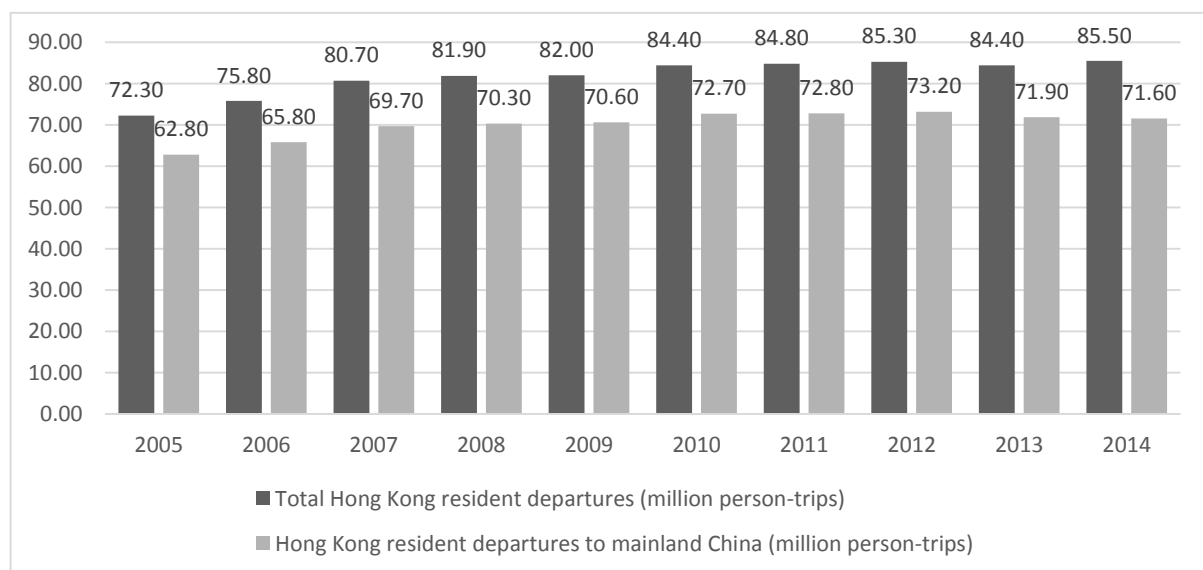
Source: HKCSD (2015)

Figure 1.1 Hong Kong Resident Departures (2005-2014)

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From the perspective of mainland China inbound tourism, Hong Kong is the largest inbound tourism source market. Figure 1.2 shows the inbound visitor arrivals in mainland China. The black bar indicates the total inbound visitor arrivals, and the grey bar shows the visitors from Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan (compatriots). The bar chart reveals that, compatriots are dominating the inbound travel source market. Specifically, in 2015, visitors from Hong Kong represents 59.37% of the total inbound visitors (National Tourism Administration of The People's Republic of China [CNTA], 2016).

In terms of popular destinations in mainland China, Guangdong province receives the largest volume of tourists. However, because Guangdong province and Hong Kong are close by, over 30% of visitors take same-day trips, and the average length of stay for overnight trips is 3 days (HKCSD, 2015). After Guangdong province, the next four most popular destinations are Fujian, Zhejiang, Jiangsu, and Guangxi province. For visitors to those provinces, the average length of stay is around 7 days and the average expenditure per person-trip is HKD3,420 (HKCSD, 2015).
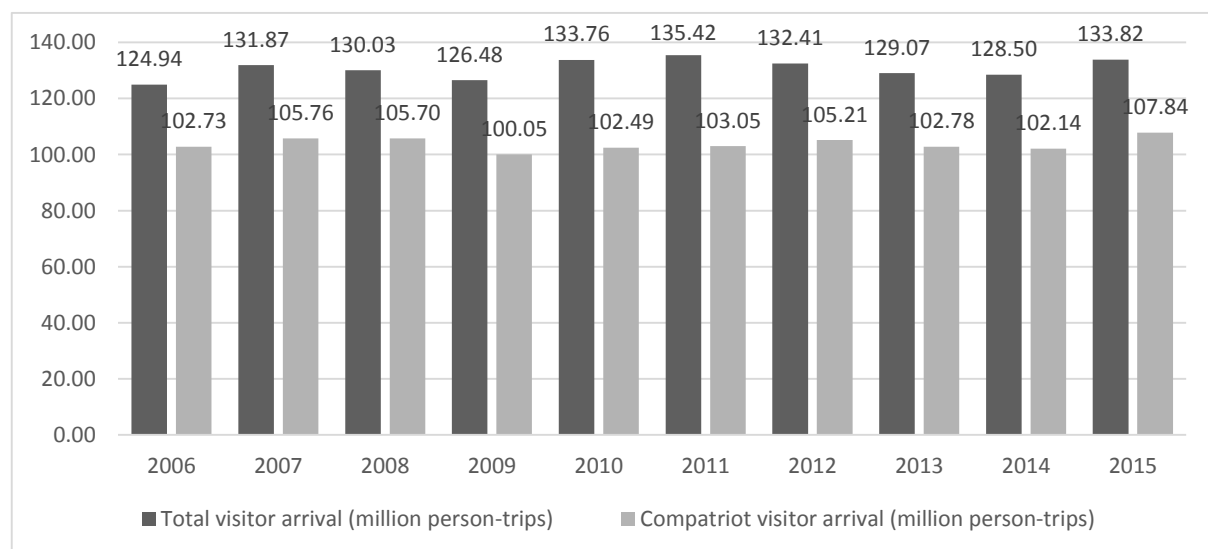
Source: CNTA (2016)

Figure 1.2 Annual Inbound Visitor Arrivals to Mainland China (Year 2006-2015)

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1.3 Hong Kong and mainland China

As the data above demonstrates, the booming tourism exchange between Hong Kong and mainland China is essential to both sides. From the perspectives of those involved in the tourism industry, policy-makers, and tourism scholars, it is important to ask: why do so many Hong Kong residents choose mainland China as their travel destination? Clearly, some external factors stimulate such behavior, such as geographic closeness, the ease of obtaining a visa, and low travelling expenses. Nonetheless, cultural relationships and kinship connections also play crucial roles.

The political and historical relationship between Hong Kong and mainland China is the most critical issue, and it distinguishes this relationship from all others. Hong Kong comprises three distinct areas (Hong Kong Island, Kowloon, and the New Territories), each of which became British territory as a result of different historical events (Hong Kong Island since 1842, Kowloon Peninsula since 1860, and New Territories since 1898). Following the Sino-British agreement, the whole of Hong Kong was handed back to China on July 1, 1997, as a Special Administrative Region (SAR) under the "One-country, two-systems" policy (Moran, Harris, and Moran, 2007).

After being returned to China in 1997, the Hong Kong government was like any restructured government, supported by some local residents and objected to by others. The differences in society (socialism vs. capitalism), development level (developing vs. developed), and government structure made the handover work challenging (Ko, 2012). Regarding national identification, a poll found that 77.4% of Hong Kong residents stated they were Hong Kong citizens, but only 59% agreed they were citizens of China (HKU Public Opinion Programme, 2012), indicating that a considerable portion of Hong Kong residents would like to be distinguished from mainland Chinese residents.

The majority of Hong Kong residents receive a Western education. Their official languages are Cantonese and English. The Hong Kong SAR's constitutional document, the Basic Law, ensures that the current capitalist system and way of life will remain in effect for 50 years from 1997. The rights and freedoms of people in Hong Kong are based on the impartial rule of law and an independent judiciary (Hong Kong – the Facts, 2012). Because Hong Kong has a strong British influence, it is sophisticated and cosmopolitan, blending the cultures of Asia and Europe. Most citizens are highly educated, motivated, and Westernized. Although Hong Kong residents are mostly Cantonese, they view themselves as different from other Chinese (Chang, 2006). For these reasons, Hong Kong residents have become a unique subgroup/subculture (Tyagi & Kumar, 2004), distinct from the mainland Chinese. They have maintained traditional Chinese culture and traditions while being strongly affected by British culture over the last 100 years.

Due to the unique relationship between Hong Kong and mainland China, there are many social contacts between the two groups of people besides traveling, including work partnerships, kinship, marriage, and tourist–host contact. As Hong Kong has superior living standards, economic development, and educational level compared with the majority of mainland Chinese cities, many mainland Chinese live in Hong Kong for work, education, or other purposes. In 2011, 171,322 mainland Chinese residents in Hong Kong had been there less than 7 years, representing 2.5% of the total population (HKCSD, 2012).

Moreover, due to the steady increase of visitors from the tourism industry, Hong Kong residents host tens of millions of tourists each year, from 15,536,839 in 2003 to 54,298,804 in 2013. Since the late 20th century, due to political changes and relaxation of travel restrictions, the number of mainland tourists in the inbound Hong Kong market has dramatically increased during the past 17 years, from 18.4% in 1996 to 75% in 2013 (Hong Kong Tourism Board,

2014). Given this tremendous increase, Hong Kong's service industry has experienced a golden era.

It is often claimed that intercultural contact among people from different groups promotes goodwill and peace through interaction and communication (Fulbright, 1976). However, the case of Hong Kong and mainland China does not fully support such an ideal vision. Conflicts come with the contacts between the two groups. In recent years, as inter-regional communications and economic exchange between Hong Kong and mainland China have increased, many severe conflicts have been reported by Hong Kong residents, in connection with mainland mothers giving birth in Hong Kong hospitals, smugglers taking advantage of the Individual Visit Scheme (IVS), the poor personal etiquette of tourists, and perceived discrimination in retail shops. In 2009, a total of 58,994 mothers gave birth in Hong Kong, and 29,766 were from mainland China, constituting approximately 50% of all births in Hong Kong (Ye, Qiu & Yuen, 2011; "Mainland mothers," 2010). Local mothers complained about the lack of vacancies in hospitals and the high hospital expenses resulting from the huge demand ("Policies need to be carried out," 2012). IVS was implemented in 2003, which allowed travelers from selected cities in mainland China to visit Hong Kong on an individual basis. In 2009, the government implemented the "multiple-entry permit" for residents in Shenzhen, which encouraged more day-trip tourists to Hong Kong. The increased convenience of obtaining visas provided opportunities for travelers to illegally purchase goods in great volume from Hong Kong and resell them in mainland China for profit. This led to problems such as shortages and inflated prices for consumer goods such as milk powder, daily necessities, and high-tech devices. (Chow, 2012). Mainland Chinese tourists have also been accused of violating social rules and norms (e.g., eating on the train, allowing children to defecate in public areas) and causing a series of social problems (Ko, 2012; "The furore," 2014). In addition, some Hong Kong residents reported that they were discriminated against when shopping in

retail shops, as they were perceived to have less spending power than tourists from mainland China ("LANEIGE Hong Kong," 2013).

1.4 Research on tourism between Hong Kong and mainland China

Considering the unique political and historical relationship between Hong Kong and mainland China, many scholars have studied mainland Chinese tourists from different perspectives, such as travelers' motivation and demands (Zhang & Lam, 1999; Qu & Lam, 1997), the theory of planned behavior (Lam & Hsu, 2004; Huang & Hsu, 2009), perceived discrimination (Ye, Zhang & Yuen, 2013), and choice of restaurants (Law, To & Goh, 2008). For instance, Zhang and Qu (1996) discussed the booming market for mainland Chinese tourists to Hong Kong in connection with the economic and political consequences of the open-door policy after 1979. Several studies (Lam & Hsu, 2004; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Hsu, Cai & Li, 2010) expanded the theory of planned behavior to the market of mainland Chinese tourists traveling to Hong Kong. Some unique findings concerning travel motivations, expectations, past experience and perceived constraints were derived. In regard to special interest tourism, Choi et al. (2008) and Yeung and Yee (2012) explored the shopping behavior of individual mainland tourists and cross-border shoppers from Guangdong province. Traveling motivation, tourist typology, and strategic suggestions were discussed in these shopping behavior studies. Moreover, as Hong Kong is recognized a medical tourism destination in Asia, Ye et al. (2011) analyzed the motivation and experience of the medical tourists from mainland China via the in-depth interviews with mainland Chinese obstetric patients. The most mentioned reason for such medical tourism is to avoid mainland China's "one-child" policy. The findings suggested that medical tourists experienced discrimination in the form of less favorable service and less information sharing. In addition, mainland Chinese tourists' selection of restaurants has been studied, and differences between the choices of individual tourists versus group tourists were identified (Law et al., 2008).

Compared with the abundant studies on mainland Chinese tourists to Hong Kong, limited studies have been devoted to Hong Kong tourists. Zhang, Qu, and Tang (2004) explored Hong Kong residents' outbound travel characteristics; however, due to the special relationship, mainland China was excluded from the destination list in the study. Wong and Lau (2001) studied the behavioral characteristics of Hong Kong tourists who chose outbound tour packages. Other studies have mentioned Hong Kong tourists' traveling behavior, but without specific reference to mainland China as a destination (Lord, Putrevu & Shi, 2008; Law et al., 2011). Considering the importance of Hong Kong tourists to the inbound tourism market of mainland China, the research focusing on the Hong Kong tourists traveling to mainland China is largely missing. Such a situation may result from Hong Kong's in-between position, which leads to its being excluded from consideration as either a domestic or an international point of origin for travel.

1.5 Problem statement

Regarding the existing study on tourism between Hong Kong and mainland China, several problems have been identified and stated below, which deserve further exploration.

First, although Hong Kong tourists represent the largest segment of mainland China's inbound tourism market, little attention has been given to them. Existing research has explored mainland Chinese tourists' travel experience, motivation and satisfaction in Hong Kong, but Hong Kong tourists' psychological and behavioral characteristics when traveling to mainland China have not been discussed.

Second, although ethnocentrism is universally found in different groups and has been recognized in the social-psychological field as essential in determining individuals' sense of in-group identity and distinctness from or hostility to outsiders, it does not receive enough attention in the tourism area. Moreover, the inter-relationship among ethnocentrism, travel

attitude, tourist–host social contact, and perceived cultural distance has not yet been explored. In addition, although social contact plays an essential role in people's attitude and perception formation, there has been limited research into such social interactions and their effect on tourists' travel attitudes.

Third, due to its unique historical and political connection, Hong Kong is viewed as a subgroup/subculture of mainland China in terms of social system, development level, educational style, and social norms. The cultural differences between the two regions have not been well recognized by researchers, especially from the perspective of tourists. Cultural difference plays an important role in tourists' experience, travel satisfaction, and perception of value (Master & Prideaux, 2000; Reisinger & Turner, 2002; Ye et al., 2013), and should therefore be given much more attention in future studies. Furthermore, some scholars claim that cultural distance has a negative effect on tourists' willingness to travel to a destination (Cohen, 1979; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2008; Ng, Lee & Soutar, 2007; Spradley & Philips, 1972), while others claim that it has a positive effect, stimulating tourists to travel to a destination (McKercher & Cros, 2003; McKercher & Chow, 2001; Beard & Ragheb, 1980, 1983; Ragheb & Beard, 1982; Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Crompton, 1979; Hsu et al., 2010; Dewar, Meyer & Li, 2001). All studies on cultural distance in tourism fail to examine the different layers of cultural distance and provide a clear demonstration of a relationship. In addition, the instruments for measuring cultural distance have been mostly borrowed from disciplines such as psychology and sociology. Few studies have developed cultural distance measures from the point of view of tourism.

Finally, it has been claimed that tourism is the most common form of face-to-face intercultural contact (Berno & Ward, 2005). Among the literature exploring the relationship between social contact and cultural distance (Allports, 1979; Nuñez & Lett, 1989; Kirillova et al., 2015), very little has dealt with tourism as a research context, and what there is has been

largely built upon anecdotal evidence and interpretive evaluation. Those initial qualitative results provide great insight, but quantitative assessments are also necessary.

1.6 Research objectives

This study is guided by the following five research objectives, which aim to narrow down the aforementioned gaps and provide solutions to these problems:

1. To develop measurement instruments for perceived cultural distance and tourist–host social contact;

2. To examine the effect of ethnocentrism on perceived cultural distance, tourist–host social contact, and travel attitude;

3. To explore the effect of perceived cultural distance on tourist–host social contact;

4. To examine the effect of tourist–host social contact and perceived cultural distance on travel attitude;

5. To provide empirical suggestions to policy-makers of national tourism and government officials, and tourism practitioners.

1.7 Significance of the study

Through achieving the above objectives, the current study aims to contribute to the academic literature and current practice in the following ways.

Theoretically, this study pioneers the application of ethnocentrism in the tourism field and aims to establish a conceptual framework that represents the inter-relationships among ethnocentrism, tourist–host social contact, perceived cultural distance, and travel attitude. The proposed framework highlights the effect of ethnocentrism on tourists' travel behavior and cognition towards a travel destination. Ethnocentrism has long been studied in connection with intergroup conflict and customers' behavior in purchasing physical products. However, its effects on travel behavior and cognition toward a destination are largely missing. Therefore,

the current study tries to narrow such research gaps by introducing the concept of ethnocentrism to the tourism realm. Moreover, the measurement of tourist–host social contact identified in the current study can serve as a more precise tool in the Hong Kong–mainland China context and benefit the future research in related areas.

The current study also empirically explores the perceived cultural differences encountered when traveling to mainland China. It fills a gap in the study of cultural difference, which normally makes use of cultural difference measures from disciplines such as psychology and sociology. The derived measurement for cultural distance can be used as a tool for measuring the general cultural distance encountered in travel. This study is also a pioneering attempt to examine ethnically identical but ideologically different regions. The measurement provides a precise instrument for investigating cultural differences between Hong Kong and mainland China. Furthermore, cultural distance as a whole has been argued to have both negative and positive effects on travel attitude and intention. To make better sense of this relationship, the current study aims to identify the effect of cultural distance from a new perspective.

In terms of practical applications, with the fast growing tourism market in mainland China, there are a number of studies of the mainland tourists' travel among different destinations. However, there is a lack of research on the tourist source markets of mainland China. It is also unfortunate that few studies have been made of the cultural and psychological influences on Hong Kong tourists' travel behavior and perception. This study serves as an exploratory investigation to address such gaps and provide insight for strategic and marketing planning. Meanwhile, policy-makers seeking to promote tourism in mainland China may also learn from the findings concerning Hong Kong tourists' travel attitude toward mainland China, so as to maintain the current tourism boom.

This study targets the Hong Kong–mainland China relationship and aims to determine the effect of cultural distance and cross–cultural contact on travel behavior and cognition. Little literature to date has explored such critical issues. This study's findings provide useful information to government officials in charge of inter-regional relationships and resident-level interaction. Hong Kong is an SAR of mainland China, and tourism between the two regions has trade, economic, regional stabilization, and cooperation benefits. The huge number of mainland Chinese traveling to Hong Kong, including tourists, has triggered some conflicts between the two regions. Hence, the role of cultural distance in tourism between the two regions has gradually gained attention. Equally important, the cultural distance experienced by Hong Kong tourists in mainland China requires attention, to avoid further misunderstanding between the two groups. Actions can be taken to minimize cultural distance and further stimulate Hong Kong tourists' willingness to travel to mainland China. This study also informs tourism practitioners. Cross-cultural social contact is crucial in determining travel attitude. Operators should take action to regulate cross-cultural contact to maintain a positive attitude to mainland China. In addition, cultural distance between tourists and hosts should be considered when planning itineraries and tourism promotions.

The social-psychological term "ethnocentrism" is tested for its predictive role in tourist–host contact, perceived cultural distance, and attitude toward a destination. Derived relationships between these categories provide ways of explaining inter-cultural travel phenomena from a social-psychological point of view. Such behavior and cognition formation mechanisms can be used by national or regional tourism organizations to obtain a clear understanding of the tourism phenomenon between ethnically similar but ideologically different groups. The implications can be generalized to benefit other countries/regions that face the similar issues, especially those with a colonial background or those politically separated into several units.

1.8 Summary

This chapter briefly introduces the importance of the concepts of travel attitude, ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, and tourist–host social contact. It also provides background information on Hong Kong and mainland China and the boom in visits by Hong Kong tourists to mainland China. Several problems are identified with the existing research in this area and the research objectives and significance of the current study are stated. The next chapter reviews the literature on all four concepts and their inter-relationships.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

To provide a clear understanding of the previous research context and to build up a sound theoretical groundwork for the proposed framework, this chapter summarizes the literature of each construct in the current study, criticizes the existing research, identifies previous measurement instruments, and hence proposes a conceptual framework. Specifically, the first part of the chapter introduces the main components in the current research, covering regional ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, tourist-host social contact and tourists' travel attitude. Secondly, the identified research gaps from the literature are summarized and discussed.

2.2 Ethnocentrism - In-group love and out-group hate?

2.2.1 Definition of ethnocentrism

Concerning the nature of ethnocentrism, the social identity, and social categorization are premises and essential for researchers to understand the underlying principles. Social identification represents the extent to which the in-group has been incorporated into the sense of self, and meanwhile, the self is perceived as an integral part of the associated group (Brewer, 2001). Social identity theory was originally developed by Tajfel and Turner (1979, 1986), in an attempt to understand the causes of conflict between groups. It is a theoretical analysis of group process and intergroup relations. It reveals that, even though members of the group do not know or meet other group members before, and no members will gain anything from any source, members favor the in-group over out-group (Forsyth, 2010). Such bias encourages individuals to have positive evaluation of the in-group and positive orientations toward fellow in-group members (Brewer, 2001).

The term "ethnocentrism" was officially developed in 1906 by Sumner with the theory of ethnocentrism, indicating that one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled, evaluated or rated with reference to it. Each group develops its own pride, boasts itself as superior, exalts its own spirituality, and meanwhile, despises on outsiders (Sumner, 1906). The Authoritarian Personality (Adorno et al., 1950) started in 1943, which was a series of research report focusing on the psychology of anti-Semitism among Americans. Though the research methods and hypotheses used in those reports were perceived to be problematic and subjective, they did provide substantially empirical information and great contribution to the discussion of racial and religious prejudice, nationalism, ethnocentrism and cause of fascism. Due to the nature of report collection, the book was composed by several authors. There is no clear theoretical framework throughout the whole research and many of those studies were controversial, both conceptually and methodologically. Nevertheless, one of the major contribution was the development of the "E-scale" to measure the ethnocentrism of American towards other ethnics, such as Jew and Negro (Forbes, 1985). The dated word "Negro" will be replaced with "African American" in the following text to avoid any offense or discourteousness.

It is stated that, the characteristics that distinguish one group from another group may not be the same characteristics which differentiate the first group from a third one (Forbes, 1985). Ethnocentrism has to do with the real different groups. It is not a by-product of any merely formal distinction between in-groups and out-groups. The differences that create ethnocentrism vary in culture, ethnicity or way of life, such as language, customs, institutions, values and political principles among difference groups. In other words, an out-group may become a target of the ethnocentrism attitude because it represents a challenging alternative to the in-group's way of life (Forbes, 1985). Thus, the ethnocentrism seems to become more complicated, as people have different reactions to different groups.

On the contrary, some social-psychologists believe that, ethnocentrism was essentially a "psychological" problem, so it had little to do fundamentally with ethnic groups or ethnic differences. The fundamental cause of ethnocentrism is the fear and hostility of the ethnocentric people, rather than the variations in culture that differentiate one ethnic group from another (Adorno et al., 1950; Forbes, 1985). Adorno et al. (1950) also concluded that, ethnocentrism is a single, undifferentiated tendency which results from a pathological structure of personality. Any group in the world is ethnocentric, just to different extent. The implication can be that, ethnocentrism has little to do with the characteristics of the groups against which hostility is directed, but much to do with the irrational, inhibited, and resentful mode of existence of the authoritarian personality type (Forbes, 1985).

Research indicates that, various elements can affect people's ethnocentrism level. For instance, in social identity approach, ethnocentrism depends on the strength of identification with the in-group. Types of personality are also stated to affect the level of ethnocentrism, as some personality types are more vulnerable to adopting ethnocentric prejudice. Moreover, educational level, gender, age and social class are all identified to influence individuals' level of ethnocentrism (Hooghe, 2008; Shankarmahesh, 2006).

2.2.2 Theory of ethnocentrism

People are greatly influenced by their groups. It can be either a small unit, such as family or firm; or a broader concept, for example, community, religion, or even a nation. It is not restricted by the group size or direct interaction with fellow members (Brewer, 2003). The more unique and spiritual a group feels themselves to be, the more likely ethnocentrism is to occur (Gorsuch, 2002). It is interesting to explore the intergroup relationship and its attitude toward each other from a social psychological point of view. The interrelationships between in-group and out-group are termed as "ethnocentrism" by Sumner, dating back to 1906. It was described as a universal characteristic of human social groups. In his theory of ethnocentrism

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(Sumner, 1906), a differentiation arises between the in-group and out-group. The insiders in an in-group are associated with peace, order, law, government, and industry to each other. On the contrary, their relation with outsiders is associated with war and plunder. As a technical term, ethnocentrism indicates that one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled, evaluated or rated with reference to it. Each group develops its own pride, boasts itself as superior, exalts its own spirituality, and meanwhile, despises on outsiders.

The theory emphasizes the features between in-group and out-group, which are the negative attitudes toward out-groups and the positive feelings of the in-groups. Alternatively, it stresses that, the greater the attachment solidarity within the in-group, the greater the hostility and contempt directed toward out-groups (Brewer, 2001). It should be noted that the theory of ethnocentrism contains four fundamental propositions (Sumner, 1906): social categorization principle, the in-group positivity principle, the intergroup comparison principle and the out-group hostility principle. In terms of the in-group features, the social categorization principle indicates that human are organized into discrete in-group and out-group categories. The in-group positivity principle assumes that individuals value their own group positively and maintain a positive and supportive relationships with their members. Regarding the out-group features, the intergroup comparison principle claims that in-group positivity and solidarity are increased by social comparison with out-groups, during which the own group's attributes are evaluated as a superior one to or more advanced one than out-groups. The out-group hostility principle means the relationships between in-groups and out-groups are associated with conflict, contempt and hostility. In terms of the four principles, Brewer (2001) proposed that, within the system, the first and second elements were universal characteristics of human social groups, but the third and fourth principles should be considered with additional social-structural and motivational conditions, which were not inherent in the group formation process. Tajfel (1974) claimed that, to achieve the out-group dislike, in-group members had to acquire a sense of

belonging to the group, which obviously differentiated itself from those being hated, disliked or discriminated against.

Sumner's theory of ethnocentrism, performing as a theoretical fundamental in in-group and out-group relationship study, was criticized as well as supported by some following studies concerning the validity of the functional relationship and the application on attitude and behavior. For example, a lab experiment (Tajfel, Billig, Bundy & Flament, 1971) challenged the assumptions in the in-group positivity principle and intergroup comparison principle. The results indicated that only individuals in differentiated social groups had given the preferential discrimination in flavor of in-groups and discrimination against out-groups. In addition, Hinkle and Brown (1990) indicated that the field studies assessing the relationship between attachment to in-groups and discrimination against out-groups failed to obtain any significantly negative correlation between the two variables. Therefore, the theory of ethnocentrism requires further investigation on the specific conditions under which in-group identification may lead to out-group hostility.

Theory of ethnocentrism was applied in many other disciplines, such as language and communication, consumer behavior. For instance, in realm of language and communication, the relationship between ethnocentrism and perceptions of nonnative accents were examined. As the result, ethnocentrism was negatively and significantly correlated with perceptions of the speaker's interpersonal perception and critique of speech (Neuliep & Speten-Hansen, 2013). In addition, social categorization was stated to maximize in-group similarities and out-group differences. Another research, through a survey of 419 young adults, claimed that, high levels of individuals' intercultural communication sensitivity and multiculturalism are significant predictors of reducing individuals' ethnocentrism (Dong, Day & Collaço, 2008). Regarding the consumer behavior, numerous studies have been conducted to explore the relationship between ethnocentrism and various consumer behavior, such as purchasing intention toward both

domestic and foreign products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Wu, Zhu & Dai, 2010; Fernández-Ferrín & Bande-Vilela, 2013), country-of-origin perceptions and country attitude (Moon & Jain, 2002) as well as consumers' other psychological characteristics, such as nationalism, patriotism and internationalism (Balabanis et al., 2001).

2.2.3 Ethnocentrism in tourism research

Compared with some other social psychological terms, ethnocentrism was introduced to tourism study fairly recently. However, the process is remarkable and worth noting. Laxson (1991) conducted a qualitative research on American tourists visiting a native American (Indian American) museum. In this study, via observations and conversations with upper-middle-class American tourists in a native American museum, the authors identified that, rather than travel encouraging cultural understanding, brief cultural encounters such as visiting museums, appeared to reinforce ethnocentrism and convince tourists of the correctness of their own worldviews. This study supported the theory of ethnocentrism from Sumner, stating that individuals always tended to evaluate other cultures with one's own cultural norms as the core standard, during which individuals' own world view and cultural system gained solidarity and cohesion. Moreover, sense of belongingness and quality of individual's self-esteem may affect people's positive force derived from intergroup relationship, such as sense of pride, well-being and security (Isaacs, 1975). This can partially explain the colonialists' mind-set and behaviors in the remembered human history (Laxson, 1991). On the other hand, ethnocentrism also strengthened the stereotypes and discriminations to the native American. During a short period of a visit (compared with the deep root of people's belief), tourists failed to enhance the cultural understanding towards native Americans or make any change toward their stereotypes of native Americans. It supported the contact hypothesis by Allport (1979), which claimed that contact between culturally different groups may not necessarily lead to a good relationship. The result was also discussed in the cultural context of America, a "fast food" society. Interestingly,

ethnocentrism was normally processed unconsciously. Though this study provided a comprehensive demonstration and explanation on ethnocentrism in tourism, it required further investigations in various cultural sets and with empirical approach to verify the validity and generalization.

Recently, Rasmi et al. (2014) applied Berry's (1997) bidimensional acculturation model in the tourism industry and examined the relationship between home culture maintenance/host culture immersion and a series of tourist behavioral preferences, activities and destination preference as well as individual difference factors. Results revealed that, the more ethnocentric tourists are, the more likely they will maintain their home culture while also avoiding the host culture. Because of the favor to home culture and discrimination to the host culture, tourists may unconsciously incline to their own culture and maintain a distance to the host culture. Analogously, as stated by Gudykunst (1991), the highly ethnocentric individuals perceive members of their in-group to be superior and tend to maintain social distance from out-group members. Highly ethnocentric individuals prefer intra-cultural interaction and meanwhile avoid communication with strangers from other cultures (Neuliep, Chaudoir & McCroskey, 2001; Gudykunst & Kim, 2004; Neuliep & Ryan, 1998). In the current research, since Hong Kong is a special administrative region of China, the ethnocentrism level of Hong Kong residents are described as regional ethnocentrism.

2.2.4 Measurement of ethnocentrism

In ethnocentrism studies, several measurement instruments were developed for empirical exploration in different research realms (as summarized in Table 2.1). Dated back to 1950s, Adorno et al. (1950) developed a series of ethnocentrisms, which distinguished people who were ethnocentric with those who were not. In their work, an individual's prejudice toward any particular ethnic or minority group was symbolic of an entire cognitive system of negative attitudes about any out-group (taking white people for example). Adorno et al. (1950) referred

to such generalized cognitive scheme as ethnocentrism. Based on this assumption, the authors developed a measure of ethnocentrism, which was termed as E-Scale, and made up almost all the items relative to ethnic minorities. The E-scale was a series of likert-like items pertaining to Jews, African Americans, and other minority groups and patriotism. Due to its specific objective in the investigation, the E-scale is outdated and certainly could not be used today to assess ethnocentrism in other research settings.

Regarding the application of ethnocentrism in consumer behavior, Shimp and Sharma (1987) proposed a specific scale to measure consumers' ethnocentrism, known as the Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CETSCALE). As shown in Table 2.1, this instrument was designed to measure the tendencies of ethnocentric consumers toward purchasing foreign products and buying products from the U.S. (Luque-Martínez, Ibánez-Zapata & del Barrio-García, 2000). The CETSCALE has been widely applied in consumer behavioral studies in different markets, such as Spain (Luque-Martínez et al., 2000; Candan, Aydın & Yamamoto, 2008; Camarena, Sanjuán & Philippidis, 2011), the U.S. (Shimp & Sharma, 1987), and Middle East (Ben Mrad, Mullen & Mangleburg, 2011). However, as tourism is not a normally physical product, the tendency or perception on consumer ethnocentrism originally developed for purchasing preference of domestic or foreign goods is not applicable in the tourism study. Moreover, international tourism is a main research area in the tourism field, and such phenomenon may limit the validity of the CETSCALE.

One of the widely adopted measurement instrument for ethnocentrism is the Generalized Ethnocentrism scale (GENE). Neuliep and McCroskey (1997a) developed a general measurement instrument of ethnocentrism, which aimed to specify the out-group attitude and intergroup relations. They have argued that highly ethnocentric people prefer intracultural interaction and meanwhile avoid communicating with strangers from other cultural context (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997a). GENE, including 22 items (as shown in Table

2.1), was to reflect a conceptualization of ethnocentrism that may be experienced by anyone, regardless of the culture background. Due to its broad conceptual generalization, the GENE has been applied extensively across a wide variety of disciplines with documented reliability and validity, such as intercultural service-learning (Borden, 2007), intercultural competence and communication (Capell, Dean & Veenstra, 2008; Lin, Rancer & Trimbitas, 2005) and intercultural communication sensitivity and multiculturalism (Dong, Day & Collaço, 2008). In terms of the tourism field, few studies have been found to link the ethnocentrism with any tourist behavior. One research conducted by Rasmi et al. (2014) can be viewed as a pioneer in such field. Applying GENE measurement instrument, the study identified that, tourists who preferred separation with destination culture were more ethnocentric than those who preferred assimilation or integration with destination culture (Rasmi et al., 2014). A detailed list with all items in each ethnocentrism measurement was displayed in Appendix 1.

Table 2.1 Summary of Ethnocentrism Attributes from Literature

Scale name	Description	No. of items	Research Field	References
E-Scale	An individual's prejudice toward any particular ethnic or minority group was symbolic of an entire cognitive system of negative attitudes about any out-group, which was termed as ethnocentrism. A series of ethnocentrisms was developed which distinguished people who were ethnocentric with those who were not.	20	Ethnic minorities in the US, such as Jews, African American, and other minority groups and patriotism	Adorno et al., (1950)
CETSCALE	The instrument was designed to measure the tendencies of ethnocentric consumers toward purchasing foreign and domestic products in the U.S.	17	Consumer behavioral studies in different markets; Purchasing preference of domestic and foreign goods	Shimp & Sharma (1987)

| GENE | The measurement aimed to specify the out-group attitude and intergroup relations. Highly ethnocentric people preferred intracultural interaction and meanwhile avoided communicating with strangers from other cultural context. It was stated that, ethnocentrism may be experienced by anyone, regardless of culture background. | 22 | Extensively applied across disciplines with documented reliability and validity, such as intercultural service-learning, intercultural competence and communication and intercultural communication sensitivity and multiculturalism | Neuliep & McCroskey (1997a); Neuliep (2002) |

2.3 Culture and cultural difference

2.3.1 Definition of culture and cultural difference

Culture, as a fundamental concept, is one of the important elements in the social context and influences individuals' behavior (Tucker, 1964). As mentioned in previous social influence research (Tucker, 1964; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Bowen & Clarke, 2009), human beings are culture bounded. Culture always provides approved specific objects for any generalized human needs.

Regarding the definitions of culture, numerous of them have been developed by scholars from different perspectives. Culture, as a set of schedules of reinforcement (Skinner, 1981), shapes particular kinds of behavior (Berry, 1979). It influences the way humans select, interpret, process and use information (Triandis, 1994). Tylor (1924, p1) stated that, "culture is a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a members of society". According to Dewey (1916), culture is essential to the existence of societies. Society is stated to exist through a process of transmission. Such transmission takes place by means of communication of habits of doing, thinking and feeling from the older to the younger. Social life cannot get survived without

communication of ideas, hopes, expectations, standards, opinions from members of society who pass out of the group life to those who come into it. In other words, culture represents a common framework and a social bound in a society. It provides a unified concept that enables members to understand the entirety of a social system (Sturdivant, 1973). As one of culture's nature, social quality, such as the habits and patterns of behaviors, and social practices that facilitate social interaction between members of the same culture, transmits from one generation to the next. Social influence, representing all kinds of direct and indirect interactions among individuals, acts as the media which enable the culture to be delivered between generations and maintained in a relatively good manner.

Cultural difference, also referred as cultural distance (sometimes as the cross-culture study) is defined as differences among groups of people who do things differently and perceive the world differently (Potter, 1989). It also represents the extent to which the culture of the original region differs from that of the host region (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2008). Because of the strong forces towards further integration as well as promoting national cooperation purpose at the earlier research stage, cultural distance is often applied to measure national level differences between countries (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010).

According to different study objects, the cultural difference may be small and supplementary or large and incompatible (Reisinger & Turner, 2002a). In the tourism field, cultural difference mostly refers to the extent to which the culture of the original region differs from the culture of the host region (Goeeldner & Ritchie, 2008) in the tourist-host study. The culture difference was also introduced to explain the psychological and behavioral differences among different tourist groups (Tsang & Ap, 2007; Reisinger & Turner, 2002a, 2002b; Lee & Lee, 2009).

2.3.2 Cultural distance study in tourism research

Culture affects human beings' behavior and thinking in many ways. The distance between different cultures has been reported to affect tourists in various aspects, generally via an unconscious manner. In tourism field, there are numerous studies exploring the cultural distance and its relationships with other elements. Are those cultural distance articles demonstrating cultural distance in a similar way? Does cultural distance mean the same thing to different scholars? To answer those questions, the following work aims to summarize the existing literature on cultural distance study. It should be noted that, though cultural difference and cultural distance are interchangeably referred by scholars (e.g. Ng et al., 2007; Crotts, 2004), to reduce the confusion, the current study will clarify the two concepts in such ways: cultural difference is mainly referred to the macro dimensions of differences in culture, and cultural distance is mostly referred as the measurable difference across culture via the measurement instrument.

To generate a holistic view of the cultural distance study in tourism field, papers in top three journals in tourism research field, Annals of Tourism Research (ATR), Tourism Management (TM) and Journal of Travel Research (JTR) were chosen to be reviewed to represent a high profile quality of the current research status. With the review of the top three journals as a starting point, important articles in other tourism journals (Others) were also reviewed. In addition, as the research context is the cultural distance between Hong Kong and mainland China, articles published in Chinese (CHI) were also reviewed to generate specific insights. To specify the selective criteria, the review applied a two-stage selection approach. The first phase is to select articles with "cultural distance" or "cultural difference" in title, key words or abstract. To further purify the searching result, the second phase is to go through the content of articles and to ensure that cultural distance is involved in the research topic. After those two phases, 60 articles in cultural distance research were identified. Detailed information

for the 60 articles was provided in Appendix 2. Articles were categorized according to their research method, role/importance of cultural distance, proxy of cultural distance, measurement, as well as the correlated attributes (as shown in Table 2.2).

Regarding the research method, as indicated in Table 2.2, the majority (41/60) applied a quantitative research method. The others either belonged to qualitative (such as interview and observation) or review studies. Concerning the role/importance of cultural distance, even though it was listed as a core concept in articles, the position and function of cultural distance in each article varied according to the articles' specific research objectives. As a result, 13 out of 60 articles set cultural distance as their main research scale (cultural distance dimensions or measurement instrument development), and the other 47 articles took cultural distance (mostly the national cultural distance) as a proxy or an underlying cause (e.g. independent variable) of other correlated attributes. How to define a culture or cultural difference generates a great deal of argument. According to the statistics, close to 75% (44/60) of the cultural distance studies consider nation as the proxy of cultural distance. In other words, few studies have explored other kinds of cultural distance, such as politically separated regions, ethnicity, religion and any other potential proxy of sub-culture. Hofstede cultural values are considered as a mainstream and systematic measurement of cultural distance. Besides, some studies develop grid-group cultural theory and perceived cultural distance (e.g. social norms and behaviors) via qualitative approach or comprehensive literature review. According to Table 2.2, the most researched attributes associated with cultural distance is perception (11/60), followed by interaction and motivation.

Table 2.2 Statistics of Cultural/Cultural Distance Related Research

	ATR*	TM**	JTR***	Others	CHI****	Total
No. of papers in cultural distance	13	20	8	7	12	**60**
Qualitative	3	1	1	1	0	**6**
Quantitative	7	16	7	6	5	**41**
Review and discussion	3	3	0	0	7	**13**
The role/importance of cultural distance in articles						
Major research goal (dimensions or measurement development)	3	5	1	0	4	**13**
Independent variable of other attributes	10	15	7	7	8	**47**
Proxy of cultural distance						
Broader region (Continental) cultural distance	0	0	1	0	0	**1**
National cultural distance	9	16	7	5	7	**44**
Domestic regional cultural distance	2	1	0	2	5	**10**
Ethnicity cultural distance	1	3	0	0	0	**4**
Cultural distance measurement (for those which set cultural distance as a major research goal)						
Hofstede cultural value	1	2	1	1	3	**8**
Perceived cultural value	1	1	0	0	0	**2**
Grid-Group cultural theory	0	0	0	2	0	**2**
Correlated attributes						
Perception	1	5	4	0	1	**11**
Interaction	1	0	3	1	3	**8**
Motivation	1	3	0	2	0	**6**
Attitude	1	1	2	0	0	**4**
Destination image	1	0	1	0	2	**4**
Satisfaction	0	1	2	1	0	**4**
Hotel/service	0	1	1	1	1	**4**
Acculturation	1	2	0	0	0	**3**
Cultural ethnocentrism	0	2	0	0	0	**2**
Discrimination	1	1	0	0	0	**2**
Impact to host	1	1	0	0	0	**2**
Authenticity	2	0	0	0	0	**2**

*ATR: Annals of Tourism Research; ** TM: Tourism Management; ***JTR: Journal of Travel Research;

****CHI: articles published in Chinese.

2.3.3 The proxy of cultural distance

The majority of studies on cultural distance explored national levels of difference among countries because of the strong forces towards further integration as well as promoting national cooperation purpose at the earlier research stage (Hofstede at al., 2010). However, such classification assumes the cultural homogeneity within a nation and the layers of culture existed in a country have been largely ignored (Li et al., 2013; Li & Cai, 2012). Indeed, those countries which possess large territories, diverse ethnics and cultures, are normally perceived to share the same culture or values. However, for most of the time, it is not the true case. For instance, a comparison was made to examine the motivational differences between white Caucasians and ethnic minority passengers in North America for taking a cruise vacation (Teye & Leclerc, 2003). The result indicated that both white Caucasians and ethnic minorities were generally motivated to take a cruise vacation by a set of common factors, however, a number of important differences existed. In O'Guinn, Faber and Imperia's study (1986), they compared both Mexican-American and Anglo wives' perceptions of family decision-making role for purchasing and aimed to explore the impact ethnic subculture plays in consumer behavior. The findings indicated that ethnicity significantly affects wives' perceptions of family decision-making roles for expensive items. Kim-Jo, Benet-Martinez and Ozer (2008) have explored the role of acculturation and bicultural identity processes in the interpersonal conflict resolution preferences of Koreans, European Americans and Korean Americans. The result showed that Korean Americans displayed a complex bicultural pattern of conflict resolution. Focusing on China, in Chen's article (2004), the author has studied different subcultures from various regions in mainland China such as Beijing, Shanghai, Guangdong, Heilongjiang, Jilin, Liaoning, Sichuan, and Zhejiang; and summarized the major characteristics in negotiation styles in these regions.

As stated in Hofstede's cultural dimensions (The Hofstede Centre, 2013), Hong Kong and mainland China are different to various extents in all of their cultural dimensions. In such case, it is claimed that residents in Hong Kong and mainland China are sharing some common culture, meanwhile, distinguished by others. The current study would like to identify the cultural difference between Hong Kong and Mainland China encountered in traveling to Mainland China, and further to examine the impact of such cultural difference toward traveling to Mainland China.

2.3.4 Measurement of cultural distance

As culture holds a wide range of meanings, different scholars may have different understanding in their studies, and the measurement of culture and cultural distance varies much accordingly in different research topics and fields. Table 2.3 shows the various cultural distance dimensions based on the literature review. As identified by Wei et al. (1989), lifestyle differences, such as accommodation, food and the level of hygiene were part of the cultural differences which led to different perceptions of what constituted appropriate behavior. Spradley and Philip (1972) stated, cultural differences in food, language, cleanliness, pace of life, recreation, living standard, transportation, humor, intimacy, privacy, etiquette and formality require an adjustment, which is often associated with stress, even if the tourists had clear goals such as relaxation or viewing a specific scenery.

Reisinger and Turner (1998a, 1998b, 2002a and 2002b) stated that cultural values, rules of social behavior, perceptions, social (tourist-host) interaction and satisfaction are essential dimensions that hold the main cultural differences between Western host and Asian tourists. A set of attributes which represent the aforementioned dimensions were developed and adopted in exploring the cultural distance between Australians and Asians (Reisinger & Turner, 2002a and

2002b), Australians and Mandarin speaking tourists (Reisinger & Turner, 1998b), as well as Australians and Koreans (Reisinger & Turner, 1998a).

In addition, the grid-group cultural theory is also utilized as cultural dimensions in the tourism industry. According to Douglas (1982), the elementary idea of the theory is that the way people behave and think are culturally biased. It claimed that culture can be sorted across two dimensions of sociality: individuation in the group dimension and social incorporation in the grid dimension. According to the two dimensions, people were classified into four major social types: individualists, fatalists, hierarchists and egalitarians (Caulkins, 1999). Li et al. (2013) adopted such theory and explored the relationship among different sub-cultural groups in China toward travel motivation.

Culture's consequences were classified into a number of dimensions by different scholars, for instance, Schwartz's seven country-level dimensions (Schwartz, 1994), GLOBE's (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004) 18 cultural dimensions (nine "as is" dimensions and nine "as should be" dimensions) as well as Fons Trompenaars's seven dimensions (Trompenaars, 1993). As a pioneer and foundation in this field, the universally accepted and recognized theory is the Hofstede National Cultural Dimensions (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede analyzed a large database of employee value scores collected by IBM between 1967 and 1973, covering more than 70 countries. Four original value dimensions were identified accordingly, which were power distance (PDI), individualism-collectivism (IDV), masculinity-femininity (MAS) and uncertainty-avoidance (UAI). The fifth value dimension, long-term orientation (LTO), was added in 1991 according to Bond's (1988) Chinese Value Survey, the factor of "Confucian work dynamism". The sixth dimension, indulgence versus restraint (IVR), developed by Michael Minkov's analysis of the World Values Survey data was included in 2010 (Hofstede et al., 2010).

According to Hofstede's statement (Hofstede et al., 2010), the definition of each dimension in Hofstede's theory is briefly stated as below:

1)   PDI: the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. In other words, PDI indicates the dependent relationships in a country.

2)   IDV: the degree to which people in a country learn to act as individuals rather than as members of cohesive groups (Hofstede, 1989).

3)   MAS: the degree to which "masculine" values such as assertiveness, performance, success and competition prevail over "feminine" values such as the quality of life, maintaining warm personal relationships, service, care for the weak, and solidarity: from tender to rough (Hofstede, 1989).

4)   UAI: the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations.

5)   LTO: long-term orientation stands for the fostering of virtues oriented related with future rewards and in opposite, short-term orientation stands for the fostering of virtues regarding the past and present.

6)   IVR: indulgence stands for a tendency that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives related to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint stands for a society that such needs to be curbed by strict social norms.

As an essential measurement tool, cultural distance has been applied to many different areas, such as business investment and expansion (Shenkar, 2001; Kogut & Singh, 1988; Hofstede,

1989) and psychology (Bond, 1988). Regarding the tourism field, many scholars have studied the effect of cultural distance from various perspectives.

Using Hofstede National Cultural Dimensions as the conceptual basis, different scholars have applied different cultural dimensions to examine its impact on tourism related phenomenon. Crotts (2004) evaluated overseas travel patterns by the effect of cultural distance, applying one dimension from Hofstede National Cultural Dimensions, UAI. The result proved that cultural distance was moderately effective in explaining travel patterns. Regarding the conflict and discrimination during travel, Ye et al. (2013) introduced power distance and perceived cultural distance into the study of perceived discrimination. Findings suggested that perceived cultural distance indirectly exerted its effect on perceived discrimination through anticipated discrimination. Power distance was proven to moderate the relationship between relative group status and anticipated discrimination. In terms of customer service satisfaction, Crotts and Erdmann (2000) examined overseas travelers' inflight satisfaction with one cultural distance dimension, MAS. Results revealed that respondents from high MAS society reported dissatisfaction more often than those from low to moderate MAS society. It also showed that MAS was a reasonably good predictor of an airline's loyal customers. Besides, IDV was applied to measure the cultural distance between the customer and service provider in order to test its effect on service satisfaction (Reichert & Gill, 2004). In cross-border vacationing, IDV, UAI and LTO were selected to measure vacationers' perceptions, behavior, and satisfaction in border regions (Lord et al., 2008). In Wong and Lau's (2001) study, although the fifth one, LTO was not directly examined, some research has found the Chinese cultural values can affect tourists' travel pattern and preference.

Table 2.3 Summary of Cultural Distance Dimensions

Cultural distance dimensions	No. of dimensions	References
Hofstede National Cultural Dimensions power distance (PDI) individualism-collectivism (IDV) masculinity-femininity (MAS) uncertainty-avoidance (UAI) long-term orientation (LTO) indulgence versus restraint (IVR)	6	Hofstede (1980); Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov (2010)
Grid-group cultural theory individualists fatalists hierarchists egalitarians	4	Douglas (1982); Caulkins (1999)
Cultural conflicts between the US tourists and Chinese hosts cultural ethnocentrism communication problems poor quality of service lifestyle differences	4	Wei, Crompton & Reid (1989)
Cultural distance between Indonesian tourists and Australian hosts responsiveness/competence understanding the tourists/self-orientation social interaction/regard for other quality of life courtesy/competence regard for other	6	Reisinger & Turner (1997)
Cultural distance between Korean tourists and Australian hosts communication and understanding the tourist	4	Reisinger & Turner (1998a)

display of feelings interaction idealism		
Cultural distance between Mandarin-speaking tourists and Australian hosts self-actualization responsiveness and courtesy understanding the tourist interaction display of feelings social obligation	6	Reisinger & Turner (1998b)
Cultural distance between Asian tourists and Australian hosts cultural values rules of interaction/social behavior perceptions of service forms of interaction	4	Reisinger & Turner (2002a)

2.3.5 Cultural distance and ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism may affect the perceived cultural distance. According to Forbes (1985), one of the ways to identify ethnocentric persons is to ask questions about people's feelings of belonging to or distance from various groups. The ethnocentric people make sharp and clear distinctions between the groups they belong to and those they fail to identify. They try to maximize the number of the out-groups by defining their in-groups as narrowly as possible. They are concerned more with what they are against than what they are for. Comparatively, the non-ethnocentric people tend to identify with the widest possible groups with humanity as a whole, and resist to regard any group as an out-group. Consequently, ethnocentric people tend to exaggerate the intergroup differences in order to reinforce their in-group identity.

In the realm of tourism, as a result of the favor to home culture and discrimination against the host culture, tourists may unconsciously incline to their own culture and maintain a distance from the host culture (Rasmi et al., 2014). Analogously, as stated by Gudykunst (1991), the highly ethnocentric individuals perceive members of their in-group to be superior and tend to maintain social distance from out-group members.

2.4 Tourist-host social contact

Cross-cultural social contact, interchangeably referred to as cross-cultural social interaction, is defined as the face-to-face contacts between people from different cultural backgrounds (Cusher & Brislin, 1996; Yu & Lee, 2014). There are various dimensions of cross-cultural contact according to the different criteria of classification defined, such as on whose territory the contact occurs, the time span of the interaction, contact purpose, the type of involvement, the frequency of contact, the degree of intimacy between participants, relative status and power, numerical balance, as well as the visible distinguishing characteristics (Bochner, 1982).

2.4.1 Social contact in tourism

Tourist-host social contact is stated to be a special form of cross-cultural contact. Typically, tourists stay in a destination for a short and well-structured periods of time. Their purposes of travel set them apart from other inter-cultural contacts, such as immigrants and temporary sojourners (Pearce, 1982b). Tourists do not need to adapt to the local community and normally travel in a small cultural bubble of their home culture (Barthes, 1973). Though tourists may experience the culture shock to some extent, such shock may be stimulating and exciting to tourists as it can fulfill their sensation-seeking motivation (Mehrabian & Russel, 1974). In addition, the relative affluence of tourists locates them in a unique position in the host society, such as strangers

or adventurer. Thus, they have more opportunities to observe and scrutinize the host community from a tourist perspective (Simmel, 1950; Pearce, 1982b).

It is believed that social psychological view of tourist-host social contact focuses more on the interaction between hosts and tourists, whereas the sociological view emphasized more on the interchangeable relationships between the two groups (Yu & Lee, 2014). To date, as stated in the earlier parts, most research which is concerned with the social contact between tourists and their hosts has been predominantly attracted to the tourists' impact on the host community (Pearce, 1982a). In other words, the social contact research from the tourists' perspective is largely missing. As an equally important side, the impact of social contact on tourists deserves more attention.

As a fundamental work of the social contact studies, Cohen (1972) developed a fourfold tourist typology and discussed about various kinds of social contact in different tourists types. According to the degree of familiarity and novelty in travel, tourists are categorized into four types: organized mass tourist, individual mass tourist, the explorer and the drifter. The first two tourist types are further named "institutionalized tourist roles" and the other two are called "non-institutionalized tourist roles". Tourists in the institutionalized tourism are recognized as mass tourists. Those tourists normally visit the host country and observe without actually experiencing. Their trips are generally efficient, smooth and as quick as possible through all the phases. Risk and uncertainties are avoided from the trips due to their disadvantageous ability to cope with strangeness. Attractions favored by them are well-staged. Such transformation of attractions provide controlled novelty to the mass tourists with necessary familiarity in his/her immediate surroundings. Therefore, the richness of the local culture and geography is reduced. For the mass tourists, the environmental bubble of their native culture is quite strong. The environmental bubble is described as a protective wall, which prevents risk, uncertainty, or novelty from the tourists

(Cohen, 1972; Jaakson, 2004). An example from Laenui (1994), a Japanese family went to Hawaii for holiday via a tour group. They took the Japanese airline to Honolulu, and were greeted by a Japanese tour guide. They lived in a Japanese hotel, dined in Japanese restaurants, went out by Japanese-owned tour buses, and bought souvenirs from Japanese-operated shops on Waikiki beach. Such extreme example provides a typical environmental bubble effect during a tour. Thus, to a certain extent, mass tourists view the local society through the protective wall. Consequently, mass tourists are socially separated in the destination. They are surrounded by the host society, but do not integrated in. They just meet the so called representatives, such as hotel staff, tourist guides, and seldom native residents. On the contrary, non-institutionalized tourist roles would love to get involved in the local society and experience excitement in trips. They seek the complete strangeness and direct contact with new and different people. In such case, due to their way of life and travel, they meet a wide variety of people and have a deep contact with the local society. Cohen (1972, p177) also emphasizes that, "the degree to which and the way they affect each other depended largely on the extent and variety of social contacts the tourists has during their trips". This study also acts as a pioneer of and sheds light to the relational exploration between social contact and tourists' attitude towards the destination.

2.4.2 Measurement of tourist-host social contact

Cohen (1972, p177) emphasized that, "the degree to which and the way they affect each other depended largely on the extent and variety of social contacts the tourists have during their trips". So far, some studies have explored the "extent" and "variety" of tourist-host social contact. Table 2.4 showed the summary of the existing literature investigating different aspects of social contact. Rothman (1978), Mo, Howard & Havitz (1993) and Reisinger & Turner (2002a, b) applied

activities of social contact as the only measurement of social contact. Woosnam & Aleshinloye (2010) adopted contact frequency to measure the tourist-host interaction.

Some other research considered multiple dimensions to measure the social contact. Quality and frequency of tourist-host social contact were considered to evaluate the residents' attitude towards tourism development (Akis, Peristianis & Warner, 1996). Islam and Hewstone (1993) tested how qualitative, quantitative and intergroup contacts were related to various dependent variables. Frequency, activity and strength of social contact were taken into consideration to assess the closeness of interpersonal relationships (Berscheid, Snyder & Omoto, 1989). As one of the most recent studies, Huang and Hsu (2010), building on Berscheid et al. (1989) and Islam and Hewstone (1993)'s results, examined the activity, frequency, influence, valence, intensity, power and symmetry of customer-to-customer interaction on cruises.

The functions of social contact have been well addressed in the socio-psychological realm along with the application of Allport's (1979) contact theory and other related studies (Bochner, 1982; Cusher & Brislin, 1996; Yu & Lee, 2014). Tourist-host social contact, as a unique type of social contact, is yet to be explored even further. To date, though some studies have applied social contact to assess the tourists' impacts on the host community (Pearce, 1982a), measurement items were simply brought from other disciplines without rigorous investigation. Existing research failed to explore the various dimensions of social contact per se, which led to an inconsistency of the application of social contact. Thus, a systematic establishment of tourist-host social contact with comprehensive understanding of diverse dimensions is one objective of this study.

According to Cohen's (1972) argument, the "extent" and "variety" of social contact between tourists and hosts can greatly determine the degree to which and the way both groups affect each other. Based on the literature, the "extent" of social contact can be explained by the

quality of social contact and the "variety" of social contact can be represented by the quantity of social contact.

Table 2.4 Literature Summary of Dimensions of Social Contact

Author(s)	Year	Dimensions of Social Contact									
		Activity	No. of contact points	Frequency	Quality	Strength	Influence	Valence	Intensity	Power	Symmetry
Rothman	1978	√									
Berscheid, Snyder & Omoto	1989	√	√			√					
Mo, Howard & Havitz	1993	√	√								
Islam & Hewstone	1993		√	√	√						
Akis, Peristianis & Warner	1996			√	√						
Reisinger	2002	√									
Woosnam & Aleshinloye	2010			√							
Huang & Hsu	2010	√	√				√	√	√	√	√

2.4.3 Ethnocentrism and tourist-host social contact

Ethnocentrism is stated to induce in-group favoritism with regard to contact and cooperation (Hooghe, 2008). Analogously, as claimed by Gudykunst (1991), the highly ethnocentric individuals identify members of their in-group to be superior and tend to maintain social distance from out-group members. Highly ethnocentric people prefer intra-cultural interaction and meanwhile avoid inter-cultural communication with strangers (Neuliep et al., 2001; Gudykunst & Kim, 2004; Neuliep & Ryan, 1998) as they see themselves as superior to those from other cultures and they sense little or no motivation to communicate effectively with them. Moreover, it is also contended that ethnocentrism acts as a perceptual filter which influences not only the perceptions of verbal and nonverbal messages, but also perceptions toward their source. Therefore, when highly ethnocentric persons enter into an inter-culturally communicative environment, few positive outcomes can be expected (Gudykunst, 1997). Finally, Gudykunst (2005) pointed out that people's collective self-esteem is fostered by the group memberships and affects the communication with strangers. Ethnocentrism highlights this process specifically when initial encounters are inter-cultural communication, compared with intra-cultural communication.

2.4.4 Cultural distance and tourist-host social contact

The influence of cultural factors on social interaction depends on the degree of cultural similarity and differences between contact participants (Levine, 1979). The similarity in the cultural background of the contact participants is positively related to mutual attraction, liking, increase in familiarity (Brewer & Campbell, 1976), and social interaction (Feather, 1980). The dissimilarity in the cultural background distorts the meanings of peoples' behavior (Triandis, 1977), leads to communication problems (Pearce, 1977, 1982b) and loss of emotional well-being (Lynch, 1960), and inhibits social interaction (Robinson & Nemetz, 1988). Future contact may even be lost

(Kamal & Maruyama, 1990). Siehl and Martin (1985) found a positive correlation between culture similarity and socialization.

The outcomes of the social interaction between tourists and hosts from different cultures depend on the degree of "interculturalness" in the encounter, that is, the extent of similarity and differences between participants (Levine 1979). Consequently, large cultural differences do not allow for effectively dealing with members of other cultures (Kim & Gudykunst, 1988). According to Pearce (1982), there is always an opportunity for misunderstanding and interaction difficulties when there is an encounter of cultures that differ in interpersonal conduct.

2.5 Travel attitude

2.5.1 Definition of attitude

Attitude and intention are both well-developed concepts in various disciplines. They are closely related and are identified to be essential determinants of the actual behavior. In the coming paragraphs, the two concepts are discussed separately within the well-established theory of planned behavior.

Attitude can be described as "the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question" (Azjen, 1991, p188). It represents individuals' predisposition to evaluate some symbol, object, or perspective of the world in a favorable or unfavorable way (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). Attitude catches great attention from people, especially scholars, as it often serves as reliable indicators of how people act with a given set of circumstances in many different styles of life.

2.5.2 Measurement of attitude

When it comes to the concept of attitude, people always interchange with words such as beliefs, opinions and feelings. However, as a broader frame, all the three concepts are merely a particular perspective of attitude, and they can be distinguished on the basis of their duration and intensity. Specifically, as clarified in Mayo and Jarvis's (1981) book, beliefs represent predispositions accepted as truth and supported by strong facts or information. Opinions stand for those which are not based on certainty, always associated with current issues and are easy to change. Feelings are predispositions which have significantly emotional nature.

In order to measure the evaluative meaning of objects and behaviors, the structure and components of attitude need to be considered. Social psychological literature suggests several ways of conceptualization toward attitude. Some scholars believed that, attitude is multi-dimensional. Rosenberg et al. (1960) proposed that, there were three components in attitude, termed as cognitive component, affective component and behavioral component (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). The cognitive component refers to these beliefs which are based on tangible evidence perceived as fact by an individual at a given time spot. Each belief attaches an attribute to an object or an outcome to a behavior, and reflects the subjective value that people place on each attribute or outcome. It can be described as the perceptual responses and verbal statements of belief (Bright, 2008). The affective component is the emotional judgments that an individual makes to an object. It represents the feelings, moods, emotions, and sympathetic nervous-system activity that people experience in relation to an object and subsequently associate with it (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998). The cognitive component serves as the foundation for the affective component. It means that, one cannot have an emotional judgment without holding any belief on a certain object. On the contrary, one can have a belief or opinion on a certain object, which involves little or no emotion.

Sympathetic nervous responses and verbal statements of affect can be utilized to characterize it. The behavioral component describes the tendency to respond favorably or unfavorably to a certain object. It can be understood as the actual behavior or behavior intention toward the object or action. It can be measured by asking about the overt actions and verbal statements concerning a certain behavior (Rosenberg et al., 1960). It is easy to understand that, if an individual hold a favorable opinion toward a destination, he or she is potentially ready to have a trip in the destination or support any associated attributes. Oppositely, if an individual holds an unfavorable opinion toward a destination, he or she may be potentially against that destination, and also have a negative predisposition toward visiting there.

Alternatively, in contrast to the variation in conceptualization, single-dimensional attitude was predominantly adopted in marketing research. As defined by Thurstone (1938), attitude is the affect for or against a psychological object. Fishbein (1967) argued that, all attitude scaling techniques place individuals on a dimension of affect. The majority of the marketing and related studies applied such manner and believed that, attitude is a single-dimensional construct, which represents the affect for or against a psychological object, event, or situation (Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979). This assumption is implicit in the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1988), which served as the fundamental theories for ample research in different disciplines, including tourism (Lam & Hsu, 2006; Hsu, Kang & lam, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Chan & Lau, 2001). In those studies, behavioral attitude was identified separately as the behavioral intention and normally served as the dependent variable in the attitude-intention studies using those theories.

As a compromised solution, some researchers argued that, true attitudes must include both cognitive and affective content (Katz & Stotland, 1959). Compared with the three-dimensional

construct, the behavioral component is excluded due to the lower level of abstraction and overt prediction to behavior. Similar to the one-dimensional construct, it is treated as a dependent variable of affective and/or cognitive variables.

Regarding the existing attitude measurement instruments in tourism studies, the majority test the affective (a small portion are cognitive) components of attitude, which are developed or directly adopted from the theories of TRA or TPB. Therefore, the behavioral components of attitude is largely ignored. The three kinds of attitudes are mixed and not clearly distinguished. Table 2.5 lists the general measurement instruments of travel attitude in tourism studies.

Table 2.5 Summary of Attitude Attributes from Literature

Attitude measurement instruments	Reference
All things considered, I think visiting XXX would be	
enjoyable/unenjoyable	Lam & Hsu (2004); Lam & Hsu (2006); Sparks & Pan (2009); Han et al. (2010); Hsu, Cai & Li (2010)
positive/negative	Lam & Hsu (2004); Lam & Hsu (2006); Han et al. (2010); Wang & Ritchie (2012)
fun/boring	Lam & Hsu (2004); Lam & Hsu (2006)
fun/foolish	Sparks & Pan (2009)
wise/foolish	Han et al. (2010); Wang & Ritchie (2012)
desirable/undesirable	Han et al. (2010); Wang & Ritchie (2012)
pleasant/unpleasant	Lam & Hsu (2004); Lam & Hsu (2006); Sparks & Pan (2009); Han et al. (2010); Hsu, Cai & Li (2010)
favorable/unfavorable	Lam & Hsu (2004); Lam & Hsu (2006); Sparks & Pan (2009); Han et al. (2010); Wang & Ritchie (2012)
good/bad	Sparks & Pan (2009); Han et al. (2010); Wang & Ritchie (2012)
like/dislike	Sparks & Pan (2009)
right/wrong	Wang & Ritchie (2012)
beneficial/harmful	Wang & Ritchie (2012)

useful/useless	Wang & Ritchie (2012)
excited	Sparks (2007)
aroused	Sparks (2007)
satisfying	Hsu, Cai & Li (2010); Sparks (2007)
worthwhile	Hsu, Cai & Li (2010)
fascinating	Hsu, Cai & Li (2010)

2.5.3 Ethnocentrism and travel attitude

Though the relationship between ethnocentrism and travel attitude has not been directly verified in tourism, the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude out-groups has been identified by abundant studies. Neuliep and McCroskey (1997a, 1997b) have pointed out that ethnocentric people hold strictly different attitudes and behaviors toward in-groups and out-groups. Specifically, the attitudes and behaviors of ethnocentric persons are biased in favor of the in-groups, meanwhile, holistic in the out-groups (Hewstone & Ward, 1985; Islam & Hewstone, 1993; Weber, 1994). Accordingly, a consumer who has a high ethnocentric tendency will be dogmatic and not open to foreign culture, so he/she will have generally unfavorable attitudes toward particular foreign countries.

2.5.4 Tourist-host social contact and travel attitude

There are paradoxical statement regarding the relationship between social contact and general attitude. Previous literature (Amir, 1969, 1976; Brein & David, 1971) indicated that, contrary to the popular belief, intergroup contact does not necessarily reduce intergroup tension, prejudice, hostility and discriminatory behavior. People were educated by politicians, pastors in church and other public figures that people of diverse cultural backgrounds could be brought into contact with each other, and such communication could build a mutual appreciation of their viewpoints and hence lead to understand, respect and like each other (Fulbright, 1976).

Unfortunately, at times, intergroup contact may increase tension, hostility and suspicion. Regarding the contact hypothesis by Allport (1979), which originally offering a way to minimize stereotyping and discrimination between two culturally different regions (Yu & Lee, 2014), prejudice can be reduced by equal status contact between majority and minority groups in the pursuit of common goals. Such effect can be greatly enhanced if the contact is supported by institutional sanction, such as law and custom. The effect can also be strengthened if it leads to the perception of common interests and common humanity between both groups. In other words, the result of contact depends on the kind of contact, and the situation in which contact occurs. For instance, the residential and occupational contacts may often do more harm than good. However, as the theory was experimented in the U.S. in the middle of last century, with the ethnic groups of Caucasian and African Americans for example, the hypotheses need to be tested in the setting of other cultural contexts.

The contact hypothesis theory in the social psychological field provides a general idea of the outcome of international encounters. In addition, culture distance is believed to play an essential role in determining the host-tourist relationship. As stated by Sutton (1967), the types of social contact depend on the cultural similarities and differences in participants' cultural context. Specifically, there are three types of social contacts between hosts and tourists: the same (or similar); different, but the differences are small and supplementary; different, and the differences are large and hard to tolerate by any side. In the first two types, cultural distance can be coped with, hence two participants are not culturally separated. In such situation, perceived cultural similarity is positively related to the mutual attraction, favor, decline in social distance, and increase in familiarity (Brewer & Campbell, 1976). Regarding the third type, as the cultural distance is too large, participants from different cultural background are culturally separated. Therefore, the

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greater the differences, the more likely that social contact will trigger friction and hostility. Furthermore, Bochner (1982) identified that, the cross-culture interactive difficulties can be categorized into three types: interpersonal communication and behaviors; non-verbal signals; and rules and patterns of interpersonal interaction.

In the context of tourists and hosts relationship studies, the social contacts between the two groups may enhance positive attitudes and mutual understanding toward each other (Pearce, 1982b; Amir & Ben-Air, 1985; Pizam, Uriely & Reichel, 2000). For instance, one of the study indicated that, in the relationship between hosts and working tourists, the higher the intensity of the social contact between hosts and tourists, the more favorable are the tourists' feelings towards their hosts, and the more positive is the attitude towards the hosts and destination (Pizam et al., 2000).

On the contrary, Cohen (1972) highlighted the communicational gap, such as language, can intensify the isolation of the mass tourist from the host society. For instance, in the study of American visitors in mainland China (Wei, Crompton & Reid, 1989), because of the great cultural distance and mutual ethnocentrism to own culture, tourists were identified to experience great difficulties in terms of communication, service quality as well as lifestyle. Studies conducted by Reisinger and Turner (1998a, 1998b, 2002a, 2002b) also obtained various kinds of social contact difficulties in different cultural contexts.

In Chen, Lin and Petrick's (2013) study on Taiwanese country and destination perceptions toward mainland China, individuals who have higher identification (ethnocentrism) with their own country might gain lower evaluations of the host country. This finding can be explained by the social identity theory. The presence of group identities may lead to collectively biased perceptions of out-group members (Chen et al., 2013). In the context of international conflicts, the image of a rival country might be built via education and mass media on a regular base. Consequently, the

negative country image might be accepted as organic destination image, which is hard to change during a short term visit. It also reveals that, the political and residents' relationship plays an essential role in the tourists' perception and attitude toward the travel destination. Social contact may not necessarily lead to a positive change in destination image in such context.

2.5.5 Cultural distance and travel attitude

Regarding the cultural distance and travel attitude, there has been a paradoxical debate in the academy. On one side, many scholars believe that cultural distance may negatively affect tourists' willingness to travel to a certain region. Cohen (1979) argued that people seek for difference and change when traveling, however, just to the extent that change remains nonthreatening. As stated by Goeldner and Ritchie (2008), in general, the greater the cultural distance, the greater the resistance. Taking language as example, language can be seen as one of the cultural distance barriers among culturally separated regions. Bowen and Clarke (2009) argued that, native English speakers show notable preference to travel to English-speaking destinations, such as Australia, New Zealand, the U.S. and Canada. South America and the Spanish-speaking Caribbean is more favourable to Spanish-speakers, compared with the English-speaking Caribbean. Logically, such kinds of preference can be connected with the patterns of colonialism (McKercher & Decosta, 2007). Considering the religion, it is stated that, tourists from Muslim countries prefer to visit Muslim countries (Yavas, 1987). Ng et al. (2007), adopting five different cultural distance measures, examined cultural distance and its impact on destination selection. Eleven countries were chosen to be the potential destinations for Australian tourists. The results indicate that, the greater the perceived cultural similarity of a foreign destination to Australia, the more likely it is for Australians to visit the destination. From a social psychological perspective, the similarity-attraction hypothesis indicated that, people are attracted to others who have similar attitude and

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beliefs (Byrne & Nelson, 1965) and such hypothesis has been examined in many business contexts, such as human resource management (Farh et al., 1998) and supply-demand relationship (Wong & Lamb, 1983). Moreover, taking Hong Kong and mainland China for example, the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) (1995) specified, mainland China was the most popular destination for Hong Kong travellers because of the great similarity in their cultural background. However, such statement has not been empirically tested. All the aforementioned research suggests that, the greater the cultural distance between a destination and a tourist's home country, the more negative the tourist would feel toward traveling to the destination.

Cultural shock might be a main concern when traveling to a less familiar, and more culturally different destination. The perception of risk encountered in the trip will be considered to be much greater in those culturally different destinations (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). Consistently, Spradley and Philips (1972) emphasized, cultural differences in food, language, cleanliness, pace of life, recreation, standard of living, transportation, humor, intimacy, privacy etiquette and formality are often associated with stress, even though the travel purpose is to relax or visit site seeing.

On the other hand, some scholars have found that cultural distance, rather than cultural similarity can stimulate tourists' travelling willingness to a destination. For example, McKercher and Cros (2003) found that a destination's cultural attributes were associated with the destination selection. McKercher and Chow (2001) stated that the greater the cultural difference is, the more likely that tourists would participate in cultural tourism activities and the more important cultural reasons become in their travel decision making. In some extreme cases, an allocentric person in Plog's (1974) tourist psychographics may wish to travel to a destination with greater cultural difference. A study done by Jackson (2001) identified the impact of tourists' cultural difference

on their destination selection and travel intention. People from highly individualist countries visited more culturally similar destinations, and those from highly collectivist countries visited more culturally distance destinations.

Travel motivations are examined to be good predictors for travel attitudes, especially the behavioural attitude. In previous research, numerous studies have supported such statements in different contexts (Ajzen, 1991; Hsu et al., 2010; Hung & Petrick, 2011; Fan & Hsu, 2014). Ajzen (1991) supported the relationship between motivation and intention in which the intention consists of motivational factors that have an influence on the peoples' behavior. In motivation studies, novelty/discovery is one of the highly ranked item which inspire tourists to travel (Beard & Ragheb, 1980, 1983; Ragheb & Beard, 1982; Ryan and Glendon, 1998; Crompton, 1979; Hsu et al., 2010; Dewar et al., 2001). In addition, motivation factor of novelty has a significantly positive effect on tourists' attitude toward a destination (Hsu et al., 2010). In such case, cultural distance seems to be a great element which stimulates tourists to go to a specific destination.

Though some studies have tried to explain such conflicts in different ways, such as tourists' cultural orientation (Jackson, 2001), types of tourism attraction in destinations (McKercher & Cros, 2003; McKercher & Chow, 2001), limited efforts have been made to explore such phenomenon from the cultural distance per se. In other words, the different layers of cultural distance have been largely ignored. Therefore, in the current study, one of the aims is to differentiate the impact of different dimensions in cultural distance on travel attitude and intention.

2.6 Research gaps

According to the literature review on the aforementioned components, several key research gaps are identified and presented in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, the term ethnocentrism is a largely underestimated realm in tourism research. Previous research has reported that, ethnocentrism is a good predictor of social contact, cultural distance as well as the reference group influence. However, few researchers have addressed those relationships. Due to the lack of understanding in the underlying mechanism and its forceful implication, there is no systematic ethnocentrism study in tourism realm. Moreover, some essential and beneficial theories or concepts in the social-psychological field have yet to be introduced to the tourism. Most of the current works in this area merely explore some superficial aspects of it without considering the interrelationship between each other. Such cases may create some constraints for the continuous and further development in tourism studies.

Secondly, based on the existing literature, concerning the social contact research, the majority focuses on the social contact impact brought by tourists on the host residents and society, such as environment, culture and crime. Few studies explore the social contact influence on tourists in the destinations. Such imbalance requires more social contact studies on the tourist side.

Thirdly, regarding cultural distance research, the majority of studies on cultural distance explore national levels of difference among countries because of the strong forces towards further integration as well as promoting national cooperation purpose at the earlier research stage (Hofstede et al., 2010). According to the literature review, cultural diversity does exist within one nation (Teye & Leclerc, 2003; O'Guinn et al, 1986; Kim-Jo et al., 2008; Chen, 2004). Few studies have explored the cultural differences between ethnically similar but ideologically different parts, and even less have examined the impact of such cultural differences on travel attitude. Cultural distance may affect tourists' perceptions of a destination in both positive and negative ways. Though some studies have tried to explain such conflicts in different ways, such as tourists' cultural orientation (Jackson, 2001), types of tourism attraction in destinations (McKercher & Cros,

2003; McKercher & Chow, 2001), limited efforts have been made to explore such phenomenon from the cultural distance per se. In other words, the different layers of cultural distance have been largely ignored. Therefore, the impacts of different cultural dimensions on travel attitude should be studied.

Fourthly, most cultural distance measurement instruments are based on previous literature reviews. Such kind of measurements may have a strong theoretical background, whereas are weak in practical interpretation and implication. In comparison, perceived cultural distance encountered during visit can benefit both scholars and practitioners, as it comes from the tourists who have experienced the cultural distance between two certain regions and the tailor made measurements can capture the uniqueness between two cultures. According to Ng et al.'s (2007) study, the perceived cultural distance measurement is stated to be the strongest predictor of attitude. Unfortunately, limited academic efforts have been devoted to examine such measurement. Therefore, a qualitative study is required to identify the similarity and difference between the two ethnically similar but ideologically different parts.

Lastly, travel attitude is a well-studied realm in tourism. However, according to the literature, the majority of the travel attitude studies adopt the Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) attitude definition and measurement instrument, which merely represents the affective component of attitude. The cognitive and behavioural components of attitude are largely ignored. The three types of attitudes are treated as a whole and not clearly distinguished in the context of tourism research.

Below lists the summary of the identified research gaps from the literature review:

1. Ethnocentrism is largely underestimated in tourism research. No systematic study has been conducted to explore the influence of ethnocentrism in the context of tourism.

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2. Compared with ample research of social impact on host residents and society, few studies have focused on the effect of social contact on tourists.

3. Limited studies have explored the intra-national cultural differences, for instance, the cultural differences among ethnically similar but ideologically different regions, and even less have examined the impact of such cultural differences on travel attitude.

4. Though perceived cultural distance is stated to be the strongest predictor of attitude, limited academic efforts have been devoted to develop such measurement from tourists' viewpoint.

5. Concerning the three components of attitude, the majority of previous research merely adopted the affective attitude, whereas the cognitive and behavioural attitude is largely ignored. The three types of attitude are not clearly distinguished in tourism research.

2.7 Summary

In this chapter, the literature of ethnocentrism, tourist-host social contact, perceived cultural distance and travel attitude are reviewed and summarized in terms of definition, measurements as well as the development and involvement levels in tourism research. Research gaps are identified accordingly. Those reviews and critiques provide a theoretical basis for building the conceptual framework. In the next chapter, to deliver a clear idea of the correlation among those constructs, a summary of relationships among constructs are presented. Propositions and the corresponding hypotheses are listed and a conceptual framework based on the hypotheses is proposed for further examination.

CHAPTER 3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Formation of propositions and hypotheses

Highly ethnocentric individuals prefer intra-cultural interaction and meanwhile avoid communication with strangers from other cultures as highly ethnocentric persons see themselves as superior to those from other cultures and they sense little or no motivation to communicate effectively with them (Neuliep, Chaudoir & McCroskey, 2001; Gudykunst & Kim, 2004; Neuliep & Ryan, 1998). Ethnocentrism is stated to induce in-group favoritism with regard to contact and cooperation (Hooghe, 2008). As claimed by Gudykunst (1991), the highly ethnocentric individuals identify members of their in-group to be superior and tend to maintain social distance from out-group members. Therefore, it can be assumed that, the more ethnocentric an individual is, the less social contact the individual will have with the hosts.

Proposition 1: Ethnocentrism can influence inter-cultural communication by its feature of in-group favor and out-group avoidance. Due to the social identity process, individuals tend to communicate and cooperate more with their in-group members, meanwhile, sense little motivation to have contact with the out-group members.

Hypothesis 1: Regional ethnocentrism has a negative effect on tourist-host social contact.

Literature reveals that, even though members of the group do not know or meet other group members before, and no members will gain anything from any source, members favor the in-group over out-group (Forsyth, 2010). Such bias encourages individuals to have positive evaluation of the in-group and positive orientations toward fellow in-group members (Brewer, 2001). As a result of favor to home culture and discrimination against the host culture, tourists may unconsciously

incline to their own culture and maintain a distance from the host culture (Rasmi et al., 2014). Analogously, as stated by Gudykunst (1991), the highly ethnocentric individuals perceive members of their in-group to be superior and tend to maintain social distance from out-group members. Thus, considering the arguments from previous literature, it is reasonable to propose that, a high ethnocentrism may lead to a high home-host cultural distance by tourists.

Proposition 2: Ethnocentrism is closely connected to culture recognition and preference. Highly ethnocentric individuals perceive their own culture as superior to any others, hence discriminate against host cultures. Consequently, tourists may incline to their own culture and maintain a distance to the host culture.

Hypothesis 2: Regional ethnocentrism has a positive effect on the perceived cultural distance.

Although the relationship between ethnocentrism and travel attitude has not been directly verified in the tourism field, the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude toward out-groups has been identified by abundant studies (Neuliep & Speten-Hansen, 2013; Dong et al., 2008; Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Wu et al., 2010; Fernández-Ferrín & Bande-Vilela, 2013; Balabanis et al., 2001). Neuliep and McCroskey (1997a, 1997b) have pointed out that ethnocentric people hold strictly different attitudes and behaviors toward in-groups and out-groups. Specifically, the attitudes and behaviors of ethnocentric persons are biased in favor of the in-groups, and characterized by hostility to the out-groups (Hewstone & Ward, 1985; Islam & Hewstone, 1993; Weber, 1994). Accordingly, a consumer who has a high ethnocentric tendency will be dogmatic and not open to foreign cultures, so he/she will have generally unfavorable attitudes toward particular foreign countries.

Proposition 3: Ethnocentrism negatively affects individuals' attitude toward an out-group. Ethnocentric individuals tend to have a positive attitude toward the in-group and keep a negative attitude towards any out-group. The more ethnocentric an individual is, the more negative he/she will view out-groups.

Hypothesis 3: Regional ethnocentrism has a negative effect on travel attitude.

Large cultural differences do not allow for effectively dealing with members of other cultures. Misunderstanding always happen during any cross-cultural encounter. The influence of cultural factors on social interaction depends on the degree of cultural similarity and differences between contact participants (Levine, 1979). The cultural similarity between the contact participants is positively related to mutual attraction, liking, increase in familiarity (Brewer and Campbell 1976), and social interaction (Feather, 1980). The cultural dissimilarity distorts the meanings of peoples' behavior (Triandis, 1977), leads to communication problems (Pearce, 1977, 1982b) and loss of emotional well-being (Lynch 1960), and inhibits social interaction (Robinson & Nemetz, 1988). Future contact may even be lost (Kamal & Maruyama, 1990). Siehl and Martin (1985) found a positive correlation between culture similarity and socialization.

Proposition 4: The tourist-host social contact depends on the distance between tourist culture and host culture. A large perceived cultural distance distorts people's behavior and inhibits the cross-cultural interaction between the two parties. A cultural similarity will lead to the increase in social interaction.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived cultural distance has a negative effect on tourist-host social contact.

To date, there is hardly any agreement on the relationship between tourist-host social contact and travel attitude. It is stated that, if people from different races, ethnicities, or religions make contact/interact with one another in an equal manner, then the stereotype, discrimination and hostility will decrease accordingly. Moreover, studies also indicate that, in the context of tourist and hosts relationship, the social contacts between two groups may enhance positive attitudes and mutual understanding toward each other (Pearce, 1982b; Amir & Ben-Air, 1985; Pizam, Uriely & Reichel, 2000). However, social contact may not necessarily lead to a positive change in travel attitude. Sometimes, intergroup contact may increase tension, hostility and suspicion. The greater the social contacts are, the more likely that friction and hostility will be triggered.

Proposition 5a: Tourists' travel attitude toward a destination is affected by their social contact in the destination. The more contact tourists have with the host, the more pleasant feeling they will get toward the travel experience in the destination.

Hypothesis 5a: Tourist-host social contact has a positive effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.

Proposition 5b: Tourists' travel attitude toward a destination is affected by their social contact in the destination. The more contact tourists have with the host, the less pleasant feeling they will get toward the travel experience in the destination.

Hypothesis 5b: Tourist-host social contact has a negative effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.

Cultural shock might be a main concern when traveling to a less familiar and more culturally different destination. The perception of risk encountered in the trip will be considered

to be much greater in those culturally different destinations (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). Consistently, Spradley and Philips (1972) emphasized, cultural differences in food, language, cleanliness, pace of life, recreation, standard of living, transportation, humor, intimacy, privacy etiquette and formality are often associated with stress, even though the travel purpose is to relax or site-seeing. On the contrary, some scholars have found that cultural distance, rather than cultural similarity can stimulate tourists' travelling willingness to a destination. In addition, novelty, as an essential motivation factor to travel, has a significantly positive effect on tourists' attitude toward a destination (Hsu et al., 2010). In such case, cultural distance seems to be a great element which stimulates tourists to go to a specific destination.

Proposition 6a: Perceived cultural distance creates cultural shock during the cross-cultural encounter, and leads to feelings of stress and uncertainty. Such negative feelings will lower the travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.

Hypothesis 6a: Perceived cultural distance has a negative effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.

Proposition 6b: Due to the nature of travel, discovery and novelty are important travel motivations and pursued by tourists. Therefore, high cultural distance may lead to high travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.

Hypothesis 6b: Perceived cultural distance has a positive effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.

3.2 Conceptual framework

Based on the reviewed literature and the inter-correlations, a conceptual framework pertaining all constructs has been developed. Specifically, because of the in-group favor and out-group hostility, regional ethnocentrism shows negative effects on tourist-host social contact, travel attitude and a positive effect on perceived cultural distance. Perceived cultural distance distorts people's behavior and inhibits the cross-cultural interaction between the two parties. Tourist-host social contact is reported to affect the travel attitude to a destination in either positive or negative ways. Similarly, perceived cultural distance encountered in travel is stated to have either a positive or a negative effect on travel attitude to a destination. The described framework is displayed in Figure 3.1.
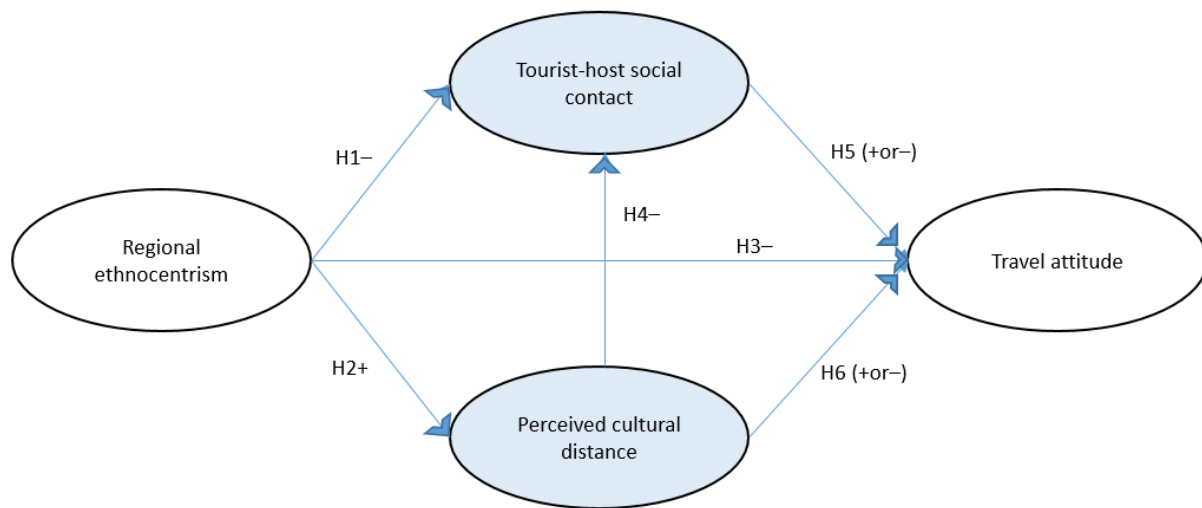
Figure 3.1 Proposed Conceptual Framework

3.3 Summary of research propositions and hypotheses

In line with the above review and discussion of the literature, the summary of propositions and hypotheses have been listed below in Table 3.1:

Table 3.1 Summary of Research Propositions and Hypotheses

Propositions	Hypotheses
Proposition 1: Ethnocentrism can influence inter-cultural communication by its feature of in-group favor and out-group avoidance. Due to the social identity process, individuals tend to communicate and cooperate more with their in-group members, meanwhile, sense little motivation to have contact with the out-group members.	**Hypothesis 1**: Regional ethnocentrism has a negative effect on tourist-host social contact.
Proposition 2: Ethnocentrism is closely connected to the culture recognition and preference. Highly ethnocentric individuals perceive their own culture as superior to any others, hence discriminate against host cultures. Consequently, tourists may incline to their own culture and maintain a distance from the host culture.	**Hypothesis 2**: Regional ethnocentrism has a positive effect on the perceived cultural distance.
Proposition 3: Ethnocentrism negatively affects individuals' attitude toward an out-group. Ethnocentric individuals tend to have a positive attitude toward the in-group and keep a negative attitude toward any out-group. The more ethnocentric an individual is, the more negative he/she will view out-groups.	**Hypothesis 3**: Regional ethnocentrism has a negative effect on travel attitude.
Proposition 4: The tourist-host social contact depends on the distance between tourist culture and host culture. A large perceived cultural distance distorts people's behavior and inhibits the cross-cultural interaction between the two parties. A cultural similarity will lead to the increase in social interaction.	**Hypothesis 4**: Perceived cultural distance has a negative effect on tourist-host social contact.
Proposition 5a: Tourists' travel attitude toward a destination is affected by their social contact in the destination. The more contact tourists have with the host, the more pleasant feeling they will get toward the travel experience in the destination. **Proposition 5b**: Tourists' travel attitude toward a destination is affected by their social contact in the destination. The more contact tourists have with the host, the less pleasant	**Hypothesis 5a**: Tourist-host social contact has a positive effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination. **Hypothesis 5b**: Tourist-host social contact has a negative effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.

feeling they will get toward the travel experience in the destination.	
Proposition 6a: Perceived cultural distance creates cultural shock during the cross-cultural encounter, and leads to feelings of stress and uncertainty. Such negative feelings will lead to a negative travel attitude toward a destination. **Proposition 6b**: Due to the nature of travel, discovery and novelty are important travel motivations pursued by tourists. Therefore, large cultural distance may lead to a positive travel attitude.	**Hypothesis 6a:** Perceived cultural distance has a negative effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination. **Hypothesis 6b:** Perceived cultural distance has a positive effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The previous sections provide the context of the current study, identify the existing research gaps and hence propose a conceptual framework to test the interrelationship among regional ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, tourist-host social contact and travel attitude in the context of Hong Kong residents traveling to mainland China. In this chapter, the research design and detailed research methodology and procedure are presented respectively.

Considering the research objectives of the study, mixed research methods are selected to produce a convincing result. There has been long a debate for the superiority between the qualitative and quantitative research methods. Both qualitative and quantitative methods are useful and legitimate (Walle, 1997). However, it is stated that, when choosing the appropriate research method, scholars should look at which methodology suits the research purposes (Jennings, 2001; Abusabha & Woelfel, 2003).

Regarding the qualitative research method, it is argued to be the most appropriate methodology when the purpose of the study is to investigate meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, phenomena, symbols, and descriptions. It is an inductive and ontological approach to establish the nature of truth by being grounded in the real world. It supports the unstructured or semi-structured research design so as to respond to the specific field setting. Thus, the research design is also study-specific as it is grounded in the particular setting. Meanwhile, the data collected by qualitative method is normally textual units rather than numeric results. In addition, the data analysis of qualitative method emphasizes eliciting key themes from the participants researched, and the result reflects a specific share of life, which applies to that study setting only

(Jennings, 2001). However, quantitative methodologists may question the thoroughness and objectivism of qualitative research, and others challenge the validity and reliability can hardly be verified in qualitative research design (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008).

On the other hand, quantitative research is recognized as a positivist science employed in manipulating, measuring and specifying relationships between specific variables in order to test hypotheses about causal laws (Abusabha & Woelfel, 2003; Bryman, 1988; Richardson, 1996). It is perceived as a positivistic or hypothetical paradigm. It is a deductive approach which discovers the nature of truth by hypotheses testing. It fundamentals an ontological view that the world is consisting of causal relationships. Concerning the research design, the quantitative method is structured, systematic and replicable. The researcher tries to objectively identify the relationships among variables. Data derived are numerical and analyzed statistically. Therefore, the findings are based on statistical tables and graphic representations. In addition, the findings provided by the individual study can be generalized to a wider research population (Jennings, 2001).

Due to the exploratory and structure-building features of the current study, both qualitative and quantitative research methods are applied to investigate the research objectives. The mixed methods can overcome the deficiencies of both methods in different research phases. Specifically, as indicated in Figure 4.1, this study goes through two stages. The first stage aims to develop the measurement instruments. In this stage, qualitative research methods are applied to identify and confirm the measurement instruments for constructs in the proposed framework. In-depth interviews are conducted to generate the primary information concerning the perceived cultural distance and tourist-host social contact during the visit to mainland China. Panel review is selected to confirm all the items generated from both the interview and literature review. The confirmed measurement instruments would be used in the survey design. The second stage is to conduct the

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survey. After all the measurement instruments being developed by the interview and panel review, the designed questionnaires are distributed among Hong Kong tourists who travel to mainland China with leisure activities. It intends to examine the inter-relationships among the identified constructs in the proposed framework, including regional ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, social contact with host and travel attitude. The data collected from the survey is analyzed by the software of "Statistical Package for the Social Sciences" (SPSS) and "Analysis of Moment Structures" (AMOS). Figure 4.1, illustrating the research process, is designed to guide the whole study. Details are explained in the following sections of this chapter.

Stage One

Literature review

Conceptual framework

In-depth interview
Panel review

Construct adjustment

English questionnaire development

Translation-back translation

Chinese questionnaire development

Pre-test

Panel review

Pilot study (n=10%)

Modification and finalization of questionnaire

Stage Two

Quota sampling

Data collection (n=10:1)
HK residents who travel to mainland China for leisure purpose

Data analysis
Descriptive analysis, ANOVA, EFA, CFA, SEM

Notes: EFA: exploratory factor analysis; CFA: confirmatory factor analysis; SEM: Structural equation modeling

Figure 4.1 Proposed Research Procedure

4.2 Stage one - Instruments development and questionnaire design

Measurement instruments are essential to the research design and may critically affect the research results. However, due to the scarcity of literature on perceived cultural distance encountered in visit and social contact, no such measurement instruments can be directly applied to the current study. Moreover, for the construct of regional ethnocentrism, limited previous studies have been identified in tourism research. The applicability of these measurement items need to be further investigated. Consequently, stage one targets to develop appropriate measurement instruments of the perceived cultural distance, social contact with host and further verify the measurement instruments of regional ethnocentrism and travel attitude. Adjustments are made according to the interview results. The measurement instruments for each construct are further modified and consolidated according to the panel review result. Questionnaires equipped with modified items are distributed for the pre-study to seek for any opportunity space to improve.

The instrument development adopted the comprehensive procedure recommended by Churchill (1979). This procedure is perceived to be a well-developed guideline which guides to develop a better measurement instruments for new constructs. It is argued that the framework identified an attempt to unify and bring together the scattered pieces of information on how to develop improved measures and how the quality of derived measures can be assessed adequately. Several studies have applied such process in different research settings. For instance, Echtner and Ritchie (1993), adopting the first four steps in the procedure, developed a more appropriate and rigorous techniques for the destination image. Hung and Petrick (2010) have utilized all the eight steps, but replaced some of the original techniques, to develop a comprehensive list of the cruise

constraints. Table 4.1 presents the eight step process recommended by Churchill (1979) and Hung

and Petrick's (2010) application in the cruise constraint study.

Table 4.1 Recommended Procedures for Developing Measurement Instruments

Procedures for developing better measures	Recommended techniques (Churchill, 1979)	Recommended techniques (Hung & Petrick, 2010)
1. Specify domain of construct	Literature search	Literature search
2. Generate sample of items	Literature search Experience survey Insight stimulating examples Critical incidents Focus groups	Literature search In-depth interviews Panel review
3. Collect data		Pilot study
4. Purify measure	Coefficient alpha Factor analysis	Coefficient alpha Factor analysis
5. Collect data		Online panel survey
6. Assess reliability	Coefficient alpha Split-half reliability	Composite reliability
7. Assess validity	Nultitrait-multimethod matrix Criterion validity	Face validity Convergent validity Discriminant validity
8. Develop norm	Average and other statistics summarizing distribution of scores	Means Standard deviations

According to the previous studies, Table 4.2 reveals the procedure to be adopted in the

current study to develop the appropriate measurement instruments. Specifically, the eight steps are

divided into two stages according to the current research setting. As suggested by Churchill (1979),

researchers and practitioners are expected to process through the first four steps to capture the

basic commitment to qualitative research. With the developed measurements from the first stage,

a finalized questionnaire is established and applied in the survey, which starts the stage two of data

collection and analysis. As indicated by Churchill (1979), researchers can use the procedures with certain flexibilities and the recommended techniques can be replaced alternatively where appropriate. The current study adopts some alternative approaches from Hung and Petrick's procedure (2010) in terms of step 2, 6, 7 and 8 (Table 4.1).

Table 4.2 Procedures to Be Adopted for Measurement Development

Procedures	Techniques proposed for the current study
Stage One	
1. Specify domain of construct	Literature search
2. Generate sample of items	Literature search
	In-depth interview
	Panel of experts
3. Collect data	Pre-test
	Pilot study (10% of the research targets)
4. Purify measure	Coefficient alpha
	Factor analysis
Stage Two	
5. Collect data	Survey (N=10:1)
6. Assess reliability	Composite reliability
7. Assess validity	Convergent validity
	Discriminant validity
	Criterion validity
8. Develop norm	Mean comparison among different resident groups

Specifically, according to the proposed procedure, the domains of the four constructs have been clarified in the literature review. Literature search, in-depth interview and panel review were the main techniques to derive poor of items. The measurement of ethnocentrism are generated by literature search and panel review methods. Perceived cultural distance, tourist-host social contact and travel attitude are obtained by literature search, in-depth interview and panel of experts review. To test the feasibility of the newly developed constructs, namely perceived cultural distance and

tourist-host social contact, a pre-test is carried out. Pilot study is carried out to test the validity and reliability of the sample items. After all the items being consolidated, a formal survey is conducted by quota sampling. A series of validity and reliability tests are implemented to further ensure the quality of the measurement instruments.

The following sub-sections go through the key steps in stage one to present the proposed approaches, which are used to to achieve a precise questionnaire deign with reliable and valid measurement instruments. Due to the importance of the newly developed measurements in this research, the steps in new measurement development will be emphasized accordingly.

4.2.1 Specifying domain of construct

The first step is to develop a relatively precise definition of the constructs. In the previous chapter of literature review, the domain of constructs has been identified. According to the review, there are four main constructs in the proposed framework, namely ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, tourist-host social contact and travel attitude. Measurement instruments for each construct are cautiously identified from literature search, in-depth interview and panel review.

4.2.2 Generating sample of items

Sample items of the construct regional ethnocentrism are recognized and evaluated by the panel of experts. The perceived cultural distance encountered in visit and quantity of tourist-host social contact get limited literature support, hence need to be developed by in-depth interview. The literature has provided existing items for the quality of tourist-host social contact and travel attitude, but they need to be specified to fit the current setting via the in-depth interview. Table 4.3 displays a summary of the sources of measurement development for all the four constructs.

Table 4.3 Measurement Instruments Sources for Each Construct

Constructs	Instrument sources	Empirical sources
Regional ethnocentrism	Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997a; Neuliep, 2002	Literature, panel review
Perceived cultural distance	To be developed	Literature, in-depth interview and panel review
Tourist-host social contact (quantity)	To be developed	Literature, in-depth interview and panel review
Tourist-host social contact (quality)	To be examined and specified based on the existing sources	Literature, in-depth interview and panel review
Travel attitude	To be examined and specified based on the existing sources	Literature, in-depth interview and panel review

Literature on the construct of regional ethnocentrism has provided comprehensive and standardized measurement instruments (Table 4.4). The current study adopts this existing scale and follows the instructions provided together with the scale.

Table 4.4 Attributes for Regional Ethnocentrism

Original GENE
1. Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.
2. My culture should be the role model for other cultures.
3. People from other cultures act strange when they come to my culture.
4. Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.
5. Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.
6. I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.
7. People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.
8. Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.
9. I respect the values and customs of other cultures.
10. Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.
11. Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.
12. I have many friends from different cultures.
13. People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.
14. Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.
15. I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.
16. I apply my values when judging people who are different.
17. I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.
18. I do not cooperate with people who are different.
19. Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.
20. I do not trust people who are different.
21. I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.
22. I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.

Sources: Neuliep & McCroskey (1997a); Neuliep (2002)
*When calculating the score, items of 4, 7, 9, 12, 15 and 19 should be reversed.

Perceived cultural distance measurement is stated to be the strongest predictor of travel attitude (Ng et al., 2007). It offers advantages as it allows respondents to include relevant cultural information that seems appropriate in a tourism context. However, due to the lack of measurement in the literature, the instrument of perceived cultural distance is generated from in-depth interview and panel review. Regarding the quantity of tourist-host social contact, as the way of personal interaction varies from culture to culture, from area to area, items are generated via in-depth interview and further discussed via panel review. In terms of the quality aspect of social contact,

items are adopted from previous literature (Akis et al., 1996; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Islam & Hewstone, 1993; Wish, 1976) and need to be further verified via interviews and the panel review. It should also be noted that, as the attitude, according to the ample information from literature, has been measured by various measurements in different studies, a list of attitude attributes is presented in Table 4.5. The well applied travel attitude in tourism research are predominantly the affective attitude. The behavioral attitude is normally regarded as a separate construct, intention, in related studies (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Hsu & Huang, 2012). Therefore, the attributes in travel intention measurement are also listed in Table 4.5. Since tourists may have different attitudes toward different destinations, the attitudes toward traveling to mainland China are also verified and evaluated by the panel of experts.

Though the measurement instruments from literature cannot be directly applied in the current study, the following dimensions listed in Table 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7 can still provide some useful information for conducting and stimulating the interviews.

Table 4.5 Tentative Attributes for Travel Attitude from Literature

Attributes for travel attitude	Reference
Affective and cognitive attitudes:	
All things considered, I think visiting mainland China is	
enjoyable/unenjoyable	Lam & Hsu (2004); Lam & Hsu (2006); Sparks & Pan (2009); Han, Hsu & Sheu (2010); Hsu, Cai & Li (2010)
positive/negative	Lam & Hsu (2004); Lam & Hsu (2006); Han et al. (2010); Wang & Ritchie (2012)
fun/boring	Lam & Hsu (2004); Lam & Hsu (2006); Fishbein & Ajzen (2010)
fun/foolish	Sparks & Pan (2009)
wise/foolish	Han et al. (2010); Wang & Ritchie (2012)

desirable/undesirable	Han et al. (2010); Wang & Ritchie (2012)
pleasant/unpleasant	Lam & Hsu (2004); Lam & Hsu (2006); Sparks & Pan (2009); Han et al. (2010); Hsu, Cai & Li (2010); Fishbein & Ajzen (2010)
favorable/unfavorable	Lam & Hsu (2004); Lam & Hsu (2006); Sparks & Pan (2009); Han et al. (2010); Wang & Ritchie (2012)
good/bad	Sparks & Pan (2009); Han et al. (2010); Wang & Ritchie (2012); Fishbein & Ajzen (2010)
like/dislike	Sparks & Pan (2009)
right/wrong	Wang & Ritchie (2012)
beneficial/harmful	Wang & Ritchie (2012); Fishbein & Ajzen (2010)
useful/useless	Wang & Ritchie (2012)
excited	Sparks (2007)
aroused	Sparks (2007)
satisfying	Hsu, Cai & Li (2010); Sparks (2007)
worthwhile	Hsu, Cai & Li (2010)
fascinating	Hsu, Cai & Li (2010)
Behavioral attitudes:	
You intend to visit mainland China in the next X years.	Huang & Hsu (2009); Hsu & Huang (2012)
You plan to visit mainland China in the next X years.	Huang & Hsu (2009); Hsu & Huang (2012)
You desire to visit mainland China in the next X years.	Huang & Hsu (2009); Hsu & Huang (2012)
You probably will visit mainland China in the next X years.	Huang & Hsu (2009); Hsu & Huang (2012)

Table 4.6 Tentative Dimensions/Attributes for Quantity of Social Contact from Literature

Dimensions/attributes for social contact	References
Measurement instruments developed from Cohen's tourist typology I prefer to associate with the local people when traveling in a foreign country. I prefer to live the way the people I visit live by sharing their shelter, food, and customs during my stay. I prefer to seek excitement of complete novelty by engaging in direct contact with a wide variety of new and different people. If I find a place that particularly pleases me, I may stop there long enough for social involvement in the life of the place to occur. I prefer to make friends with the local people when traveling in a foreign country. I prefer to have as much personal contact with the local people as possible when traveling in a foreign country.	Mo, Howard & Havitz (1993)
Measurement instruments developed between Australian hosts and Asian tourists Invite home Play sport together Share recreation facilities Take part in family parties Have close relationship Share a meal Chat on a street Talk in shops Exchange gifts Have business contact only Have no contact at all	Reisinger &Turner (1998a, 1998b, 2002a, 2002b)

Table 4.7 Tentative Dimensions for Cultural Distance from Literature

Dimensions for cultural distance	References
Cultural conflicts between the US tourists and Chinese hosts cultural ethnocentrism* communication problems poor quality of service lifestyle differences	Wei, Crompton & Reid (1989)
Cultural distance between Indonesian tourists and Australian hosts responsiveness/competence understanding the tourists/self-orientation social interaction/regard for other quality of life courtesy/competence regard for other display of feelings interaction idealism self-actualization social obligation cultural values rules of interaction/social behavior perceptions of service	Reisinger & Turner (1997, 1998a, 1998b, 2002a)

*Cultural ethnocentrism here refers to one of the sources which lead to cultural conflict. It needs to be distinguished with the construct "Ethnocentrism" in the current study. As in an early stage of the cultural distance study, some related but fundamentally different concepts were interchangeably used in articles. However, the initial findings were still kept due to the lack of existing literature.

4.2.3 In-depth interview

4.2.3.1 Interview structure

Interview is simply defined as a conversation with a purpose (Dexter, 1970). Due to the explorative nature of the stage one, in-depth, face to face interview will be the main method to collect primary data. This approach is chosen to meet the study's aim, which is to develop the tourists' full range of perceptions on cultural difference encountered when traveling to mainland China, their social contact with hosts as well as the travel attitude to mainland China. The interview goes through three sections. Firstly, to get interviewees warmed up with the topic, they are asked

about their travel experiences to mainland China. Secondly, after the recall, interviewees are asked to evoke their memory about the social contact with the mainland Chinese hosts during the visit. Also, interviewees are provided a list of attitudes toward social contact and are requested to indicate their opinions on the items. Thirdly, interviewees are required to identify the cultural differences encountered in mainland China during the visit and indicate their impacts on tourists' travel perceptions and future travel intention. Table 4.8 presents the main structure applied in the interview. Particularly, section one, two and four are unstructured and section three is semi-structured. The purpose of unstructured interview is to elicit the views of the interviewees, so the interviewers are not supposed to lead the conversation. In other words, the interviewers have limited control on the schedule and structure even though they have a list of related topics or themes in hand. Comparatively, the semi-structured interview normally has a prompt list of issues to be covered in the interview. Such a list may provide some structure for the interview, though the order of structures may vary across interviews as long as the interviewees feel comfortable (Jennings, 2001). Following the features of both kinds of interviews, an interview protocol is designed to ensure the consistency across interviews (Appendix 3).

Table 4.8 Interview Structure

Sections	Structuralized level	Section focus
Section one: warm up	Unstructured	• Recall several memorized travel experiences to mainland China
Section two: social contact with hosts (quantity)	Unstructured	• Recall the ways of social contact with mainland Chinese hosts during visit
Section three: social contact with hosts (quality)	Semi-structured	• Express the attitude toward the social contact with mainland Chinese hosts during visit • Evaluate the attributes from literature
Section four: perceived cultural differences	Unstructured	• Identify the cultural differences encountered in mainland China during visit • Comment on the positive or negative impacts brought by aforementioned cultural differences

4.2.3.2 Data collection

According to the purpose of the study, all interviews are conducted in Hong Kong with Hong Kong local residents who have traveled to mainland China for leisure purpose in the past 2 years. To define the Hong Kong residents, people who live in Hong Kong for 7 years or above are qualified for the interviews. To build a heterogeneous sample, the current study aims to conduct interviews with diversified demographic background. For instance, when selecting Hong Kong residents, local permanent residents (who were born in Hong Kong) and mainland Hong Kong residents (who were born in Mainland, but stayed in Hong Kong for seven years or longer) should both be considered for interviews to obtain a broad range of perceived cultural differences. To address the socioeconomic impact, respondents from different income levels, education backgrounds and occupations are considered. Following the principles of snowball sampling, interviewees are asked to introduce some future potential interviewees from acquaintances who meet the interview requirements. In addition, as Guangdong province is close to Hong Kong in

both geographic and cultural points of view, when selecting the interviewees, those who have traveled both long-haul and short-haul in mainland China are required to generate rich information pool toward cultural difference.

The author is the interviewer for all interviews in order to keep a good consistency in the interview flow and to provide comprehensive knowledge of the current study. As this topic may be related to some sensitive issues, before the interviews, some instructions are provided, indicating that the current study is to explore the perceived cultural differences between Hong Kong tourists and mainland Chinese residents. Any information derived from interviews would be only for research use and would be strictly kept confidential. Meanwhile, interviewees have the right to discontinue the interview at any stage of the interview. Interviews are conducted as long as additional relevant information is obtained. Each session is recorded and transcribed. Interviews are conducted in the interviewees' mother language and then translated into English. To ensure the accuracy and credibility of the translation, two professional language editors (Cantonese and English, Mandarin and English) are assigned to be the consultants during the whole translation process. To avoid any unexpected interruption and to take account of the privacy concerns for the conversion content, each interview is held at a neutral place in city. As a result, 23 interviews are conducted. Each session is between 26 and 88 minutes.

4.2.3.3 Data analysis

Data analysis is crucial to the success of qualitative research. To achieve a precise and rigorous analysis, some scholars have provided clear guidance from various perspectives. For instance, Hampton (1999) introduced a four-step practical process for doing the qualitative data analysis, which are familiarization and discovery, coding and display, ordering and displaying, developing interpretations and verification.

Concretely speaking, concerning the research purpose and research questions in stage one, the textual interview data will be analyzed with the inductive thematic analysis method. It is claimed to focus on examining themes within data and emphasize organization and rich description of the data set (Daly, Kellehear, & Gliksman, 1997). This data driven analysis engages a process of categorizing and grouping textual data to explore the emerging model (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Braun and Clarke (2006) developed a six-phase approach to conduct a decent thematic data analysis (Table 4.9), which includes familiarizing yourself with your data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report. The approaches suggested by Hampton (1999) and Braun and Clarke (2006) are summarized and integrated in Table 4.9. The detailed instructions and suggested actions are also summarized to guide the current study.

In line with aforementioned principles, meaning units in participants' transcripts are captured and utilized to formulate key themes with the tool of the software QSR NVivo 10. The software is advanced in technically coding and organizing the transcripts. Results of the interviews are presented in section 5.2.

Table 4.9 Interview Data Analysis Process and Suggested Actions

Hampton's data analysis process (1999)	Braun and Clarke's thematic data analysis process (2006)	Suggested actions
Familiarization and discovery	Familiarizing yourself with your data	• Getting transcripts ready • Reading and re-reading the transcript to get familiar with the data
	Generating initial codes	• Identify initial and tentative codes
Coding and display	Searching for themes	• Sorting codes into categories, grouping codes • Developing suitable themes
Ordering and display	Reviewing themes Defining and naming themes	• Reviewing both the extracted and unextracted codes again to adjust the themes • Creating order (main theme and sub-theme) and make sense of the theme • Understanding the coded statements and interrelationships to build up a coherent pattern • Defining and refining the terms for themes
Developing interpretations and verification	Producing the report	• Verifying by cross-checking all the information • Reviewing the codings and categories • Explaining and concluding the findings • Generalizing causes or relationships within the cases • Generating possible hypotheses for future tests

4.2.4 Panel review

Measurement items generated from both the literature and interviews are submitted to a panel of experts for further review and evaluation. Those panel members hold research expertise in tourist behavior and cross-cultural studies. Meanwhile, they have good knowledge of the tourism phenomenon between mainland China and Hong Kong. For the first round review, the panel, including four research faculty members are asked to judge the applicability and the wording of the measurement items generated from the literature and interviews. For the second round, three research faculty members and two PhD candidates are invited to evaluate the existing items in the pre-test questionnaire by using a 3-point Likert-type scale, from "inappropriate" to "appropriate". The list of measurement items is revised according to the panel's comments and then utilized to prepare the draft of the pre-test questionnaire.

4.2.5 Questionnaire development

A self-administrated survey is designed to collect the primary data. The questionnaire consists of four parts. The first part is screening questions which aim to select the qualified respondents for the current study. The second part is the trip related questions which aim to seek respondents' travel experience. The third part is a five-point Likert-type scale questions. There are four sets of questions measuring the four key constructs in the proposed framework. In this section, respondents are asked to circle the appropriate number for a number of attributes based on their own perception. Items are derived from the literature, interview and panel review. The last part of the questionnaire is demographic questions. Questions are set to obtain the profile and social characteristics of the respondents. In addition, the panel of experts are also invited to give comments on the questionnaire design, including the content, structure and the over formatting. The questionnaire is originally designed in English. For convenient distribution purpose to Hong

Kong residents, it is translated into traditional Chinese. Both versions are provided to meet individual respondent's preference. The back to back translation technique is used in translation. After being translated from English into traditional Chinese by a translator who is a tourism researcher, the traditional Chinese version questionnaire is translated into English by another translator. After back to back translation, both versions of questionnaires are modified to be more precise in expressing the intention of the statements. It is also reviewed by one senior tourism researchers with competencies in both languages to ensure the accuracy of translation.

4.2.6 Pre-test

A pre-test is conducted prior to the pilot test and main survey in order to examine the newly developed instruments in the current study, which are perceived cultural distance and quantity of contact. Quality of contact is also included in the pre-test to maintain the completion of the construct of social contact. Students enrolled in one course in one Hong Kong university are invited to be the respondents of the pre-test. As a result, 69 students and 254 friends and relatives of those students returned the questionnaires. Descriptive analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) are applied to evaluate the items. Based on the result, the questionnaire is reviewed by another round of panel experts for the pilot test and main survey.

4.2.7 Pilot test

Pilot test is like a rehearsal or trail testing process. It provides the opportunity to identify potential problems with the questionnaire, including ambiguities, biases, missing attributes and coding problems (Lewis, 1984). Though there is no standardized rule for the optimized pilot test sample size, normally, five to ten percent of the sample size is regarded adequate for pilot study. Therefore, the current pilot test targets 10% of the sample size to be the pilot sample size. The results of the pilot test are used for the adjustment of the questionnaire design, wording, and

measurement instruments in order to ensure the validity and reliability of the information. Regarding the reliability of the measurement instruments, Cronbach's alpha is tested for each construct. When the questionnaire is finalized based on the problems identified in the pilot test if any, a full scale questionnaire survey is conducted.

4.3 Stage two – Data collection and data analysis

4.3.1 Target population

The target population for the current study is the Hong Kong residents who travel to mainland China and take leisure activities. Consequently, there are two selection criteria to define the target population for the survey. Firstly, the targets should be Hong Kong permanent residents, which represent those who have been in Hong Kong for seven or more years. Secondly, the targets should have some leisure activities when traveling in mainland China.

4.3.2 Sampling

The current study adopts the quota sampling as the sampling method. Quota sampling is applied when it is necessary to ensure that certain sub-groups are included in the sample (Hemmington, 1999). Once the number of sample units has been calculated for each sub-groups, the selection process is by convenience (Jennings, 2001). Specifically, in step one, Table 4.10 shows the top nine most visited cities by the Hong Kong tourists in mainland China, which received over 1,000,000 tourists from the year 2009 to 2013 (CNTA, 2010-2014). It indicates that, Shenzhen, Guangzhou, and Zhuhai are ranked top three destination cites for Hong Kong tourists, followed by Shanghai, Quanzhou, Beijing, Hangzhou, Zhongshan and Chongqing. It is noted that, the top three cities are all in Guangdong province. According to the statistics by CNTA (2014), Guangdong province receives the most Hong Kong tourists, which represents 68.22% of the total arrivals to mainland China. Meanwhile, due to the closeness in geography, Hong Kong visitors

averagely spend 2-3 days in Guangdong province and hence make the least expense in their trips (HKCSD, 2013). In non-Guangdong provinces, the average stay of Hong Kong tourists is 7.7 days. Moreover, because of the immigration waves from Guangdong province to Hong Kong in mid-twenty century, a great portion of Hong Kong residents are originally from Guangdong province. The unique cultural and social connection may differentiate Guangdong provinces from the other destinations. In that case, Hong Kong residents who travel to non-Guangdong cities are the target for the current study and those traveling to Guangdong province are excluded from this study.

Table 4.10 Top Nine Visited Cities by Hong Kong Tourists (2009-2013)

Cities	No. of tourists						Percentage
	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	5-Year Total	
Shenzhen	7,019,490	8,017,300	8,818,300	9,863,344	9,995,083	43,713,517	54.71%
Guangzhou	3,789,672	4,183,400	4,026,900	3,934,448	3,845,866	19,780,286	24.76%
Zhuhai	1,019,773	1,074,800	1,216,300	1,130,728	972,868	5,414,469	6.78%
Shanghai	415,478	623,969	479,536	450,548	418,957	2,388,488	2.99%
Quanzhou	453,024	470,663	476,818	519,427	347,160	2,267,092	2.84%
Beijing	443,564	403,296	434,223	375,801	354,030	2,010,914	2.52%
Hangzhou	278,358	332,626	563,844	384,642	125,291	1,684,761	2.11%
Zhongshan	244,867	243,500	337,900	314,067	317,632	1,457,966	1.82%
Chongqing	118,512	175,091	283,794	444,367	155,694	1,177,458	1.47%
Total:	13,782,738	15,524,645	16,637,615	17,417,372	16,532,581	79,894,951	**100%**

Source: CNTA (2014)

Shanghai, Beijing, Hangzhou and Chongqing, marked in Figure 4.2, are selected to be the data collection spots. Figure 4.3 displays the percentage of Hong Kong visitors to Shanghai, Beijing, Hangzhou and Chongqing. The city of Quanzhou (in Fujian province) is excluded from the actual data collection of the current study to avoid the potential influences of cultural similarity

and the considerable immigrant number to Hong Kong on the model. Percentage in each city was also outlined in Figure 4.3 and was used for calculating the quota sample once the total sample size is determined (please see the details in section 6.2). For instance, if the final sample size is 500, the survey sample for Shanghai will be 165 (500×32.89%). To avoid potential bias induced from this sampling method, the sample composition is compared with the demographic statistics of Hong Kong tourists who traveled to mainland China reported by the HKCSD (2013). The demographic information is listed in Table 4.11, including gender, age, education, employment, monthly earnings and mode of tour.
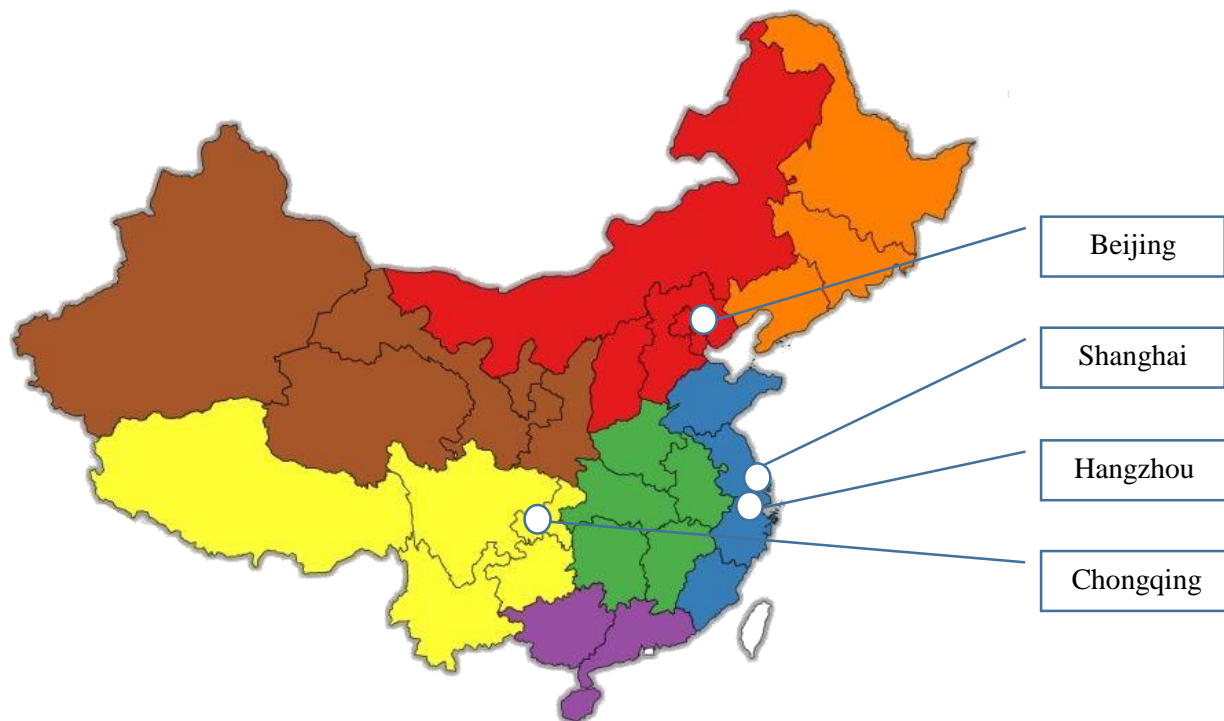
Figure 4.2 Selected Sampling Regions in Map of China
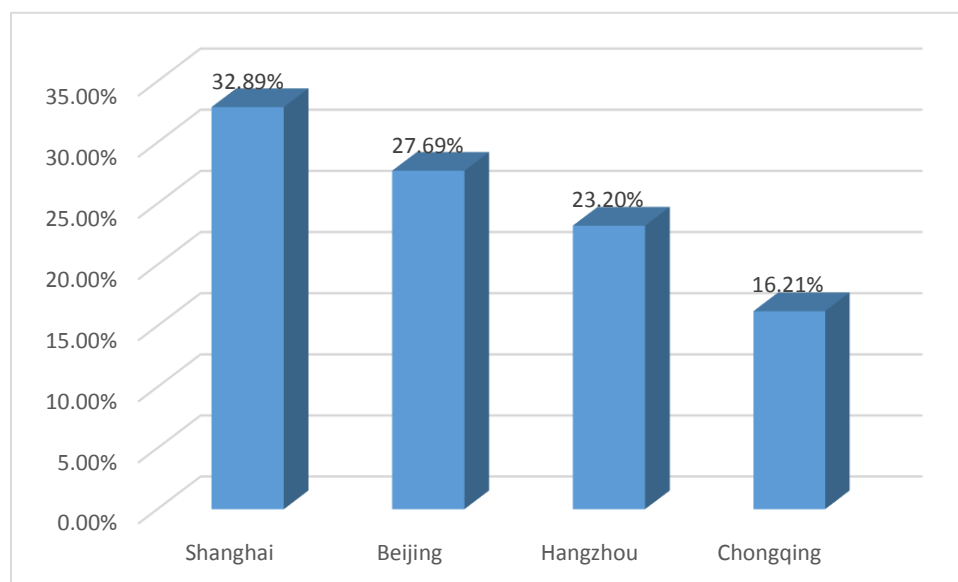
Source: CNTA (2009-2013)

Figure 4.3 Top Four Most Visited Non-Guangdong Cities by Hong Kong Tourists in Mainland China

Table 4.11 Demographic Characteristics of Hong Kong Residents Making Personal Travel to Mainland China

Demographics	Percentage
Gender	
Male	53.9
Female	46.1
Age	
0-14	4.1
15-29	15.9
30-39	14.7
40-49	19.1
50-59	25.3
>=60	21.0
Education	
No schooling/Kindergarten	3.3
Primary	19.4
Secondary/Matriculation	54.7
Tertiary	22.6
Employment	
Employment	54.6
Unemployment and economically inactive	45.4
Monthly Earnings	
<HKD 4,000	7.0
HKD 4,000-HKD 5,999	4.7
HKD 6,000-HKD 7,999	13.1
HKD 8,000-HKD 9,999	13.0
HKD 10,000-HKD 14,999	21.9
HKD 15,000-HKD 19,999	13.6
HKD 20,000-HKD 29,999	12.9
>=HKD 30,000	13.8
Mode of Tour*	
Package Tour	(10.1) 22.9
Non-package Tour	(89.9) 77.1

Source: HKCSD (2012, 2013)

* Numbers in ( ) refer to the tourists traveling to Guangdong province.

Based on previous studies of quantitative research, the larger the sample size is, the smaller the sampling error and the more accurate the survey will be (Lewis, 1984). The literature also suggests the existence of a positive relationship between the number of items and the sample size, representing a ratio of at least 1:4 or 1:5 (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987; Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997). A large sample size is favorable for generating better results from factor analysis. Sampling error is expected to decrease as the size of the sample increases (Uhl & Schoner, 1969). The determination of sampling size largely depends on the statistical estimating precision needed by researchers and the number of variables. Although Pedhazur (1997) suggested the use of statistical power in determining sample size, he noted that the use of large sample (approximately 500) is crucial when a number of predictors are to be selected from a large pool of predictors.

For the purpose of SEM, it is always challenging to decide the optimized sample size (Wolf et al., 2013). Wolf et al. (2013) suggested a sample size of 30-460 in their study, but also stated that it was not a one-size-fit-all standard. SEM usually requires large sample sizes although it is difficult to determine how large a sample is needed. The model complexity and the estimation methods are two factors affecting sample size requirements. It was also suggested by Neuman (2000) that, larger sample does not improve the degree of confidence to any great extent. Byrne (2010) stated that, for SEM in AMOS, sample sizes should exceed 10 times of the number of estimated variables in order to generate reliable results. In line with that, Hair et al. (2010) also claimed that, as a general rule, the minimum sample size was 5 times of the variables to be analyzed, and the more acceptable sample size was 10 times. Therefore, in the current study, the variable sample ratio is decided to be 1:10.

4.3.3 Data collection administration

Quota sampling is adopted in the main survey. As indicated in 4.3.2, Shanghai, Beijing, Hangzhou and Chongqing are the top four non-Guangdong destination cities for Hong Kong overnight travelers. On-site data collection are conducted in the airport departure hall of each of the four selected cities. The author and five student helpers work close to the check-in counters of Cathay Pacific, Dragonair and Air China airlines, which provide the flight service from the destinations to Hong Kong. After checking in for their flights, travelers are approached by the data collection team.

Due to the research topic, to avoid any social desirability, respondents are told to answer anonymously and individually. They are also indicated to answer according to their own perceptions as there are no right or wrong answers. To stimulate respondents to participate, incentives are provided afterwards. The questionnaires are collected and checked on site carefully to ensure the completion.

4.3.4 Main survey data analysis

All cases are categorized and screened after collection and entered into SPSS for statistical processing. As indicated in Figure 4.4, data screening is carried out first in order to detect outliers, missing data and serious violation of assumptions. Normality test and descriptive analysis (e.g. frequency and means) are conducted to examine the normality, profile the characteristics of the respondents and compose the descriptive information of all the attributes. EFA and CFA are used to reduce items and explore dimensionality of each construct, and further validate the structure and dimensionality of them. The construct validity and reliability are assessed by convergent validity,

discriminant validity and composite reliability. The overall contractual framework proposed earlier is tested by applying the SEM so as to evaluate how well the model fits the empirical data.
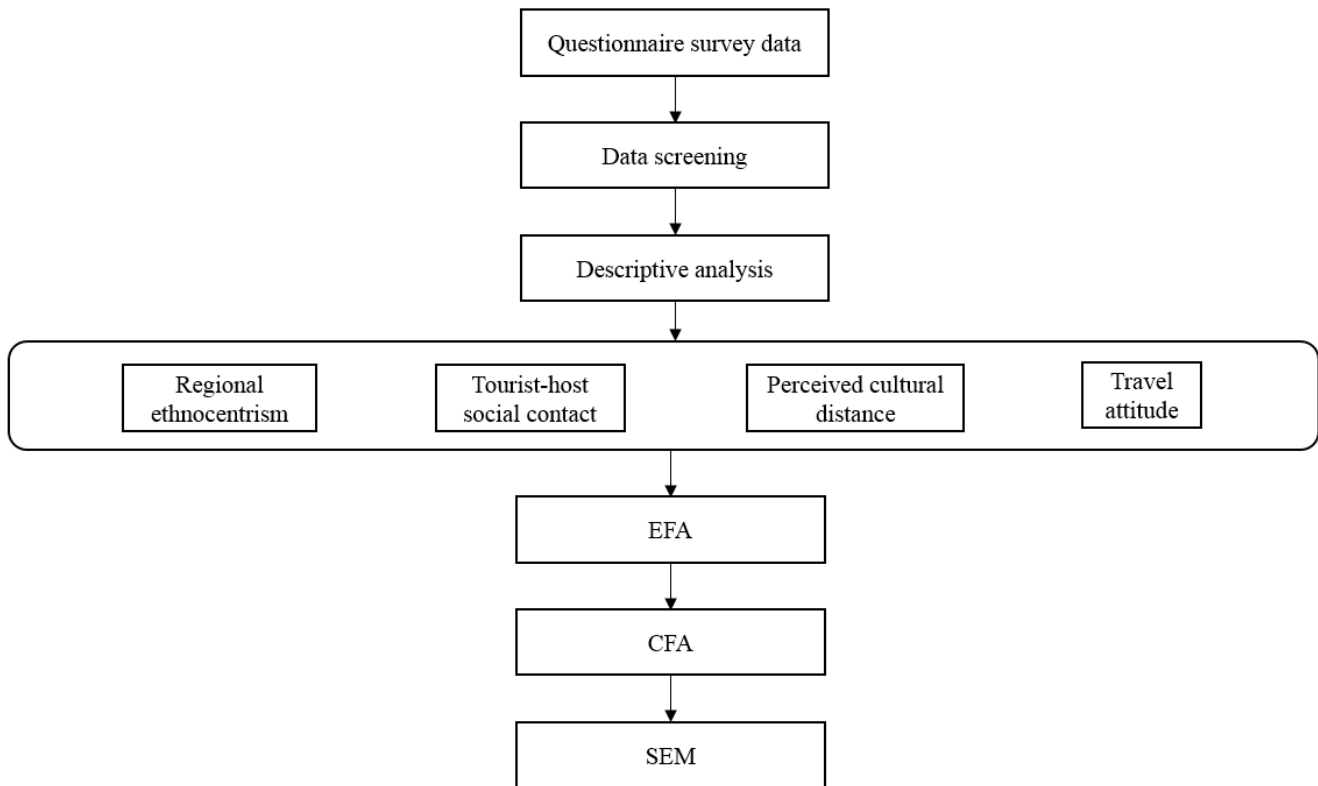
Figure 4.4 Data Analysis Framework

4.4 Summary

The current chapter introduces the research methodology in two stages. In stage one, instrument development and questionnaire design are presented. The instrument development generally follows the eight-step procedure developed by Churchill (1979) with certain flexibility in techniques. In-depth interview is introduced in terms of structure, data collection and data analysis. Panel review is also applied to generate and evaluate the sample of items. A pre-test and a second round panel review are conducted to assess the validity and reliability of the newly

developed constructs. The questionnaire is composed of four parts, including screening questions, trip related questions, Likert-type scale questions and demographic questions. A pilot test is conducted before the main survey to purify the measurements and provide recommendations for questionnaire design. Stage two mainly includes data collection and data analysis for the survey. Quota sampling is selected to collect data. Following the proposed procedures, the next chapter reports the results of the first and second stages. Data screening is performed to check for missing values, outliers, and other issues which violate the basic assumptions for EFA, CFA and SEM analysis. Descriptive analysis is conducted to profile the characteristics of the respondents and compose the descriptive information of all the attributes. EFA and CFA are conducted to identify and confirm the dimensionality of constructs. Validity and reliability tests, such as convergent validity, discriminant validity and composite reliability are performed. Finally, the proposed model are examined by SEM in AMOS.

CHAPTER 5. RESULT I: INSTRUMENTS DEVELOPMENT AND QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

5.1 Introduction

This chapter mainly demonstrates the process of developing the measurement instruments for all the constructs in the proposed model via literature review, in-depth interviews and panel reviews. The questionnaire for the pre-test is developed accordingly. Results of the pre-tests, including data screening and normality, profiles of respondents, EFA result and CFA results are displayed. The questionnaire for the pilot test is developed based on the pre-test result and second round panel review.

5.2 Results of in-depth interviews

5.2.1 Demographic profile of informants

Table 5.1 shows the demographic information of the informants. In total, 23 Hong Kong permanent residents participated in the in-depth interview session. The majority of the participants (69%) were between 30 to 49 years old. There were more females than males. Informants are generally well educated as 15 out of 23 hold university degree or above. Nine participants worked as professionals, and four were currently retired or hunting for jobs. Over one fourth of participants were in the income range of HKD30,000 to HKD49,999 per month. Over half of the participants were married (52%).

Table 5.1 Demographic Profile of Respondent

Demographics	No.	Percentage	Demographics	No.	Percentage
Age	**23**	**100%**	**Monthly Personal Income**	**23**	**100%**
18-29	4	18%	<10000	1	4%
30-39	9	39%	10000-13999	3	13%
40-49	7	30%	14000-17999	3	13%
50-59	3	13%	18000-19999	1	4%
Gender	**23**	**100%**	20000-24999	2	9%
Female	16	70%	25000-29999	1	4%
Male	7	30%	30000-39999	4	18%
Education	**23**	**100%**	40000-49999	2	9%
Secondary school or below	3	13%	50000-59999	2	9%
High school	2	9%	60000-79999	1	4%
College diploma non-degree	3	13%	≥80000	0	0%
University degree or above	15	65%	N/A	4	18%
Occupation	**23**	**100%**	**Marital status**	**23**	**100%**
Professionals	9	39%	Married	12	52%
Managers and administrators	3	13%	Single	11	48%
Clerks	4	18%			
Craft and related workers	3	13%			
Retired or hunting for jobs	4	18%			

5.2.2 Perceived cultural distance

As indicated in Table 5.2, 19 items of perceived cultural distance were generated. In total, 241 text units were captured. The most mentioned item was "differences in social norms or civilization level", followed by "Cuisine", "Lifestyle" and "Character". Several themes can be obtained from the 19 items. The first one was about the lifestyle, social norms and civilization level, including "differences in social norms or civilization level", "cuisine", "lifestyle", "hygiene", "appearance" etc.. For instance, "Mainland residents normally have dinner very early. My friends bring us to dinner at around 5 pm. In Hong Kong, dinner will not start until 7 or 8 o'clock" (*Informant 1, male, 30-39, manager/ administrator*). "I think mainland people are good at enjoying life. Hong Kong people are having a fast-pace life every day. They have more space to build parks

for residents. I always see people walking or doing exercises in parks. As we do not have enough space in Hong Kong, we do not have that many parks foe local residents" (*Informant 2, female, 30-39, hunting for jobs*).

The second one was related to networking and communication, for example, "character", "way to communicate or make friends" and "privacy". "Northern people are very straight forward, warm-hearted and helpful. This is quite different from Hong Kong people" (*Informant 23, male, 30-39, professional*). "Regarding the privacy, I feel mainland people speak louder than us. In that case, they may disclose your personal information to some extent, but they do not realize that" (*Informant 17, female, 40-49, professional*). The last one was about the cultural retention, understanding and appreciation, covering "appreciation and understanding in traditional culture", "sense of culture retention", "attachment to family", "richness of traditional culture", "differences in traditions" and "sense of harmony". For instance, "When I visit the Forbidden City, I can feel that mainland people are very proud of the attraction and its culture. They visit with respect. However, Hong Kong people receive western education, and we cannot appreciate the heritage or traditional Chinese culture as much as those from mainland China" (*Informant 20, male, 40-49, early retired*).

5.2.3 Quantity of tourist-host social contact

The variety of contact between tourists and hosts is displayed in Table 5.3. According to the preceding literature and interviews, sixteen items were generated, which covered two main realms, namely service oriented contact and social oriented contact.

Service oriented contact is a quite unique interaction in tourism phenomenon. It generally occurs between tourists and service personnel, such as shop servants, food and beverage (F&B)

waiters and waitresses, taxi drivers, hotel receptionists etc.. The followings are some examples of the service oriented contact.

"I talked to the locals when I needed to ask for the directions or information for the buses. That's it" (*Informant 7, female, 30-39, manager/ administrator*)

"When we traveled in Shanghai, we were queuing in front of a very famous restaurant to buy the XiaoLongBao. A local person saw us and told us that, all the restaurants close by had the XiaoLongBao, and their tastes were similar. We didn't need to wait for a long time for this brand. We took his advice and finally we found that it was true and he was not cheating us" (*Informant 15, female, 50-59, craft or related worker*).

"Once I traveled in Shandong and took a taxi to the airport. The driver was very talkative and friendly. People in Shandong province are very warm-hearted and nice" (*Informant 9, female, 50-59, professional*).

Social oriented contact represents the interactions with social purposes, for instance, making friends, visiting locals' homes, exploring the locals' daily life and traveling together. Compared with the service oriented contact, social oriented contact requires deeper communication and more personal involvement. The followings are some examples of the social oriented contact.

"I like to do sports in mainland China. Once I played golf with the locals, a 10 years old boy was also there to play. After knowing each other, we started to chat. He asked me in a very polite way that where to visit if he would like to visit Hong Kong in the future and how was our life like in Hong Kong. Why there were some news about the mainland Chinese tourists in Hong Kong and what actually happened etc.. I was so impressed that those questions were from such a

young boy. He was very mature and polite. It changed the image of mainland Chinese in my mind" (*Informant 16, female, 50-59, retired*).

"Once I went to the Northeast during the Chinese New Year. I became very interested in their winter life. They explained to me about their unique beds-heatable brick beds (Kàng). They invited me to their homes and showed me. That's the first time I saw a real brick bed. They put charcoals under the bed to keep it warm. I stayed there overnight to experience. They were so nice" (*Informant 20, male, 40-49, early retired*).

"My friend and I went to a community park in Beijing. We watched some senior people writing on the ground with the water-inked Chinese brush pen. We never saw that in Hong Kong. Those senior people noticed us and chatted with us. They asked for our names and wrote our names with the water-inked Chinese brush pen for us, which were very impressive to us. They were very friendly and nice…. I think this city is very internationalized and tolerant to the people from other countries, not like Hong Kong. I heard many negative news of mainland Chinese tourists in Hong Kong from some media in Hong Kong. What would we feel if we were treated the same in a destination? We need to think about it" (*Informant 2, female, 30-39, hunting for jobs*).

Table 5.2 Items of Perceived Cultural Distance

Cultural distance (19)	Sources	References
Total	N/A	241
Differences in social norms or civilization level	18	59
Cuisine	11	28
Lifestyle	13	27
Character	13	20
Appreciation and understanding in traditional culture	2	18
Hygiene	12	17
Way to communicate or make friends	9	15
Cultural differences exist within mainland China	4	10
Sense of culture retention	3	9
Attitude to service-hospitality	6	9
Privacy	6	6
Attachment to family	2	5
Richness of traditional culture	3	4
Service value	3	3
Little cultural difference	3	3
Restrictions	3	3
Differences in traditions	2	2
Appearance	2	2
Sense of harmony	1	1

Table 5.3 Items of Quantity of Tourist-Host Social Contact

Tourist-host social activities (16)	Sources	References
Total	N/A	189
Entertainment and sports	18	38
Dining together	14	27
Shopping-service personnel	15	24
F&B-service personnel	11	20
Visiting their homes	10	15
Asking for information	8	14
Transportation-service personnel	10	14
Other service personnel	7	12
Accommodation-service personnel	8	11
Experiencing local customs/ceremonies	5	10
Argue or conflict	3	7
Local tour guide (For package tours)	3	4
Traveling together (show around)	2	3
Volunteer activities	1	3
Interacting during performance	1	1
Exchanging gifts	1	1

5.3 Results of the first-round panel review

A panel discussion had been held on September 22nd, 2015 to mainly discuss about the feasibility of the items developed from the interviews. As listed in Table 5.2 and 5.3, 19 items of cultural distance and 16 items of quantity of social contact were obtained from the interviews. Due to the preliminary nature of those items, four panel members with expertise in tourist behavior and cross-cultural studies, including one professor, two associate professors and one assistant professor were invited to give their professional comments on the 35 items. Below are listed the main revision comments on both the cultural distance and quantity of social contact items:

Perceived cultural distance:

- "Differences in social norms or civilization level" should be separated to avoid the double-barrel.

- "Restrictions" was recommended to change to "restrictions of freedom".

- "Way to communicate or make friends" should be separated to avoid the double-barrel.

Quantity of tourist-host social contact:

- "Entertainment and sports" was recommended to change to "leisure activities".

- "Local tour guide (For package tours)" was recommended to change to "service personnel during touring".

- "Volunteer activities" was deleted.

- "Asking for information" was changed to "enquiring or receiving help from them".

- "Other service personnel" was deleted.

The original items and the corresponding revised items are listed in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Items Revised according to Expert Panel Review

Original Items	Revised Items
Perceived cultural distance	
Differences in social norms or civilization level	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in social norms.
	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.
Restrictions	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom.
Way to communicate or make friends	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.
	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.
Quantity of tourist-host social contact	
Entertainment and sports	Interaction with the locals during leisure activities
Local tour guide (For package tours)	Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)
Volunteer activities	Deleted
Other service personnel	Deleted

5.4 Questionnaire design for pre-test

After consolidating all the items, a preliminary questionnaire was designed to test the newly developed constructs, namely perceived cultural distance and quantity of social contact. The questionnaire included three parts. Before any of the main part, there were two screening questions, aiming to select the right respondents for the pre-test. The first set was to obtain respondents' perceptions of perceived cultural distance. Perceived cultural distance was evaluated using a 5-point Likert-type agreement scale. In the second part, the quantity of social contact was measured by the frequency of participating in a certain activity, with 1 representing "Never" and 5 representing "Very frequently". The quality of social contact was evaluated by using a 5-point Likert-type agreement scale. The last section was related to the demographic information. The pre-test questionnaires, both the English and Traditional Chinese versions could be found in Appendix 4 and Appendix 5, respectively.

5.5 Results of the pre-test

5.5.1 Data screening and normality

To ensure that the data set was suitable for the investigation, the data was initially screened and cleaned. In total, 318 questionnaires were collected. Twenty-one of them were found to be blank or the majority of the questions were left blank. Fourteen responses were eliminated since at least one section of the scale questions were rates the same scores.

Missing data in scale questions was replaced with the mean of the particular item (Table 5.5). For scale questions, outliers were defined as the scores exceed mean±3×standard deviation (Table 5.5). As a result, three responses were found to be outliers for perceived cultural distance items. After the data screening, 280 responses were retained. The standard deviations for all the items were between 0.748 and 1.195. Comparatively, items in the construct of quantity of social contact got relatively high standard deviations, indicating a larger variation of the scores among responses. Items in the construct of quality of contact obtained relatively low standard deviations, showing that respondents had similar experiences to the quality of the social contact with the hosts.

Normality test was carried out to examine if the distribution of scores is approximately normal. In this research, values of skewness and kurtosis were adopted to evaluate the goodness of distribution for all the scale questions. It is stated that, the further the value is from zero, the more likely it is that the data are not normally distributed (Field, 2013). In addition, Kline (2011) suggested that normality assumption might be problematic when the absolute values of skewness are greater than 3 and when the absolute values of kurtosis are greater than 10. As displayed in Table 5.5, all the skewness and kurtosis values were within the aforementioned intervals, which indicated a good normality distribution of the scores.

Table 5.5 Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Cultural Distance, Quantity of Social Contact and Quality of Social Contact (n=280)

Cultural Distance	Standard Deviation	Mean*	Skewness	Kurtosis
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in social norms.	0.996	3.83	-.846	.221
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in lifestyle.	0.939	3.75	-.626	.126
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.	1.051	3.43	-.389	-.391
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.	1.026	3.52	-.321	-.552
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.	1.005	3.45	-.340	-.376
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in attitude to service (hospitality).	0.936	3.72	-.462	-.153
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in character.	0.946	3.77	-.345	-.665
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different when perceiving service value.	0.942	3.77	-.535	-.206
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cultural diversity within mainland China.	0.977	3.69	-.369	-.543
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.	0.957	4.17	-.914	-.119
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.	1.039	3.35	-.148	-.581
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.	0.986	3.81	-.540	-.223
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom.	0.973	4.00	-.635	-.441
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in perceiving sense of harmony.	1.042	3.79	-.609	-.263
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy.	1.008	3.84	-.569	-.301
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.	1.046	3.62	-.243	-.754
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.	0.962	3.39	-.221	-.286
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in attachment to family.	1.036	3.13	-.002	-.509
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in understanding traditional culture.	1.041	3.24	-.248	-.398
Quantity of Social Contact	Standard Deviation	Mean**	Skewness	Kurtosis
Interaction with the locals during leisure activities	1.030	2.70	.287	-.430
Interaction with the locals when dining together	1.071	2.60	.228	-.570
Interaction with the service personnel during shopping	1.085	2.88	.116	-.770
Interaction with the service personnel during dining	1.080	2.86	.002	-.558

	Standard Deviation	Mean	Skewness	Kurtosis
Interaction with the service personnel in transportation	1.143	2.59	.307	-.725
Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation	1.103	2.64	.094	-.851
Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)	1.093	2.73	.103	-.529
Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes	1.195	2.58	.257	-.842
Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them	1.126	2.66	.193	-.780
Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs	1.109	2.59	.236	-.618
Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict	1.140	2.41	.455	-.592
Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)	1.174	2.52	.290	-.909
Interaction with the locals in participating performance	1.154	2.39	.424	-.702
Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts	1.156	2.20	.607	-.633
Quality of Contact	**Standard Deviation**	**Mean***	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
All things considered, I think my contacts with the mainland hosts are:				
fair	0.870	3.10	-.161	-.072
interesting	0.872	3.15	-.139	-.610
equal	0.877	3.12	-.167	-.215
informal	0.849	3.28	-.052	.009
active	0.896	3.04	-.159	-.457
altruistic	0.945	3.02	-.137	-.129
close	1.001	2.90	-.042	-.558
friendly	0.858	3.15	-.257	.073
harmonious	0.879	3.18	-.328	-.110
pleasant	0.852	3.23	-.224	-.001
productive	0.793	3.12	-.168	.249
intense	0.859	3.02	.061	.185
cooperative	0.765	3.07	-.121	.246
similar roles	0.812	3.06	-.024	.112
social-oriented	0.826	3.17	-.142	-.035
compatible goals and desires	0.748	3.09	.003	.816

*1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree
**1= Never, 2= Seldom, 3= Sometimes, 4= Frequently, 5= Very frequently

5.5.2 Profile of the respondents

Table 5.6 shows the demographic profile of the respondents. A total of 280 valid responses were collected. Male respondents (54.4%) outnumbered the female counterparts (45.6%). The sample was relatively young as over half of the respondents were in age group 18-24.

Approximately 56.5% and 20.1% of the respondents were holding bachelor or higher-level degrees and secondary school degrees, respectively. Half of the respondents were working, of whom nearly 10.8% occupied in clerk roles and 10.4% were working in sales related positions. Respondents were holding relatively low monthly personal incomes, as 40% of them were below HKD9,999. Two thirds of them were single and 28.2% were married with child(ren).

Table 5.6 Demographic Profile of Samples (n=280)

Demographics	%	Demographics	%
Gender		**Marital Status**	
Male	54.4	Single	67.1
Female	45.6	Married with child(ren)	28.2
Age		Married without child(ren)	3.9
18-24	56.9	Others	0.7
25-34	13.4	**Occupation**	
35-44	9.9	Managers and administrators	5.4
45-64	17.3	Professionals	9
65 or above	2.5	Associate professionals	4.3
Education		Clerks	10.8
Primary or below	3.2	Service workers and shop sales workers	10.4
Secondary school	20.1	Craft and related workers	1.4
Diploma/Certificate	8.5	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	1.8
Sub-degree course	11.7	Elementary occupations	2.5
Bachelor or above	56.5	Retired	3.2
Monthly Personal Income		Not applicable	50.4
0-9,999	40.3		
10,000-19,999	24.4		
20,000-29,999	11.7		
30,000-49,999	3.5		
50,000 or above	1.1		
Not applicable	19.1		

5.5.3 Exploratory factor analysis result

EFA was performed on the cultural distance (19 items), quantity of contact (14 items) and quality of contact (16 items) to explore the dimensionality of the three measurement instrument. The study aims to identify the latent constructs that are represented in the original variables via

CFA, thus, principal axis factoring has been selected as the appropriate extraction method. This method considers only the common or shared variances and assumes that both the unique and error variances are not of interest in defining the structure of variables (Hair et al., 2010). This method is also perceived to be more theoretically based than other extraction methods, such as principal components analysis. Direct oblimin rotation was used as the rotation method in this study to handle the correlated factors.

The appropriateness of factor analysis was subsequently tested using the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. Acceptable KMO values ($\geq$0.848) and significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.000$) were obtained, which verified the existence of a sufficient number of correlations among the variables. In each of the construct, items with low loading or cross loading issues were removed accordingly. After the EFA, 10 items were retained for perceived cultural distance and three factors emerged, namely, cultural retention (4 items), civilization (4 items) and sociality (2 items). Similarly, social oriented contact (7 items) and service oriented contact (7 items) were identified to be two factors of quantity of contact. Quality of contact was represented by a single factor (7 items). As indicated in Table 5.7, the factor loading of each remaining item was equal to or above 0.466. Cronbach's alpha for each construct exceeded 0.7, which indicated the favorable internal reliability for the three factors.

Table 5.7 Results of the EFA in Pre-test (n=280)

	Factor loading	Eigen value	% of variance
Cultural Distance (*KMO*=0.854, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000*)			68.681
Culture Retention (α=0.792)		2.916	42.490
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.	0.757		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.	0.730		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.	0.667		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.	0.623		
Civilization (α=0.850)		3.117	15.224
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom.	0.858		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.	0.763		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in perceiving sense of harmony.	0.725		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.	0.641		
Sociality (α=0.709)		1.930	10.967
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.	0.813		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.	0.588		
Quantity of Social Contact (*KMO=0.918, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000*)			62.851
Social Oriented (α=0.918)		5.870	49.986
Interaction with the locals in participating performance	0.852		
Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict	0.832		
Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts	0.827		
Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)	0.789		
Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs	0.773		
Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes	0.658		
Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them	0.657		
Service Oriented (α=0.872)		5.036	12.865
Interaction with the service personnel during dining	0.923		
Interaction with the service personnel during shopping	0.859		
Interaction with the service personnel in transportation	0.621		
Interaction with the locals when dining together	0.588		
Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation	0.568		
Interaction with the locals during leisure activities	0.517		

Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)	0.466		
Quality of Social Contact *(KMO=0.848, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000)*		3.766	53.806
All things considered, I think my contacts with the mainland hosts are:			
friendly	0.773		
harmonious	0.760		
equal	0.708		
cooperative	0.659		
interesting	0.637		
intense	0.612		
close	0.595		

* KMO: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measurement of Sampling Adequacy

5.5.4 Confirmatory factor analysis result

CFA was performed with a view to further validate the measurement using AMOS. The EFA results were used as a base. The measurement model was assessed in terms of its validity and reliability. The construct validity was examined by convergent and discriminant validity.

The extent of the correlation between the intended measure and the other measures in the construct was evaluated using convergent validity (Clark-Carter, 1997). Convergent validity represents the internal consistency of the variables within one construct. The standardized item-to-factor loading magnitude should be at least 0.5, and the factor loadings should reach the level of statistical significance (Hair et al., 2010). As indicated in Table 5.8, the primary CFA result suggested that all of the factor loadings exceeded 0.5 and all factor loadings were statistically significant (p<0.001). Average variance extracted (AVE) was also calculated for each construct to estimate the convergent validity, and the results were between 0.464 and 0.618 respectively (Table 5.9). Though the ideal AVE for a well-developed construct should be equal to or above 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010), Netemeyer, Bearden, and Sharma (2003) suggested that a newly integrative scale should have an AVE value of .45 or higher. Considering all the facts, the convergent validity was

established (Song, Xing & Chathoth, 2015). All of the retained items and their corresponding factor loadings are shown in Table 5.8.

The differences between constructs are examined using discriminant validity (Byrne, 2010). Discriminant validity monitors the external dissimilarity among factors (Hung & Petrick, 2010). The test does not provide strong evidence of discriminant validity if the squared correlation between any two constructs exceeded the corresponding AVE. In this study, each of the squared correlation between any two constructs was smaller than the corresponding AVE (Table 5.9), confirming the discriminant validity of the measurement scale.

The composite reliability of the six factors was used to assess the internal consistency of the items in each construct. As stated by Bagozzi and Kimmel (1995), a composite reliability of 0.6 or above is considered satisfactory. The composite reliability of the six factors ranged from 0.744 to 0.919, which indicated the acceptable construct reliability of the model. The overall model fit was also investigated using various indices. The X^2 test assesses the closeness of fit between the model and the data. In this model, X^2 equaled to 962.297 and df was 419. X^2/df was 2.297, which was below the threshold of 3. Several other indices, including RMSEA, GFI, AGFI, CFI, NFI, and TLI, were calculated to generate a holistic view of the model fit. The RMSEA value is categorized as the badness-of-fit measure in which a high value indicates a poor fit. The cutoff RMSEA value of <0.07 was used for this study considering the large sample size (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991; Hair et al., 2010). The RMSEA value was 0.068, which satisfied the above cutoff value, and further supported the favorable fit of the model. GFI, AGFI, CFI, NFI, and TLI all measured the goodness-of-fit of the model. All of these five indices were equal to or above 0.783. The relatively dissatisfactory model fit indices may result from the biased pre-test sample. In the pre-test, the sample was relatively young and well-educated with limited travel experiences. Such

biased sample may generate a different covariance matrix from the one in the real population. As a result, the model fit indices, which were calculated based on the covariance matrix were found not to meet the cut-off values. The model fit indices in the main survey should be improved accordingly, as the sample would distribute more balanced. Nevertheless, due to the large sample size and the property of the Maximum Likelihood estimation method, the bias of the sample did not influence the estimation of the coefficients in this model. Thus, as a pre-test, the results of the CFA could be acceptable and the items and constructs in the model would be further refined by using the sample of the main survey.

Table 5.8 Results of the Measurement Model (n=280)

Measures	Composite Reliability	Standardized Factor Loading	p
Cultural Distance			
Culture Retention	0.795		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.		0.752	***
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.		0.746	***
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.		0.679	***
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.		0.625	
Civilization	0.845		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom.		0.745	***
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.		0.773	***
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in perceiving sense of harmony.		0.767	***
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.		0.753	
Sociality	0.744		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.		0.599	***

People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.		0.921	
Quantity of Contact			
Social Oriented	0.919		
Interaction with the locals in participating performance		0.851	***
Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict		0.797	***
Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts		0.815	***
Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)		0.794	***
Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs		0.773	***
Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes		0.724	***
Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them		0.744	***
Service Oriented	0.874		
Interaction with the service personnel during dining		0.787	
Interaction with the service personnel during shopping		0.739	***
Interaction with the service personnel in transportation		0.678	***
Interaction with the locals when dining together		0.712	***
Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation		0.684	***
Interaction with the locals during leisure activities		0.698	***
Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)		0.635	***
Quality of Contact	0.857		
All things considered, I think my contacts with the mainland hosts are:			
cooperative		0.662	***
interesting		0.631	***
close		0.598	***
intense		0.620	***
friendly		0.774	***
equal		0.695	***
harmonious		0.768	

*** p<0.001

Table 5.9 Correlation (Squared Correlation) and AVE for the Measurement Model

	Cultural Retention	Civilization	Sociality	Social Oriented	Service Oriented	Quality of Contact
Cultural Retention	1					
Civilization	0.622(0.387)	1				
Sociality	0.572(0.327)	0.631(0.398)	1			
Social Oriented	0.017(0.000)	-0.335(0.112)	-0.122(0.015)	1		
Service Oriented	-0.045(0.002)	-0.258(0.067)	-0.175(0.031)	0.705(0.500)	1	
Quality of Contact	-0.268(0.072)	-0.256(0.066)	-0.223(0.050)	0.325(0.106)	0.268(0.072)	1
AVE	0.493	0.577	0.604	0.618	0.499	0.464

5.6 Questionnaire design for pilot test

5.6.1 Revisions from the pre-test results

According to the results of the pre-test, items in the constructs of perceived cultural distance, quantity of social contact and quality of social contact were revised.

Regarding the construct of perceived cultural distance, eight items were deleted based on the CFA results. All the 11 items in quantity of social contact were retained. In terms of the quality of social contact, seven out of 16 items should be kept.

Concerning the demographic questions, according to the statistics from the pre-test, categories in "monthly personal employment income" increased from six to eight to further specify respondents' income levels. For the "industry and occupation", one more categories, namely "students" was added to separate students from "not applicable". Furthermore, an additional category of "I don't know" was supplemented to the question "If you/your family migrated from mainland China, which immigrant generation are you?". The last two revisions were suggested by several respondents from the pre-test.

5.6.2 Revisions from the second-round panel review

A second-round panel review was conducted to assess the appropriateness of the pilot questionnaire. Five research faculty members with expertise in cross cultural studies were invited to evaluate the existing items by using a 3-point Likert-type scale, from "inappropriate" to "appropriate". They were also asked to provide comments on the questionnaire design. The list of perceived cultural distance and quantity of social contact were adopted from the pre-test result. Specifically, there were 10 items retained in the construct of perceived cultural distance. However, during the EFA, there is one item "People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy protection" got a very close factor loading to the cut-off value. Therefore, after consulting with the panel, this item was also kept in the factor of Civilization for the pilot and main survey analysis. In terms of the quality of social contact, though only seven items retained after the EFA and CFA in the pre-test, all the original 16 items were listed for the panel review. As suggested by the panel, due to the potentially high correlations among all the 16 items (face validity) and the sample limitations, the result from the pre-test may not be robust enough. It was recommended to examine the structure of the construct in the main survey. The review results are displayed in Table 5.10. In addition, to make the meaning clear, examples were recommended to be provided for the item "People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom". The item "People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy" was revised as "People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy protection". One more item "insincere/sincere" were added according to the panel's suggestion. Table 5.11 displays the revisions made on the pilot questionnaire.

Table 5.10 Panel Review Results for All the Items

Item	Panelist A	Panelist B	Panelist C	Panelist D	Panelist E	Average Score*
Perceived Cultural Distance						
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.	3	3	3	3	2	2.8
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.	3	3	3	1	2	2.4
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.	1	3	1	2	3	2
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.	2	3	2	3	3	2.6
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.	3	2	3	1	3	2.4
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.	3	3	3	3	3	3
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom.	3	3	3	3	3	3
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in perceiving sense of harmony.	2	3	3	2	2	2.4
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy.	3	3	3	3	3	3
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.	3	3	3	3	3	3
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.	3	3	2	2	1	2.2
Regional Ethnocentrism						
Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.	3	2	3	2	3	2.6
My culture should be the role model for other cultures.	3	2	3	2	3	2.6
People from other cultures act strange when they come to my culture.	2	3	2	2	2	2.2
Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.	3	3	3	1	2	2.4
Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.	1	2	3	1	3	2
I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	3	3	3	3	3	3
People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.	1	2	3	1	3	2
I respect the values and customs of other cultures.	3	3	3	2	3	2.8

Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.	2	3	2	1	3	2.2
Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
I have many friends from different cultures.	3	3	3	3	3	3
People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.	2	3	3	2	3	2.6
Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.	2	3	3	1	2	2.2
I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	3	3	3	3	3	3
I apply my values when judging people who are different.	3	3	2	3	3	2.8
I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.	3	3	2	2	3	2.6
I do not cooperate with people who are different.	3	3	3	3	3	3
Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.	2	2	1	2	2	1.8
I do not trust people who are different.	3	3	2	3	3	2.8
I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.	3	3	3	3	3	3
I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.	3	3	3	3	3	3
Quantity of Social Contact						
Interaction with the locals during leisure activities	3	3	3	3	3	3
Interaction with the locals when dining together	3	3	3	1	2	2.4
Interaction with the service personnel during shopping	3	3	2	1	3	2.4
Interaction with the service personnel during dining	3	3	2	2	3	2.6
Interaction with the service personnel in transportation	3	3	2	1	3	2.4
Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation	3	3	2	3	3	2.8
Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)	3	3	2	3	3	2.8
Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes	3	2	3	3	2	2.6
Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs	3	3	3	3	3	3
Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict	3	3	2	2	3	2.6
Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)	3	3	3	3	3	3
Interaction with the locals in participating performance	2	3	3	1	1	2

Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts	3	3	2	1	2	2.2
Quality of Social Contact						

All things considered, I think my contacts with the mainland hosts are:

fair	2	3	1	3	3	2.4
interesting	3	3	3	3	3	3
equal	3	3	2	3	3	2.8
informal	3	3	3	2	2	2.6
active	3	3	3	3	3	3
altruistic	2	3	2	1	2	2
close	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
friendly	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
harmonious	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
pleasant	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
productive	2	1	2	1	2	1.6
intense	3	3	3	1	1	2.2
cooperative	3	3	2	1	3	2.4
similar roles	3	3	2	1	1	2
social-oriented	3	3	3	1	2	2.4
compatible goals and desires	3	3	2	1	2	2.2
Travel Attitude (affective and cognitive)						

All things considered, I think visiting mainland China is:

enjoyable	3	3	3	3	3	3
positive	3	3	3	2	2	2.6
fun	3	3	3	3	3	3
desirable	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
favorable	3	3	3	2	2	2.6
good	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
exciting	3	3	3	3	3	3
arousing	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
satisfying	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
worthwhile	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
fascinating	3	3	3	3	3	3
right	2	3	2	2	3	2.4
beneficial	3	3	3	2	3	2.8
wise	2	3	3	2	3	2.6
useful	3	3	3	2	3	2.8

Travel Attitude (behavioral)						
You intend to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	3	3	3	3	3	3
You plan to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	3	3	3	3	3	3
You desire to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	3	3	3	3	3	3
You probably will visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	2	3	3	3	3	2.8

*1=inappropriate; 2=marginal; 3=appropriate

Table 5.11 Items Revised according to the Pre-Test and Expert Panel Review

Items in Pre-Test	Revised Items in Pilot Test
Perceived cultural distance	
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in social norms.	Deleted
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in lifestyle.	Deleted
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in attitude to service (hospitality).	Deleted
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in character.	Deleted
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different when perceiving service value.	Deleted
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cultural diversity within mainland China.	Deleted
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in attachment to family.	Deleted
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in understanding traditional culture.	Deleted
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom.	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom (e.g. blocking foreign websites, forbidding protests).
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy.	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy protection.
Quality of tourist-host social contact	
altruistic	Deleted
productive	Deleted
similar roles	Deleted
sincere	Added

Besides the comments from both the pre-test and panel review, one section of questions regarding trip information was supplemented to obtain respondents' travel information for this particular trip. At the header of the first page in the questionnaire, a location code was assigned for each questionnaire for the convenience of tracking the distribution location. At the end of the questionnaire, the respondent's contact number was required (but not compulsory) for the return visit purpose to ensure the quality of the survey result.

After all the items being consolidated, a pilot questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire included six parts. Before any of the main part, there were two screening questions, aiming to select the right respondents for the pilot test. The first section was to seek for respondents' trip information. The second set was to obtain respondents' perceptions of perceived cultural distance. Perceived cultural distance was evaluated using a 5-point Likert-type agreement scale. The third part was about the regional ethnocentrism, with a 5-point Likert-type agreement scale. In the fourth part, the quantity of social contact was measured by the frequency of participating in a certain activity, with 1 representing "Never" and 5 representing "Very frequently". The quality of social contact was evaluated by using a 5-point Likert-type agreement scale. The fifth part was related to respondents' travel attitude. The last section was related to the demographic information. The pilot test questionnaires, both the English and Traditional Chinese versions could be found in Appendix 6 and Appendix 7, respectively. Due to the appropriateness of the sample size quoted in section 4.2.7, Hangzhou was selected to conduct the pilot study.

5.7 Results of the pilot test

5.7.1 Data screening and normality test

To ensure that the data set was suitable for the investigation, the data was initially screened and cleaned. As discussed in section 4.2.7, the current pilot test targeted 10% of the sample size to

be the pilot sample size. According to section 4.3.2, the variable sample ratio was decided to be 1:10. Considering the number of items measured in this research, the sample size of the main survey should be 10 times of the item numbers. Since the primary number of items was 80, the sample size for the main survey should be targeted at 800. Therefore, the sample size of the pilot study should be 80. As a result, 91 questionnaires were collected from Hangzhou. No questionnaire was found to seriously violate the completion of the questionnaire response.

For scale questions, outliers were defined as the scores exceed mean±3×standard deviation (Table 5.12). As a result, 15 responses were found to have outliers for at least one item. Due to the sample size of the pilot study, all the missing values and outliers were replaced with the corresponding means. The standard deviations for all the items were between 0.631 and 1.144. Comparatively, items in the construct of quantity of social contact got relatively high standard deviations, whereas items in the construct of travel attitude (affective and cognitive) obtained relatively low standard deviations, showing that respondents had similar experiences to the affective and cognitive aspects of travel attitude.

Normality test was carried out to examine if the distribution of scores is approximately normal. In this research, values of skewness and kurtosis were adopted to evaluate the goodness of distribution for all the scale questions. As mentioned in the pre-test, normality assumption might be problematic when the absolute values of skewness are greater than 3 and when the absolute values of kurtosis are greater than 10. As displayed in Table 5.12, all the skewness and kurtosis values were within the aforementioned intervals, which indicated a good normality distribution of the scores.

Table 5.12 Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Cultural Distance, Regional Ethnocentrism, Quantity of Social Contact, Quality of Social Contact and Travel Attitude (n=91)

Perceived Cultural Distance	Standard Deviation	Mean*	Skewness	Kurtosis
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.	0.939	3.692	-0.824	0.808
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.	0.803	3.898	-0.461	-0.061
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.	0.757	3.774	-0.526	0.299
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.	0.833	4.167	-0.918	0.488
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.	0.939	3.626	-0.912	0.701
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.	0.820	3.921	-0.590	0.100
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom (e.g. blocking foreign websites, forbidding protests).	0.912	4.213	-0.985	0.095
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in perceiving sense of harmony.	0.803	3.722	-0.102	-0.466
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy protection.	0.833	4.078	-0.504	-0.520
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.	0.947	3.648	-0.519	0.085
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.	0.991	3.341	-0.035	-0.541
Regional Ethnocentrism	Standard Deviation	Mean*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.	0.934	2.714	0.104	0.005
My culture should be the role model for other cultures.	0.893	2.681	0.200	0.341
People from other cultures act strange when they come to my culture.	0.909	2.800	-0.040	-1.054
Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.	0.686	3.466	-0.087	-0.159
Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.	0.922	2.500	0.217	-0.396
I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	0.841	2.069	0.437	-0.346
People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.	0.707	3.960	-0.696	1.139
Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.	0.900	2.966	-0.024	0.161
I respect the values and customs of other cultures.	0.717	4.347	-1.013	1.035

	Standard Deviation	Mean	Skewness	Kurtosis
Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.	0.877	2.689	-0.347	-0.472
Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.	0.970	2.527	0.481	-0.043
I have many friends from different cultures.	0.760	4.022	-0.503	0.089
People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.	0.923	2.484	0.093	-0.406
Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.	0.860	2.462	0.336	-0.024
I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	0.833	3.866	-0.684	0.225
I apply my values when judging people who are different.	0.964	2.879	0.019	-0.212
I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.	0.807	3.247	-0.233	0.400
I do not cooperate with people who are different.	1.040	2.374	0.649	0.096
Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.	1.032	2.813	0.200	-0.491
I do not trust people who are different.	0.854	2.267	0.214	-0.533
I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.	0.981	2.242	0.719	0.168
I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.	0.805	1.673	1.054	0.542
Quantity of Social Contact	**Standard Deviation**	**Mean****	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
Interaction with the locals during leisure activities	0.899	3.505	-0.064	-0.289
Interaction with the locals when dining together	0.972	3.363	0.101	-0.328
Interaction with the service personnel during shopping	0.874	3.484	-0.102	-0.166
Interaction with the service personnel during dining	0.855	3.396	0.006	-0.088
Interaction with the service personnel in transportation	0.978	3.099	-0.129	-0.272
Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation	0.860	3.286	-0.057	-0.315
Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)	1.144	3.319	-0.475	-0.508
Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes	1.096	3.231	-0.423	-0.410
Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them	0.817	3.330	-0.181	-0.088
Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs	0.887	3.352	-0.270	-0.038
Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict	1.096	2.725	0.000	-0.688

	Standard Deviation	Mean*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)	1.028	3.363	-0.217	-0.285
Interaction with the locals in participating performance	1.076	2.901	0.036	-0.400
Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts	1.140	2.890	-0.056	-0.665
Quality of Social Contact	**Standard Deviation**	**Mean***	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
All things considered, I think my contacts with the mainland hosts are:				
fair	0.897	3.659	-0.022	-0.362
interesting	0.742	3.775	0.070	-0.554
equal	1.047	3.648	-0.434	-0.285
informal	0.905	3.411	-0.004	0.502
active	0.769	3.622	-0.123	-0.269
close	0.861	3.495	-0.303	0.424
friendly	0.889	3.747	-0.057	-0.867
harmonious	0.829	3.846	-0.182	-0.649
pleasant	0.820	3.922	-0.470	-0.164
intense	0.713	3.555	0.555	-0.306
cooperative	0.720	3.644	0.481	-0.640
social-oriented	0.757	3.456	0.390	-0.127
compatible goals and desires	0.738	3.617	0.430	-0.526
sincere	0.768	3.855	-0.041	-0.671
Travel Attitude (affective and cognitive)	**Standard Deviation**	**Mean***	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
All things considered, I think visiting mainland China is:				
enjoyable	0.739	4.143	-0.572	0.107
positive	0.751	3.945	-0.554	0.395
fun	0.745	4.022	-0.695	0.755
desirable	0.752	3.967	-0.426	0.037
favorable	0.752	4.033	-0.375	-0.261
good	0.699	4.000	-0.399	0.276
exciting	0.668	3.769	0.073	-0.377
arousing	0.668	3.769	0.073	-0.377
satisfying	0.631	4.044	-0.033	-0.426
worthwhile	0.682	4.044	-0.270	-0.087
fascinating	0.722	3.890	-0.194	-0.226
right	0.715	4.000	-0.373	0.080
beneficial	0.755	3.912	-0.169	-0.494
wise	0.763	3.868	-0.078	-0.620
useful	0.745	3.978	-0.129	-0.734

Travel Attitude (behavioral)	Standard Deviation	Mean*	Skewness	Kurtosis
I intend to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.792	4.341	-0.830	-0.448
I plan to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.873	4.286	-1.006	0.112
I desire to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.794	4.352	-0.994	0.188
I probably will visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.774	4.407	-1.149	0.642

*1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

**1= Never, 2= Seldom, 3= Sometimes, 4= Frequently, 5= Very frequently

5.7.2 Profile of the respondents

Table 5.13 shows the demographic profile of the respondents. A total of 91 valid responses were collected. Male respondents (62.6%) outnumbered the female counterparts (37.4%). The sample was relatively mid-aged as one third of the respondents were in the age group 35-44, and 44.4% of them were between 45 and 64. Approximately 62.6% of the respondents were holding bachelor or higher-level degrees. The majority of the respondents were working, of whom nearly 44.4% worked as managers or administrators and 30% were working as professionals. The majority of their jobs were not related to the tourism industry. Respondents were holding relatively high monthly personal incomes, as one third of them earned HKD50,000 per month. Seventy percent of them were married. Regarding their background of living, 62.2% of them had not lived in mainland China before and 40% of them belonged to the second immigrant generation from mainland China to Hong Kong.

Table 5.13 Demographic Profile of Samples (n=91)

Demographics	%	Demographics	%
Gender		**Marital Status**	
Male	62.6	Single	30.8
Female	37.4	Married with child(ren)	53.8
Age		Married without child(ren)	15.4
18-24	1.1	**Occupation**	
25-34	15.6	Managers and administrators	44.4
35-44	33.3	Professionals	30.0
45-64	44.4	Associate professionals	4.4
65 or above	5.6	Clerks	6.7
Education		Service workers and shop sales workers	2.2
Secondary school	17.6	Craft and related workers	1.1
Diploma/Certificate	17.6	Retired	6.7
Sub-degree course	2.2	Students	1.1
Bachelor or above	62.6	Not applicable	3.3
Monthly Personal Income		**Relation to the tourism industry**	
0-9,999	1.2	Yes	7.7
10,000-19,999	9.4	No	89.0
20,000-29,999	10.6	Not applicable	3.3
30,000-39,999	16.5	**Background of living in mainland China before**	
40,000-49,999	10.6	Yes	37.8
50,000-59,999	12.9	No	62.2
60,000 or above	21.2	**Which immigrant generation are you?**	
Not applicable	17.6	First	19.8
		Second	40.7
		Third and above	14.3
		I don't know	7.7
		Not applicable	17.6

5.7.3 Construct reliability

The main objective for the pilot study is to examine the construct reliability. According to the pre-test result, perceived cultural distance had three factors, quantity of social contact included two factors and quality of social contact consisted of one factor. As mentioned in the literature review, the construct of regional ethnocentrism, affective and cognitive travel attitude as well as

the behavioral travel attitude were treated as single factor constructs. Regarding the construct of regional ethnocentrism, the procedure developed by Neuliep (2002) were followed. Firstly, as item 3,6,12,15,16,17 and 19 were treated as distracters, they were deleted from the original list. Among the remaining 15 items, item 4, 7 and 9 should be recoded by reversing the scores (1=5, 2=4, 3=3, 4=2, 5=1). Table 5.14 displays the reliability results for each of the construct. As a result, all the construct reliability passed the cut-off value of 0.7, which indicated a satisfactory reliability.

Table 5.14 Construct Reliability

Construct	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Perceived Cultural Distance		
Culture Retention	4	0.831
Civilization	5	0.822
Sociality	2	0.733
Regional Ethnocentrism	15	0.870
Quantity of Social Contact		
Social Oriented	7	0.891
Service Oriented	7	0.867
Quality of Social Contact	14	0.907
Travel Attitude (affective and cognitive)	15	0.966
Travel Attitude (behavioral)	4	0.955

5.8 Summary

This chapter presents the process of developing measurement instruments. Literature review, in-depth interview and two-rounds of panel review are applied to generate valid and reliable results. The pre-test is conducted to examine the newly developed instruments in the current study, which are perceived cultural distance and quantity of contact. The main objective for the pilot study is to examine the construct reliability. Results of pre-test and pilot test are also

used to provide evidences of revising the final questionnaire. The main survey is now ready to be processed.

CHAPTER 6. RESULT II: MAIN SURVEY

6.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the main findings of the current study. The sample distribution is confirmed according to the number of items in the model and the variable sample ratio. Prior to any relational test, all the data is screened and tested for normal distribution. Profiles of respondents and descriptive statistics are displayed. Factor stability is assessed by randomly splitting the overall sample into two halves. The first half is used for EFA and the second half is used for CFA. Second order CFA is applied due to the complicity of the model. Construct reliability is also examined. After the confirmation of all the factors, SEM is carried out with the overall sample to examine the proposed framework.

6.2 Sample distribution

Table 6.1 shows the sample distribution for the main survey. It should be noted that, according to Neuliep (2002), scores of the items in the construct Regional Ethnocentrism were summed and treated as one valid item, rather than 22. As a result, the items to be analyzed in AMOS were 59. As the variable sample ratio was decided to be 1:10 in 4.3.2, the sample size for the main survey should reach 59×10=590. The target sample size was hence decided to be 600. Based on the relative market shares for Shanghai, Beijing, Hangzhou and Chongqing, the theoretical sample sizes were 197, 166, 139 and 97, respectively. According to the theoretical sample size, the planned sample size for each city was 200, 150, 150 and 100, respectively. The data collection period was from November 25, 2015 to February 14, 2016. The actually sample sizes collected were 250, 155, 145 and 110, respectively. In total, 660 responses were obtained for the main survey. The overall refusal rate among the four cities was 31.62% (Wadsworth, 2011, p 95).

Table 6.1 Sample Distribution for the Main Survey

Area	Relative Market Share	Theoretical Sample Size	Planned Sample Size	Collected Sample Size	Collected Date
Shanghai	32.89%	197	200	250	Dec 11-13, 2015
Beijing	27.69%	166	150	155	Dec 26-28, 2015
Hangzhou	23.20%	139	150	145	Nov 25 & 28, 2015; Jan 24-25, Feb 13-14, 2016
Chongqing	16.21%	97	100	110	Jan 29-31, 2016
Total	100%	600	600	660	

6.3 Data screening and normality

To ensure that the data set was eligible for the investigation, the data was initially screened and cleaned. In total, 660 questionnaires were collected. No questionnaire was found to seriously violate the completion of the questionnaire response.

Missing data in scale questions was replaced with the mean of the particular item (Table 6.2). As a result, 80 cases were found to have one or more missing scores, and hence were replaced with the mean values. For scale questions, outliers were defined as the scores exceed mean±3×standard deviation (Table 6.2). Consequently, 87 responses were found to include outliers, which were also replaced with the item mean values. The standard deviations for all the items were between 0.720 and 1.155. Comparatively, items in the construct of Quantity of Social Contact got relatively high standard deviations, indicating that respondents tended to have various experiences towards the activities of social contact in the destinations. Items in the construct of Travel Attitude (affective and cognitive) obtained relatively low standard deviations, showing that respondents were likely to have similar opinions towards the affective and cognitive travel attitudes during their visits to mainland China.

Normality test was carried out to examine if the distribution of scores is approximately normal. In this research, values of skewness and kurtosis were adopted to evaluate the goodness of distribution for all the scale questions. According to Field (2013) and Kline (2011), the normality assumption might be problematic when the absolute values of skewness are greater than 3 and when the absolute values of kurtosis are greater than 10. As displayed in Table 6.2, all the skewness and kurtosis values indicated a good normality distribution of the scores. In terms of the multivariate normality assumption, according to the Central Limit Theorem, as the sample size increases, each item will approach normal distribution. As a result, the linear combination of the items should also follow a normal distribution. This is the necessary and sufficient condition for a joint normal distribution. Thus it could be believed that the multivariate normality assumption of the sample is satisfied in this research due to the sufficient large sample size.

Table 6.2 Descriptive Statistics for All the Constructs (n=660)

Perceived Cultural Distance	Standard Deviation	Mean*	Skewness	Kurtosis
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.	0.902	3.668	-0.541	0.140
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.	0.738	3.758	-0.369	0.052
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.	0.750	3.680	-0.361	-0.043
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.	0.852	4.059	-0.571	-0.407
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.	0.863	3.520	-0.554	0.199
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.	0.835	3.784	-0.290	-0.448
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom (e.g. blocking foreign websites, forbidding protests).	0.923	4.109	-0.649	-0.651
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in perceiving sense of harmony.	0.910	3.573	-0.387	0.060
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy protection.	0.859	3.930	-0.411	-0.527

	Standard Deviation	Mean*	Skewness	Kurtosis
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.	0.875	3.528	-0.318	-0.146
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.	0.891	3.302	-0.229	-0.095
Regional Ethnocentrism	**Standard Deviation**	**Mean***	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.	0.962	2.750	0.067	-0.476
My culture should be the role model for other cultures.	0.934	2.611	0.040	-0.349
People from other cultures act strange when they come to my culture.	0.915	2.735	0.001	-0.492
Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.	0.819	3.234	-0.191	0.048
Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.	0.944	2.469	0.099	-0.650
I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	1.011	2.322	0.533	-0.186
People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.	0.954	3.667	-0.668	0.373
Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.	0.860	2.906	-0.148	0.146
I respect the values and customs of other cultures.	0.835	4.189	-0.779	-0.114
Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.	0.934	2.696	-0.176	-0.376
Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.	0.985	2.615	0.097	-0.441
I have many friends from different cultures.	0.848	3.931	-0.345	-0.618
People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.	1.011	2.533	0.189	-0.486
Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.	0.912	2.570	0.003	-0.501
I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	0.819	3.839	-0.356	-0.337
I apply my values when judging people who are different.	1.008	2.947	-0.036	-0.509
I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.	0.935	3.247	-0.220	0.000
I do not cooperate with people who are different.	0.977	2.359	0.502	-0.087
Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.	0.917	2.827	0.124	-0.101
I do not trust people who are different.	0.948	2.429	0.340	-0.323
I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.	0.953	2.343	0.459	-0.174
I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.	0.874	1.783	0.822	-0.284

Quantity of Social Contact	Standard Deviation	Mean**	Skewness	Kurtosis
Interaction with the locals during leisure activities	0.968	3.393	-0.149	-0.530
Interaction with the locals when dining together	1.023	3.299	-0.062	-0.744
Interaction with the service personnel during shopping	0.951	3.391	-0.322	-0.301
Interaction with the service personnel during dining	0.946	3.330	-0.151	-0.474
Interaction with the service personnel in transportation	1.010	2.988	0.033	-0.556
Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation	0.966	3.225	-0.098	-0.550
Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)	1.131	3.024	-0.199	-0.798
Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes	1.155	2.855	0.006	-0.882
Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them	0.960	3.185	-0.151	-0.431
Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs	0.984	3.158	-0.130	-0.525
Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict	1.118	2.558	0.282	-0.700
Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)	1.112	3.030	-0.126	-0.676
Interaction with the locals in participating performance	1.111	2.725	0.133	-0.723
Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts	1.155	2.700	0.185	-0.809
Quality of Social Contact	Standard Deviation	Mean*	Skewness	Kurtosis
All things considered, I think my contacts with the mainland hosts are:				
fair	0.800	3.757	0.060	-0.753
interesting	0.759	3.825	-0.088	-0.528
equal	0.841	3.818	-0.161	-0.703
informal	0.941	3.485	-0.287	0.128
active	0.783	3.698	-0.075	-0.448
close	0.890	3.511	-0.091	-0.256
friendly	0.794	3.898	-0.157	-0.690
harmonious	0.810	3.877	-0.197	-0.634
pleasant	0.762	3.945	-0.337	-0.256
intense	0.763	3.546	0.420	-0.422
cooperative	0.761	3.675	0.244	-0.640
social-oriented	0.914	3.450	-0.320	0.227
compatible goals and desires	0.734	3.603	0.311	-0.450

sincere	0.779	3.872	-0.192	-0.497
Travel Attitude (affective and cognitive)	**Standard Deviation**	**Mean***	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
All things considered, I think visiting mainland China is:				
enjoyable	0.627	4.169	-0.152	-0.545
positive	0.735	3.991	-0.376	-0.094
fun	0.741	4.047	-0.390	-0.237
desirable	0.742	3.977	-0.320	-0.253
favorable	0.710	4.049	-0.428	0.097
good	0.716	4.090	-0.410	-0.132
exciting	0.766	3.829	0.019	-0.750
arousing	0.777	3.803	-0.108	-0.526
satisfying	0.725	4.003	-0.340	-0.153
worthwhile	0.723	4.052	-0.345	-0.263
fascinating	0.732	3.983	-0.206	-0.509
right	0.720	4.047	-0.340	-0.242
beneficial	0.677	3.941	-0.218	-0.040
wise	0.726	3.934	-0.204	-0.348
useful	0.734	4.026	-0.340	-0.270
Travel Attitude (behavioral)	**Standard Deviation**	**Mean***	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
I intend to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.788	4.272	-0.920	0.350
I plan to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.819	4.251	-0.899	0.142
I desire to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.782	4.303	-0.882	0.059
I probably will visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.763	4.347	-1.039	0.604

*1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

**1= Never, 2= Seldom, 3= Sometimes, 4= Frequently, 5= Very frequently

6.4 Profile of the respondents

Table 6.3 displays the demographic profile of the respondents. A total of 660 valid responses were collected. Male respondents (56.2%) outnumbered the female counterparts (43.8%). The sample was normally distributed among different age groups with 10.9% in 18-24, 23.5% in 25-34, 27.5% in 35-44, 33.8% in 45-64 and 4.2% in 65 or above. The respondents were

relatively well educated as approximately 66.5% of the respondents held bachelor or higher-level degrees. The majority of the respondents were working, of whom nearly 32.8% worked as managers or administrators and 29.1% were working as professionals. The majority (86%) of their jobs were not related to the tourism industry. Respondents held relatively high monthly personal income, as one third of them earned HKD60,000 per month. Two thirds of them were married and over half of them were married with child(ren). Regarding their background of living, 69% of them had not lived in mainland China before. In terms of the immigrant generation, 12.9% of the respondents were the first generation, 38.7% of them belonged to the second immigrant generation, 17% of them were the third generation from mainland China to Hong Kong or even longer. Twenty-five percent of the respondents claimed that they were the native Hong Kong residents. Regarding the travel mode, 20.9% of the respondents joined the package tours and 79.1% of them traveled individually. Considering the generalizability of the survey, the demographic profile of respondents in the current study was compared to the report by HKCSD (2012 & 2013), as indicated in Table 4.11. The comparison revealed that the two samples are similar for gender and mode of tours. Regarding the age, educational level, monthly personal income and employment, since the respondents in the report (Table 4.11) include travelers to both Guangdong and non-Guangdong provinces, it is not surprising that their demographic profiles were slightly different from those in the current study.

Table 6.3 Demographic Profile and Travel Behavior of Samples (n=660)

Demographics	%	Demographics	%
Gender		**Occupation**	
Male	56.2	Managers and administrators	32.8
Female	43.8	Professionals	29.1
Age		Associate professionals	3.9
18-24	10.9	Clerks	7.1
25-34	23.5	Service workers and shop sales workers	3.9
35-44	27.5	Craft and related workers	2.2
45-64	33.8	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	0.5
65 or above	4.2	Elementary occupations	0.8
Education		Retired	6.0
Primary or below	0.9	Students	8.0
Secondary school	14.7	Not applicable	5.9
Diploma/Certificate	14.9	**Relation to the tourism industry**	
Sub-degree course	3.1	Yes	6.9
Bachelor or above	66.5	No	86.0
Monthly Personal Income		Not applicable	7.1
0-9,999	0.3	**Background of living in mainland China before**	
10,000-19,999	7.9	Yes	31.0
20,000-29,999	7.7	No	69.0
30,000-39,999	12.0	**Which immigrant generation are you?**	
40,000-49,999	9.2	First	12.9
50,000-59,999	12.5	Second	38.7
60,000 or above	35.9	Third and above	17.0
Not applicable	14.3	I don't know	8.9
Marital Status		Not applicable	22.5
Single	32.1	**Mode of Tour**	
Married with child(ren)	53.4	Individual travelers	79.1
Married without child(ren)	13.4	Package tour	20.9
Others	1.1		

6.5 Descriptive statistics and mean comparison

6.5.1 Perceived cultural distance

The 11 items in the Perceived Cultural Distance were ranked by their mean values and the result is displayed in Table 6.4. The item "People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different

in restrictions of freedom (e.g. blocking foreign websites, forbidding protests)" generated the

highest means (mean=4.109) among all the items. Besides the restrictions of freedom, cultural

distance in hygiene standard, privacy protection, civilization level and the sense of cultural

retention were also ranked top five regarding the mean values. On the contrary, differences in the

way of communication, traditional customs, and way of making friends between Hong Kong and

mainland China were not perceived as large as those ranked top five.

Table 6.4 Rankings of Items in Perceived Cultural Distance by Mean Values

Perceived Cultural Distance	Mean*
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom (e.g. blocking foreign websites, forbidding protests).	4.109
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.	4.059
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy protection.	3.930
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.	3.784
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.	3.758
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.	3.680
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.	3.668
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in perceiving sense of harmony.	3.573
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.	3.528
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.	3.520
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.	3.302

*1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

6.5.2 Regional ethnocentrism

Among the 22 Regional Ethnocentrism items, the five items expressing positive opinions

towards other cultures were ranked highest, which were "I respect the values and customs of other

cultures" (mean=4.189), "I have many friends from different cultures" (mean=3.931), "I am very

interested in the values and customs of other cultures" (mean=3.839), "People in my culture could

learn a lot from people in other cultures" (mean=3.667) and "I see people who are similar to me

as virtuous" (mean=3.247). Items showing extremely negative views towards other cultures generated relatively low mean values, including "I do not trust people who are different" (mean=2.429), "I do not cooperate with people who are different" (mean=2.359), "I dislike interacting with people from different cultures" (mean=2.343), "I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures" (mean=2.322) and "I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures" (mean=1.783).

Table 6.5 Rankings of Items in Regional Ethnocentrism by Mean Values

Regional Ethnocentrism	Mean*
I respect the values and customs of other cultures.	4.189
I have many friends from different cultures.	3.931
I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	3.839
People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.	3.667
I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.	3.247
Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.	3.234
I apply my values when judging people who are different.	2.947
Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.	2.906
Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.	2.827
Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.	2.750
People from other cultures act strange when they come to my culture.	2.735
Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.	2.696
Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.	2.615
My culture should be the role model for other cultures.	2.611
Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.	2.570
People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.	2.533
Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.	2.469
I do not trust people who are different.	2.429
I do not cooperate with people who are different.	2.359
I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.	2.343
I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	2.322
I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.	1.783

*1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

6.5.3 Quantity of social contact

Quantity of Social Contact is one of the newly developed and validated constructs in the current study. In this construct, 14 items were retained for the main survey. Among all kinds of activities of tourist-host social contact, the most frequent activity respondents involved in their trips was "Interaction with the locals during leisure activities" (mean=3.393), followed by "Interaction with the service personnel during shopping" (mean=3.391), "Interaction with the service personnel during dining" (mean=3.330), "Interaction with the locals when dining together" (mean=3.299) and "Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation" (mean=3.225). Respondents reported that they participated less frequently in some activities, such as "Interaction with the service personnel in transportation" (mean=2.988), "Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes" (mean=2.855), "Interaction with the locals in participating performance" (mean=2.725), "Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts" (mean=2.700) and "Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict" (mean=2.558).

Table 6.6 Rankings of Items in Quantity of Social Contact by Mean Values

Quantity of Social Contact	Mean*
Interaction with the locals during leisure activities	3.393
Interaction with the service personnel during shopping	3.391
Interaction with the service personnel during dining	3.330
Interaction with the locals when dining together	3.299
Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation	3.225
Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them	3.185
Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs	3.158
Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)	3.030
Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)	3.024
Interaction with the service personnel in transportation	2.988
Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes	2.855
Interaction with the locals in participating performance	2.725
Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts	2.700
Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict	2.558

*1= Never, 2= Seldom, 3= Sometimes, 4= Frequently, 5= Very frequently

6.5.4 Quality of social contact

Fourteen items representing the Quality of Social Contact were investigated in the current study. Overall, respondents believed that their interactions with mainland hosts were pleasant, friendly, harmonious, sincere, interesting and equal. Comparatively, items of "intense", "close", "informal", and "social-oriented" were rated low (mean values below 3.6).

Table 6.7 Rankings of Items in Quality of Social Contact by Mean Values

Quality of Social Contact	Mean*
All things considered, I think my contacts with the mainland hosts are:	
pleasant	3.945
friendly	3.898
harmonious	3.877
sincere	3.872
interesting	3.825
equal	3.818
fair	3.757
active	3.698
cooperative	3.675
compatible goals and desires	3.603
intense	3.546
close	3.511
informal	3.485
social-oriented	3.450

*1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

6.5.5 Affective and cognitive travel attitudes

Regarding the Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes, all the items generated relatively high mean values, as all the means were over 3.8. Specifically, most respondents believed that their trips in mainland China were enjoyable, good, worthwhile, favorable, fun and right. "Exciting" and "arousing" were rated relatively low.

Table 6.8 Rankings of Items in Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes by Mean Values

Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes	Mean*
All things considered, I think visiting mainland China is:	
enjoyable	4.169
good	4.090
worthwhile	4.052
favorable	4.049
fun	4.047
right	4.047
useful	4.026
satisfying	4.003
positive	3.991
fascinating	3.983
desirable	3.977
beneficial	3.941
wise	3.934
exciting	3.829
arousing	3.803

*1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

6.5.6 Behavioral travel attitude

Generally, the majority of the respondents indicated that they would visit mainland China in the next 2 years, expressing a high revisit intention to mainland China. Particularly, "I probably will visit mainland China in the next 2 years" was rated highest with the mean value of 4.347.

Table 6.9 Rankings of Items in Behavioral Travel Attitude by Mean Values

Travel Attitude (behavioral)	Mean*
I probably will visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	4.347
I desire to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	4.303
I intend to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	4.272
I plan to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	4.251

*1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

6.5.7 Mean comparison across the four cities

To better understand the data and to identify the differences in the six constructs across the four cities, analysis of variance (ANOVA) were applied. Firstly, the mean value of each construct was calculated as displayed in Table 6.10. Secondly, the construct means were statistically compared with the ANOVA, and the Levene statistics, F-statistics, Welch statistics as well as the Brown-Forsythe statistics were reported in Table 6.10. As a result, tourists' Perceived Cultural Distance, Quality of Social Contact, and Quantity of Social Contact were found to be different among the four cities. With regard to the Perceived Cultural Distance and Quality of Social Contact respectively, Chongqing was significantly lower in the Perceived Cultural Distance and significantly higher in the Quality of Social Contact than those in the other three cities. Geographically, Chongqing is the closest city to Hong Kong among the four. According to the distance decay, though distance may not be a deterministic variable in nature, it is a valid proxy which reflects the culmination of a number of factors, such as cultural distance (McKercher et al., 2008; McKercher, 2008). In that case, people who are geographically close to each other may have less cultural distance than those who are far away from each other. With less cultural distance, the participating parties in the interactions have less communication barriers, and the quality of contact are hence higher. Regarding the Quantity of Social Contact, Chongqing was significantly lower than that in the other three cities. Chongqing had a relatively high percentage of group tourists (Chongqing: 32% v.s. Overall sample: 20%). It is argued that, compared with the individual tourists, tourists in a tour package have less chances to interact with the locals during their trips.

Table 6.10 Differences of Means across Four Cities

Construct	Mean				Levene Statistics	F-Statistics	Welch Statistics	Brown-Forsythe Statistics	Significant Different Cities in Multiple Comparisons at 5% Significant Level
	Beijing	Chongqing	Hangzhou	Shanghai					
PCD[1]	3.72	3.45	3.87	3.76	7.03***	-	21.50***	16.33***	Beijing v.s. Chongqing Hangzhou v.s. Chongqing Shanghai v.s. Chongqing
Ethno[2]	2.85	2.94	2.83	2.86	0.25	1.93	-	-	-
QntSC[3]	3.07	2.60	3.21	3.17	2.46	20.24***	-	-	Beijing v.s. Chongqing Hangzhou v.s. Chongqing Shanghai v.s. Chongqing
QltSC[4]	3.65	3.83	3.75	3.67	9.21***	-	4.35**	3.15*	Beijing v.s. Chongqing Shanghai v.s. Chongqing
ACTA[5]	3.99	4.00	4.06	3.96	8.93***	-	0.90	1.13	-
BTA[6]	4.17	4.31	4.39	4.30	4.83**	-	1.96	2.36	-

Notes: *, ** and *** represent significance at 5%, 1% and 0.1% significant level respectively.
[1]PCD: Perceived Cultural Distance, [2]Ethno: Regional Ethnocentrism, [3]QntSC: Quantity of Social Contact, [4]QltSC: Quality of Social Contact, [5]ACTA: Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes, [6]BTA: Behavioral Travel Attitude.

6.6 Assessing factor structure stability

The stability of the factor model is crucial to the generalizability of the research findings. Hair et al. (2010) suggested that factor stability depends primarily on the sample size and on the number of cases per variable. Splitting the sample into two subsets and estimating the factor models for each subset may also facilitate the examination of factor model stability (Hair et al., 2010). Comparing the results from the overall sample and the sub-samples may provide additional evidence on the robustness of the solution across the sample. In that case, the current study aimed to examine the factor structural stability by splitting the overall sample into two samples and test the structural stability individually. Particularly, the overall sample with 660 responses was randomly and evenly split into two sub-groups, namely group one and group two. Each of them includes 330 samples. EFA would be conducted in group one and CFA would be implemented in group two to cross-check the factors structure obtained from EFA in group one. After the cross-validating of the factors structure, the SEM would be conducted with the overall sample (660).

6.7 Exploratory factor analysis of the measurement model

EFA was performed on the five constructs, namely Perceived Cultural Distance (PCD), Quantity of Social Contact (QntSC), Quality of Social Contact (QltSC), Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes (ACTA) and Behavioral Travel Attitude (BTA) to explore the dimensionality of those measurement instruments. Similar to the procedures in the pre-test, principal axis factoring has been selected as the appropriate extraction method (Hair et al., 2010). Direct oblimin rotation was used as the rotation method in this study to handle the correlated factors.

The total variance explained by each construct outnumbered 50%. The appropriateness of factor analysis was subsequently tested using the KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. Acceptable KMO values (≥0.812) and significant Bartlett's test of

sphericity (p < 0.000) were obtained, which verified the existence of a sufficient number of correlations among the variables. In each of the constructs, items with low loading (factor loading below 0.5) or cross loading (factor loading equal to or above 0.3 on more than one item) issues were removed accordingly. As a result (see Table 6.11), 10 items were retained for Perceived Cultural Distance and three factors emerged, namely, Cultural Retention (4 items), Civilization (4 items) and Sociality (2 items). Similarly, Social Oriented Contact (7 items) and Service Oriented Contact (6 items) were identified to be two factors of Quantity of Social Contact. Comparing with the primary EFA result in pre-test, the item "Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)" was eliminated from the Service Oriented Contact due to the low loading on that factor. Quality of Social Contact was represented by a single factor with 12 items. This construct only included 7 items in the pre-test result. Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes (12 items) and Behavioral Travel Attitude (4 items) were also found to be single-factor constructs. As indicated in Table 6.11, Cronbach's alpha for each construct exceeded 0.7, which indicated the favorable internal reliability for the three factors.

Table 6.11 Results of the EFA in Group One (n=330)

	Factor loading	Eigen value	% of variance
Cultural Distance (*KMO=0.812, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000*)			64.50
Culture Retention (α=0.752)		3.793	37.931
Mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.	0.725		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.	0.640		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.	0.624		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.	0.564		

Civilization (α=0.765)		1.545	15.447
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom (e.g. blocking foreign websites, forbidding protests).	0.769		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.	0.678		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy protection.	0.579		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.	0.551		
Sociality (α=0.790)		1.112	11.122
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.	0.794		
People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.	0.777		

Quantity of Social Contact (*KMO=0.914, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000*)			62.292
Social Oriented (α=0.882)		6.595	50.728
Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts	0.829		
Interaction with the locals in participating performance	0.817		
Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict	0.722		
Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs	0.606		
Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)	0.605		
Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes	0.591		
Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them	0.575		
Service Oriented (α=0.890)		1.503	11.565
Interaction with the service personnel during shopping	0.883		
Interaction with the service personnel during dining	0.855		
Interaction with the locals during leisure activities	0.783		
Interaction with the locals when dining together	0.749		
Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation	0.626		
Interaction with the service personnel in transportation	0.509		

Quality of Social Contact (*KMO=0.934, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000, α=0.915*)		6.273	52.275
All things considered, I think my contacts with the mainland hosts are:			
pleasant	0.799		
sincere	0.780		
harmonious	0.755		
friendly	0.744		

equal	0.739		
compatible goals and desires	0.704		
intense	0.650		
active	0.649		
interesting	0.649		
fair	0.624		
cooperative	0.624		
close	0.564		

Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes *(KMO=0.955, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000, α=0.946)*		7.556	62.963
All things considered, I think visiting mainland China is:			
favorable	0.826		
right	0.825		
satisfying	0.814		
worthwhile	0.805		
good	0.797		
fun	0.777		
fascinating	0.771		
positive	0.750		
arousing	0.734		
exciting	0.732		
desirable	0.722		
enjoyable	0.701		

Behavioral Travel Attitude *(KMO=0.850, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p<0.000, α=0.954)*		3.522	88.047
I probably will visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.942		
I intend to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.930		
I desire to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.923		
I plan to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.872		

6.8 Confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model

CFA was performed with group two to examine the overall measurement model. The EFA results were used as a basis for creating a hypothetical model. As two of the constructs, namely Perceived Cultural Distance and Quantity of Social Contact in this model included sub-constructs, the current measurement model should be confirmed by the second order CFA. The main constructs hence became second order constructs and the sub-constructs became the first order constructs. The structural model was assessed in terms of its validity and reliability. The construct validity was examined by convergent and discriminant validity.

As introduced in the pre-test, convergent validity represents the internal consistency of the variables within one construct. The standardized item-to-factor loading magnitude should be at least 0.5, and the factor loadings should reach the level of statistical significance (Hair et al., 2010). Five items in the Quality of Social Contact were eliminated because their factor loadings were lower than 0.5 or their standardized residual covariances with other items were too high. As indicated in Table 6.12, the primary CFA result suggested that all the retained factor loadings exceeded 0.5 and all factor loadings were statistically significant (p<0.001). Particularly, all the first order factor loadings were between 0.584 and 0.951, and all the second order factor loadings were within the range of 0.641 to 0.916. AVE was also calculated for each construct and sub-constructs to estimate the convergent validity, and the majority of the results have passed the cut-off point of 0.5. It was noted that, in the sub-constructs of Cultural Retention and Civilization, their AVEs were found to be lower that the ideal value. Due to the exploratory nature of the current study, most of the items in those two sub-constructs were newly developed from preceding literature, interviews and panel discussion. Given this, as per Netemeyer et al. (2003), the results for those two sub-constructs were acceptable. The convergent validity was established when all

facts were considered (Song, Xing & Chathoth, 2015; Ye et al., 2012). All of the retained items, sub-constructs and their corresponding factor loadings are shown in Table 6.12.

The differences between constructs are examined using discriminant validity (Byrne, 2010). Discriminant validity monitors the external dissimilarity among factors (Hung & Petrick, 2010). The test shows a strong evidence of discriminant validity if the squared correlation between any two constructs is lower than the corresponding AVE. In this study, as displayed in Table 6.13, each of the squared correlations between any two constructs was smaller than the corresponding AVE, confirming the discriminant validity of the measurement scale.

The composite reliability of all the constructs and sub-constructs was applied to assess the internal consistency. As stated by Bagozzi and Kimmel (1995), a composite reliability of 0.6 or above is considered satisfactory. The composite reliability of all the constructs and sub-constructs ranged from 0.699 to 0.954, which indicating the acceptable construct reliability of the model. The overall model fit was also investigated using various indices. The X^2 test assesses the closeness of fit between the model and the data. In this study, the X^2 equaled to 1686.265 and the X^2/df was 1.663, which was below the threshold of 3. Several other indices, including RMSEA, CFI and TLI, were calculated to generate a holistic view of the model fit. The RMSEA value is categorized as the badness-of-fit measure in which a high value indicates a poor fit. The cut-off RMSEA value of <0.07 was used for this study considering the large sample size (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991; Hair et al., 2010). The RMSEA value of 0.045 satisfied the above cut-off value, which further supported the favourable fit of the model. CFI and TLI measured the goodness-of-fit of the model. The indices were 0.931 and 0.926 respectively, which passed the cut-off value of 0.9 (Hair et al., 2010). The CFA of the overall measurement model was hence established and the model was eligible for the relational examination via SEM.

Table 6.12 Results of the Measurement Model (n=330)

Construct	Sub-Construct	Std. Factor Loading	CR	p	AVE
Perceived Cultural Distance	Culture Retention	0.641	0.771	***	0.533
	Civilization	0.869		***	
	Sociality	0.659		***	
Quantity of Social Contact	Social Oriented	0.697	0.794	***	0.662
	Service Oriented	0.916		***	
Construct					
Quality of Social Contact (All things considered, I think my contacts with the mainland hosts are:)	friendly	0.846	0.900	***	0.533
	pleasant	0.841		***	
	sincere	0.792		***	
	harmonious	0.790		***	
	intense	0.680		***	
	cooperative	0.599		***	
	fair	0.589		***	
Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes (All things considered, I think visiting mainland China is:)	good	0.862	0.954	***	0.632
	favorable	0.844		***	
	fascinating	0.815		***	
	satisfying	0.808		***	
	exciting	0.805		***	
	fun	0.804		***	
	worthwhile	0.803		***	
	arousing	0.798		***	
	right	0.795		***	
	positive	0.741		***	
	desirable	0.739		***	
	enjoyable	0.712		***	
Behavioral Travel Attitude	I desire to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.905	0.933	***	0.778
	I probably will visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.895		***	
	I plan to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.871		***	
	I intend to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.	0.857		***	
Sub-Construct					
Culture Retention	Mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.	0.655	0.699	***	0.367
	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.	0.596		***	

	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.	0.587		***	
	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.	0.584		***	
Civilization	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.	0.693	0.755	***	0.436
	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.	0.681		***	
	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy protection.	0.668		***	
	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom (e.g. blocking foreign websites, forbidding protests).	0.596		***	
Sociality	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.	0.951	0.764	***	0.630
	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.	0.596		***	
Social Oriented	Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)	0.822	0.903	***	0.572
	Interaction with the locals in participating performance	0.786		***	
	Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts	0.784		***	
	Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs	0.757		***	
	Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them	0.756		***	
	Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict	0.698		***	
	Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes	0.679		***	
Service Oriented	Interaction with the service personnel during dining	0.865	0.884	***	0.563
	Interaction with the service personnel during shopping	0.823		***	
	Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation	0.740		***	
	Interaction with the locals when dining together	0.729		***	
	Interaction with the locals during leisure activities	0.690		***	
	Interaction with the service personnel in transportation	0.628		***	

*** $p < 0.001$

Table 6.13 Correlation (Squared Correlation) and AVE for the Measurement Model

	PCD[1]	ACTA[2]	QltSC[3]	BTA[4]	QntSC[5]
PCD[1]	1.000				
ACTA[2]	0.029 (0.001)	1.000			
QltSC[3]	-0.134 (0.018)	0.726 (0.527)	1.000		
BTA[4]	0.144 (0.021)	0.404 (0.163)	0.338 (0.114)	1.000	
QntSC[5]	0.228 (0.052)	0.285 (0.081)	0.300 (0.09)	0.228 (0.052)	1.000
AVE	0.533	0.632	0.533	0.778	0.662

Notes: [1]PCD: Perceived Cultural Distance, [2]ACTA: Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes, [3]QltSC: Quality of Social Contact, [4]BTA: Behavioral Travel Attitude, [5]QntSC: Quantity of Social Contact

6.9 Path analysis of the overall structural model

The proposed structural model was assessed based on the hypotheses, and the indices obtained suggested a fairly well-fitted model. Specifically, the X^2 was 2413.24, df was 1058, and the X^2/df was 2.281, which was below the threshold of 3. The p value was significant at 0.001 level. CFI and TLI were 0.929 and 0.924 respectively, which indicate a fairly well-fitted model. Figure 6.1 shows the structural model with standardized estimates. Table 6.14 shows the structural model with estimated path coefficients. As indicated, 10 out of 13 paths were significant, indicating significant effects from the exogenous constructs to their corresponding endogenous constructs. Particularly, Regional Ethnocentrism was reported to have negative effects on Perceived Cultural Distance (coefficient=-0.166, p<0.001), Quantity of Social Contact (coefficient=-0.214, p<0.001), Quality of Social Contact (coefficient=-0.184, p<0.001), and Behavioral Travel Attitude (coefficient=-0.118, p=0.003). However, Regional Ethnocentrism showed insignificant effect on Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes (coefficient=-0.024, p=0.461). In terms of Perceived Cultural Distance, it indicated significant effects on both Quantity of Social Contact (coefficient=0.139, p=0.011) and Quality of Social Contact (coefficient=-0.159, p=0.002), but insignificant effects on Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes (coefficient=0.070, p=0.068) and Behavioral Travel Attitude (coefficient=0.088, p=0.066). Lastly, social contact had

positive effects on travel attitude (Quantity of Social Contact to Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes: coefficient=0.110, p=0.002; Quantity of Social Contact to Behavioral Travel Attitude: coefficient=0.127, p=0.003; Quality of Social Contact to Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes: coefficient=0.714, p<0.001; Quality of Social Contact to Behavioral Travel Attitude: coefficient=0.321, p<0.001). Figure 6.2 shows the path coefficients in the structural model.

According to the result, as displayed in Table 6.15, Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 5a were supported. Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4 were partially supported. Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 5b, Hypothesis 6a and Hypothesis 6b were not supported.
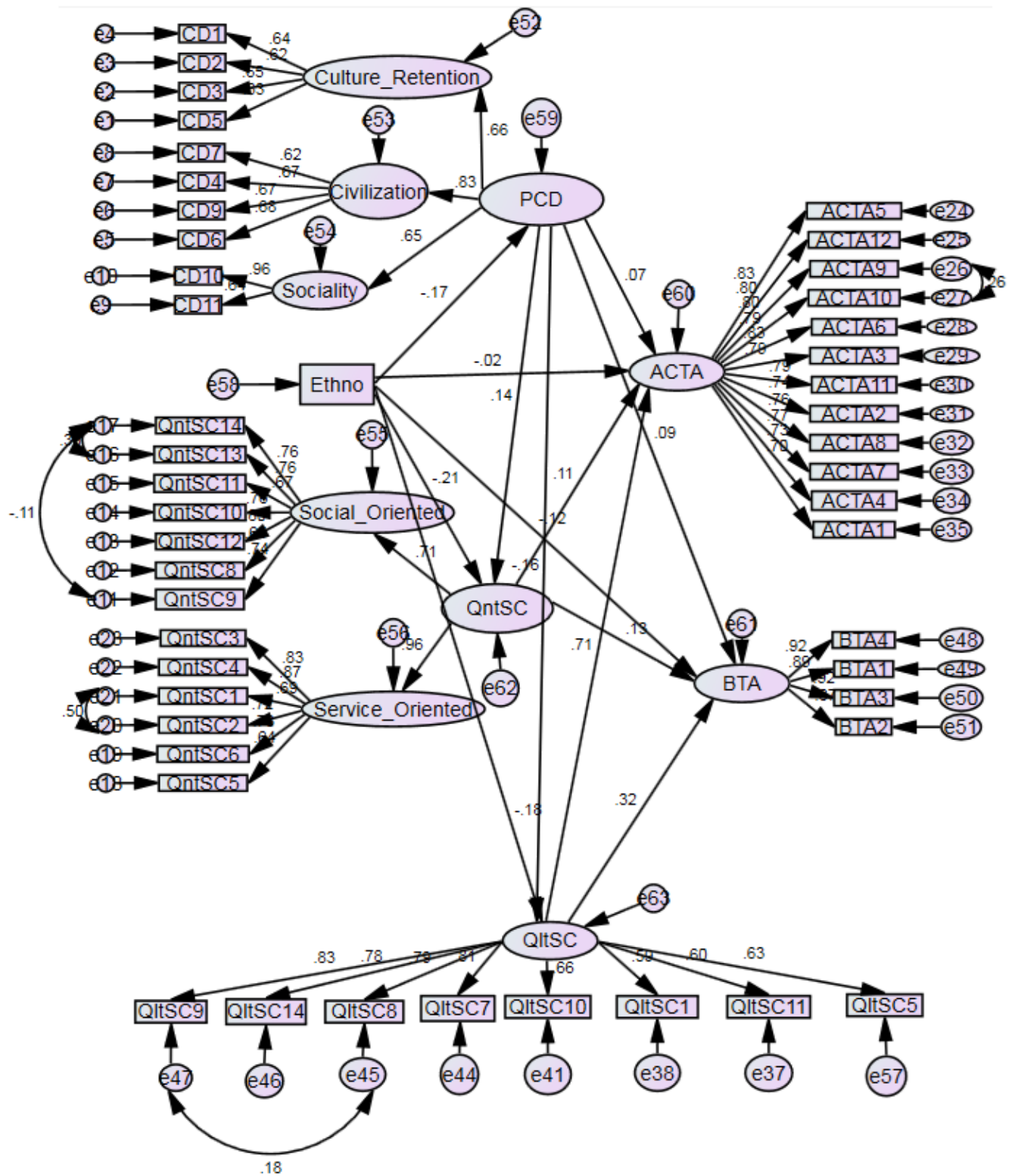
Notes: PCD: Perceived Cultural Distance, Ethno: Regional Ethnocentrism, QntSC: Quantity of Social Contact, QltSC: Quality of Social Contact, ACTA: Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes, BTA: Behavioral Travel Attitude.

Figure 6.1 Structural Model with Standardized Parameter Estimates

Table 6.14 The Results of Path Analysis

Construct	Path	Construct	Coefficient	P
Perceived Cultural Distance	←	Regional Ethnocentrism	-0.166	***
Quantity of Social Contact	←	Regional Ethnocentrism	-0.214	***
Quality of Social Contact	←	Regional Ethnocentrism	-0.184	***
Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes	←	Regional Ethnocentrism	-0.024	0.461
Behavioral Travel Attitude	←	Regional Ethnocentrism	-0.118	0.003
Quantity of Social Contact	←	Perceived Cultural Distance	0.139	0.011
Quality of Social Contact	←	Perceived Cultural Distance	-0.159	0.002
Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes	←	Perceived Cultural Distance	0.070	0.068
Behavioral Travel Attitude	←	Perceived Cultural Distance	0.088	0.066
Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes	←	Quantity of Social Contact	0.110	0.002
Behavioral Travel Attitude	←	Quantity of Social Contact	0.127	0.003
Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes	←	Quality of Social Contact	0.714	***
Behavioral Travel Attitude	←	Quality of Social Contact	0.321	***

***p<0.001

* Significant path at 5% level   ——→ Significant path
** Significant path at 1% level   - - - → Insignificant path
*** Significant path at 0.1% level
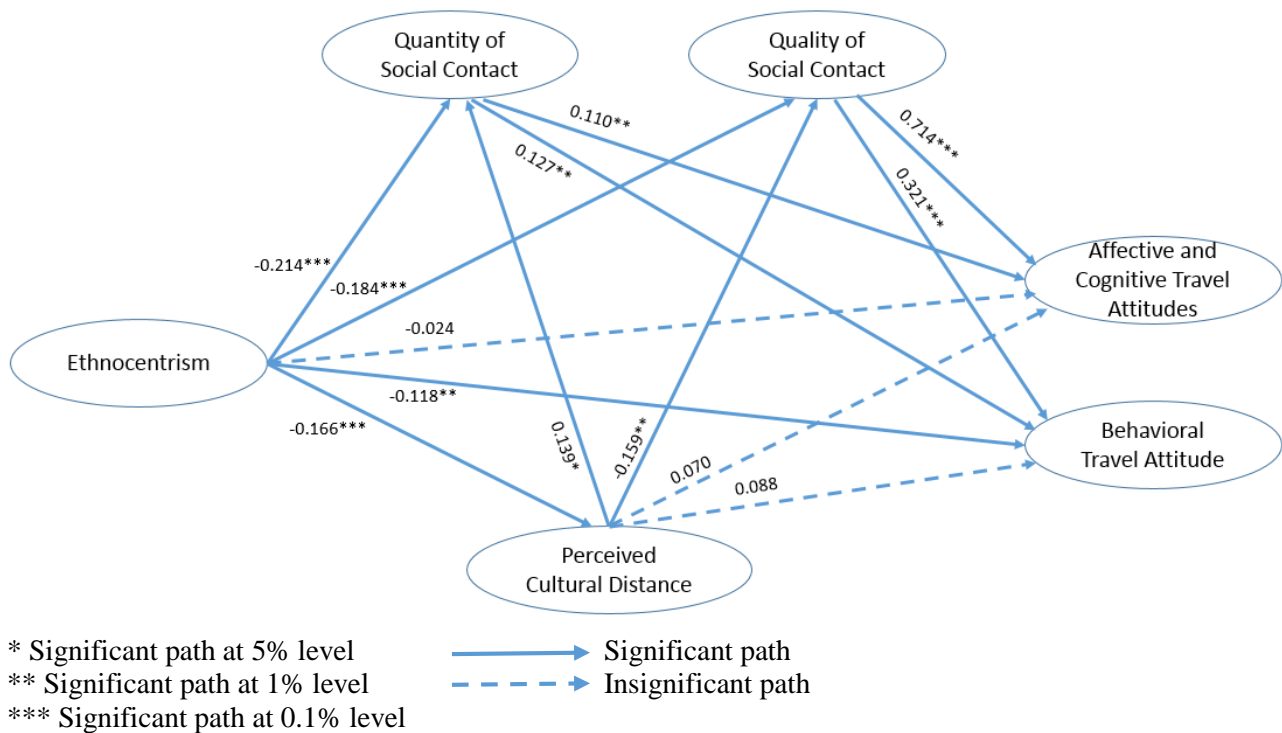
Figure 6.2 Structural Model with Standardized Coefficients

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Table 6.15 Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Results
Hypothesis 1: Regional ethnocentrism has a negative effect on tourist-host social contact.	Supported
Hypothesis 2: Regional ethnocentrism has a positive effect on the perceived cultural distance.	Not supported
Hypothesis 3: Regional ethnocentrism has a negative effect on travel attitude.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 4: Perceived cultural distance has a negative effect on tourist-host social contact.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 5a: Tourist-host social contact has a positive effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.	H5a Supported
Hypothesis 5b: Tourist-host social contact has a negative effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.	H5b Not supported
Hypothesis 6a: Perceived cultural distance has a negative effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.	H6a and H6b
Hypothesis 6b: Perceived cultural distance has a positive effect on travel attitude toward the travel experience in the destination.	Not supported

6.10 Additional remarks: Mediating effects of social contact

As shown in Table 6.14, the relationship between Perceived Culture Distance and Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes is not significant. However, the impact of Perceived Culture Distance on the Quantity and Quality of Social Contacts is significant. Meanwhile, the influences of the two social contacts constructs on Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes are also significant respectively. Thus, there may be mediating effects between Perceived Culture Distance and Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes via the two social contacts constructs.

Bootstrapping method (Bollen & Stine, 1990) was used to examine the existence of the mediation. The principle of bootstrapping method is to form a new sample with the same sample

size of the original data by resampling with replacement. The resampling process was carried out

for times (5,000 times in this research) and the indirect effect was estimated in each 'new sample'.

As a result, a distribution of the coefficient of the indirect effect was generated by the 5,000 times

resampling and Z test was conducted to examine whether the mean of the distribution equals to

zero.

Table 6.16 shows that the direct effect of Perceived Culture Distance on Affective and

Cognitive Travel Attitudes is not significant whereas the indirect effect is -0.098 and significant

at 5% significance level. This indicates that the relationship between Perceived Culture Distance

and Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes is fully mediated by the two social contacts

constructs. Bootstrapping method showed that there was no mediating effect between Perceived

Culture Distance and Behavioral Travel Attitude.

Table 6.16 Mediating Effects in the Structural Model

Construct	Path	Construct	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect		Results
ACTA[1]	←	PCD[3]	0.070 (0.068)	QntSC[4]	0.015	Full Mediation
				QltSC[5]	-0.113	
				Net Effect	-0.098 (0.036)	
BTA[2]	←	PCD[3]	0.088 (0.066)	-0.033 (0.181)		No Effect

Notes:

1. [1]ACTA: Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes; [2]BTA: Behavioral Travel Attitude; [3]PCD: Perceived Culture Distance; [4]QntSC: Quantity of Social Contact; [5]QltSC: Quality of Social Contact.

2. Figures in parenthesis are p values.

3. P values of the indirect effects of QntSC and QltSC are not available by AMOS. However, all the figures which are used to calculate them are significant at 5% significance level.

6.11 Summary

Following the quota sampling, the main survey collects 660 questionnaires from Shanghai, Beijing, Hangzhou and Chongqing. Based on the EFA and CFA results, Perceived Cultural Distance consists of three factors, including Cultural Retention, Civilization and Sociality. Quantity of Social Contact includes two factors, which are Social Oriented Contact and Service Oriented Contact. SEM is applied to test the proposed framework. As a result, Regional Ethnocentrism is stated to have negative effects on Quantity of Social Contact, Quality of Social Contact, Behavioral Travel Attitude, and Perceived Cultural Distance. Perceived Cultural Distance is found to have a positive effect on Quantity of Social Contact, whereas a negative effect on Quality of Social Contact. Lastly, Quantity of Social Contact and Quality of Social Contact are both found to have positive effects on travel attitudes. In that case, Hypothesis 1 and 5a are supported, Hypothesis 3 and 4 are partially supported and Hypothesis 2, 5b, 6a and 6b are not supported. In addition, by the bootstrapping method, mediating effects are identified in relationships between Perceived Cultural Distance and Affective and Cognitive Travel Attitudes.

CHAPTER 7. DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

7.1 Introduction

Tourism has long been thought to have the potential to facilitate intergroup understanding. However, there has been insufficient literature addressing this issue with empirical evidence. The present study extends the existing research frontier regarding tourists' behavioral and perceptional realms by further integrating several related theories to evaluate the influence of such realms on tourists' travel attitudes. Specifically, the current study investigates the effects of tourists' regional ethnocentrism on perceived cultural distance, tourist–host social contact, and travel attitudes. It also explores the effects of perceived cultural distance on tourist–host social contact and tourists' travel attitudes. Finally, tourists' social contacts with locals at the destination are also analyzed. The following sections offer a detailed discussion of each proposed objective. Both theoretical contributions and practical implication are discussed. Lastly, limitations of the current study and the future research directions are also identified, which provide possibility for the continuing investigation based on the current research.

7.2 Discussions

7.2.1 Objective One: Measurement instruments for perceived cultural distance and tourist–host social contact

One of the fundamental contributions of the current study is to develop valid and reliable instruments for measuring perceived cultural distance and tourist–host social contact. First, cultural distance was measured by perceived cultural distance, as recommended in the literature. Due to the absence of reliable measures, in-depth interviews and panel reviews were adopted to generate and validate the primary information. Second, tourist–host social contact was measured both in terms of quantity and quality. Quantity of contact was measured according to the sub-

dimensions of both activities and frequency, in contrast to preceding studies which measured them separately. In previous studies, activities were represented by the number of interactions tourists had during their trips, and the cumulative total for all items was used to represent activities as a whole. Frequency was measured by the duration of contact; for instance, the average amount of time spent interacting with others in the morning, afternoon, and evening (Huang & Hsu, 2010). The problems with such measures are twofold. First, this method does not categorize contact activities, which results in a failure to identify the diverse influences of different contact activities on other attributes, such as travel experience (Huang & Hsu, 2010) and intercultural sensitivity (Kirillova et al., 2015). Similarly, frequency as measured in previous studies was a collective concept, which did not specify the particular time allocated to each activity. As a result, the individual performance of each item was largely overlooked in favor of quantity of social contact. To fill this measurement gap, the current study developed a measure that simultaneously considers activity and frequency. Due to the lack of existing measures for social contact, interviews and panel reviews were the main techniques used to generate items. The quality of contact measure was adopted from the literature.

Using both qualitative and quantitative approaches, the measurements of perceived cultural distance and quantity of social contact were developed and validated. Eleven items were identified to measure the perceived cultural distance. Regarding their mean scores, the item "People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom (e.g., blocking foreign websites, forbidding protests)" generated the highest mean among all the items. In addition to restrictions on freedom, cultural distance in hygiene standards, protection of privacy, civilization level, and a sense of cultural retention were also among the top five. Three factors in perceived cultural distance were identified: culture retention, civilization, and sociality. The findings showed

great consistency with previous literature, which argued that tourists' perceived cultural distance is related to matters such as food, privacy, cleanliness, rules of social behavior, communication, and cultural values (Wei et al., 1989; Spradley & Philip, 1972; Reisinger & Turner, 1998a, 1998b, 2002a & 2002b). Civilization, for example, covered restrictions of freedom (e.g., blocking foreign websites and forbidding protests), standards of hygiene (e.g., restaurants, hotels, and public areas), sense of harmony, and social awareness (e.g., jumping the queue, talking loudly in public, and general etiquette). Those aspects have been well documented as central to conflicts and tensions between mainland Chinese and Hong Kong residents (Ko, 2012; Apple Daily, 2014). As Ye et al. (2013) noted, perceived cultural distance leads to intergroup discrimination and negatively affects the intergroup relationship.

Regarding the activities of social contact between tourists and hosts, 13 items were revealed. Among various types of tourist–host social contact, the most frequent activity respondents mentioned from their trips was interactions with locals during leisure activities, followed by interactions with service personnel during shopping, with service personnel during dining, with locals when dining together, and with service personnel in accommodations. They were further categorized into two factors: social oriented contact and service oriented contact. The typology also reflected the purposes of tourists' contact with locals. Service oriented contact is a unique interaction in tourism. It generally occurs between tourists and service personnel, such as shop servants, waiters and waitresses, taxi drivers, hotel receptionists, etc. Social oriented contact represents interactions with social purposes, such as making friends, visiting locals' homes, exploring the locals' daily life, and traveling together. Compared with service oriented contact, social oriented contact requires deeper communication and more personal involvement.

These findings filled in the gap of lacking systematic development of perceived cultural distance and social contact activities in general. The new techniques for measuring perceived cultural distance and tourist–host social contact were developed particularly for the tourism context, which means that further empirical research should be undertaken into their antecedents and consequences.

7.2.2 Objective Two: The effect of ethnocentrism on perceived cultural distance, tourist–host social contact, and travel attitudes

Ethnocentrism explains the sense of in-group identity and distinctness from or hostility to outsiders found in all organizational units around the world (Sumner, 1906). It acts as a powerful and psychological force that makes one perceive one's own group as the center of everything, and judge all others with reference to that group. Highly ethnocentric people perceive other groups to be inferior, which leads to a poor attitude. This study explored the effect of regional ethnocentrism on three closely related concepts: cultural distance, tourist–host social contact, and travel attitudes.

First, the results indicated that regional ethnocentrism had a negative effect on perceived cultural distance. Surprisingly, this result was opposite to the original hypothesis, which was that regional ethnocentrism had a positive effect on perceived cultural distance. Based on the literature, it was assumed that ethnocentric individuals would like to exaggerate intergroup differences and distinguished themselves from other groups to reinforce their in-group identity. However, this study found that the more ethnocentric an individual was, the less cultural distance they perceived between the original culture and the host culture. This interesting finding might be explained by the unique research setting of Hong Kong tourists traveling to mainland China.

Second, this study also determined that regional ethnocentrism has negative effects on both the quantity and quality of social contact, which showed great consistency with the literature. As

noted in the literature, highly ethnocentric individuals believe members of their in-group to be superior and tend to maintain social distance from out-group members (Neuliep & Ryan, 1998; Neuliep et al., 2001; Gudykunst & Kim, 2004). They prefer intra-cultural interaction and avoid inter-cultural communication with strangers. They have little or no motivation to communicate effectively with members of other groups. This study demonstrated that tourists' level of ethnocentricity negatively affects their social involvement with hosts, reducing the chances of communicating with service personnel, making inquiries, and traveling together. Meanwhile, ethnocentrism may also reduce the quality of social contact between tourists and hosts. In other words, the more ethnocentric an individual is, the more negatively they perceive their interaction with hosts, finding them unpleasant or unfriendly. As a result, due to ethnocentrism, tourists keep within the so-called "cultural bubble" of their home culture (Barthes, 1973) and are socially separated from the host community. By contrast, tourists with low ethnocentrism are more motivated to interact with their hosts, explore the destination, and experience the local lifestyle through immersion.

The last relationship considered in this objective is between regional ethnocentrism and travel attitudes. It was shown that ethnocentrism had a negative effect on tourists' behavioral travel attitude, but not necessarily on their affective and cognitive travel attitudes. The more ethnocentric tourists are, the less likely they are to return to the destination. However, the assumption that ethnocentric people hold unfavorable attitudes toward other groups was not supported in the current study.

7.2.3 Objective Three: The effect of perceived cultural distance on tourist–host social contact

Despite extensive research exploring social contact and cultural distance, few studies have sought to empirically investigate the relationship between them and even fewer have considered

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such a relationship within the field of tourism. According to the regression results in SEM, perceived cultural distance had a negative effect on the quality of social contact and a positive effect on the quantity of social contact. It is easy to understand that the cultural distance between participants in contact may distort the meaning of people's behavior and engender communication problems, ultimately leading to the loss of emotional well-being. In that case, the more cultural distance between contact participants, the less positive their feelings are likely to be about the interaction. However, in contrast to the original assumption, cultural distance has a positive effect on the quantity of social contact. In other words, due to the motivation of novelty seeking, tourists from a different culture would like more contact with hosts to explore the destination and the local culture. The larger the cultural distance, the more they are motivated to interact with the locals.

By measuring social contact from both qualitative and quantitative perspectives, these findings provide new insights to the existing body of knowledge. Previous studies, viewing social contact as a collective concept, argued that cultural distance decreased intergroup communication in general. Such statement overlooked the different dimensions of social contact and the motivational force of novelty-seeking, and hence created contradictory arguments about the effect of cultural distance on social contact. The current study contributes to the theoretical realm by separating the quality and quantity of social contact and examining the effect of cultural distance on them individually. The results explain the discrepant theories regarding the relationship between the two concepts and provide a new perspective for understanding this phenomenon.

7.2.4 Objective Four: The effect of tourist–host social contact and perceived cultural distance on travel attitudes

Tourist–host social contact was shown to have a strong positive effect on travel attitudes. In particular, both quantity and quality of social contacts can affect tourists' perception of their

trip and their intention to revisit the destination in future. The more contact tourists have with hosts, and the more positively they view their interactions with the locals, the more positive their perceptions of the trip are likely to be, making them more likely to revisit in the future. These results support the previous research, which argued that when people of diverse cultural backgrounds come into contact with each other, this can build a mutual appreciation of their viewpoints and hence lead them to understand, respect and like each other (Fulbright, 1976; Pizam et al., 2000). Current research tends to argue against the idea that intergroup contact does not necessarily reduce intergroup tension, prejudice, hostility, and discriminatory behavior or that intergroup contact may increase tension, hostility, and suspicion (Cohen, 1972; Wei et al., 1989). The study's results confirm the power of intergroup contact to mediate the relationship between two parties.

In the existing literature, cultural distance has been claimed to have either a positive or a negative effect on tourists' travel attitudes. However, surprisingly, the study showed that perceived cultural distance does not have any significant effect on travel attitudes. Bootstrapping method tests were conducted to further explore the mediating effect of social contact between perceived cultural distance and travel attitudes. The results revealed that perceived cultural distance can indirectly affect tourists' affective and cognitive travel attitudes through both quality and quantity of social contacts. Due to the stronger effect of quality compared with that of quantity of social contact, the overall indirect effect of perceived cultural distance on affective and cognitive travel attitudes appears to be negative. This means that tourists who perceive a higher cultural distance between their original culture and the destination culture probably have more negative views toward their destinations by having more negative perceptions toward their interactions with the

hosts. However, individuals who have a higher perceived cultural distance may have more interactions with hosts, which may lead to slightly better perceptions of destinations.

Perceived cultural distance was found to have no direct or indirect effect on the behavioral travel attitude. This might be due to the travel constraints. People who intend to travel for a certain distance have many factors to consider, such as expenses, spare time, physical conditions, etc. Perceived cultural distance may not be that important compared with other factors, and therefore it may not significantly affect the behavioral travel attitude either directly or indirectly.

7.3 Conclusions

The current study explores tourists' level of ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, and interactions with hosts, and assesses their effects on travel attitudes. To achieve this goal, mixed methods were applied. First, after a comprehensive literature review, it was necessary to develop new measurement instruments for tourist–host social contact and perceived cultural distance. A qualitative approach was applied to develop new scales. Specifically, in-depth interviews were conducted to generate a rich pool of items for inclusion on surveys. Items generated from both the literature and interviews were submitted to a panel of experts for further review and evaluation. These panel members held research expertise in tourist behavior and cross-cultural studies. After consolidating the items, a questionnaire was developed for pre-test.

A quantitative approach was also used to empirically investigate the proposed framework. A pre-test was conducted prior to the pilot test and main survey to examine the newly developed instruments for measuring perceived cultural distance and social contact. Students enrolled in one course in a Hong Kong university were invited to fill out the pre-test. As a result, 69 students and 254 friends and relatives of those students returned the questionnaires. Descriptive analysis and

EFA were applied to evaluate the items. Based on the EFA result, the questionnaire was revised for the pilot test and main survey.

Pilot test provided the opportunity to identify potential problems with the questionnaire. The results were used to adjust the questionnaire design, wording, and measurement instruments to ensure the validity and reliability of the information. Regarding the reliability of the measurement instruments, Cronbach's alpha was tested for each construct. As a result, 91 questionnaires were collected from Hangzhou. The Cronbach's alpha for each construct was satisfactory. Once the questionnaire was finalized, a full-scale survey was conducted.

The main survey was conducted in Shanghai, Beijing, Hangzhou, and Chongqing following the quota sampling. The actual sample sizes collected were 250, 155, 145, and 110, respectively. In total, 660 responses were obtained for the main survey. Based on the EFA and CFA results, all the constructs were tested to be valid and reliable. SEM was applied to test the proposed framework. As a result, regional ethnocentrism was stated to have negative effects on quantity of social contact, quality of social contact, behavioral travel attitude, and perceived cultural distance. Perceived cultural distance was found to have a positive effect on quantity of social contact, but a negative effect on quality of social contact. Finally, quantity of social contact and quality of social contact were both found to have positive effects on travel attitudes. In addition, by using a bootstrapping method, the mediating effect of social contact was identified in the relationship between perceived cultural distance and affective and cognitive travel attitudes.

Based on these findings, each objective was discussed. The study pioneers in the application of ethnocentrism theory to tourism studies and by establishing a conceptual framework for the inter-relationships among ethnocentrism, tourist–host social contact, perceived cultural distance, and travel attitudes. By examining the causal relationship between social contact and

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travel attitudes, the research extends contact theory to tourism studies. Regarding the measurement instruments, the current study considers an activity and its frequency simultaneously to provide a more precise analysis. This study also empirically explores the perceived cultural distance encountered when traveling to mainland China. It fills a gap in cultural difference studies, which have normally used cultural difference measures from other disciplines. Finally, this study found that social contact mediates between perceived cultural distance and tourists' travel attitudes.

The empirical outputs of this study can be used by policy-makers and stakeholders concerned with managing the problems arising from the tourist–host interface. Government officials from mainland China and Hong Kong may consider promoting more personal and favorable contacts between Hong Kong tourists and mainland hosts to engender a sense of harmony and national identity, and to reduce tension, prejudices, and hostility in the long run. This study serves as an exploratory investigation to address the relationship between tourist–host social contact and travel attitudes to provide insights for strategic and marketing planning. Policy-makers seeking to promote tourism in mainland China may learn from the findings to gain a clearer understanding of Hong Kong tourists' travel attitudes toward mainland China, so as to maintain the current boom in tourism.

7.4 Contributions and implications of the study

7.4.1 Theoretical contributions

Tourists' psychological and behavioral inclinations can greatly influence their travel experiences and future travel intentions. The present study explores tourists' level of ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, and interactions with the hosts, to assess these factors' effects on travel attitudes. As the discussion of the first four objectives has shown, this empirical study contributes to the body of knowledge in the following ways.

First, this study pioneers the application of ethnocentrism to the tourism field and establishes a conceptual framework for the inter-relationships among ethnocentrism, tourist–host social contact, perceived cultural distance, and travel attitudes. The framework highlights the effect of ethnocentrism on tourists' travel behavior and cognition toward a destination. Ethnocentrism has long been studied in connect with intergroup conflict and customers' purchase of physical products. However, its effects on travel behavior and cognition toward a destination have been largely overlooked. The current study narrows this research gap by introducing the concept of ethnocentrism to tourism studies. In this research, ethnocentrism is shown to restrict tourists' interactions with hosts and depress their perceptions of those interactions. Meanwhile, highly ethnocentric people have lower perceived cultural distance and show lower intention to revisit destinations. Ethnocentrism's negative effects on tourist–host social contact, perceived cultural distance, and behavioral travel attitudes provide new angles for understanding the antecedents of those dependent variables.

Second, by examining the causal relationship between social contact and travel attitudes, the research extends contact theory to the tourism realm. The functions of social contact have been well addressed in the socio-psychological realm along with the application of Allport's (1979) contact theory and other related studies (Bochner, 1982; Cusher & Brislin, 1996; Yu & Lee, 2014). Tourism has been called the most common form of face-to-face intercultural contact (Berno & Ward, 2005). Tourist–host social contact, as a unique type of social contact, has yet to be explored fully. Among the literature exploring social contact (Allport, 1979; Nuñez & Lett, 1989; Kirillova et al., 2015), only a limited portion considers tourism as a research context, and the majority is built on anecdotal evidence and interpretive evaluations. Those initial qualitative results did provide great insights, but quantitative assessments of the relationship is nonetheless necessary.

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This study concludes that interactions between tourists and hosts can positively affect tourists' travel attitudes, which supports the contact theory in general. In particular, having more contacts and positive interactions with the locals result in tourists having a more positive perception of the trip and being more likely to revisit the destination. Interestingly, as the present study indicates, quantity of contact can also play a role in influencing the outcome of social contact. The previous literature has argued that quality of contact has a stronger effect than quantity (Binder et al., 2009; Huang & Hsu, 2010; Islam & Hewstone, 1993; Schwartz & Simmons, 2001), and quantity of contact has long been treated as an insignificant element in social contact studies (Nash, 1989). The significant effects found in this study for both quality and quantity of social contact may result from the improvement of the social contact measurement.

Third, although some studies have applied social contact to assess tourists' effects on the host community (Pearce, 1982a), measurement tools were simply brought from other disciplines without rigorous investigation. Existing research failed to explore the various dimensions of social contact, which led to an inconsistency in the application of the concept. Thus, a systematic account of tourist–host social contact with a comprehensive understanding of its diverse dimensions is needed. Various types of social contact were treated equally in previous studies to predict outcomes; however, in reality, asking for information and visiting hosts' homes may not provide equal opportunities for tourists to understand the locals and their life. This may be why quantity of social contact was claimed in previous studies to have no significant effect on individuals' perceptions. The current study considers an activity and its corresponding frequency simultaneously to provide a more precise way to analyze the effect of each activity on perceived cultural distance.

Fourth, the current study empirically explores the perceived cultural distance encountered when traveling to mainland China. It fills a gap in cultural difference studies, which have usually used cultural difference measures from disciplines such as psychology and sociology. The new measurement for cultural distance serves as more accurate tool for measuring the general cultural distance encountered in travel. This study also pioneers by examining ethnically similar but ideologically different regions. The measurement provides a precise instrument for investigating the cultural differences between Hong Kong and mainland China.

Last but not least, this study finds that social contact mediates the relationship between perceived cultural distance and tourists' travel attitudes. In the preceding literature, cultural distance was claimed to have either a positive or a negative effect on tourists' travel attitudes in different research settings. However, this study surprisingly finds that perceived cultural distance does not have any significant effect on travel attitudes. By performing a test for mediation, this study reveals that perceived cultural distance can indirectly affect tourists' affective and cognitive travel attitudes via the quality and quantity of social contacts. Due to the stronger effect of quality of social contact compared with that of quantity, the overall indirect effect of perceived cultural distance on affective and cognitive travel attitudes appears to be negative. This indicates that tourists who perceive a higher cultural distance between their original culture and the destination culture probably have more negative views toward their destination by having more negative perceptions of their interactions with hosts. These findings can be used to regulate the relationship between tourists and hosts, especially those with prejudice and hostility towards each other.

7.4.2 Practical implications

As important as its theoretical contributions are the current study's empirical implications, which can shed light on the development of tourism policies, and provide recommendations to the government, tourism operators, and local communities.

The social-psychological term "ethnocentrism" has a valuable predictive role in connection with tourist–host contact, perceived cultural distance, and attitude toward a destination. The derived relationships provide ways of explaining the inter-cultural travel phenomenon from a social-psychological point of view. Such a framework for understanding behavior and cognition can be used by national or regional tourism organizations to obtain a clear understanding of tourism phenomena between ethnically similar but ideologically different groups. The implications can be generalized to benefit countries/regions which face similar issues, especially those with colonial backgrounds or politically separated into several units.

Viable touristic contact must take into account the identified facts and make some provision for dealing with them, as tourists are not usually expected to make the adaptations necessary for involving themselves in the daily life of the host society. Nash (1989) stated that due to the gap between tourists and hosts, intergroup specialists such as diplomats, community relations experts, and relevant organizations should be mobilized if a desired tourist–host relationship is to be continued.

First, tourist–host social contact is found to have a considerable connection to tourists' perception of their trip and their future intention to revisit. The strong effect of tourist–host social contact on travel attitudes suggests that cultivating proper contacts between two groups may enhance intergroup mutual understanding and hence to cultivate a favorable relationship.

Tourism operators and product planners could purposely design itineraries that involve intense social activities with locals, such as visiting local communities (non-tourism areas) and providing resident volunteer centers for tourists' inquiries. The engagement in positive and favorable intergroup relationship from such type of contact may ultimately nurture favorable travel experiences and high service satisfaction through the influence of positive customer emotions. Local residents can also contribute to the local tourism industry by proactively interacting with tourists to build up a hospitable destination image in the long run.

Another approach to encouraging tourist–host social contact is the niche tourism market, which offers unique kinds of social contact, such as bed and breakfasts (B&Bs) (Chen, Lin & Kuo, 2013), farm tourism (Choo & Petrick, 2014; Flanigan, Blackstock & Hunter, 2014), and voluntourism (Raymond & Hall, 2008; Zahra & McGehee, 2013; Kirillova et al., 2015). B&Bs are a well-established tourism market in Europe, where people can stay at their hosts' homes and have close interactions with their hosts during their stay. It is similar to home-stay tourism in the U.S. (Kontogeorgopoulos, Churyen & Duangsaeng, 2015; Sita & Nor, 2015). These types of accommodation appeal to tourists who seek authentic culture and close contact with locals by experiencing their daily life, rather than merely pursuing cheap accommodation. The increasingly popular platform Airbnb (Guttentag, 2015; Fang, Ye & Law, 2016) has also offered more and more tourists the opportunities to experience such kinds of accommodation. Similarly, voluntourism and farm tourism can also provide this kind of tourist–host contact and help cultivate a favorable relationship. By participating in voluntourism, people choose to combine their holiday with volunteer activities and community work. As reflected in current findings, these types of tourism help foster positive travel attitudes and hence enhance the future intention to revisit.

Destinations can promote these kinds of niche tourism markets to nurture favorable tourist–host interactions and positive travel attitudes.

Second, although cultural distance may not directly influence travel attitudes, social contact can be an important mediator to deliver and further massage that effect. The existing literature has shown that in some cases, perceived cultural distance results in intergroup hostility and tension (Lynch, 1960; Pearce, 1977, 1982b; Triandis, 1977) and adversely affects the intergroup relationship (Ye et al., 2013). In a survey conducted by Hong Kong University, 77.4% of Hong Kong residents stated they were Hong Kong citizens, but only 59% agreed they were citizens of China (HKU Public Opinion Programme, 2012), which indicated a considerable portion of Hong Kong residents would like to be distinguished from mainland Chinese residents. The Hong Kong tourism industry has been adversely affected by tension and hostility in recent years. The Hong Kong government has had to take action to stop a decline in tourism ("Hongkongers," 2016). Government officials from both sides may consider promoting more personal and favorable contacts between Hong Kong tourists and mainland hosts to engender a sense of harmony and national identity, and to reduce tension, prejudices, and hostility in the long run.

Third, the empirical results of this study can also be used by policy-makers and stakeholders concerned with managing the problems arising from the tourist–host interface. As these problems arise and intensify over extended periods of time, they are neither easy to identify or resolve. It will require careful identification of the various stakeholders and regulatory authorities and certainly some participation by community representatives. In countries such as Indonesia, tourism awareness campaigns have been used for many years to inform residents of the benefits of tourism and the behavioral characteristics of tourists. Often introduced as a school subject, tourism awareness can help local people to be aware of and accommodate the behavioral

differences of tourist visitors. It should however, be recognized that the tourist–host interface has two dimensions and it is equally important to attempt to sensitize tourists to the behavioral expectations of their hosts.

Finally, given the fast growing tourism market in mainland China, there are numerous studies examining mainland tourists' visits to different destinations. However, there is a lack of research on the tourist source markets of mainland China. It is unfortunate that few studies have been made of cultural and psychological influences on Hong Kong tourists' travel behavior and perceptions. This study serves as an exploratory investigation to address such a gap to provide insights for strategic and market planning. Meanwhile, policy-makers in mainland China may also take this study as a starting point for a clear understanding of Hong Kong tourists' travel attitudes toward mainland China, so as to maintain a steadily increasing tourism trend. In addition, travel agents organizing outbound tourism from Hong Kong will also find the results of this study very helpful for understanding Hong Kong residents' intention to go to China and giving them guidance to maximize their pleasure during the holiday.

This study targets the Hong Kong–mainland China relationship and aims to examine the effect of cultural distance and cross-cultural contact on travel behavior and cognition. There has been little literature to date that has explained such critical issues. This study's findings should help government officials in charge of the inter-regional relationship and resident-level interaction. Hong Kong is an SAR of China, and tourism between the two regions affects not only trade and economic benefits but also regional stabilization and cooperation. The huge number of mainland Chinese, including tourists in Hong Kong has triggered some conflicts between the two regions. Hence, the cultural distance between the two regions has gradually gained attention in the context of tourism. Equally importantly, the cultural distance experienced by Hong Kong tourists in

mainland China requires more attention to avoid any further misunderstanding between the two groups. Actions can be taken to minimize cultural distance and further stimulate Hong Kong tourists' willingness to travel to mainland China. Suggestions should also be provided to those who work in the tourism industry.

7.5 Limitations and future directions

As with any other research, this study is imperfect. First, cultural distance is believed to play an essential role in determining the host–tourist relationship. When individuals are getting to know each other, they compare several cultural models they have experienced and move closer together (similar cultures) or further away (different cultures) basis on their mutual understanding (MacCannell, 1976). As described by Sutton (1967), two cultures can experience three types of distance: the same (or similar); different, but the differences are small and supplementary; different, and the differences are large and hard to tolerate on either side. In the first two types, cultural distance can be coped with and the two participants are therefore not culturally separated. In such cases, their attitudes toward each other positively relate to mutual attraction, favor, a decline in social distance, and an increase in familiarity (Brewer & Campbell, 1976). Regarding the third type, when the cultural distance is too large, participants from different cultural backgrounds are culturally separated. Therefore, instead of stimulating cultural exchange, social contact may trigger friction and hostility between two groups. This assumption is consistent with other literature, which states that a large perceived cultural distance distorts the meaning of people's behavior (Triandis, 1977) and inhibits cross-cultural interaction between two parties (Kim & Gudykunst, 1988). According to Pearce (1982b), there is always an opportunity for misunderstanding and interaction difficulty when there is an encounter between cultures that differ greatly. Hong Kong and mainland China, for instance, are ethnically similar but ideologically different regions.

Therefore, their relationship should be considered to be the second type in Sutton's (1967) categorization: Hong Kong and mainland Chinese cultures are different, but the differences are small and supplementary. The relationship between social contact and perceived cultural distance in the other two settings definitely deserves further investigation. This study's findings can be further developed to explore tourists' choice of destination. Perceived cultural distance could be a positive or negative factor in this decision process.

Second, the current study mainly emphasizes direct relationships among constructs. Due to the complexity of the current model, it is impractical to examine all the indirect effects between each pair of constructs. Third, second-order SEM was applied to the analysis of the model. The use of higher-level constructs is valuable in dealing with the complexity of the model and achieving all of the proposed research objectives. However, such a method limits the exploration and understanding of first-order factors, such as the different dimensions of perceived cultural distance.

This research provides a pioneering framework to explore the inter-relationships among regional ethnocentrism, perceived cultural distance, tourist–host social contact, and travel attitudes. In future studies, the model can be further simplified and efforts can be made to investigate specific relationships, such as those between ethnocentrism and travel attitudes or cultural distance. In a simpler model, more attention can be paid to mediating effects and the effects of first-order constructs so as to gain insights into the relationships among different variables. Moreover, intra-construct relationship, such as the impact of quantity of contact on quality of contact, and the impact of affective and cognitive attitude on behavioral attitude, is definitely worth further investigating. In addition, the potential moderating effect of cultural distance can be further examined by means of comparative samples from different cultural backgrounds.

Moreover, because social contact has a strong effect on tourists' travel attitudes, it would be of interest to investigate the role of tourist–host social contact in different niche markets, where more intensive interactions between tourists and hosts occur, such as B&Bs (home-stays), farm tourism, and voluntourism. Because tourists who engage in such niche forms of tourism have different travel motivations and travel modes, the forms of social contact they engage in are expected to be more diverse and the inter-relationships in the framework developed in the current study may vary case by case. Taking the current research as a starting point, it is necessary to explore these types of tourism market and further refine the existing model to provide a comprehensive view for the use of both academia and industry.

7.6 Summary

This chapter evaluates the study in relation to each of the research objectives. According to the findings, all of the objectives are achieved. Further discussion and interpretation are provided to clarify the model and the relationships between its variables. Both theoretical and practical contributions of the entire study are described.

This study found that regional ethnocentrism had negative effects on quantity of social contact, quality of social contact, behavioral travel attitudes, and perceived cultural distance. Perceived cultural distance was found to have a positive effect on quantity of social contact and a negative effect on quality of social contact. Both quantity and quality of social contact were found to have a positive effect on travel attitudes. In addition, social contact was found to have a mediating effect in the relationship between perceived cultural distance and affective and cognitive travel attitudes.

Theoretically, this study is pioneering in its application of ethnocentrism theory to tourism, and it establishes a conceptual framework that represents the inter-relationships among

ethnocentrism, tourist–host social contact, perceived cultural distance, and travel attitudes. By examining the causal relationship between social contact and travel attitudes, the research extends contact theory to the field of tourism. It also develops measurement instruments for perceived cultural distance and tourist–host social contact, which fills a gap in the existing research. Finally, this study found that social contact mediates between perceived cultural distance and tourists' travel attitudes.

From a practical perspective, the empirical outputs of this study can be used by policy-makers and stakeholders concerned with managing the problems arising from the tourist–host interface. This study serves as an exploratory investigation to address the relationship between tourist–host social contact and travel attitudes to provide insights for strategic and marketing planning. Policy-makers seeking to promote tourism in mainland China may use these findings to gain a clearer understanding of Hong Kong tourists' travel attitudes toward mainland China, so that the current boom in tourism from Hong Kong continues to grow.

The final part is about the limitations of the current study and the future research directions, which provide possibility for any continuing investigation based on the current research, for instance, simplifying the current model, investigating the mediating effects, and examining the role of tourist-host social contact in different kinds of niche segments.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 Summary of Ethnocentrism Attributes from Literature

Ethnocentrism measurement instrument	No. of dimensions	References
E-Scale A. Jews 1. One trouble with Jewish businessmen is that they stick together and prevent other people from having a fair chance in competition. 2. I can hardly imagine myself marrying a Jew. 3. There may be a few exceptions, but in general Jews are pretty much alike. 4. The trouble with letting Jews into a nice neighbourhood is that gradually they give it a typical Jewish atmosphere. 5. To end prejudice against Jews, the first step is for the Jews to try sincerely to get rid of their harmful and irritating faults. 6. There is something different and strange about Jews: it's hard to tell what they are thinking and planning, and what makes them tick. B. African American 1. African American have their rights, but it is best to keep them in their own districts and schools and to prevent too much contact with whites. 2. It would be a mistake ever to have African American for foremen and leaders over whites. 3. African American musicians may sometimes be as good as white musicians, but it is a mistake to have mixed African American-white bands. 4. Manual labor and unskilled jobs seem to fit the African American mentality and ability better than more skilled or responsible work. 5. The people who raise all the talk about putting African American on the same level as whites are mostly radical agitators trying to stir up conflicts.	20	Adorno et al., (1950)

6. Most African American would become overbearing and disagreeable if not kept in their place.		
C. Other Minorities and Patriotism		
1. Zootsuiters prove that when people of their type have too much money and freedom, they just take advantage and cause trouble.		
2. The worst danger to real Americanism during the last 50 years has come from foreign ideas and agitators.		
3. Now that a new world organization is set up, America must be sure that she loses none of her independence and complete power as a sovereign nation.		
4. Certain religious sects who refuse to salute the flag should be forced to conform to such patriotic action, or else be abolished.		
5. Filipinos are all right in their place, but they carry it too far when they dress lavishly and go around with white girls.		
6. America may not be perfect, but the American Way has brought us about as close as human beings can get to a perfect society.		
7. It is only natural and right for each person to think that his family is better than any other.		
8. The best guarantee of our national security is for America to have the biggest army and navy in the world and the secret of the atom bomb.		
CETSCALE 1. American people should always buy American-made products instead of imports. 2. Only those products that are unavailable in the USA should be imported. 3. Buy American-made products. Keep Americans working. 4. American products, first, last, and foremost. 5. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-American. 6. It is not right to purchase foreign made products because it puts Americans out of jobs. 7. A real American should always buy American-made products.	17	Shimp & Sharma (1987)

8. We should purchase products manufactured in America instead of letting other countries get rich off us.		
9. It is always best to purchase American products.		
10. There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.		
11. Americans should not buy foreign products, because this hurts American business and causes unemployment.		
12. Curbs should be put on all imports.		
13. It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support American products.		
14. Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our market.		
15. Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into the USA.		
16. We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.		
17. American consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans out of work.		
GENE 1. Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture. 2. My culture should be the role model for other cultures. 3. People from other cultures act strange when they come to my culture. 4. Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture. 5. Other cultures should try to be more like my culture. 6. I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures. 7. People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures. 8. Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them. 9. I respect the values and customs of other cultures. 10. Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.	22	Neuliep & McCroskey (1997a); Neuliep (2002)

11. Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.		
12. I have many friends from different cultures.		
13. People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.		
14. Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.		
15. I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.		
16. I apply my values when judging people who are different.		
17. I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.		
18. I do not cooperate with people who are different.		
19. Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.		
20. I do not trust people who are different.		
21. I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.		
22. I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.		

APPENDIX 2 Detailed Information of Selected Articles

Tourism Management						
Year	Title	Author(s)	Methodology	Key words	Theory/concept	Cultural distance (CD) measurement or proxy
1988	Cultural variations in perceptions of vacation attributes	Sarah L. Richardson, John L. Crompton	Quantitative: Chi-square, log-linear modeling	Vacation-related perceptions, cultural differences, Canada	Tourist behavior	Ethnicity difference
1989	cultural conflicts: experiences of US visitors to China	Lu Wei, John L. Crompton, Leslie M. Reid	Qualitative: secondary data	N/A	Role of exchanges, cultural ethnocentrism	Perceived CD in travel
1995	Human resource management in hotels-A comparative study	Alan R Nankervis, Yaw Debrah	Quantitative: frequency analysis	N/A	Hotel human resources issues	National CD
1996	Cross-cultural differences in the practices of hotel managers: a study of Dutch and Belgian hotel managers	Myriam Jansen-Verbeke, Liesbet Steel	Report	N/A	Hofstede's cultural difference	Hofstede CD
1996	Cross-cultural tourist behavior: Perceptions of Korean tour-guides	Abraham Pizam; Gang-Hoan Jeong	Quantitative: FA, ANOVA	tourist behavior, cross-culture, tour-guides, perceptions, nationality tourist	National culture	National CD
1996	Tourism management on American Indian lands in the USA	Alan A Lew	Quantitative: frequency analysis	American Indian Reservations, Ethnic tourism, Gaming	Variations in management style	Regional CD
1997	Cross-cultural differences in tourism: Indonesian tourists in Australia	Yvette Reisinger; Lindsay Turner	Review paper	Cross-cultural differences, Indonesian tourists, Australian hosts	Broad national culture, Hofstede's cultural difference	Dimensions from literature
1999	Sensitivity to cultural difference in tourism research: contingency in research design	Sigrid Schuler, Lucinda Aberdeen, Pam Dyer	Review	N/A	Sensitivity and responsiveness to contingency, research design	Ethnicity difference
2000	Culture and vacation satisfaction: a study of Taiwanese tourists in South East Queensland	Hoda Master, Bruce Prideaux	Quantitative: cross-tabulations, ANOVA	Culture, Taiwanese, Australia, Visitor satisfaction	Satisfaction, importance of satisfaction	National CD
2000	A comparative study of Caucasian and Asian visitors to a Cultural Expo in an Asian setting	Choong-Ki Lee	Quantitative: FA, ANOVA	N/A	Festival motivation	National CD

2001	Cultural diversity in use of undeveloped natural areas by Los Angeles county residents	Patrick T. Tierney , Rene Dahl , Deborah Chavez	Quantitative: frequency analysis, ANOVA, Chi-square, logistic regression	Tourism, Ethnicity, Outdoor recreation, Constraints, Natural areas, Visitation, Discrimination	Assimilation, socioeconomic status and perceived discrimination, ethnic group membership	Ethnicity difference
2001	Does cultural background of tourists influence the destination choice? an empirical study with special reference to political instability	H.R. Seddighi, M.W. Nuttall, A.L. Theocharous	Quantitative: ANOVA	Tourism industry, Tourism and political instability, Tourist perceptions	Political instability, perceptual pattern determination	National CD
2002	A cross-cultural study on casino guests as perceived by casino employees	Seong-Seop Kim, Bruce Prideaux, Sung-Hyuk Kim	Quantitative: ANOVA	Korea casino, Cross-cultural difference, Culture, Behaviour	Customer behavior	National CD
2006	The use of conjoint analysis to assess the impact of the cross-cultural exchange between hosts and guests	Maree Thyne , Rob Lawson, Sarah Todd	Quantitative: conjoint analysis, Pearson's R tests	Conjoint analysis, Resident attitudes, Cross-cultural attitudes	Impact of cultural differences on Host perception	National CD
2007	Cultural influences on travel lifestyle: A comparison of Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea	Sun-Hee Lee, Beverley Sparks	Quantitative: FA, CA, Chi-square	Lifestyle, Travel behaviour, Segmentation, Korea, Australia, Immigrant, Cross-cultural	Cultural influences, lifestyle, acculturation	National CD
2007	Subjective food-risk judgements in tourists	Svein Larsen, Wibecke Brun, Torvald Øgaard, Leif Selstad	Quantitative: Pearson's correlation coefficients and partial correlations, t-test, ANOVA	Food risk, Subjective risk	Risk judgement	National CD
2007	The role of socio-psychological and culture-education motives in marketing international sport tourism: A cross-cultural perspective	Daniel C. Funk , Tennille J. Bruun	Quantitative: SEM, MANOVA	Culture, Marketing, Sport tourism, Events, Involvement, Motivation, Consumer acculturation	Motivation, Involvement, attitude, acculturation	Hofstede CD
2007	Tourists' intention to visit a country: The impact of cultural distance	Siew Imm Ng, Julie Anne Lee, Geoffrey N. Soutar	Quantitative: correlation	Cultural distance, Cultural cluster, Linguistic distance, Destination selection	Cultural distance measures	5 types of CD measurements
2009	Cross-cultural comparison of the image of Guam perceived by Korean and Japanese leisure travelers: Importance–performance analysis	Gyehee Lee, Choong-Ki Lee	Quantitative: FA, Importance-performance analysis, Chi-square	Destination image, Cross-cultural value, Importance–performance analysis, Guam, Korean and Japanese leisure travelers	Theory of cultural value orientation, Hofstede's cultural difference, importance-performance analysis	National CD
2012	A cross-cultural study of perceptions of medical tourism among Chinese, Japanese and Korean tourists in Korea	Ji Yun Yu, Tae Gyou Ko	Quantitative: frequency analysis, factor analysis, ANOVA	Medical tourism, Health tourism, Perception, Participation intention, Cross-cultural study	Motivation, perception	National CD

		Annals of Tourism Research				
Year	Title	Author(s)	Methodology	Key words	Theory/concept	Cultural distance (CD) measurement or proxy
1995	MODERNIST ANTHROPOLOGY AND TOURISM OF THE AUTHENTIC	Michael Harkin	Review	Anthropology, Semiotics, Ideology	Authenticity	N/A
1996	CONTENTS OF TOUR PACKAGES: A Cross-Cultural Comparison	Yael Enoch	Qualitative: content analysis (secondary data)	Guided tours, Package tours, Originating countries, Destinations, Actual vs. perceived distance	Tourist preference	National CD
1996	TOURISM DANCE PERFORMANCES: Authenticity and Creativity	Yvonne Payne Daniel	Review	Experiential authenticity, Creativity, Dance performance in the Caribbean, Oceania, Native America, Africa	Authenticity	National CD
1999	WHEN A GUEST IS A GUEST: Cook Islanders View Tourism	Tracy Berno	Quantitative (Chi-square, ANOVA) and qualitative (interview)	Acculturation, Cook Islands, Cross-cultural psychology, Informants, Conceptualization of tourism, Ethnopsychology	Sociocultural and psychological impacts of tourism in host country	Regional CD
2002	TOURISM AND CULTURAL PROXIMITY: Examples from New Zealand	Chris Ryan	Quantitative: t-test	Indigenous tourism, Cultural tourism, New Zealand	Importance-evaluation rating	Ethnicity difference
2006	ETHICAL IDEOLOGIES OF TOURISM MARKETERS	H. Ruhi Yaman, Eda Gurel	Quantitative: FA	Ethics, Social responsibility, Moral philosophies, Cross-cultural studies	social responsibility, decision-making	National CD
2006	FROM DRIFTER TO GAP YEAR TOURIST: Mainstreaming Backpacker Travel	Camille Caprioglio O'Reilly	Qualitative: observation, content analysis (secondary data), interview	Backpacking, Independent travel, Imagination, Social capital	Travel perception, incitement to travel	National CD
2007	BACKPACKERS' MOTIVATIONS: The Role of Culture and Nationality	Darya Maoz	Qualitative: interview	Backpackers, Israel, Motivations, Nationality, Reversal	Motivation, travel pattern	National CD
2008	EDUCATIONAL TRAVEL: The Overseas Internship	Erik van 't Klooster, Jeroen van Wijk, Frank Go, Johan Klooster	Quantitative: Pearson correlation	Educational travel, Cultural distance, Overseas internship, Management skills, Cross-cultural competencies	Learning effects, cultural distance	Hofstede CD

Year	Title	Author(s)	Methodology	Key words	Theory/concept	Cultural distance (CD) measurement or proxy
2008	INNOCENTS ABROAD: Attitude Change toward Hosts	Gyan P. Nyaupane, Victor Teye, Cody Paris	Quantitative: FA, ANOVA	Cross-cultural understanding, Peace, Interaction, Awareness	Attitude change, expectation value theory, cultural distance theory	National CD
2008	SHENGTAI LUYOU: Cross-Cultural Comparison in Ecotourism	Ralf Buckley, Carl Cater, Zhong Linsheng, Tian Chen	Review	China, West, Health, Nature, Park, Tradition, Definition	Shengtai lvyou, ecotourism	National CD
2011	GHOSTS: A travel barrier to tourism recovery	Bongkosh Rittichainuwat	Quantitative: FA, MANOVA	Destination recovery, Travel barrier, Thai culture, Cross culture, Thai and Chinese tourists, Thai tourism	Destination image, travel barrier	National CD
2013	CULTURAL CONFLICTS OR CULTURAL CUSHION?	Ben Haobin Ye, Hanqin Qiu Zhang, Peter P. Yuen	Quantitative: SEM	Anticipated discrimination, Perceived discrimination, Hong Kong, Cultural distance, Intercultural competence	Perceived cultural distance, discrimination	Perceived CD

Journal of Travel Research

Year	Title	Author(s)	Methodology	Key words	Theory/concept	Cultural distance (CD) measurement or proxy
2002	Cultural Differences between Asian Tourist Markets and Australian Hosts, Part 1	Yvette Reisinger, Lindsay W. Turner	Quantitative: Mann-Whitney U test, FA	N/A	Cultural difference in values, rule of scial behavior, perceptions, social interaction and satisfaction	National CD
2002	Cultural Differences between Asian Tourist Markets and Australian Hosts: Part 2	Yvette Reisinger, Lindsay W. Turner	Quantitative: SEM	N/A	Model of values, rules, perceptions, interaction and satisfaction	National CD
2004	The Effect of Cultural Distance on Overseas Travel Behaviors	John C. Crotts	Quantitative: logistic regression	Cultural distance, National culture, UAI	Hofstede's cultural difference	Hofstede CD
2007	CHAID-based Segmentation: International Visitors' Trip Characteristics and Perceptions	Cathy H.C. Hsu, Soo K. Kang	Quantitative: SI-CHAID, ANOVA, MANOVA	CHAID, Segmentation, Likelihood of return, Trip/travel characteristics, Perception, Hong Kong	Travel perception	National CD
2007	Tourists' Perceptions of Relational Quality Service Attributes: A Cross-Cultural Study	Nelson Kee-Fu Tsang, John Ap	Quantitative: t-test, logistic regression	Relational quality, Perceptions, Cross-cultural study, Logistic regression	Employee attitude and behavior, service provision	Asian and western CD

2013	The Influence of Culture on Climate Change Adaptation Strategies: Preferences of Cross-Country Skiers in Austria and Finland	Mia Landauer, Wolfgang Haider, Ulrike Pröbstl-Haider	Quantitative: FA, X2-test, t-test	Winter tourism, Climate change adaptation, Cross-country skiing, Cultural differences, Value orientation approach, Segmentation	Hofstede's cultural difference, choice experiments	National CD
2014	Impact of Tourists' Intercultural Interactions	Jiyun Yu, Timothy Jeonglyeol Lee	Qualitative: interviews	Intercultural interactions, Guest–host relationship, Ethnographic interview, Cross-cultural attitude	Intercultural interaction	National CD
2014	Cultural Differences in Pictorial Destination Images: Russia through the Camera Lenses of American and Korean Tourists	Svetlana Stepchenkova, Hany Kim, Andrei Kirilenko	Quantitative: content analysis (secondary data), Chi-square, Co-occurrence Analysis, ARC GIS	ARC GIS, Content analysis, Culture, destination image, Photography	Culture, cross-culture research, destination image	National CD

							Cultural distance (CD) measurement or proxy
Articles from other English journals							
Year	Title	Journal	Author(s)	Methodology	Key words	Theory/concept	
1998a	Cross-Cultural Differences in Tourism: A Strategy for Tourism Marketers	Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing	Yvette Reisinger, Lindsay Turner	Quantitative: Descriptive, Mann-Whitney U test	N/A	Contact hypothesis, Rokeach Value Survey (RVS), cross-cultural differences in relationship rules	National CD
1998b	Cultural Differences between Mandarin-Speaking Tourists and Australian Hosts and Their Impact on Cross-Cultural Tourist-Host Interaction	Journal of Business Research	Yvette Reisinger, Lindsay Turner	Quantitative: Descriptive, Mann-Whitney U test, EFA	N/A	Social contact, cultural value	National CD
2000	The Impact of Cultural Distance on Perceived Service Quality Gaps	Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism	Klaus Weiermair and Matthias Fuchs	Quantitative: Regression, ANOVA	Cultural distance, quality-gaps, alpine tourism	Service quality	National CD
2013	A Grid-group Analysis of Tourism Motivation	International Journal of Tourism Research	Mimi Li, Hanqin Zhang, Honggen Xiao and Yong Chen	Quantitative: Descriptive, EFA, CFA, MANOVA, ANOVA	Tourism motivation; grid-group analysis; Chinese	Travel motivation, Grid-group cultural theory	Grid-group cultural difference
2013	A Subcultural Analysis of Tourism Motivations	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research	Mimi Li, Hanqin Zhang and Liping A. Cai	Qualitative: focus group	Tourism motivation; cross-cultural research; grid–group cultural theory	Travel motivation, Grid-group cultural theory	Grid-group cultural difference
2013	A Cross National Study of Golf Tourists' Satisfaction	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	Miguel Moital, Nuno Ricardo Dias, Danielle F.C. Machado	Quantitative: Descriptive, Chi square, Mann-Whitney U test	Satisfaction, Golf tourism, Quality, Value, Logistic regression, Cross-cultural studies, Lisbon	Satisfaction	National CD
2013	The Effect of Cultural Distance on Tourism: A Study of International Visitors to Hong Kong	Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	Michael J. Ahn and Bob McKercher	Quantitative: Secondary data, descriptive, regression	Hong Kong, cultural distance, distance decay, tourist behavior	Tourism trip profile	Hofstede's cultural difference
Chinese Articles							
Year	Title	Journal	Author(s)	Methodology	Key words	Theory/concept	Cultural distance (CD) measurement or proxy
1994	Transforming the cultural difference into tourism resources	Tourism Tribune	LI Weishu	Discussion	N/A	How to handling the cultural difference in tourism	China and western countries

Year	Title	Journal	Author	Method	Keywords	Variables	Context
2006	Influence of the Differences Between Chinese and Western Culture on Tour Cross-Cultural Communication	Fujian Geography	ZHANG Xuan	Discussion	Cultural difference; Cross-cultural communication; Strategy	Value, way of thinking; behavioral norm	China and western countries
2006	Culture Difference between China & Western Countries and Tourism Activities	Journal of Xi'an Aerotechnical College	ZHENG Xiu-juan	Discussion	Culture between China and western countries; culture difference; tourism; tourism activities	Culture of origin; Social organization; View of nature; view of society; Sense of tourism; Choice of destination; Pattern of consumption	China and western countries
2008	The Influence of Cultural Difference on Hosts-Tourists Interaction in Folklore Tourism-A Case Study in Yongding Hakka Earth Building Folk Custom & Cultural Village	Journal of Jiangnan University(Humanities & Social Sciences)	GAO De-xing, WANG Qi	Quantitative: Descriptive	Folklore Tourism; Cultural Differences; Hosts-Tourists Interaction; Earth building	Cultural differences and host-tourist interaction	The Hakkas and non-Hakkas
2009	The Effect of Cultural Difference on Inbound Tourism to China: Analysis Based on Gravity Model	Finance and Trade Research	ZHANG Hong-wei	Quantitative: Secondary data, Multiple regression	cultural difference; inbound tourism; gravity model; panel data	Hofstede's cultural difference, inbound tourism	Hofstede CD
2009	Cultural Difference: Influence on Symbolic Meaning of Tourism Inter-culture Communication	Journal of Eastern Liaoning University (Social Sciences)	SUN Hong- bo	Discussion	Cultural difference; tourism inter-culture communication; symbol coding; uncoding	Symbol coding	China and western countries
2010	The Impact of Regional Cultural Differences on Tourists' Perception of Tourism Destination Image-A Case Study of Tourists' Perception of Prairie Image in Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region	Tourism Tribune	WU Tie-hong，ZHANG Jie，LI Wen-jie	Quantitative: Descriptive, EFA and ANOVA, Multiple regression	Regional cultural difference; tourists; tourism destination image; prairie destination	Destination image	Perceptional differences between local and non-local tourists in Inner Mongolia, China
2010	Tourist Behaviors in Destinations and Its Social Control: Based on Cultural Difference Perspective of Literature Review	Tourism Science	DING Deguang, LU Lin	Review	Tourist behaviors in destinations; customs; legal principle; control	Tourist Behaviors	Geographic difference
2011	Discussion on the Tour Guide Reception Service on the Basis of Cultural Differences	Journal of Changchun Normal University(Natural Science)	XIE Xiu- hua, HUANG Yan- qiong	Discussion	Cultural differences; intercultural tourism; tour guide reception service	Tour guide service	China and western countries
2012	An Impact Study of Cultural Differences on Tourism Destination Image Perception: A Case Study of Zhangjiajie	Tourism Science	CHEN Yibin，HU Jing，HUANG Dunxiao	Quantitative: Descriptive, EFA and ANOVA	tourism; uncertainty avoidance; culture; image perception; Zhangjiajie	Hofstede's cultural difference, destination image	Hofstede CD

2012	The Influence of Cultural Difference on Tourists' Landscape Preference	Journal of Central South University of Forestry & Technology (Social Sciences)	LIU Yuan-yuan, ZHUO Jin-mei, ZHANG Chao-zhi	Quantitative: Descriptive, EFA and Pearson correlation	Landscape preference; culture difference; Wulingyuan scenic spot; individual/collectivism; uncertainty avoidance	Hofstede's cultural difference	Hofstede CD
2013	Analysis of the Uncivilized Behaviors in Overseas Tourism from the Perspective of Cultural Differences	Journal of West Anhui University	CHEN Lei	Discussion	Cultural differences; overseas tourism; uncivilized behaviors	Uncivilized Behaviors in Overseas Tourism	China and western countries

APPENDIX 3 Interview Protocol (Bilingual)

Interview time 访问时间:

Interviewee 被访者:

Interviewer 负责访问人员:

Screening questions 筛选问题:

Are you a Hong Kong permanent resident? If yes, how long have you been the permanent president?

Have you traveled to mainland China (including long-haul trip) in the last two years?

If yes for both answers, the interview can be continue. If no, the interview should be terminated.

请问您是香港永久居民吗？如果是，那么您成为永久居民有多久了？

请问您过去两年内去过内地旅行（包括长途旅行）吗？

如果以上两个问题的答案都是肯定的，请继续访问。如任何一个答案是否定的，访问终止。

Part 1 第一部分

1. Please recall several memorized travel experiences to mainland China. How were the trips? 请回忆一下您最近的一次或几次去内地旅游的经历。您觉得怎么样？（探亲访友？跟团游？自由行？）有什么让您记忆深刻的片段吗？

Part 2 第二部分

2. Please identify the social contacts you had with the mainland hosts during the trips.

请指出您在内地旅游时与当地居民有过<u>哪些接触</u>（沟通或互动）？

<u>Quality aspect 定性方面</u>:

Valence of the interaction 社会接触的效果:

Harmonious or clashing 和谐/矛盾

Hostile or friendly 充满敌意的/友善的

Interesting or dull 有趣的/沉闷的

Unequal or equal 不平等的/平等的

 Competitive or cooperative 竞争的/合作的

Intensity 强度:

Close or distance 亲密的/有距离感的

Intense or superficial 强烈的/表面的

3. You will be provided with a list of ways of social contact with hosts. Please evaluate the possibility and applicability according to your own experience. 下面，我将会提供给您一份旅游中与当地居民接触的例子。请根据您的自身经历来评价一下这些例子的可能性及适用性。

<u>Quantity aspect 定量方面</u>

Activities 活动:

(All kinds of residents)

		Source
Invite home 受邀到家里做客		Reisinger, 2002
Play sport together 一起做运动		
Share recreation facilities 共同使用娱乐休闲设施		
Take part in family parties 参加家庭聚会		
Have close relationship 关系亲密		
Share a meal 一起用餐		
Chat on a street 在路上聊天		
Talk in shops 在商店里聊天		
Exchange gifts 交换礼物		
Have business contact only 只限于公务往来		
Associate with the local people 与当地居民有联系		
Almost no contact 无任何接触		Rothman, 1978
Limited contact in public places 在公众场所有有限的接触		
Know some acquaintances 泛泛之交		
Know some on first–name basis 与一些人认识，但是不熟		
Know some as friends 认识一些朋友		
Extended communication 深入的交流		
Guest in their home 受邀到当地人家做客		
Guest in my home 邀请当地人来自己家做客		
Live the way the people I visit live by sharing their shelter, food, and customs 通过访问他们的居所、分享他们的食物及体验他们的习俗来感受当地居民的生活		Mo, Howard, & Havitz, 1993
Seek excitement of complete novelty by engaging in direct contact with a wide variety of new and different people 通过与当地（不同于原居地的）居民广泛地、直接地接触，从而寻找完全不同的新奇的体验		
Find a place that particularly pleases me, I may stop there long enough for social involvement in the life of the place to occur 如果我找到了一个我感兴趣的地方，我会在那个地方停留足够久的时间来融入当地的社会		
Make friends with the local people 与当地人交朋友		
Have as much personal contact with the local people as possible 与当地居民有尽可能多的 个人接触		

Frequency 频率:

How often did you interact with the local residents? 在旅游中，您与当地居民接触的机会多吗？

How long did you spend on interacting with local residents? 您一般与当地居民接触（每次）的时间是多久？

Part 3 第三部分

5. Identify the cultural differences encountered in the trips. 请谈一下您在旅游中所感受到的<u>文化差异</u>。

6. Comment on the above cultural differences. Do they affect your travel experience and future travel intention in a positive way or negative way? Why? 请具体谈一下这些文化差异。这些差异有没有给您的旅行经历及之后的旅游意向带来一些影响？如何影响？积极的还是消极的？

Cultural Conflicts-Experiences of US Visitors to China (Wei, Crompton & Reid, 1989) 美国游客到中国体验的文化矛盾	
Lack of receptivity 缺少尊重	
Communication problems (language, interpretation and lack of information) 交流问题（语言、翻译和信息不足）	
Service levels (hotel, restaurant, tour guide, hospitality attitude, unfriendly, low morale) 服务水平（酒店、餐厅、导游、服务态度、不友好、没精神）	
Lifestyle (Accommodation, food, food hygiene, food preparation, appropriate behavior, etiquette) 生活方式（住宿、饮食、饮食卫生、准备餐食、行为、礼仪）	
Cross-Cultural Differences in Tourism: Indonesian Tourists in Australia (Reisinger & Turner, 1997) 旅游中的文化差异：印度尼西亚游客在澳大利亚	
Responsiveness/competence (dress, time) 回应/秉性（衣着、时间）	
Self/Group oriented 自我/团体导向	
Social interaction/regard for others 社交/与他人相关	
Quality of life 生活质量	
Courtesy/competence (formal etiquette, expression of emotions) 礼节/秉性（正式礼节，情感表达）	
Regard for other (hierarchical authority) 与他人相关（阶层权威）	
Cross-Cultural Differences in Tourism: A Strategy for Tourism Marketers (Reisinger & Turner, 1998) 旅游中的文化差异：旅游营销的策略	
Cultural values 文化价值	
Rules of social interaction 社交规则	
Perceptions of service 感受到的服务	
Preferred forms of interaction 偏好的互动形式	
Communication 交流	

Display of feelings 感觉的表达	
Idealism/Pursuit 完美主义/追求	
Cultural Differences between Mandarin-Speaking Tourists and Australian Hosts and Their Impact on Cross-Cultural Tourist-Host Interaction (Reisinger & Turner, 1998) 讲中国话的游客与澳大利亚接待人员间的文化差异及其对跨文化宾主互动的影响	
Self-actualization 自我实现	
Responsiveness and courtesy 回应和礼貌	
Interaction (quick and direct face-to-face dealings, group oriented,)	
General cultural values (comfortable life, sense of accomplishment, family security, freedom, happiness, salvation, self-respect, social recognition, being honest, intellectual, obedient, self-controlled) 一般文化价值（舒适的生活、成就感、家庭安全、自由、幸福、公共责任、自我尊重、社会认同、诚实、智慧、服从、自我控制）	
Broad cultural differences (Orientation toward group, focus on being together, hierarchy, importance of age and position, importance of group activities and obedience, nonmaterialistic values first, focus on being dependent, privacy does not exist, focus on punctuality, formal dress, seek relationships, focus on social harmony, focus on formal etiquette, tradition of gift-giving, emotions are suppressed, implicitness, risk-avoiding, focus on obligation) 广义文化差异（群体导向、喜欢与他人在一起、阶层、年龄和职位的重要性、团体活动和顺从的重要性、注重非物质化的价值、喜欢依赖他人、重视社会和睦、重视正式礼仪、送礼物的传统、情感压抑、含蓄、风险规避、喜欢顺从）	
Cultural differences between Asian tourist markets and Australian hosts, Part 1 (Reisinger & Turner, 2002) 亚洲游客市场与澳大利亚接待者间的文化差异	
General cultural values (same as above) 一般文化价值（同上）	
Rules of social interaction 社交规则	
Perceptions 感知	
Forms of interaction 互动的形式	
Satisfaction 满意度	

Interviewee's background information 被访者的背景信息

1. Gender 性别

☐ Male 男　　　　　☐ Female 女

2. Your Age Group 您的年龄组别

☐18-24　　　　☐25-29

☐30-34　　　　☐35-39

☐40-44　　　　☐45-49

□50-54   □55-59

□60-64   □65-69

□70-74   □75 or above

3. Your Highest Level of Education 您的教育程度

□Secondary school or below 初中或以下

□High school 高中

□College diploma non-degree 无学位大专文凭

□College diploma with degree 有学位大专文凭

□University degree or above 大学本科或以上

4. Personal monthly income (HKD) 个人的月收入（港币）

<6,000□	6,000-9,999□	10,000-13,999□	14,000-17,999□	18,000-19,999□
20,000-24,999□	25,000-29,999□	30,000-39,999□	40,000-49,999□	50,000-59,999□
60,000-79,999□	80,000-99,999□	≥100,000□	退休 □	待業□

5. Occupation 职业：--

Related to the tourism industry? 是否跟旅游业有关? ——————

6. Marital Status 婚姻状况: □Single 单身   □Married with child(ren) 已婚，育有一个或多个孩子

   □Married without child(ren) 已婚，无子女   □Others 其它

7. What's your family size? 您的家庭中有几个人

□1 person 1人   □2 persons 2人   □3 persons 3人   □4 persons 4人 □5 persons 5人

□6 persons or more 6 人或以上

8. Do you have the background of living in the mainland China? 您有之前在内地生活的经历吗？

□Yes, please specify 如有，请详述_____   □No 没有

9. Which immigrant generation are you? 您是第几代移民？

□First 第一代   □Second 第二代   □Third and above 第三代或以上

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APPENDIX 4 Pre-Test Questionnaire (English Version)

A Survey of Cultural Distance and Social Contact between Hong Kong Tourists and Mainland Chinese Hosts

I am from the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. We are conducting a survey about Hong Kong tourists' cultural distance and social contact with mainland Chinese hosts when they are travelling in mainland China. The information collected is confidential and will only be used for academic research in order to get better understanding of the tourists' behavior. It will take you about **5 minutes** to complete the questionnaire. We sincerely appreciate your participation.

Screening Questions:

1. Are you a Hong Kong permanent resident?

☐Yes, [Please continue]   ☐No, [Please terminate the survey]

2. Have you been to mainland China with any leisure activities in the past one year?

☐Yes, [Please continue]   ☐No, [Please terminate the survey]

Part One: Cultural Distance

Please rate the following statements according to your latest travel experience in mainland China based on the scales provided. (**1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree**)

		1	2	3	4	5
1	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in social norms.					
2	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in lifestyle.					
3	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.					
4	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.					
5	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.					
6	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in attitude to service (hospitality).					
7	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in character.					
8	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different when perceiving service value.					
9	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cultural diversity within mainland China.					
10	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.					
11	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.					
12	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.					
13	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom.					
14	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in perceiving sense of harmony.					
15	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy.					
16	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.					
17	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.					
18	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in attachment to family.					
19	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in understanding traditional culture.					

Part Two: Social Contact

2.1 Contact Activity and Frequency

Please rate the following statements according to **your latest travel experience** in mainland China based on the scales provided.

Frequency:

How often did you participate in the following activities?

(**1= Never, 2= Seldom, 3= Sometimes, 4= Frequently, 5= Very frequently**)

	Contact Activity	Frequency				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Interaction with the locals during leisure activities					
2	Interaction with the locals when dining together					
3	Interaction with the service personnel during shopping					
4	Interaction with the service personnel during dining					
5	Interaction with the service personnel in transportation					
6	Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation					
7	Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)					
8	Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes					
9	Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them					
10	Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs					
11	Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict					
12	Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)					
13	Interaction with the locals in participating performance					
14	Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts					

2.2 Quality of Contact

Each item below describes two opposite aspects of interaction that you may have with the mainland locals. Please mark in one of five spaces in each row that best describes your position in the overall interactions you had with your mainland local.

		1	2	3	4	5	
1	unfair						fair
2	dull						interesting
3	unequal						equal
4	formal						informal
5	inactive						active
6	selfish						altruistic
7	distant						close
8	hostile						friendly
9	clashing						harmonious
10	unpleasant						pleasant
11	destructive						productive
12	superficial						intense
13	competitive						cooperative
14	different roles						similar roles
15	task-oriented						social-oriented
16	incompatible goals and desires						compatible goals and desires

Part Three: Background Information

1. Gender

☐ Male   ☐ Female

2. Your Age Group

18-24☐   25-34☐   35-44☐

45-64☐   65 or above☐

3. Your Highest Level of Education

☐Primary or below

☐Secondary school

☐Diploma/Certificate

☐Sub-degree course

☐Bachelor or above

4. Monthly Personal Employment Income (HKD)

☐0-9,999

☐10,000-19,999

☐20,000-29,999

☐30,000-49,999

☐50,000 or above

☐Not applicable

5. Marital Status: ☐Single   ☐Married with child(ren)   ☐Married without child(ren)

☐Others, please specify_____

6. Industry and Occupation

☐Managers and administrators   ☐Professionals   ☐Associate professionals

☐Clerks   ☐Service workers and shop sales workers   ☐Craft and related workers

☐Plant and machine operators and assemblers   ☐Elementary occupations

☐Retired   ☐Not applicable

7. Related to the tourism industry?

☐Yes   ☐No   ☐Not applicable

8. Do you have the background of living in mainland China before?

☐Yes, please specify _____   ☐No

9. If you/your family migrated from mainland China, which immigrant generation are you?

☐First (you are the first generation to move to Hong Kong)

☐Second (Your parents are the first generation to move to Hong Kong)

☐Third and above (Your grandparents are the first generation to move to Hong Kong or even earlier)

☐ Not applicable

10. How many times have you traveled to mainland China? _____

Thank you so much for your cooperation and patience.

APPENDIX 5 Pre-Test Questionnaire (Chinese Version)

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY 香港理工大學

School of Hotel & Tourism Management 酒店及旅遊業管理學院 HTM

香港遊客與內地居民間文化差異及社會接觸情況調查

您好！我是來自香港理工大學酒店及旅遊業管理學院的一名博士研究生，正在進行一項關於香港遊客赴內地旅遊時與內地居民文化差異及社會接觸情況的調查。所收集到的信息我們會絕對保密，並只用於學術研究，從而更好地了解遊客的行為。您只需要約 5 分鐘的時間來完成問卷。我們在此對您的參與表示衷心感謝。

篩選問題：

1. 您是否香港永久居民？

□是，［請繼續］   □否，［請終止問卷］

2. 您在過去的一年中曾否以休閒為目的到過中國內地旅行？

□是，［請繼續］   □否，［請終止問卷］

第一部分：文化差異

請根據您**最近一次**在中國內地的旅遊經歷，對以下陳述打分。

（1=非常不同意，2=不同意，3=中立，4=同意，5=非常同意）

		1	2	3	4	5
1	內地人和香港人在社會規範上存在差異。					
2	內地人和香港人在生活方式上存在差異。					
3	內地人和香港人在飲食方面存在差異。					
4	內地人和香港人在文化保留與傳承的意識方面存在差異。					
5	內地人和香港人在傳統習俗的豐富性上存在差異。					
6	內地人和香港人在服務態度方面存在差異（好客度）。					
7	內地人和香港人在性格方面存在差異。					
8	內地人和香港人在對服務價值的感知上存在差異。					
9	內地人和香港人在文化多樣性方面存在差異。					
10	內地人和香港人在衛生標準的認識上存在差異。					
11	內地人和香港人在傳統習俗方面存在差異。					
12	內地人和香港人在文明程度方面存在差異。					
13	內地人和香港人在享有自由的權利上存在差異。					
14	內地人和香港人在對和諧的認知上存在差異。					
15	內地人和香港人在對隱私的重視方面存在差異。					
16	內地人和香港人在溝通的方式上存在差異。					
17	內地人和香港人在交友的方式上存在差異。					
18	內地人和香港人在對家庭的歸屬感上存在差異。					
19	內地人和香港人在對傳統文化的理解上存在差異。					

第二部分：社會接觸

2.1 接觸形式及其頻率

請根據您**最近一次**在中國內地的旅遊經歷，對以下陳述打分。

頻率：

您參與下述活動的頻率是……

（1=從不，2=很少，3=有時，4=經常，5=非常頻繁）

	接觸形式	頻率				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	在休閒活動中與當地居民的溝通交流					
2	在一起就餐時與當地居民的溝通交流					
3	購物時與當地服務人員的溝通交流					
4	就餐時與當地服務人員的溝通交流					
5	在乘坐交通工具時與乘務人員的溝通交流					
6	在住所與服務人員的溝通交流					
7	與旅行社服務人員（如導遊、巴士司機）的溝通交流					
8	到當地居民家中拜訪時的溝通交流					
9	在尋求或接受幫助時與當地居民的溝通交流					
10	在體驗當地習俗時與當地居民的溝通交流					
11	在與當地居民產生矛盾時的溝通交流					
12	與當地居民一起出行（如帶您在周圍轉轉）時的溝通交流					
13	一起參與互動表演時與當地居民的溝通交流					
14	與當地居民交換禮物時的溝通交流					

2.2 接觸的性質

以下每組詞條用來描述您與當地居民溝通交流時兩種相反的態度。請您在每項的五個空格間選擇一個打勾，來反映您與內地居民接觸時的整體態度。

		1	2	3	4	5	
1	不公平的						公平的
2	枯燥的						有趣的
3	不平等的						平等的
4	正式的						非正式的
5	不活躍的						活躍的
6	自私的						無私的
7	有距離感的						親密的
8	敵意的						友好的
9	衝突的						和諧的
10	不愉快的						愉快的
11	具破壞性的						有建設性的
12	膚淺的						深刻的
13	具競爭性的						具合作性的
14	不同的角色						類似的角色
15	任務主導的						社交目的主導的
16	不相容的目標和意願						相容的目標和意願

第三部分：背景資料

1. 性別

□男　　　　　　　　□ 女

2. 年齡

18-24□　　　　　　25-34□　　　　　　　　35-44□
45-64□　　　　65 或以上□

3. 最高學歷

□小學或以下　　□中學　　□文憑/證書　　□副學位課程　　□本科或以上

4. 個人每月收入（港元）

□0-9,999　　□10,000-19,999　　□20,000-29,999　　□30,000-49,999

□50,000 或者以上　　□不適用

5. 婚姻狀況：　　□單身　　　□已婚，有子女　　　□已婚，沒有子女　　□其他，請註明_____

6. 行業和職業

□經理和管理人員　　　　　　□專業人士　　　　　　□ 準專業人士

□文員　　　　　　　　　　　□服務及商店銷售人員　　□手工藝及相關行業

□廠房和機器操作員及裝配人員　　　　　　　　　　□非技術工人

□退休人士　　　　□不適用

7. 您的職業是否與旅遊業有關?

□是　　　　　　　　　□否　　　　　　　　　□不適用

8. 您曾否居住在中國內地?

□有，請註明_____　　　　　　　　□否

9. 如果您/您的家人移居來自內地，那麼您屬於哪一代移民?

□第一代（您是第一代移居到香港的居民。）

□第二代(您的父母是第一代移居到香港的居民。)

□第三代或以上（您的祖父母或更早的先祖是第一代移居到香港的居民。）

□不適用

10. 您到中國內地旅遊過多少次?　_____

非常感謝您的合作和耐心.如對本次調查有任何疑問，煩請電郵至
daisy.fan@

APPENDIX 6 Main Survey Questionnaire (English Version)

A Survey of Cultural Distance, Social Contact and travel attitude of Hong Kong Tourists Traveling to Mainland China

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a PhD Candidate from the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. We are now conducting a survey about Hong Kong tourists' cultural distance, social contact and travel attitude according to their experiences of travelling in Mainland China. The information collected is confidential and will only be used for academic research in order to get a better understanding of tourists' behavior. It will take you about **7 minutes** to complete the questionnaire. We sincerely appreciate your participation.

Screening Questions:

1. Are you a Hong Kong permanent resident?

☐Yes, [Please continue]   ☐No, [Please terminate the survey]

2. Have you taken any leisure activities (for example, dining, shopping, massage, and site-seeing) in this trip?

☐Yes, [Please continue]   ☐No, [Please terminate the survey]

Part One: Trip Information

1. What was your destination for your latest trip in Mainland China (with leisure activities)?

The destination for questionnaire distribution

2. How long did you stay in that particular trip?

☐ 1-2 days   ☐ 3-5 days   ☐ 6-8 days   ☐ 9 days or above

3. Did you travel individually or did you join a tour package in that particular trip?

☐ Individual traveler   ☐ Joining a tour package (either from Hong Kong or in the destination)

4. How many times have you traveled to Mainland China (for leisure purposes)?

☐ 1-3 times ☐ 4-6 times ☐ 7-9 times ☐ 10-19 times ☐ 20 times or above

Part Two: Cultural Distance

Please tick "√" the appropriate score for the statements according to <u>your latest travel experience</u> in mainland China based on the scales provided. (**1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree**)

	Perceived Cultural Distance					
1	Mainland China and Hong Kong are different in cuisine.	1	2	3	4	5
2	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in sense of culture retention.	1	2	3	4	5
3	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in richness of traditional customs.	1	2	3	4	5
4	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in hygiene standard.	1	2	3	4	5
5	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in traditional customs.	1	2	3	4	5
6	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in civilization level.	1	2	3	4	5
7	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in restrictions of freedom (e.g. blocking foreign websites, forbidding protests).	1	2	3	4	5
8	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in perceiving sense of harmony.	1	2	3	4	5
9	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in privacy protection.	1	2	3	4	5
10	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of communication.	1	2	3	4	5
11	People in mainland China and Hong Kong are different in the way of making friends.	1	2	3	4	5

Part Three: Regional Ethnocentrism

Please rate the following statements based on the scales provided. (**1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree**)

	Regional Ethnocentrism	1	2	3	4	5
1	Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.					
2	My culture should be the role model for other cultures.					
3	People from other cultures act strange when they come to my culture.					
4	Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.					
5	Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.					
6	I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.					
7	People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.					

8	Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.					
9	I respect the values and customs of other cultures.					
10	Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.					
11	Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.					
12	I have many friends from different cultures.					
13	People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.					
14	Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.					
15	I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.					
16	I apply my values when judging people who are different.					
17	I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.					
18	I do not cooperate with people who are different.					
19	Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.					
20	I do not trust people who are different.					
21	I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.					
22	I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.					

Part Four: Social Contact

4.1 Contact Activity and Frequency

Please rate the following statements according to your latest travel experience in mainland China based on the scales provided.

Frequency:

How often did you participate in the following activities?

(**1= Never, 2= Seldom, 3= Sometimes, 4= Frequently, 5= Very frequently**)

	Contact Activity	1	2	3	4	5
1	Interaction with the locals during leisure activities					
2	Interaction with the locals when dining together					
3	Interaction with the service personnel during shopping					
4	Interaction with the service personnel during dining					
5	Interaction with the service personnel in transportation					
6	Interaction with the service personnel in accommodation					
7	Interaction with the service personnel during touring (e.g. tour guides, bus drivers)					
8	Interaction with the locals by visiting their homes					
9	Interaction with the locals by enquiring or receiving help from them					
10	Interaction with the locals by experiencing their customs					
11	Interaction with the locals when there is a conflict					
12	Interaction with the locals when traveling together (showing around)					
13	Interaction with the locals in participating performance					
14	Interaction with the locals by exchanging gifts					

4.2 Quality of Contact

Each item below describes two opposite aspects of interaction that you may have experienced with the locals in <u>your latest travel</u> in mainland China. Please mark in one of five spaces in each row that best describes your position in the overall interactions you had with the mainland locals.

		1	2	3	4	5	
1	unfair						fair
2	dull						interesting
3	unequal						equal
4	formal						informal
5	inactive						active
6	distant						close
7	hostile						friendly
8	clashing						harmonious
9	unpleasant						pleasant
10	superficial						intense
11	competitive						cooperative
12	task-oriented						social-oriented
13	incompatible goals and desires						compatible goals and desires
14	insincere						sincere

Part Five: Travel Attitude

Each item below describes two opposite aspects of attitudes that you may have with the mainland locals in <u>your latest travel</u> in mainland China. Please mark in one of five spaces in each row that best describes your attitude toward traveling to your latest destination in Mainland China.

5.1 Affective and Cognitive Attitudes

All things considered, I think visiting my latest destination in Mainland China was:

		1	2	3	4	5	
1	unenjoyable						enjoyable
2	negative						positive
3	boring						fun
4	undesirable						desirable
5	unfavorable						favorable
6	bad						good
7	boring						exciting
8	depressing						arousing
9	dissatisfying						satisfying
10	unworthy						worthwhile
11	unattractive						fascinating
12	wrong						right
13	harmful						beneficial
14	foolish						wise
15	useless						useful

5.2 Behavioral Attitudes

Please rate the following statements according to your <u>latest travel experience</u> in mainland China based on the scales provided. (**1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree**)

	Behavioral Attitudes	1	2	3	4	5
1	I intend to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.					
2	I plan to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.					
3	I desire to visit mainland China in the next 2 years.					
4	I probably will visit mainland China in the next 2 years.					

Part Six: Background Information

1. Gender

☐ Male   ☐ Female

2. Your Age Group

☐18-24   ☐25-34   ☐35-44

☐45-64   ☐65 or above

3. Your Highest Level of Education

☐Primary or below   ☐Secondary school   ☐Diploma/Certificate

☐Sub-degree course   ☐Bachelor or above

4. Monthly Household Employment Income (HKD)

☐0-9,999   ☐10,000-19,999   ☐20,000-29,999   ☐30,000-39,999

☐40,000-49,999   ☐50,000-59,999   ☐60,000 or above   ☐Not applicable

5. Marital Status: ☐Single   ☐Married with child(ren)   ☐Married without child(ren)

☐Others, please specify_____

6. Industry and Occupation

☐Managers and administrators   ☐Professionals   ☐Associate professionals

☐Clerks   ☐Service workers and shop sales workers   ☐Craft and related workers

☐Plant and machine operators and assemblers   ☐Elementary occupations

☐Retired   ☐Students   ☐Not applicable

7. Related to the tourism industry?

☐Yes   ☐No   ☐Not applicable

8. Do you have the background of living in mainland China before?

☐Yes, please specify _____   ☐No

9. If you/your family migrated from mainland China, which immigrant generation are you?

☐First (I am the first generation to move to Hong Kong)

☐Second (My parents are the first generation to move to Hong Kong)

☐Third and above (My grandparents are the first generation to move to Hong Kong or even earlier)

☐ I don't know

☐ Not applicable

10. Your Hong Kong contact number: +852_____ (return visit only to ensure the quality of the survey result)

Thank you so much for your cooperation and patience.

APPENDIX 7 Main Survey Questionnaire (Chinese Version)

香港遊客赴內地旅行的文化差異、社會接觸以及旅行態度的情況調查

尊敬的先生/女士：

您好！我是來自香港理工大學酒店及旅遊業管理學院的一名博士研究生，正在進行一項關於香港遊客赴內地旅行時與內地居民文化差異、社會接觸以及對內地旅行態度的調查。所收集到的信息我們會絕對保密，並只用於學術研究，從而更好地了解遊客的行為。您只需要約 **7 分鐘**的時間來完成問卷。我們在此對您的參與表示衷心感謝。

篩選問題：

1. 您是否香港永久居民？

□是，［請繼續］   □否，［請終止問卷］

2. 您在此次旅行中曾否參加過**娛樂休閒活動**（例如：外出用餐，購物，按摩，參觀遊覽景點等）？

□有，［請繼續］   □否，［請終止問卷］

第一部分：旅行信息

1.您最近一次赴中國內地旅行的**目的地**是：

問卷發放地

2.您在上述目的地停留的時間是多久？

□ 1-2 天   □ 3-5 天   □ 6-8 天   □ 9 天或以上

3.您是以什麼形式赴上述目的地旅行的？

□自由行   □旅行團（從香港參團或從目的地參團）

4.您一共去過多少次內地進行休閒旅行？

□ 1-3 次   □ 4-6 次   □ 7-9 次   □ 10-19 次   □20 次或以上

第二部分：文化差異

請根據您**最近一次**在中國内地的旅行經歷，對以下陳述評分。 請在適當的空格内打"√"。

（1=非常不同意，2=不同意，3=中立，4=同意，5=非常同意）

	對文化差異的感知	1	2	3	4	5
1	内地人和香港人在飲食方面存在差異。					
2	内地人和香港人在文化保留與傳承的意識方面存在差異。					
3	内地人和香港人在傳統習俗的豐富性上存在差異。					
4	内地人和香港人在衛生標準的認識上存在差異。					
5	内地人和香港人在傳統習俗的内容方面存在差異。					
6	内地人和香港人在文明程度方面存在差異。					
7	内地人和香港人在享有自由的權利上存在差異（例如：瀏覽國外的網站，組織參加集會和遊行等）。					
8	内地人和香港人在對和諧的認知上存在差異。					
9	内地人和香港人在對隱私的保護方面存在差異。					
10	内地人和香港人在溝通的方式上存在差異。					
11	内地人和香港人在交友的方式上存在差異。					

第三部分：區域優越感

以下 22 條問題出自 Neuliep & McCroskey (1997a)和 Neuliep (2002)測度不同人群文化優越感的著作。其中，**"其他文化"**泛指除香港文化以外的文化，可包括其他亞洲地區文化，歐洲文化及美洲文化等。

請對以下陳述評分。請在適當的空格内打"√"。

（1=非常不同意，2=不同意，3=中立，4=同意，5=非常同意）

	區域優越感	1	2	3	4	5
1	大部分其他文化與香港文化相比都是落後的。					
2	香港文化是其他文化的典範。					
3	有其他文化背景的人融入到香港文化時，會表現得很奇怪。					
4	其他文化的生活方式和香港文化的生活方式相比是同樣有效的。					
5	其他文化都應該向香港文化演變。					
6	我對其他文化的價值觀與習俗沒有興趣。					
7	香港人有很多地方可以向其他文化背景的人學習。					
8	大部分來自其他文化背景的人不知道什麼對他們來說是好的。					
9	我尊重其他文化的價值觀與習俗。					
10	其他文化崇尚香港文化是明智的。					
11	如果大部分人都像香港人一樣生活，他們會更加幸福。					
12	我有很多來自不同文化背景的朋友。					
13	香港人擁有全世界最好的生活方式。					

		1	2	3	4	5
14	其他文化的生活方式沒有香港文化的這樣有效。					
15	我對其他文化的價值觀與習俗很感興趣。					
16	我會用自己的價值觀去評價其他人。					
17	我認為跟我相像的人是有道德的。					
18	我不會與跟我不同的人合作。					
19	大部分香港人不知道什麼對他們來說是好的。					
20	我不信任與我不同的人。					
21	我不喜歡與跟我不同的人打交道。					
22	我認為其他文化的價值觀與習俗不值得尊重。					

第四部分：社會接觸

4.1 接觸形式及其頻率

請根據您**最近一次**在中國內地的旅行經歷，對以下陳述評分。請在適當的空格內打"√"。

頻率：

您在這次的旅行中，參與下列活動的頻率是……

（1=從不，2=很少，3=有時，4=經常，5=非常頻繁）

		頻率				
	接觸形式	1	2	3	4	5
1	在休閒活動中與當地居民的溝通交流					
2	在一起用餐時與當地居民的溝通交流					
3	購物時與當地服務人員的溝通交流					
4	用餐時與當地服務人員的溝通交流					
5	在乘坐交通工具時與服務人員的溝通交流					
6	在住所與服務人員的溝通交流					
7	與旅行社服務人員（如導遊、巴士司機）的溝通交流					
8	到當地居民家中拜訪時的溝通交流					
9	在尋求或接受幫助時與當地居民的溝通交流					
10	在體驗當地習俗時與當地居民的溝通交流					
11	在與當地居民產生矛盾時的溝通交流					
12	與當地居民一起出行（如帶您在周圍遊逛）時的溝通交流					
13	一起參與互動表演時與當地居民的溝通交流					
14	與當地居民交換禮物時的溝通交流					

4.2 接觸的態度

以下每組詞語用來描述**您與當地居民溝通交流**時兩種相反的**態度**。請您在每項的五個空格間選擇一个打"√"，來反映您在**最近一次赴內地旅行中**與內地居民接觸時的態度。

		1	2	3	4	5	
1	不公平的						公平的
2	枯燥的						有趣的
3	不平等的						平等的
4	正式的						非正式的
5	不活躍的						活躍的
6	有距離感的						親密的
7	有敵意的						友好的
8	衝突的						和諧的
9	不愉快的						愉快的
10	膚淺的						深刻的
11	具競爭性的						具合作性的
12	任務主導的						社交目的主導的
13	不相容的目標和意願						相容的目標和意願
14	不真誠的						真誠的

第五部分: 旅行態度

以下每組詞語用來描述您到**目的地旅行**的兩種相反**態度**。請您在每項的五個空格間選擇一个打"√"，來反映您**最近一次赴內地旅行時**對目的地的態度。

5.1 情感及認知方面的態度

整體來說，我認為到此地旅行是：

		1	2	3	4	5	
1	不愉快的						愉快的
2	消極的						積極的
3	枯燥的						有趣的
4	不符合預期的						符合預期的
5	不喜歡的						喜歡的
6	壞的						好的
7	沒趣的						令人興奮的
8	令人沮喪的						興致勃勃的
9	不滿意的						滿意的
10	不值得的						值得的
11	沒有吸引力的						有吸引力的
12	錯誤的						正確的

		1	2	3	4	5	
13	有害的						有利的
14	愚蠢的						明智的
15	無用的						有用的

5.2 行為方面的態度

請根據您**最近一次在中國內地旅行**的總體經歷，對以下陳述評分。請在適當的空格內打"√"。

（1=非常不同意，2=不同意，3=中立，4=同意，5=非常同意）

	行為方面的態度	1	2	3	4	5
1	我有**意向**在今後的兩年中再次赴中國內地旅行。					
2	我有**計劃**在今後的兩年中再次赴中國內地旅行。					
3	我**期望**在今後的兩年中再次赴中國內地旅行。					
4	我**有可能**會在今後的兩年中再次赴中國內地旅行。					

第六部分：背景資料

1. 性別

□男　　　　　　　□ 女

2. 年齡

□18-24　　　　　□25-34　　　　　　　□35-44
□45-64　　　　　□65 或以上

3. 最高學歷

□小學或以下　　□中學　　□文憑/證書　　□副學位課程　　□大學或以上

4. **家庭住戶**每月總收入（港元）

□0-9,999　　　　□10,000-19,999　　□20,000-29,999　　□30,000-39,999

□40,000-49,999　　□50,000-59,999　　□60,000 或以上　　□不適用

5. 婚姻狀況：　□單身　　□已婚，有子女　　□已婚，沒有子女　□其他，請註明_____

6. 行業和職業

☐經理和管理人員　　　　☐專業人士　　　　☐ 準專業人士

☐文員　　　　☐服務及商店銷售人員　　　　☐手工藝及相關行業

☐廠房和機器操作員及裝配人員　　　　☐非技術工人

☐退休人士　　　　☐學生　　　　☐不適用

7. 您的職業是否與旅遊業有關?

☐是　　　　☐否　　　　☐不適用

8. 您曾否居住在中國內地?

☐有，請註明_____　　　　☐否

9. 如果您/您的家人移居來自內地，那麼您屬於哪一代移民？

☐第一代（我是第一代移居到香港的居民。）

☐第二代(我的父母是第一代移居到香港的居民。)

☐第三代或以上（我的祖父母或更早的先祖是第一代移居到香港的居民。）

☐不知道

☐不適用

10. 您的香港電話聯絡方式　+852-_____　（僅供調查回訪使用）

非常感謝您撥冗完成該問卷。如對本次調查有任何疑問，煩請電郵至
daisy.fan@

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