TOURIST STEREOTYPES FROM THE RESIDENT PERSPECTIVE: IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT ASSESSMENTS, EMOTIONAL REACTIONS AND BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSES

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Tse Wai Tsz

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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Tse Wai Tsz

ABSTRACT

Stereotyping reflects the beliefs or expectations of an individual perceived by members of another social group. Tourist stereotyping is a type of stereotyping that has been a frequent and long-lasting practice of hosting residents towards particular groups of tourists. In recent years, the expansion of Chinese outbound tourism has concentrated tourist stereotyping on them. The Chinese are often stereotyped with negative labels, such as being impolite, pushy, unbridled and abominable, as a result of bizarre incidents and complaints from hosting residents. Correspondingly, hosting residents respond through their actions. For instance, name-calling discrimination using 'locusts' against Mainland Chinese tourists has been observed in Hong Kong, and Chinese characters have been identified at the Louvre Museum in Paris that warn the Chinese not to urinate and defecate in the premises. The social dynamics between Mainland Chinese tourists and hosting residents provide an opportunity to investigate the connectivity amongst stereotypes, emotions and behaviours.

The primary purpose of this thesis is to understand the interrelationship of residents' attitudes in terms of tourist stereotype, emotional reactions and behavioural responses towards Mainland Chinese tourists, one of the most influential tourism markets, in the context of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. To achieve this goal, four research objectives are formulated: (1) to measure explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes, (2) to examine the relationship between explicit and implicit stereotypes, (3) to develop a scale measuring residents behavioural responses to tourist, and (4) to explore the relationship amongst the tourist stereotypes, emotional reactions and behavioural responses of the residents of selected destinations. Results of this thesis will provide an in-depth and structured understanding of the relationships amongst the tourist stereotypes, emotional reactions and behavioural responses of residents and potentially offer

destination management organisations (DMOs) and tourism officials insights that are relevant in identifying, prioritising and managing host-guest relationship for sustainable tourism development.

Existing tourism studies focusing on stereotypes have explored a single stream of stereotypes, namely, explicit stereotypes. However, stereotypes are dichotomous systems that distinguish between explicit and implicit stereotypes. The sole measurement of explicit stereotypes can result in the manipulation of results with self-presentational effects of social desirability. Hence, the current findings can be inconclusive. Implicit stereotypes are captured using the Implicit Association Test (IAT) with detailed mapping to the associated stereotype category using selection criteria. The IAT can serve as a template for future replication and diffusion of stereotype studies and thus contributes methodologically to the academic and industry fields of tourism. Furthermore, the relationship analysis between explicit and implicit stereotypes validates the dichotomous systems in stereotypes, which also applies in the tourism context when measuring tourist stereotypes.

Existing tourism studies have focused only on the dichotomous view instead of a multifaceted perspective. Thus, this study develops a resident behaviour model to map the behaviours of locals who are for or against tourists to two discerning dimensions of valence and intensity. Valence considers behaviours along the facilitative–harm spectrum, whereas intensity discerns the behaviours along the active–passive spectrum. Twelve behavioural items are identified with four quadrants: residents' initiatives that can benefit tourists (active–facilitation), residents' accommodative behaviours towards tourists (passive–facilitation), residents' intimidation of tourists (active–harm) and residents distancing away from tourists in need (passive–harm). These items are summarised from existing tourism studies and undergo exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses to form a structured model. This model strengthens the conceptualisation of residents' behavioural responses in the tourism literature and aids in developing management strategies for managing host–guest relationship.

Tourist stereotypes, emotional reactions and behavioural responses form the overall conceptual framework of this thesis, and they are measured using contemporary models of tourist stereotype model (Tung, King, & Tse, 2020), emotions from stereotype content model (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002) and the developed resident behaviour model, respectively. Hypotheses are developed to measure the direct relationships amongst tourist stereotypes, emotional reactions and behavioural responses and eventually the mediating effect of emotional reactions on tourist stereotypes and behavioural responses. These relationships are analysed with SPSS Process v3.3, and 13 significant mediating effects of emotional reactions on tourist stereotypes and behavioural responses are identified. Results offer an initial modelling of the interrelationships amongst the three constructs in the tourism context. Furthermore, they identify the interrelationships of each dimension of tourist stereotypes on the predictions on the type of emotional reactions and quadrant of behavioural responses.

In this thesis, the four proposed objectives are achieved by adopting a quantitative research of survey approach. More specifically, it is an online questionnaire consists of an Implicit Association Test (IAT) and Likert scale rating on the measurements items of Tourist Stereotype Model (Tung et al., 2020), Emotions from Stereotype Content Model (Fiske et al., 2002) and the developed Resident Behaviour Model. IAT captures the reaction time of each tourist and tourist stereotype association and calculate the *D* score, reflecting the stereotype category. Tourist Stereotype Model and Emotions from Stereotype Content Model shard the same Likert scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree. Resident Behaviour Model adopts a Likert scale where 1 = Never to 7 = Often. The collect data are analyzed with IBM SPSS 25.0 and SPSS PROCESS v3.3 in terms of implicit stereotype categorizations, frequency analysis, Pearson's correlation, Factor Analysis, and hypotheses testing with respect to the four research objective accordingly.

Overall, this thesis contributes to the tourism academic and offers insights to DMOs and tourism officials. Firstly, it validates the applicability of the IAT in measuring tourist stereotypes, offering a new methodological approach for tourism studies and an online public access platform to capture individuals' implicit cognition. Secondly, findings of this thesis indicate discrepancies between explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes, which support the concept of dichotomous systems of stereotypes in the tourism context. Hence, the existing tourism literature and public opinion adopting either measurement approach will result in an incomplete judgment that leads to incorrect policy formations. Thirdly, the development of the resident behaviour model strengthens the conceptualisation of intergroup behaviours from a spectrum of avoidance approach to a multifaceted framework. The model also presents specific resident behaviours for DMOs and tourism officials to understand residents' responses to tourists. Finally, the integration of tourist stereotypes, emotional reactions and behavioural responses serves as an initial modelling that promotes knowledge enhancement for understanding the social dynamics of resident attitude in tourism. Furthermore, this model can provide insights into predicting discriminatory behaviours from tourist stereotypes, allowing the prioritisation of government efforts to manage the host–guest relationship for sustainable tourism development.

Keywords: Tourist Stereotype, Implicit Association Test, Resident Behaviour Model, Interrelationship, Resident Attitude, Intergroup Relation

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PREFACE

This thesis was developed from a series of interactions between local residents and myself during my residence in Singapore and Hong Kong. I was born in Hong Kong and moved to Singapore when I was nine. On the first day of elementary school, my teacher introduced me to my classmates, stating that I am from Hong Kong. Immediately, a student commented, 'She must be good at Chinese and Math', and all the students looked at me. I did not realise then that I was being stereotyped. In fact, I took the assumption as a compliment. As my education progressed, I started to realise the stereotype, Singaporeans' beliefs and expectations of Hong Kongers. Given this perception, I have been an object of comparison and competition knowingly and unknowingly, and I had to outperform the others all the time to uphold this stereotype and not be looked down upon by my teachers and classmates.

When I returned to Hong Kong for my undergraduate studies in 2011, I received a different set of stereotypes from Hong Kongers. Having been educated and raised in Singapore, I commonly use English and Mandarin when talking to my friends. I only use Cantonese when I am communicating with locals. Once, when my Malaysian friends and I were on the train to Mong Kok from the university and were talking to one another in Mandarin, I noted some passengers staring at us with despise. I wondered if we were overly excited in our talks and disturbing them until one of them said '蝗虫 (locust)'. Then, I realised that they mistook us for Mainland Chinese tourists and hence insulted us. We ignored them and continued to communicate in Mandarin until we reached the station, all the while receiving looks and teasing remarks. Through the years, I learned how easily a person could be stereotyped and receive different types of behaviour.

The negative labelling of Mainland Chinese tourists has been popularised by social media. However, I discovered from my involvement in the Early Career Scheme (ECS) project

that Hong Kongers also recognise the positive attributes of Mainland Chinese tourists. The findings of the ECS project, together with my personal experiences, have triggered my research interest in the areas of tourist stereotypes, residents' attitudes and intergroup relations. Furthermore, the ECS project only measures the tourist stereotypes of Hong Kong residents Thus, I wanted to expand the study to other tourism destinations to investigate whether similar perceptions of Mainland Chinese tourists exist. Eventually, I framed this thesis with the overall goal of investigating the interrelationship amongst tourist stereotypes, emotional reactions and behavioural responses of residents towards Mainland Chinese tourists. I selected Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand as the study contexts due to my personal interests and the growth dependence of these destinations on the Chinese market.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This chapter serves as the introductory section of the thesis. Firstly, the research background of the study is presented. The problem statements are then discussed, followed by the outline of the research questions and objectives.

1.1 Research Background

Residents' attitudes are an essential topic within the academic tourism literature and amongst destination management organisations (DMOs). They bring insights into the residents' psychological constructs towards an examined target, such as a person (e.g. tourist), a place (e.g. destination), an objective (e.g. attraction) or even an event. From the psychology literature, attitude is a learned tendency of evaluations where the learning process accumulates from past experiences, observations and even social factors and could affect future intentions. These evaluations could range from extremely negative to positive and could be conflicting or ambivalent attitudes in most cases when individuals simultaneously hold negative and positive attitudes. In other words, attitude is the degree of positive or negative favourability that individuals hold towards the examined target (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

The psychological constructs of attitude may be classified into three aspects, namely, cognitive, affective and behavioural. The cognitive aspect refers to the information or knowledge of individuals and involves thoughts and beliefs about the target. This aspect also regards the opinion segment of attitudes. It could be considered the generalities or stereotypes individuals associate with the target. The affective aspect refers to the feelings and emotional reactions of individuals on the target. This aspect is also known as the post-cognitive component where emotions could only be elicited based on specific contents of cognitive information (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). The behavioural aspect refers to the action acquired

by individuals and the behavioural responses to the target. The acquired action is activated based on the information processed (Chen & Bargh, 1997; Dijksterhuis & Van Knippenberg, 1998) and cued by the type of emotional reaction (Cronin Jr., Brady & Hult, 2000; Gartner, 1993).

Attitude can manifest explicitly and implicitly and differs in the degree of consciousness and accessibility to the cognition of individuals. The cognition component then influences individuals' emotions and behaviours as reactions and responses, respectively. Explicit attitudes are based on individuals' conscious and controlled information processing towards the target. Individuals are aware of the stereotypical views they hold and can manipulate their evaluations depending on the presence of opportunities and their motivation. Conversely, implicit attitudes are the automatic activation of an associative network in one's memory. Such attitudes are the unconscious state of mind that individuals hold about the target. They should be investigated separately because of the different nature of dichotomous systems. Furthermore, the literature indicates that explicit and implicit attitudes are often mismatched. Thus, the result of either should not be interpreted for the other.

Recent disputes between residents and tourists in various tourism destinations have drawn attention to the importance of evaluating residents' attitude towards tourists. The actions of residents towards tourists affect not only the host–guest relationship but also the destinations' image and subsequently influence the sustainability of tourism development. Behaviours are considered interactions between groups and are influenced by cognitive and affective evaluations. Thus, the examination of stereotypes and emotions may help explain the intergroup behaviours in tourism settings. The types of intergroup behaviour could be traced by evaluating tourist stereotypes and subsequently the emotional responses of residents.

1.2 Problem Statement

Studies focusing on the cognitive component investigate the perception of individuals towards an examined target, such as destination image (Stylidis, Shani, & Belhassen, 2017), tourism influence and life satisfaction (Lin, Chen, & Filieri, 2017) and tourist–resident conflicts (Tsaur, Yen, & Teng 2018). More recently, studies on tourist stereotypes have been emerging (Hsu & Chen, 2019; Monterrubio, 2018; Shen, Lv, Lin, & Lin, 2019; Tung et al., 2020). According to Tung et al. (2020), tourist stereotypes are the preconceptions of residents towards tourists in destination settings. Scholars have identified the attributes that residents use as labels on tourists. However, relevant studies have only explored a single stream of stereotypes, that is, explicit stereotypes. Stereotypes form a dichotomous system that distinguishes between controlled, conscious and mindful versus uncontrolled, unconscious and mindless stereotypes (Devine, 1989; Kihlstrom & Pervin, 1990; Langer, 1989). These two distinctions are explicit and implicit stereotypes. The approaches adopted in these studies allow respondents to think and report their evaluations where the results can be manipulated with self-presentational effects or social desirability. Therefore, the various results are inconclusive.

Implicit stereotyping is another system that is distinct from explicit stereotyping, and it is activated unconsciously and indirectly. In such contexts, individuals may be unaware of the existence of stereotypes (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). Explicit stereotypes can be altered given the intention and motivation of individuals, whereas implicit stereotypes are persistent. Given the distinct nature of explicit and implicit stereotyping, they should be examined using different approaches. Furthermore, the evaluation of one should not compensate or be inferred as resulting from the other. Using only one of the systems to conclude individuals' stereotypes could result in either an overstatement or under-evaluation of the actual image of the examined target. Furthermore, the disassociation between the explicit and implicit stereotypes in previous

works supports the concept of distinctive systems in stereotypes. Few tourism researchers have measured explicit and implicit stereotypes, and those that have attempted have failed to provide an actual evaluation of the target, thereby promoting inaccurate strategies for managing host–guest relationship.

In addition to investigating implicit and explicit tourist stereotypes, the effect of stereotypes on residents' behaviours towards tourists must be examined. To achieve this goal, the specific behavioural items that may affect resident–tourist intergroup behaviours must be initially identified. Several studies have contributed by investigating tourist behaviours at a destination. For example, some studies have noted negative tourist behaviours, such as unethical and disrespectful actions, which may increase host–tourist tensions (Gong, Detchkhajornjaroensri, & Knight 2019; Malikhao 2017; Tolkach, Pratt, & Zeng, 2017). However, few studies have examined resident behaviours towards tourists. Although interactions between residents and tourists form an important element of the tourism experience (Sharpley, 2014), not all residents wish to interact with tourists. For instance, Nan, Hsu, and Li (2018) noted four types of resident behaviours, ranging from willing to interact to no intention to interact with tourists. The findings provide a general perspective, but specific behavioural items that may reflect resident–tourist intergroup behaviours must be identified. The second step is to classify these items into the four quadrants of behaviours from intergroup affect and stereotypes (BIAS) map, that is, active–facilitation, passive–facilitation, active–harm and passive–harm. The third step is to investigate the systematic links between tourist stereotypes and behavioural items by predicting the positive tourist stereotypes that elicit facilitations and the negative tourist stereotypes that elicit harms.

Finally, examining the role of emotions in mediating the relationship between the stereotypes and behaviours of residents towards tourists is important. Although stereotypes,

emotions and behaviours have been discussed in the tourism literature, they are often examined individually, especially in recent years. Previous intergroup studies have identified significant relationships amongst the three components. They have found that stereotypes have direct effects on emotions and behaviours where both are regarded as the post-cognitive phenomena and generated based on the polarity of the stereotypes (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chen & Bargh, 1997; Ozawa & Yaeda, 2007). Specifically, scholars have concluded that emotions have indirect effects on the relationship between stereotypes and behaviours (Cronin Jr., Brady & Hult, 2000), mediating the effects of stereotypes in influencing the types of behaviour of individuals towards the target (Becker & Asbrock, 2012; Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2007, 2008; Sadler, Kaye, & Vaughn, 2015; Wirtz, van der Pligt, & Doosje, 2016a). Nevertheless, research that fully integrates the three components that identify the emotional reactions and behavioural responses in relation to tourist stereotypes is limited.

1.3 Research Questions and Objectives

The overall goal of this study is to investigate the interrelationships amongst the tourist stereotypes, emotional reactions and behavioural responses of residents towards tourists. Thus, the research question of this thesis is 'What is the relationship amongst the tourist stereotypes, emotions and behaviours of residents towards tourists?' To answer this research question, the study addresses four research objectives:

(1) To measure explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes;

(2) To examine the relationship between explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes;

(3) To develop a scale measuring resident behavioural response to tourists;

(4) To explore the relationship amongst stereotypes, emotions and behaviours towards tourists.

1.4 Research Context

The dynamics of the tourism phenomenon allow residents to meet and interact with diverse tourists. The resident stereotypes, emotions and behaviours for each category of tourist are impossible to measure. Equally classifying all tourists into a single group will lead to inaccurate evaluation. Hence, to address the diverse spectrum, the present study focuses on Mainland Chinese tourists and the evaluations of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand residents. These four tourism destinations were listed as the top 10 places visited by Mainland Chinese tourists from 2000 to 2019 (Table 1). With their long histories in hosting the Mainland Chinese tourists, their residents' stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours affect not only the tourism development within their destinations but also the strategies implemented by other destinations that is interested to host the Mainland Chinese tourists.

Table 1.1 – Top 10 Outbound Destinations by Mainland Chinese Tourist from 2000 to 2019

2000	**2005**	**2010**	**2014**	**2018**	**2019**
Hong Kong	**Hong Kong**	**Hong Kong**	**Hong Kong**	**Hong Kong**	**Hong Kong**
Macao	Macao	Macao	Macao	Macao	Macau
Thailand	**Singapore**	**Thailand**	**Thailand**	**Thailand**	**Thailand**
Vietnam	Russia	South Korea	South Korea	Japan	Japan
Russia	**Thailand**	Taiwan	Taiwan	Vietnam	South Korea
South Korea	Italy	Japan	Japan	South Korea	Vietnam
Singapore	Vietnam	**Singapore**	Italy	**Singapore**	**Singapore**
Italy	South Korea	Italy	United States	Italy	**Malaysia**
Japan	Japan	Vietnam	Vietnam	United States	Cambodia
United States	France	France	**Singapore**	**Malaysia**	Taiwan

Source: United Nation World Tourism Organization (2020); China Outbound Tourism Research Institute (2020)

1.4.1 Mainland Chinese Tourists

With the unprecedented growth of China's economy and the associated relaxation of outbound travel restrictions, international travel has become a major activity of Mainland Chinese residents. A double-digit percentage year-on-year growth of Mainland Chinese outbound travel was recorded in many international destinations, such as Thailand, Japan, Vietnam, Singapore, Malaysia and the Special Administrative Regions of Hong Kong and Macau (Yan, 2018). The sharp increase in Mainland Chinese tourists has contributed economically to various destinations. However, the residents of these destinations have raised various social concerns in association with the exponential growth (Piuchan, Chan, & Kaale, 2018; Tse & Qiu, 2016). The social tensions have often been due to the sudden increase of Mainland Chinese tourism, leaving host communities with little or no time to accommodate them. Many have reported about obnoxious Mainland Chinese tourists (Chen et al., 2018; Tolkach et al., 2017; Zhang, Pearce & Chen, 2019). Most reports have been about the bad behaviours and cultural indiscretion acts performed within the destinations. Undeniably, such complaints constitute the negative image of Mainland Chinese tourists.

Although such misbehaviours have also been noted amongst other tourist groups, many have targeted a particular tourist demographic, namely, Mainland Chinese tourists. With millions of outbound Mainland Chinese travelling each year, their influences, contributions and actions have caught the attention of host communities. Furthermore, with only 8.7% of the Chinese population holding a China passport, a huge addition potential for outbound tourism exists amongst the 1.4 billion population. Furthermore, China can be considered the leading example for subsequent emerging markets, such as Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa (the BRICS). Complaints and unhappy interactions that have been currently associated with Mainland Chinese tourists can subsequently be projected onto these other potential source

markets. The insights from Mainland Chinese tourists can potentially prepare tourism officials for managing tourists and residents for a potentially harmonious host–guest relationship.

1.4.2 Hong Kong Residents

Given its close proximity and ethnic affiliations, Hong Kong has become one of the most visited destinations by Mainland Chinese tourists, who have taken the largest share in visitation to Hong Kong. From the implementation of the visiting friends and relatives scheme in 1983 to the individual visit scheme in 2003, a series of policy relaxations has fostered a multifold increase in Mainland Chinese visitation to Hong Kong, accounting for 78.3% of the total arrivals in 2018 (Tourism Commission, 2019). Despite their economic contribution, the influx of Mainland Chinese tourists has intensified tensions with increasing conflicts between Hong Kong residents and Mainland Chinese tourists (Rowen, 2016; Ye, Zhang, Shen, & Goh, 2014). For instance, Mainland Chinese tourists are frequently accused of violating Hong Kong culture and of creating multitudinous social problems. Moreover, Mainland Chinese tourists have reportedly received discriminatory and unfair treatment from Hong Kong residents.

The increasing disputes between Hong Kong residents and Mainland Chinese tourists have prompted the need to examine host–guest relationship in the tourism literature and its influence (Siu, Lee, & Leung, 2013; Wassler, Schuckert, Hung, & Petrick, 2018). This phenomenon has also extended to resident perceptions of Mainland Chinese tourists (Chen et al., 2018; Prendergast, Lam, & Ki, 2016; Shen, Luo, & Zhao, 2017; Wen & Liao, 2009). Previous studies have enhanced the knowledge on host–guest relationship in the literature and have provided insights for tourism officials. However, despite using multiple approaches, prior research has focused on measuring the explicit perceptions of Hong Kong residents. Ranging from interviews to numerical scale ratings, these approaches have allowed respondents to access evaluations towards Mainland Chinese tourists; this situation may have encouraged the

manipulation of results on the basis of the presentation of self-effect or an erroneous tendency towards social desirability. As such, the results may not reflect the underlying evaluations of Hong Kong residents and thus provide an incomplete analysis. The examination of the implicit evaluations of the Hong Kong residents can potentially aid Hong Kong tourism officials in formulating coping strategies for improved host–guest relationship.

1.4.3 Malaysians, Singaporeans, and Thais

The conflicts between residents and Mainland Chinese tourists are not confined to Hong Kong. Such incidents have also occurred in other destinations. More recently, the incidence of such disputes in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries, especially in Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand, has increased. Mainland Chinese tourists dominate in these countries as the largest source of international tourist arrivals. Although they contribute economically to the ASEAN region, Mainland Chinese tourists have brought concerns to the host communities as their figures continued to rise (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2017; ASEANBUSINESS STAFF, 2019a; 2019b). Disputes, such as verbal abuse between residents and Mainland Chinese tourists in public areas and Mainland Chinese tourists violating social norms and disrespecting the sensitivities of places, have occurred. Such occurrences may have led to the formation of a negative image of Mainland Chinese tourists, which may in turn have undermined host–guest relationship (Gong et al., 2019; Piuchan, Chan, & Kaale, 2018; Ye, Zhang, & Yuen, 2012). As such, an investigation of the three destinations may potentially assist tourism officials in understanding resident attitudes that have the most effect on strategies.

Furthermore, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand are the first three foreign countries that were stamped with the approved destination status (ADS) after Hong Kong and Macau. ADS was introduced by the Chinese National Tourism Administration as a bilateral tourism agreement between China and selected destinations; it enables Chinese citizens to travel in

organised tour groups with approved travel agencies in China on visitor visas within that destination (Arita, Edmonds, Croix, & Mak, 2011). Thailand was approved in 1998, whereas Malaysia and Singapore were approved in 1990 (China Consular Affairs, 2020). These destinations are located farther than Hong Kong. Thus, the number of Mainland Chinese tourists visiting them can be less intense and may produce different results from Hong Kong residents. Furthermore, the three destinations are considered references for ASEAN countries when implementing their respective national tourism strategies. Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand host nearly two-thirds of the Mainland Chinese tourists in the ASEAN region, and the figure is predicted to grow as a result of the accessibility and progressive visa relaxations (Yan, 2018; Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2017). With a predicted 45%–166% growth in Mainland Chinese tourists visiting ASEAN countries (China Tourism Academy, 2016), an investigation of resident attitudes towards Mainland Chinese tourists may provide potential insights for tourism officials in Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. Such an investigation will allow them to review their respective tourism marketing strategies whilst preparing other ASEAN countries for hosting such a large influx from a single tourism source market.

1.5 Summary of Chapter 1 - Introduction

This chapter is the introductory section of the research project. It has provided the research background of the study by exploring residents' attitudes and their components—cognitive, affective and behavioural. Next, the problem statement has been presented, forming the research questions and objectives of the research project. The overall goal of this research project is to investigate the interrelationships among the three components of residents' attitudes towards tourists [i.e. cognitive (tourist stereotypes), affective (emotional reactions) and behavioural (behavioural responses)]. The research context of this thesis has also been

discussed, where the examined target is Mainland Chinese tourists, an influential tourist market, whereas the residents are the Hong Kong people, Malaysians, Singaporeans and Thais.

In Chapter 2 (Literature Review), the components of residents' attitudes towards tourists, namely, intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours, will be mapped. On the basis of a systematic review of the existing literature, the definitions and concepts of the three components, how these components are examined in the existing tourism literature and the interrelationships of these components in shaping the residents' attitudes will be reviewed.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter serves as the literature review of the thesis and is separated into two sections. Firstly, the cognitive, affective and behavioural concepts with respect to intergroup studies are introduced. Specifically, the intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours are discussed. The definition and approach in measuring these constructs are also presented.

The second section discusses the interrelationships among the three key constructs of the intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. The direct relationships between intergroup stereotypes and emotions, intergroup stereotypes and behaviours and intergroup emotions and behaviours are presented. Furthermore, the mediating effects of intergroup emotions on the relationship between intergroup stereotypes and behaviours are discussed.

2.1 Stereotypes and Tourism Impacts

Tourism serves as a stage where different social groups meet, greet and interact simultaneously, especially between the two major groups: local residents and tourists. Their relationships, the host-guest relations, are formulated based on the quality of the interaction exchanges in their encounters within the destinations. Although there are many approaches to investigate this relationship, majority of the tourism studies preferred to focus on the tourism impacts perceived by the local residents. Early studies indicated that tourist and tourism are regarded as economic drivers where the host-guest relation are economic oriented that is based on the amount of tourism receipts received and the number of job created (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Husband, 1989; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990). This approach economized tourism impacts into objective of consumption versus generator of employment for the hosting destinations yet it posts the problem of overestimating economic impacts while underestimating social impacts (Husband, 1989).

Subsequent tourism impacts studies revealed the recognition and differentiation of social impacts perceived by the residents from economic contributions (King, Pizam, & Milman, 1999; Milman & Pizam, 1998). It is shown that negative tourism impacts were perceived and identified by the residents, however these negativity does not reduce their supports for future tourism development (King, Pizam, & Milman, 1999). While it is suggested that government should admit the negativity of tourism, most strategies were implemented to create social alienation between residents and tourists (Tosun, 2002). By doing so, the government may exclude residents from tourism planning and development that stimulated residents' negativity towards the tourists, such as forming tourist stereotypes. The investigation of stereotype reflects the social tourism impacts, in terms of costs and benefits, perceived by residents that affect the development of host-guest relation towards a sustainable tourism development.

2.2 Intergroup Stereotypes

2.2.1 Definition of Intergroup Stereotypes

Intergroup stereotypes refer to the stereotypes(s) held by a member of one social group towards a member(s) of another. The term 'stereotypes' was first introduced in the trade vocabulary of printing and typography to describe the duplicate printing plate for replication (Pickering, 2001). This analogy remained unchanged until 1922 when Walter Lippmann coined this term in the modern psychology field. Although no clear definition of the term 'stereotypes' (Hamilton, 1981) was provided, the first chapter of his book, *Public Opinion*, entitled 'The World Outside and the Picture in our Head' is perceived as such (Jones, 1992). The chapter is about the discrepancies between perceived images and the reality. The author further explained that given the complexity of the outside world, people almost always define before they observe, which is highly correlated with our cultures (Lippmann, 1922, p.81). On the basis of

Lippmann's notion, stereotypes depend on the cultural values communicated and shared via various sources (Fiske et al., 2002; Jones, 1997; Tajfel, 1981; Triandis, 1994). Since then, different forms of definitions have been presented by many theorists and researchers across the fields (Sills, 1968).

The existing definitions consist of a mixture of adjectives and nouns to enhance the overall understanding of stereotypes whilst providing additional meanings. Social psychology scholars generally agree that stereotypes serve as individuals' cognitive function of information processing (Ashmore, Del Boca, & Hamilton; 1981; Taylor, Peplau, & Sears, 1994), focusing on the members among social groups (Hunter, Stringer, & Watson, 1991; Lindgre, 1994). Pieces of information are formulated based on the attributes, characteristics and conducts of individuals based on personal interactions and unsubstantiated gossips from ingroup members or media reports that may be true, false or even mixed (Brigham, 1971), which are then homogenised across all individuals within the same category (Pickering, 2001). In most cases, information is spread with exaggeration, resulting in an inaccurate and insufficient image of individuals and the category they belong (Brigham, 1971). Furthermore, stereotypes are associated with discriminatory values (good or bad) and destroy the actual image of individuals (Brigham, 1971; Pickering, 2001), that is, a process of de-individualisation. The classic view of stereotypes is rigid and cannot be changed easily (Lippman, 1922; Pickering, 2001). However, some scholars have refuted and suggested that stereotypes can be changed on the basis of the conditions of intergroup relationship (Haslam, Turner, Oakes, McGarty, & Hayes, 1992; Meenes, 1943) or social values (McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, 2002). Positive stereotypes increase with improved relations and prosocial values, whereas negative stereotypes inflate with degraded relations and anti-social values.

On the basis of various definitions of stereotypes, this study defines it as

'The cognitive device constructing discriminatory images of an outgroup that are shared amongst members of an ingroup. These images result from information that insufficiently and inaccurately represents exaggerated beliefs about all members belonging to the same outgroup. They serve as categorical tools that differentiate the difference between outgroup and ingroup members. These images are associated with the dynamics of intergroup relations and social values'.

Similar to previous definitions, this definition does not connote any polarities of stereotypes (positive or negative). However, in most cases, people perceive stereotypes as negative or bad characteristics about the members of a social group to preserve their positivity. The definition is not only focused on the affection of stereotypes but also addresses the issue of generalisation of a social group. Given the existence of self-favouritism, more negative stereotypes exist than positive stereotypes when evaluating members of an outgroup (Tajfel, 1981). However, recent psychology studies show that stereotype contents can also be positive. For example, Asian Americans are regarded as having higher intelligence than the other Americans (Clow & Ricciardelli, 2011). Although such stereotypes serve as compliments (Mae & Carlston, 2005), the consequences can be negative. Envious prejudices (Rast III, Gaffney, & Yang, 2018), feelings of being threatened (Czopp, Kay, & Cheryan, 2015; Kim & Markus, 1999) and downplay of resources and assistance (Chao, Chiu, & Lee, 2010; Sue 1994) can be formed.

Although stereotyping is coined as a bad concept, it has been a widespread phenomenon across human societies. Where people are present, stereotypes exist. Stereotypes target a particular social group rather than an individual—the process of de-individualisation. Social

groups are not limited to ethnic differences, but span differences in religious beliefs, socioeconomic status, theological stands, biological attributes and intelligence. One of the common explanations for the reliance on stereotypes is that it is an energy saving device (McGarty et al., 2002) that allows individuals to judge surroundings without additional time and mental effort. Labelling individuals as members of a particular social group reduces one's cost to examine all information that are related to each individual. The complexity of the society between each social group urges individuals to take shortcuts and adopt erroneous perceptions of people and the world (McGarty et al., 2002). Thus, stereotypes facilitate the information processes of people. However, stereotypes do not help understand people; instead, they contribute to misunderstanding and misconception due to the incompleteness of information. If external information sources, such as news or personal experiences, correspond to outgroup information, stereotypes are reconfirmed for future evaluations. On the contrary, if the external information counterplead the prejudged evaluations, individuals either consider it as an exception and dispose contradictions or sometimes modify the pre-constructed image (Lippmann, 1922) with additional information search.

2.2.2 Tourist Stereotypes as National Stereotypes

Stereotypes can be found in all types of social group, such as age, gender and religions (Bennett, 1998; Schneider, 2004), of which national stereotypes are the most relevant in understanding tourist stereotypes. Stereotypes signify the cognitive association of attributes to any societal groups by an individual (Fiske & Taylor, 1991), whereas national stereotypes are regarded as characteristics (right or wrong) that are associated with individuals from a particular nation (Schneider, 2004; Terracciano et al., 2005). These national characteristics serve as the psychological and cultural characteristics of the citizens within that nation to create, identify and distinguish their identity from others. These characteristics are shaped by the

cultural values shared amongst that nationality. This term was initially adopted as part of the political ideology and nationalism; in the recent years, due to the rapid growth of international tourism, national stereotypes or national characteristics have been incorporated to tourism research, such as tourism marketing, to understand tourist behaviours (Crotts & Pizam, 2003; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995; Wong & Lau, 2001).

Within the extensive significant tourism literature on national characteristics, the geographic origin of tourists has been highly employed to understand the preferences (Richardson & Crompton, 1988; Woodside & Lawrence 1985) and behaviours of tourists (Kozak, 2002; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995). Several host–guest studies have indicated that nationality serves as a segregator that allows residents to differentiate different groups of inbound tourists based on their behaviours (Bommer, Gratto, Gravander, & Tuttle, 1987; Brewer, 1978; Pizam & Reichel, 1996; Sun & Budruk, 2017). For example, in a previous study, Japanese tourists are recognised as travelling in groups, like to take photographs and are usually willing to spend money (Cho, 1991); whereas South Korean tourists are pictured as patriots who refuse to accept anything that has little in common with the Korean way of living yet travel in groups, similar to the Japanese (Pizam & Jeong, 1996). Although many tourism studies have used social distance, Nyaupane, Teye, and Paris (2008) used nationalities to represent social distance, which has a significant influence in understanding tourist evaluations and their subsequent behaviours. Moreover, Thyne, Lawson, and Todd (2006) adopted a similar approach to investigating New Zealand residents' preference based on the different nationalities of tourists.

In addition to differentiating tourists by national characteristics, national stereotypes may have significant influences on resident evaluations towards the target. Although the examination of this relationship is not examined in human–human interactions, it has been

examined in the context of product evaluations and performance based on the country of origin. Schooler (1965) was the first to analyse the degree of association between the country of origin and consumer purchasing behaviours. Products manufactured from countries with positive images are evaluated more positively and higher purchase intentions are recorded in comparison with those evaluated with negative images (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1999; Nervik, Nesset, Helgesen, & Aure, 2018; Paul & Dasgupta, 2010; Roth & Romeo, 1992). Similarly, Maheswaran (1994) suggested that the country of origin influences the judgment on products due to the stereotyping effect in evaluative processes. For instance, the 'halo' effect might manifest, especially if the product is new or unfamiliar to the consumer. A nation's image serves as a 'halo', which influences the polarity of consumers' perceptions and hence affects their purchasing behaviours. Alternatively, when a consumer is familiar with the product, the nation's image may act as a stimulant that summarises the perceived product attributes (Cakici & Shukla, 2017; Han, 1989; Hong & Wyer, 1989). Using the concepts developed from the field of business and political science, the present work argues that tourist stereotypes follow a similar trend where nationality may influence how people judge and interact with tourists. In addition to the evidence in the literature of how a country of origin influences people's behaviours, people practice such acts in their daily life. For instance, people ask, 'Where are you from?'—a question that is commonly asked by a resident to a tourist. Although this question has a different meaning under a different context, it can contain a subtext of curiosity about the background of that person. Once an answer is obtained, the images associated with that country or nationality will be elicited and may influence residents' behaviours acting towards that individual. Although this question was not asked, people can guess the nationality based on cultural cues, such as the language they used to communicate or even their appearance. Therefore, this study aims to understand the stereotypical attributes, emotional reactions and behavioural responses associated with the nationality of the tourist.

2.2.3 The Content of Intergroup Stereotypes

Stereotype contents refer to the attributes used to categorise or label members of other social groups. In the past, on the basis of Lippmann's definition of stereotypes, scholars have that stereotyping is often regarded in a one-dimensional perception of the negative attitude of antipathy (Allport, 1954; Katz & Braly, 1933; Lippmann, 1922). The classic study conducted by Katz and Braly (1933) highlighted the negative stereotypes evaluated by 100 college students. The authors reported that time has a reduction effect on stereotypes, but they failed to discover the stereotype dimensions. Nevertheless, the study serves as one of the few documents with comparable measures across various social groups. However, the concept of univalent stereotypes was challenged by Asch's (1946) study on personal perceptions. By using a controlled experimental situation, Asch assigned two sets of traits list that describes an imaginary person, in which the respondents compared two persons with similar sets of competence, except for the differences in warm and cold. The author noticed that a positive impression was formed in accordance with the 'warm' group. The study concluded that the dimension of warm and cold is fundamental and essential in affecting the impression formation of a person.

Asch's research has since then been widely adopted for further investigation on human perception. Two decades later, Rosenberg, Nelson, and Vivekananthan (1968) confirmed Asch's concept using a multidimensional scaling of trait descriptions. The authors used 64 traits and constructed a two-dimensional configuration of 'good–bad' and 'hard–soft'. Moreover, these dimensions are nearly orthogonal to each other with a degree of 83°. Their findings are in conformity with Hays' (1958) investigation, in which two dimensions were achieved with eight selected traits. Although the author did not name them, he reported that one of them ranged from 'stupid' to 'intelligent', whereas the other is from 'cold' to 'warm'.

Rosenberg et al. (1968) named the dimensions ‘social’ (good–bad) and ‘intellectual’ (hard–soft), which denote the impression formed along the social and task dimensions, to evaluate and interpret of the dimensions rather than based only on their connotative properties. Since then, these dimensions have undergone a series of naming processes. For example, Peeters (1983, 1992, 1995) named the dimensions ‘self-profitability’ and ‘other-profitability’ in substitution to competence and warmth. Wojciszke, Bazinska, and Jaworski (1998) termed the warmth dimension as ‘morality’, which includes fair, generous, good-natured, helpful, honest, righteous, sincere, tolerant, truthful and understanding. However, these newly added attributes overlapped with the warmth dimensions that have been examined in other studies. Despite the variation of the label attached, two dimensions, competence and warmth, have been applied in classic and contemporary studies of intergroup stereotyping.

On the basis of the study of Rosenberg et al. (1968), a two-dimensional framework of the warmth–competence matrix was proposed by Fiske et al. (2002). A 2 × 2 framework was established, which created multiple categorisations of the outgroups, instead of the univalent antipathy evaluation that was proposed by Allport (1954). This two-dimensional framework was termed as the stereotype content model (SCM) and has been tested across different cultural contexts and social groups. The warmth dimension argues that people will perceive another person as friends or foe. When individuals evaluate along this dimension, the level of competitiveness is considered (Fiske, 2005). In other words, the degree of perceived warmth is based upon the perception of the target as a competitor or ally, safe for interaction or posting potential threats, to individuals; the higher the perceived rivalry or threat posted is, the lower the level of warmth perceived will be. Traits, such as being trustworthy, tolerant, friendly, kindness, sincere and good-natured (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2008; Fiske et al., 2002), are included in this dimension.

Competence is another dimension of the SCM, which revolves around the question of the ability of the target. Although warmth determines whether a person is good or bad, competence examines the degree of the warmth. It is the examination of the level of abilities of the outgroup and is connected to the status and power the outgroup holds with respect to the ingroup. The higher the status or power an outgroup attains, the higher the abilities they will have and the more positive perceived competence will be given. The competence dimension accommodates characteristics, such as capability, efficiency, skilfulness, intelligence, efficacy and confidence (Cuddy, Fiske, & Cuddy, 2008; Fiske et al., 2002). The status or power can be referred to a wide range of states, such as socioeconomic and political, in which competition exists in achieving one's goal.

On the basis of the 2 × 2 structure, Fiske et al. (2002) reported that four quadrants are created from the crossing of the warmth and competence dimensions. The authors reported that in addition to a positive relationship between dimensions, a negative relationship may also exist. They also argued that most social groups are placed into mixed stereotyped categories (low warmth and high competence or low competence and high warmth) rather than the extreme monovalent stereotypical categories (low warmth and low competence or high warmth and high competence) to protect their social status and maintain the status quo (Fiske et al., 2002). They concluded that the respective affective attachments and behaviours will be elicited based on the four quadrants.

2.2.3.1 Intergroup Stereotype Content Studies in Tourism

Given the daily interactions between residents and tourists (Liu & Tung, 2017; McNaughton, 2006), examination of stereotypes in tourism studies has been increasing. Specifically, the tourism literature has examined the contents of tourist stereotypes. Previous studies have explored the stereotype contents in various contexts, such as stereotypes of

Egyptians (Milman, Reichel, & Pizam, 1990) and Jordanians (Pizam, Fleischer, & Mansfeld, 2002) held by the Israeli residents, Brazilians by Japanese residents (Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015), Europeans by Maltese residents (Boissevain & Inglott, 1979), Asian tourist stereotypes by Dutch residents (Moufakkir, 2011) and English tourists by Catalans (Pi-Sunyer, 1977).

In the recent decades, numerous studies have focused on the stereotype contents of Mainland Chinese due to their increasing importance in the tourist market and the growing news reports between them and the host residents. For instance, Mainland Chinese tourists were associated with negative attributes, such as impolite, outdated, rude, ill-behaved and low-educated, by the Hong Kong residents (Yeung & Leung, 2007). These were based on the observations seen by the Hong Kong residents that Mainland Chinese tourists were speaking loudly, ignoring environmental protection and being disorderly, money-oriented and impolite. In the study of Wen and Liao (2009), they found that being impolite and unruly were highly perceived by Hong Kong residents. With the increasing social tensions, with host residents arguing that Mainland Chinese tourists are exploiting public resources and the interference in their daily life (Ye, Qiu, & Yuen, 2011), these negative stereotypical attributes continue to dominate the image of Mainland Chinese tourists (Prendergast, Lam, & Ki, 2016; Shen et al., 2017). Although the majority of the existing literature indicated the dominance of negative stereotypical attributes, recent tourism literature has indicated that the positive stereotypical attributes of Mainland Chinese tourists are reported by residents. For example, three items of positive stereotype contents, namely being polite, outgoing and friendly, are identified amongst Hong Kong residents (Chen et al., 2018). These studies contribute to the knowledge on tourist stereotype in the tourism field, however they have adopted a descriptive nature.

A comprehensive model of tourist stereotypes was recently developed by Tung at el. (2020) by integrating the SCM and the Princeton trilogy. The measurement model was

constructed with the perspective of intergroup stereotypes from psychology and sociology studies and the addition of tourism knowledge in the host–guest relationship. The stereotype contents were initiated with a list of positive and negative stereotypical attributes identified in the previous literature, with and beyond the tourism context. An exploratory study was conducted with Hong Kong residents to identify missing attributes in the academic literature. Eventually, four dimensions, two positive (i.e. approachable and competence) and two negative (i.e. boastful and rude) stereotypes of 12 tourist stereotypes were identified. Approachable dimension refers to the ability to gain contact with Mainland Chinese tourists, which include 'friendly', 'good' and 'sincere'. Competence dimension refers to the ability of Mainland Chinese tourists, including 'industrious', 'competent' and 'intelligent'. Boastful dimension refers to the self-satisfaction and expression of pride of Mainland Chinese tourists, including 'materialistic' and 'loud'. Rude dimension refers to the inappropriate manners of Mainland Chinese tourists that residents have encountered, including 'immoral', 'rude', 'uncivilised' and 'unreasonable'. Findings have shown that the dimension of approachable and competence reflect the warmth and competence dimensions of the SCM. Thus, the stereotypical attributes in the two dimensions serve as the fundamental items of intergroup stereotypes. The other two dimensions, boastful and rude, are newly identified dimensions where the stereotypical attributes are unrecognisable in previous studies. As such, the two dimensions reflect the intergroup stereotypes within the tourism contexts. This measurement model has provided a comprehensive understanding of the tourist stereotypes, that is, Mainland Chinese tourists through the integration of psychology, sociology and tourism knowledge.

Existing studies within and beyond the tourism field have contributed to the understanding of intergroup stereotypical contents among social groups. However, these contents are identified and/or examined using either face-to-face interviews or Likert scale ratings of the stereotypical attributes. The adoption of such approaches allows researchers to

capture only one of the dichotomous systems of stereotypes instead of the full systems. On the basis of previous psychology studies, two forms of stereotypes, explicit and implicit, should be retrieved using different methods that could not compensate one another in examining the dual systems of stereotypes.

2.2.4 The Dichotomous System of Stereotypes

Over the decades, stereotyping has been argued as a process of categorisation that affects individuals' perception, evaluation and subsequent emotions and behaviours (Allport, 1954; Tajfel, 1969). Previous social cognition studies have emphasised the dichotomy activation between the intended and unintended information processing (Logan, 1989) of cognitive processes. The dichotomy has been labelled differently, such as uncontrolled versus controlled measurements (Devine, 1989), unconscious versus conscious stimuli (Kihlstrom & Pervin, 1990) and mindful versus mindless approaches (Langer, 1989). These dichotomy activation results in two major distinctions of stereotypes, namely, explicit and implicit stereotypes. Explicit stereotypes are activated in accordance with the active stimuli and conscious awareness where individuals report such beliefs when they are asked about the difference among social groups (Dovidio, Kawakami, & Beach, 2008). Conversely, implicit stereotypes are activated unconsciously and indirectly; thus, individuals may be unaware of the existence of these perceptions (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). Despite the different activation, both explicit and implicit stereotypes represent one's cognitive assessment of a target or an objective based on the different activation or stimuli. As explicit and implicit are activated differently, they should be measured separately using its corresponding stimuli. Studying explicit and implicit stereotypes is important to enhance the understanding of the overall formation of stereotypes and realize the development of associated emotions and behaviours.

Therefore, the present work aims to examine both types of stereotypes towards Mainland Chinese tourists.

2.2.4.1 Explicit Stereotypes

An explicit stereotype is the result of a conscious and controlled evaluation towards outgroup members. Individuals are aware of their stereotypical contents, attitudes and beliefs when they are asked; such awareness may facilitate the manipulation of their responses based on the presence of opportunities (e.g. time allowances) and their motivations. Although many studies support the warmth–competence framework of the SCM (Cuddy, Fiske, & Cuddy, 2007; Cuddy et al., 2008; Fiske et al., 2002), nearly all of them used the same methodology of asking respondents to evaluate their stereotypical contents explicitly, which is conducted through the adoption of Likert scale rating of attributes. However, many studies have indicated the problems of using a scale to evaluate one's cognition due to the presence of self-presentational effects and skewing towards social desirability (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995; Fazio & Olson, 2003; Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013). Such problems are caused by the respondents being mindful of their decision-making processes and are cautious when they are answering questions. Therefore, the respondents may not express their true intentions or evaluations due to social pressure or the desire to establish a common identity with the majority. For example, respondents may report negative stereotypes of Mainland Chinese tourists even though they do not agree with it to show the commonalities with their ingroup's perceptions. This problem has raised the issue of the credibility of previous findings that have been using Likert scale measurement to measure respondents' perceptions.

Many studies have indicated that a mixed stereotype is recorded among social groups. However, given their methodological approach of using Likert scales for rating, their findings may not present actual evaluation. Respondents may overstate or under-evaluate the target to

minimise their discrimination. For instance, women may be evaluated as high in warmth to compensate for the low rating in competence. Previous social cognition studies have identified that numerous social phenomena are unconscious or automatic in nature (Bargh, Chen, & Burrows, 1996), especially on sensitive issues, such as stereotyping. A social group may be stereotyped without the consciousness, awareness and intentions of individuals (Bargh, 1989). Hence, measuring the explicit and implicit views in social cognition research is crucial.

2.2.4.2 Implicit Stereotypes

An implicit stereotype refers to the unconscious beliefs that individuals hold towards members of outgroups (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). Different from explicit stereotypes, implicit stereotypes operate without conscious and controlled intentions (Devine, 1989; Kihlstrom, 1990). The concept of implicit stereotypes is based on two key theoretical understandings, that is, the associative network in semantic memories and automatic processing.

Semantic memories assume that items are linked with one another in terms of their associative network, where related items may post stronger links than unrelated items (Collins & Loftus, 1975). These memories are long-term general knowledge of ideas and concepts that is distinct from the accumulation of past experiences (Tulving, 2002). For example, 'tourists' are more closely associated with 'guides' than to dissociate items, such as 'flowers' or 'newspapers'. A local network is formed when related concepts are clustered together (Payne & Cameron, 2013), such as tourists, guides, airlines, hotels and attractions. The activation of one concept leads to the connection to other concepts within the same local network, and the degree of association amongst concepts can be measured by individuals' reaction time. Reaction time is shorter when the concepts are highly connected (Neely, 1977).

The association of one concept to another is regarded as automatic (Shiffrin & Schneider, 1977a, 1977b). The information is acquired from individual general knowledge

connected with the subjects; however, they can influence without individuals' consciousness (Cunningham, Preacher, & Banaji, 2001). This processing occurs outside one's attention, which does not require motivations and the presence of time and can occur rapidly in parallel processing (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995; Hinton, 2017). In terms of stereotyping, the rate of automatic association may depend on the frequency of exposure and the extent of biased associations with the target; the higher the exposure and strength of subjective linkages is, the easier it will be for individuals to activate stereotypes (Devine, 1989; Lepore & Brown, 1997). Once this association is learned, it is extremely difficult to unlearn.

Implicit stereotypes are individuals' unconscious beliefs; thus, they should be measured using an indirect approach (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995; Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998). A number of approaches can capture implicit stereotypes, such as affective priming task (Fazio, Sanbonmatsu, Powell, & Kardes, 1986), the Go/No Go association task (Nosek & Banaji, 2001), the Sorting Paired Featured task (Bar-Anan, Bosek, & Vianello, 2009) and the Implicit Association Test (IAT; Carpenter et al., 2018; Fazio & Olson, 2003). Particularly, the IAT is the most prominent method for examination. It is a computerised programme where individuals should quickly classify stimuli (e.g. stereotypes) into categories.

2.2.4.2.1 Implicit Association Test (IAT)

Echoing Greenwald and Banaji's (1995) call for the inclusion of indirect measures in examining implicit social cognition posted by each individual, Greenwald et al. (1998) developed the IAT. Similar to most cognitive priming approaches, the IAT reflects the strength of the automatic associations of concepts held by individuals. The IAT is a double discrimination measurement that aims to evaluate the association between the targets and attribute dimensions. It requires the respondents to pair the target with attributes quickly, and the recorded time is the reflection of the respondents' attitude, which may not be disclosed by

individuals. Moreover, the use of IAT helps minimise the problem of social desirability bias that arises from Likert scale questions.

In the present work, the respondents have to complete seven blocks of IAT. The first block introduces the target dimension, the second block presents the attribute dimension; the target and attributes work in a two-category discrimination. The respondents are asked to press one of the two assigned keys when the target and/or attribute is displayed on the computer screen. After the recognition, the third and fourth blocks examine the target–attribute associations. The third block serves as a practice for the respondent, whereas the fourth block is the actual test. The fifth, sixth and seventh blocks repeat the second, third and fourth block, respectively, with the switch of the attributes to the targets. The attributes are alternated in the third (fourth) and sixth (seventh) blocks; thus, discrepancies should be detected in forming the target–attribute association. The discrepancies are reflected in the reaction time of each respondent in pressing the assigned key. Reaction times reflect the duration required to pair a target with certain attributes and the time needed to switch back (Greenwald at al., 1998). The shorter the time needed to press the keys is, the stronger the target–attribute association will be. Exact details of the IAT will be discussed in Chapter 4 (Methodology).

Table 2.1 – Example of IAT Procedures

Block	Task Description	Assigned to "E" key	Assigned to "I" key
1	Target Congruent Practice	Target A	Target B
2	Attribute Congruent Practice	Positive Content	Negative Content
3	Congruent Practice	Target A or Positive Content	Target B or Negative Content
4	Congruent Test	Same as Block 3	
5	Attribute Incongruent Practice	Negative Content	Positive Content
6	Incongruent Practice	Target A or Negative Content	Target B or Positive Content
7	Incongruent Test	Same as Block 6	

The IAT has been used in various studies, such as gender preferences (Koranyi, Grigutsch, Algermissen, & Rothermound, 2017), political attitudes (Ryan, 2017), consumer preferences (Maison, Greenwald, & Bruin, 2004), as well as in the area of intergroup conflicts (Greenwald et al., 1998; see Greenwald, Poehlman, Uhlmann, & Banaji, 2009 for an overview). Greenwald et al. (2009) reported that IAT predicts subsequential behaviours towards the intergroup. For example, if the IAT concludes a negative network association, then negative actions will be performed by the individuals towards the target. Given its popularity and credibility, the IAT has been inspected in various studies with continuous improvements made simultaneously. For example, a new scoring algorithm was introduced by Greenwald, Nosek, and Banaji (2003) with respect to the concern of confounding effect in IAT. This issue was raised by McFarland and Crouch (2002), that is, an artificially strong association between the target and attributes can be achieved by a long reaction time, which affects the calculated scores. The new scoring algorithm of using the *D* measure has proven its resistance to the contamination from response speed differences, similarity with the IAT, and sensitivity to the notion of the IAT. Furthermore, the attempts to fake IAT scores is found to be difficult and impossible because this requires special skills and is identifiable by statistical analysis. Given its high validity, reliability and strong effect size, the IAT is used in the present work to measure the implicit tourist stereotype contents from the residents' perspective.

2.2.4.2.2 Implicit Association Test (IAT) Studies in Tourism

The use of the IAT has been increasing in the tourism field; this psychological approach to access individuals' cognition has been commonly used in examining individuals' implicit cognitive processes towards destination images (Chen, Lai, Petrick & Lin, 2016; Choi, Liu & Kim, 2015; Kim & Chen, 2010; Kim, Chen, & Hwang, 2011; Yang, He, & Gu, 2012) and in restaurant brands (Lee & Kim, 2013). Scholars have argued the incomplete and inaccurate

conclusion of over or underrated evaluations on individuals' cognitive processes based on the traditional approach of self-reporting questionnaire (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). Previous studies have found no significant difference in explicit stereotypes measured between the examined targets, but a significant preference on one over the other was noted. In other words, findings indicate the discrepancies between explicit and implicit cognitive processes, which also imply the impossibility of using one measurement for the other.

Given the success in using the IAT and the overreliance on explicit measurement in examining intergroup relationships in the tourism field, this study uses the IAT to measure the implicit stereotypes of residents towards Mainland Chinese tourists. Given the lack of attention in implicit cognitive processes between residents and tourists, this study will be the pioneer in measuring residents' tourist stereotypes using the IAT. The IAT approach is adopted to achieve the first two objectives of this study, that is, (1) to identify the explicit and implicit stereotypes of residents towards Mainland Chinese tourists and (2) to examine the relationship between explicit and implicit stereotypes of residents towards tourists. The result will uncover the tourist stereotypes of Mainland Chinese tourists implicitly and the difference, if any, compared with the measured explicit stereotypes. The full details of the IAT development and implicit stereotype calculation will be discussed in Chapter 4 (Methodology).

2.3 Intergroup Emotions

2.3.1 Definition of Intergroup Emotions

Intergroup emotions refer to the positive or negative reactions that individual's experience, either pleasant or unpleasant, at any point in time. They are a reactive feeling associated with a person, event or object and are frequently elicited by cognitive evaluation (Wyer Jr, Clore, & Isbell, 1999). Previous studies have identified intergroup emotions as a group-based phenomenon (Mackie, Devos, & Smith, 2000) associated with the social identity

that individuals attached themselves, which then becomes a section of the psychological self-containing an emotional significance. In other words, intergroup emotions are a social emotion driven by the identification of social groups and react emotionally to members of other social groups. Furthermore, intergroup emotions are assumed to be influenced by the existence of stereotypes (Smith, 1993). The cognitive analysis of the other social group forms the intergroup stereotypes, and these stereotypical attributes will determine the reactive emotion that individuals have towards the other social groups. Thus, positive stereotypical attributes will lead to positive emotional reactions while reducing the negative emotional reaction for the negative stereotypical attributes.

2.3.2 Intergroup Emotions Attributes from Stereotypes Content Model (SCM)

The Stereotype Content Model (SCM) extends from intergroup stereotype analysis to intergroup emotion categorisation. On the basis of the rating of high versus low on the warmth and competence dimensions, four intergroup emotions are identified, namely, admiration, contempt, pity and envy (Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2002; Fiske, et al., 2002). Admiration is a univalent upward assimilative feeling when the target that is stereotyped with high warmth and competence (Smith, 2000), which are positive stereotypes. Admiration is about attaining positive outcomes by others, but will not diminish the ingroup or self (Tesser & Collins, 1988). Normally, the societal dominating reference group is classified in this quadrant and is considered the ideal individual within the society. Admiration includes four reactive emotions, namely, 'respect', 'admiration', 'pride' and 'inspiration'. If admiration is considered the extremely positive intergroup emotion, its opposite is contempt. Contempt is a univalent downward contrastive emotion when the target is categorised into low in warmth and competence (Smith, 2000), which are negative stereotypes. The targets are subject to the greatest amount of condemnation because they place themselves into the current situation and

should be responsible for it (Weiner, 2005); this situation is about the loss of control of the target. In previous sociology studies, drug addicts, welfare recipients and homeless people are some social groups that fall into this category. They are disliked and disrespected. Contempt consists of four reactive emotional items, namely, 'contempt', 'disgust', 'hate' and 'resentment'.

The other two intergroup emotions are envy and pity, which are regarded as ambivalent emotions. Different from admiration and contempt, envy and pity are elicited on the basis of compensatory relationship of stereotype formation (Fiske, 2015). The higher rating on one dimension is compensated by the lower rating on the other dimension. In other words, the two emotions are the result of comprising positive and negative stereotypes, such as high warmth but low competence or high competence but low warmth. High warmth and low competence elicit a upward assimilative intergroup emotion of pity. This emotion comprises sadness and compassion, which individuals feel towards the examined target because they perceive the target to be beyond the control of negative outcomes (Weiner, 2005); this situation differs from the low warmth and competence group (within the individuals' control). Nevertheless, in some cases, the target is disrespected, too. Pity includes two emotional reactions, namely, 'pity' and 'sympathy'. Conversely, another intergroup emotion is envy, resulted from high competence but low warmth. Envy is a downward contrastive intergroup emotion among social groups. This emotion recognises the superiority status of the examined target, but with the feeling of injustice held by the individual (Smith, Parrott, Ozer, & Moniz, 1994). Previous intergroup researchers indicate that Americans often hold Asian-Americans and Jewish with this reactive emotion (Lin, Kwan, Cheung, & Fiske, 2005). Envy comprises two reactive emotional items, namely 'envy' and 'jealousy'.

2.3.3 Studies of Intergroup Emotions in Tourism

The emotion between residents and tourists has received considerable attention in the tourism field through the examination of how one feels towards the other. Particularly, researchers have adopted the Emotional Solidarity Scale (ESS) to measure and examine resident–tourist emotions. ESS refers to individuals' emotional attachment with their group, building the sense of 'togetherness', from sharing common values (Jacob & Allen, 2005; Wallace & Wolf, 2006). Durkheim (1995 [1915]) regarded religion as an example in developing common values and integrating individuals within a religious group. Hammarstrom (2005) conceptualised emotional solidarity as an emotional bonding between individuals who are determined by the frequency of contacts and emotional closeness. Despite numerous criticisms and debates about the applicability and generalisability of ESS in the previous decades, given that the scale was developed using aboriginal tribes, it is still adopted and applied in various contexts to examine the emotional affection of individuals (Fish, 2002). ESS was introduced in tourism studies to examine the emotional solidarity of residents with respect to tourism development and tourists (Woosnam, Norman, & Ying, 2009).

Woosnam and Norman (2010) stated that tourism is similar to religion because 'residents share beliefs and behaviours and interact with tourist, an emotional solidarity will be forged with such tourists'. Tourism is often viewed from a system perspective, similar to religions (Blank, 1989; Gunn & Var, 2002). Hence, Woosnam, Norman, and Ying (2009) argued the applicability to use ESS in tourism studies. He identified three blocks that measure the emotional solidarity of individuals, namely, emotional closeness, sympathetic understanding and welcoming visitors. Emotional closeness refers to individuals' degree of closeness and established friendships. Sympathetic understanding refers to the empathy that residents feel towards tourists. Welcoming visitors refers to what residents hold for tourists

based on economic benefits and self-satisfaction brought by tourists. These items display the connection and interplay between residents and tourists. However, the identified items are oriented towards the relationship between individuals, and few have focused on the emotion that one feels towards the others.

Although ESS provides insight about individuals' interaction with members of other social groups, it does not evaluate individuals' emotional reactions with respect to another individual. In other words, ESS does not examine the feeling or affection of individuals. Moreover, despite the scale being tested between residents and tourists, it was not built on the foundation of intergroup stereotypes. It could not associate relationships with the stereotype contents identified in the previous section. Therefore, this scale is not used in this study, even if it is validated and popularised in studies focusing on host-guest relations and residents' perceived tourism impacts (Joo et al., 2018; Woosnam, 2011, 2012; Woosnam & Norman, 2010). As such, the affective items from the SCM are used to identify the intergroup emotions between residents and Mainland Chinese tourists.

2.4 Intergroup Behaviours

2.4.1 Definition of Intergroup Behaviours

Intergroup behaviours refer to the actions performed by individuals towards the members of other social groups, and they are based on individuals' perceived group identification (Sherif, 1966; Tajfel, 1984). Furthermore, intergroup behaviours are psychologically connected with the cognitive representations of individuals and the members of other social groups. In this study, cognitive representation is the stereotypes that residents hold towards Mainland Chinese tourists. These stereotypes have a detrimental effect on the actions and behaviours individuals have shown in relation to another individual and subsequently leading to discriminations and harassments (van Veelen, Otten, Cadinu, &

Hansen, 2016). Positive stereotypes will elicit positive behaviours, whereas negative stereotypes will elicit negative behaviours. On the basis of such concept, the literature has categorised intergroup behaviours into two competing forces of approach and avoidance behaviours (Kawakami, Phills, Steele, & Dovidiom 2007; Wyer, 2010; Zhang, 2019). Approach behaviours are associated with behaviours that make individuals move towards another person, whereas avoidance behaviours are associated with behaviours moving away from another person. In other words, approach behaviours are appetitive behaviours that can promote and sustain positive intergroup relations, whereas avoidance behaviours are aversive behaviours that can intensify and accelerate the erosion of intergroup relations (Elliot, 2006; Miller, 1937; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006).

2.3.2 Behaviour from Intergroup Affect and Stereotypes (BIAS) Map

The BIAS map was developed by Cuddy, Fiske and Glick (2007) through the extension of the approach–avoidance spectrum. The spectrum presents only individuals' positive and negative behaviours, but it fails to indicate the intensity of the behaviours performed. Not all intergroup behaviours are direct interactions; some can be indirect, such as ignoring, excluding and distancing others. By extending this notion, the BIAS map is a comprehensive intergroup behaviour measurement model based on two primary dimensions of valence and intensity. Valence is considered the facilitation or harm, which corresponds to the approach–avoidance dimension; the facilitation dimension is regarded as a prosocial behaviour, whereas the harm dimension as an anti-social behaviour. Intensity discerns actions along the active–passive dimension; the active dimension refers to behaviours that are produced in maximal deliberative efforts, purposive intention, direct and high risk; whereas the passive dimension refers to behaviours that are produced with minimal deliberative efforts, possibly unintended, indirect and avoidant. These dimensions cross each other to form a 2 × 2 matrix framework with four

quadrants of behaviours, namely, active–facilitation, active–harm, passive–facilitation and passive–harm.

Active–facilitation represents intentional behaviours that are directed towards the members of another social group, and these behaviours consist of assist, help, and protect them. Passive–facilitation is defined as the actions that one associate or cooperate with another social group and contacts are not necessarily needed during the interaction, such as cooperate, united, and associate. Active–harm reflects proactive behaviours with damaging or producing negative outcomes for the outgroups, and it can be achieved by attacking, fighting or sabotaging. Passive–harm is when individuals distance or demean the outgroups by devaluing their social worth through actions of demean, exclude, hinder, and derogate the others. According to Cuddy et al. (2007), these four quadrants can be regarded as act for, with, against, and without towards the members of another social group. Table 2.2 summarized these four behavioural quadrants and their corresponding behaviours.

Table 2.2 - Summary of BIAS Map and Associated Behaviours

Active-Facilitation (Act for) Assist, Help, and Protect	**Active-Harm (Act against)** Fight, Attack, and Sabotage
Passive-Facilitation (Act with) Cooperate, United, and Associate	**Passive-Harm (Act without)** Demean, Exclude, Hinder, and Derogate

Source: Cuddy et al. (2007)

The BIAS map classifies intergroup behaviours into four quadrants using an integrative approach, which contributes to the literature and reflects the reality of intergroup phenomena that allow governments and policymakers to introduce corresponding strategies. In light of its contribution, the BIAS map is used and verified in various empirical studies to measure, predict and comprehend the intergroup behaviours amongst social groups, especially in the area of majority–minority interaction (Sibley, 2011; Seate & Mastro, 2017; Zhang, 2019). Despite its popularity in understanding intergroup behaviours, the BIAS map has not been used in the

tourism field to examine the resident–tourist relationship. Therefore, this study contributes to the host–guest relationship literature by adopting the BIAS map to identify and measure resident behaviours towards tourists.

Despite the popularity of the BIAS map in understanding intergroup behaviours, this framework cannot be directly adopted in this study. Although this model reflects the intergroup interactions where residents and tourists represent the intergroup relation, the existing BIAS map attributes do not represent the resident–tourist interaction. For example, reports on residents fighting and attacking tourists are still scarce. Moreover, the BIAS map measures the intergroup behaviours with respect to the hierarchical rank of the social groups. However, the hierarchy between residents and tourists is often less discrete. Furthermore, the social discrepancies between tourists and residents are different from other majority–minority relationships, such as resident–immigrant relationships in terms of economic dependencies and resource competition. Thus, the direct adoption of these behavioural items is inapplicable. On this basis, a measurement scale is required to identify and measure residents' behaviours towards tourists.

2.4.3 Studies of Intergroup Behaviours in Tourism

The interactions between residents and tourists have been examined and documented in the tourism literature and news reports. Although the resident–tourist interaction has a bidirectional evaluation on both parties, majority of researchers have focused on tourists' behaviours at a destination and how residents evaluate them accordingly, and only some studies have measured residents' behaviours towards tourists. A range of positive and negative and verbal and nonverbal behaviours are identified in the tourism literature. This gap in the research on resident behaviours towards tourists results in the failure to provide a complete understanding of the dynamic relationship between residents and tourists.

In early studies, Saveriades (2005) found that socialisation serves as a form of contact that can stimulate the intergroup relationship between residents and tourists. During a socialisation, the courtesy and politeness of residents towards tourists may stimulate positive intergroup relationship (Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly, & Luk, 2008). Although some residents may have difficulties in approaching tourists, Thiel, Foth, and Schroeter (2015) suggested that starting a conversation will be a causal and manageable approach to socialise. With the increasing unpleasant tourist behaviours across tourism destinations, news reports stated that residents are tolerating these behaviours, ranging from acceptance through tolerance to endurance (Pile, 2017). Chen et al. (2018) identified that some residents are still willing to interact with tourists to build a mutual understanding that can restore the host–guest relationship. On the basis of the positivity of metastereotypes that the tourists hold towards residents, Tung (2019) examined residents' willingness to help tourists.

Substantial studies have also indicated that residents perform negative behaviours towards tourists. Tourism studies from previous decades have presented that residents stare at tourists about their presence or even their behaviours due to their curiosity in terms of cultural differences. Undeniably, in some cases, staring at tourists displays a sense of disagreement and dissatisfactory about the tourists (Maoz, 2006). Amobroz (2008) indicated that residents mock tourists to reduce their feeling of inferiority. Moreover, verbally disrespectful behaviours, such as insulting and using offensive nicknames on tourists, are performed by residents to present a 'superior identity' as the host of that destination (Kozak, 2007). Some nonverbal negative behaviours were recorded by Otoo, Badu-Baiden, and Kim (2019), in which harassing tourists is regarded as a form of interaction with the tourists. The aggressive harassment or threatening behaviour is noted in residents. However, some passive negative behaviours are also noted in the tourism literature. Ye, Qiu, and Yuen (2012) identified the degrees of unwillingness to

interact with the tourists. Chen et al. (2018) noted that residents not only avoid interacting with tourists but also going to tourist spaces to reduce their chance of interaction.

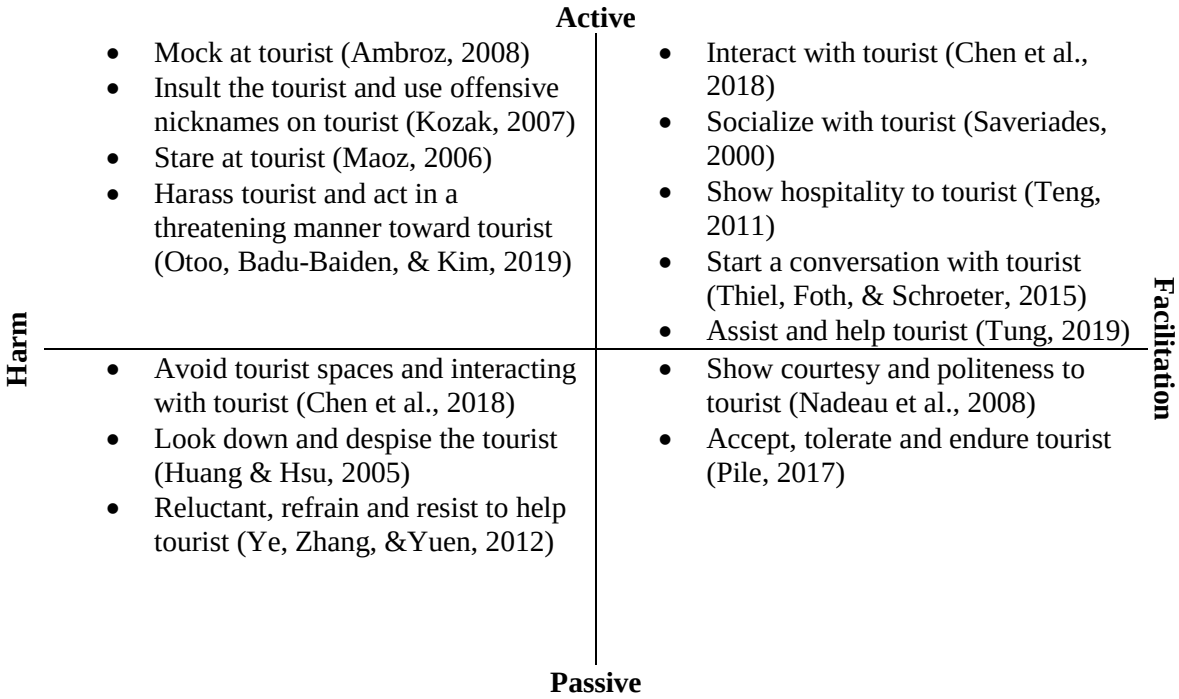


Figure 2.1 – Summary of Resident Behaviours towards Tourist in Existing Tourism Literature

The tourism literature has indicated the various resident behaviours that can be performed on tourists, and these behaviours can be mapped onto the BIAS map along with facilitation–harm and active–passive dimensions (Figure 2.1). The mapping can allow the enhancement of resident behaviours towards tourists in terms of valence and intensity, which contributes to the knowledge of host–guest relationship. Furthermore, valence and intensity can disclose the effort and engagement of residents in performing such actions, which allow DMOs and policymakers to understand the interpersonal attachment of their residents with the tourists. The mapped resident responsive behaviours will be examined to achieve the third objective of this study, that is, to develop a resident response behaviour model.

2.5 Relationship between Stereotypes and Behaviours through Emotions

2.5.1 Direct Effect of Stereotypes on Emotions

Emotion is regarded as a reaction of post-cognitive phenomenon, where it is significantly affected by the contents of cognitive information (Agapito, Oom do Valle, & da Costa Mendes, 2013; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Gartner, 1993; Lazarus, 1982; Peter, Olson, & Grunert, 1999). Stereotype content is one of the many forms of cognitive information that can elicit emotional reactions. Previous studies have identified the direct effects of stereotypes on emotions, where positive and negative stereotypes elicit positive and negative emotions, respectively (Caprariello, Cuddy, & Fiske, 2009; Clausell & Fiske, 2005; Harris, Cikara, & Fiske, 2008; Kervyn, Fiske, & Yzerbyt, 2013; Rogers, Schroder, & Scholl, 2013; Rudman & Ashmore 2007; Rast III, Gaffney & Yang, 2018; Vaughn, Teeters, Sadler & Cronan, 2017). Empirical findings of previous studies imply the direct effects of the dimensions of stereotype contents on the types of emotional reactions, where positive stereotypes cue positive emotions and reduce negative emotions, whereas negative stereotypes cue negative emotions and reduce positive emotions. Figure 2.2 presents the visual diagram of the direct effects of stereotypes on emotions.

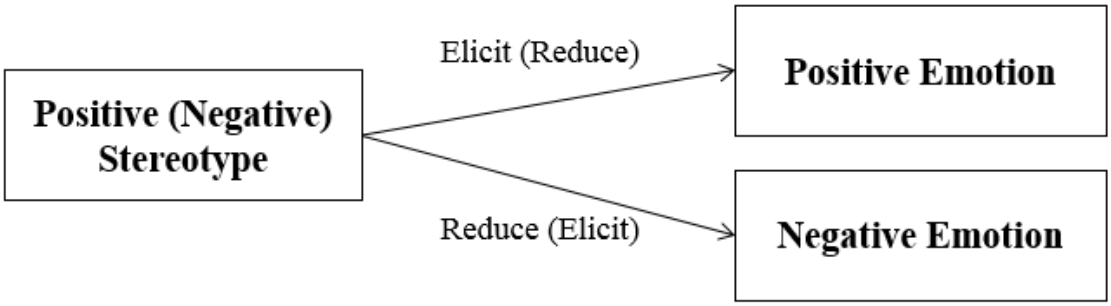


Figure 2.2 – Visual Diagram of the Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Emotions

Source: Caprariello, Cuddy, & Fiske (2009); Harris, Cikara, & Fiske (2008); Kervyn, Fiske, & Yzerbyt (2013)

2.5.2 Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Behaviours

In addition to eliciting emotional reactions, researchers have identified the direct effects of stereotypes on behavioural responses (Chen & Bargh, 1997; Dijksterhuis, Spears, & Lepinasse, 2001; Dijksterhuis & Van Knippenberg, 1998; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). For instance, negative behaviours are performed on negatively stereotyped persons (Louvet, 2007; Ozawa & Yaeda, 2007). A similar result was obtained by Becker and Asbrock (2012), that is, stereotypes affect the valence and intensity of performed behaviours. Findings of existing studies support the hypothesised relationship between stereotypes and behaviours in the present work. Cuddy et al. (2008) concluded that positive stereotype contents increase facilitation behaviours while reducing harmful behaviours. For example, warmth significantly activates active–facilitation behaviour and decreases the performance on active–harm, whereas competence elicits passive–facilitation and reduces passive–harm behaviours. On this basis, positive stereotypes activate active– and passive– facilitation but reduce active– and passive–harm, whereas negative stereotypes activate active– and passive–harm and reduce active– and passive–facilitation. Figure 2.3 presents the visual diagram of the direct effects of stereotypes on behaviours.

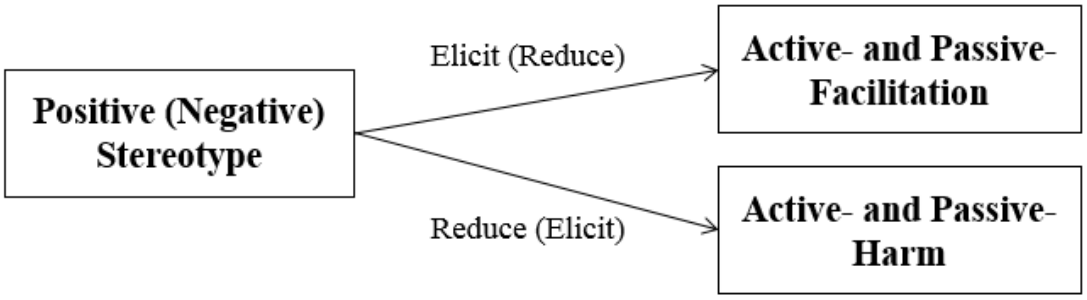


Figure 2.3 – Visual Diagram of the Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Behaviours

Source: Becker & Asbrock (2012); Cuddy et al. (2008); Louvet (2007)

2.5.3 Direct effects of Emotions on Behaviours

In addition to stereotypes, previous studies have indicated that emotion serves as another variable that activates behaviours of individuals. For example, favourable emotions increase positive responsive behaviours to members of the examined social group (Lin & Mattila, 2010; Oliver 1997; Pedersen & Nysveen, 2001), which serves as a strong indicator for future behaviours (Nelson, Cook, & Ingram, 2014; Yap & Jorm, 2012). Cronin Jr. et al. (2000) supported the direct influence of emotions on behaviours through the examination at conceptual and empirical levels. Findings from existing studies support the hypothesised relationship between emotions and behaviours. In the present work, emotional reactions are items from the affective aspect of the SCM, whereas behavioural responses are derived from the BIAS map; their relationship has been explored and validated by previous studies. The present work only hypothesises the paired direct effects of emotions and behaviours accordingly. For example, Admiration elicits active– and passive–facilitation; contempt elicits active– and passive–harm; envy elicits active–harm and passive–facilitation; and pity elicits active–facilitation and passive–harm. Figure 2.4 presents the visual diagram of the direct effects of emotions on behaviours.

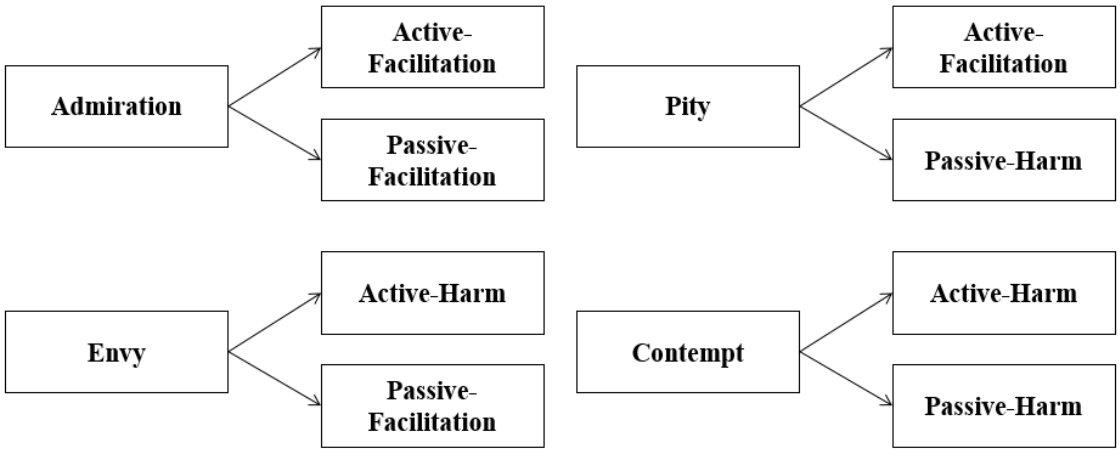


Figure 2.4 – Visual Diagram of the Direct Effects of Emotions on Behaviours

Source: Cuddy et al. (2008)

2.5.4 Mediating effect of Emotion on Stereotypes and Behaviours

Previous studies have noted that emotions not only have a direct influence on behaviours but they also mediate the relationship between stereotypes and behaviours. Gartner (1993) concluded that relationships exist among stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. Furthermore, the inclusion of emotions increases the effects of stereotypes on behaviours. Cuddy et al. (2008, Studies 3 and 4) supported the mediating role of emotion in the direct effects of stereotypes' dimensions on behavioural responses. Similar findings were also concluded by Sadler, Kaye, and Vaughn (2015) and Becker and Asbrock (2012). The results of Wirtz, van der Pligt, and Doosje (2016b) also indicated that emotions mediate the behavioural responses in harming or helping targets from the respective stereotype contents. Given the support from existing literature, this study examines the mediating effects of emotions on the relationship between stereotypes and behaviours. Figure 2.5 presents the visual diagram of the mediating effects of emotions on stereotypes and behaviours.

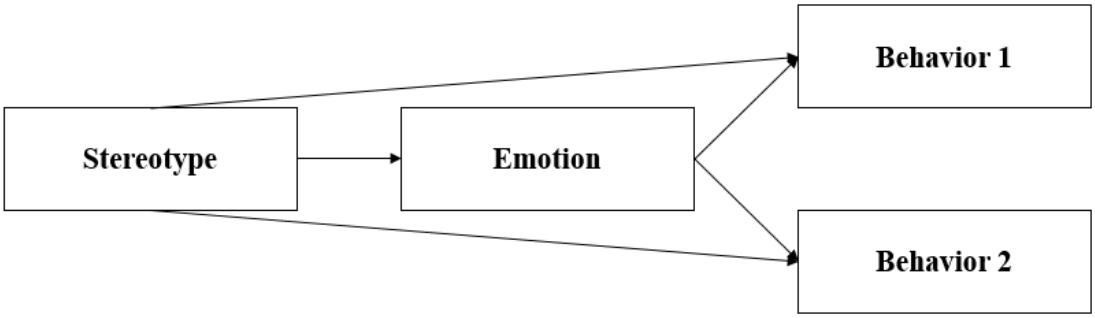


Figure 2.5 – Visual Diagram of the Mediating Effects of Emotions on Stereotypes and Behaviours

The sets of effects allow the identification of the direct effects of stereotypes on emotions and stereotypes on behaviours, which are lacking in the tourism research focusing on intergroup relations. The direct effects of emotions and behaviours will lend support to existing findings. These effects also serve as guidelines for the applicability to perform mediation analysis of emotions on stereotypes and behaviours, thereby achieving Objective 4 of this study.

The findings not only enhance the academic knowledge but can also provide explanations for tourism practitioners to trace the antecedents of residents' behaviours towards tourists.

2.6 Summary of Chapter 2 – Literature Review

This chapter has reviewed the existing literature from psychology, sociology and tourism fields on the three components of residents' attitudes in terms of intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. The definitions and concepts of these components have been discussed through the systematic review.

The first component of residents' attitudes is intergroup stereotype. This stereotype is a cognitive component of residents' attitudes that is controlled by two dichotomous systems of explicit and implicit evaluations. The review of tourism studies indicates a measurement model with 12 stereotype contents for evaluating tourist stereotypes held by residents. It reveals the reliance only on the explicit approach, which posts considerable limitations on concluding one's stereotype on the target. Hence, this study measures explicit and implicit stereotypes for a complete understanding. Implicit stereotypes are captured by using the IAT for the stereotype association between the target and stereotype contents.

The second component of residents' attitudes, namely intergroup emotions, has also been defined and reviewed in this chapter. The affective component of residents' attitudes reflects the emotions of one social group's perception towards another. Twelve emotional attributes from the SCM are used given credibility and suitability in the context of this study.

The third component of residents' attitudes is intergroup behaviours. Such behaviours refer to the behaviours performed among social groups, and they are a physical response with respect to the members of an outgroup. By using the concept from the BIAS map, intergroup behaviours are mapped on a multifaceted framework instead of only on a spectrum of

avoidance–approach. Although tourism studies have identified a range of behaviours between residents and tourists, they often focus on the valence (facilitation versus harm) while neglecting the intensity (active versus passive). Thus, this study aims to develop a resident behaviour model using the concept of the BIAS map to plot the intergroup behaviours available in the tourism context.

Furthermore, the literature indicates the interrelationships among intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. Intergroup emotions are influenced by the polarity of intergroup stereotypes. For example, positive and negative stereotype contents elicit positive and negative emotional responses, respectively. Intergroup behaviours are influenced by intergroup stereotypes and emotions, where positive evaluations cue positive behavioural responses, and vice versa. Furthermore, existing studies have indicated that intergroup emotions mediate the relationships between intergroup stereotypes and behaviours. The sets of relationships among the three components have been discussed in this chapter, with a visual diagram at the last section.

Chapter 3 will present the research paradigm that guides the methods and understandings of this study. This work adopts a post-positivist approach, which focuses on explaining the causes and effects, observing phenomena and testing theories based on pragmatism. The relationships, direct and mediating effects, among intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours will be hypothesised. Finally, these relationships will be integrated to form the conceptual model of this study.

CHAPTER 3: HYPOTHESES AND CONCEPTUAL MODEL

This chapter introduces the research paradigm of this thesis, followed by the research hypotheses and the conceptual model among the constructs of stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. The following effects are examined (1) direct effects of stereotypes on emotions (20 hypotheses); (2) direct effects of stereotypes on behaviours (20 hypotheses); (3) direct effects of emotions on behaviours (8 hypotheses); and (4) mediating effects of emotions on the effects of stereotypes on behaviours (40 hypotheses). A complete research model comprising stereotypes, emotions and behaviours are also presented. The proposed hypotheses are tested in four selected destinations, namely, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. The following sections discuss the respective effect, and the number of proposed hypotheses are based on one destination.

3.1 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm serves as a reference to guide the research methods and the findings. In social sciences, several schools of thought exist, such as constructivism, critical theory, positivism and post-positivism (Creswell 2003; Guba & Lincoln, 1994), and they adopt different underlying epistemologies, ontologies and empirical beliefs (Punch & Oancea, 2014). Across various paradigms, this study adopts a post-positivist approach to test a theory, verify hypotheses and test the proposed relationship empirically. With the extension from positivism that only a single truth exists, post-positivism denotes that the truth is not single and must be explored (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Under this approach, hypotheses from a known theory must be developed, and data will then be collected and finally determine whether the theory is supported (Ivankova, Creswell, & Plano Clark, 2007). In this study, the data are collected using a quantitative survey approach to explain stereotypes contents, emotional reactions and behavioural responses in the proposed hypotheses.

3.2 Direct Effects of Stereotypes and Emotions

The literature indicates that the four dimensions of stereotype contents (i.e. approachable, competence, boastful and rude) from the tourist stereotype model have not been examined against the emotional reactions. Hence, each dimension of stereotype contents is hypothesised to have a direct effect on the four types of emotional reactions (i.e. admiration, pity, envy and contempt, on the basis of the intergroup emotion from the SCM. Approachable and competence are positive stereotypes, whereas boastful and rude are negative stereotypes. Admiration and pity are positive emotions, whereas envy and contempt are negative emotions. Hence, approachable and competence are proposed to elicit admiration and pity while reducing envy and contempt. Boastful and rude are proposed to reduce admiration and pity but elicit envy and contempt. Furthermore, given that explicit and implicit stereotypes are measured in this study, the direct effects of stereotypes on emotions are separated into two sections, that is, direct effect of explicit and implicit stereotypes on emotions.

As such, 20 hypotheses are proposed from the combinations of tourist stereotypes with each type of emotional reaction. Previous studies have examined these relationships among social groups but not in the tourism setting of residents and tourists. Hence, investigating the direct effects of tourist stereotypes on emotional reactions will enhance the knowledge of intergroup relationship in tourism literature.

3.2.1 Direct Effects of Approachable on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H1-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable elicits feelings of admiration.
H1-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable elicits feelings of pity.
H1-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable ***reduces*** feelings of envy.
H1-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable ***reduces*** feelings of contempt.

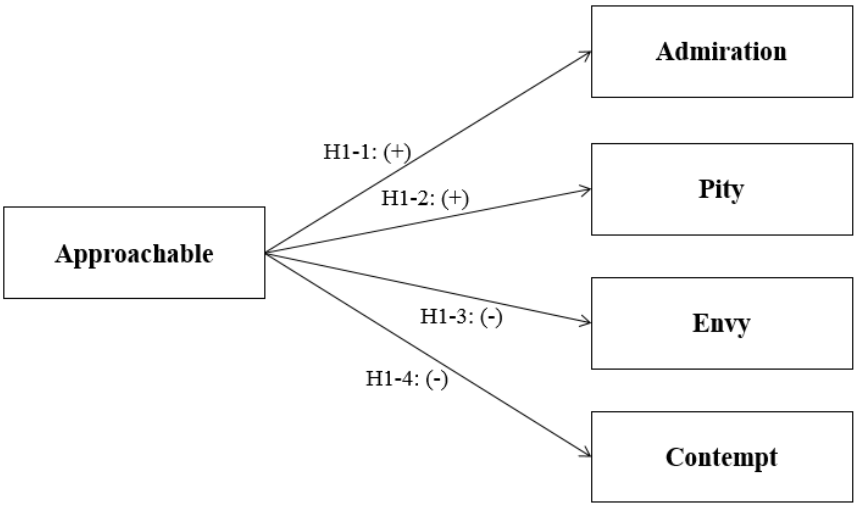


Figure 3.1 – Direct Effects of Approachable on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.2.2 Direct Effects of Competence on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H2-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence elicits feelings of admiration.
H2-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence elicits feelings of pity.
H2-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence ***reduces*** feelings of envy.
H2-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence ***reduces*** feelings of contempt.

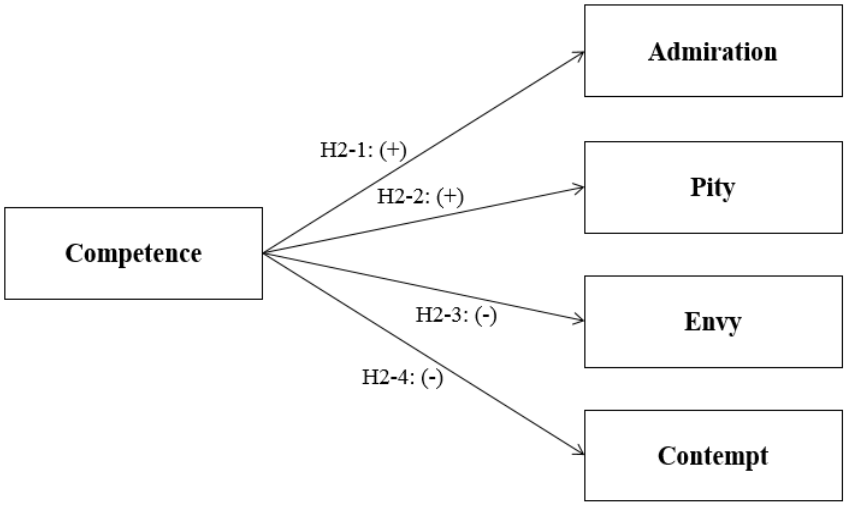


Figure 3.2 – Direct Effects of Competence on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.2.3 Direct Effects of Boastful on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H3-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful ***reduces*** feelings of admiration.
H3-2: Positive evaluations of tourist as boastful ***reduces*** feelings of pity.
H3-3: Positive evaluations of tourist as boastful elicits feelings of envy
H3-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful elicits feelings of contempt.

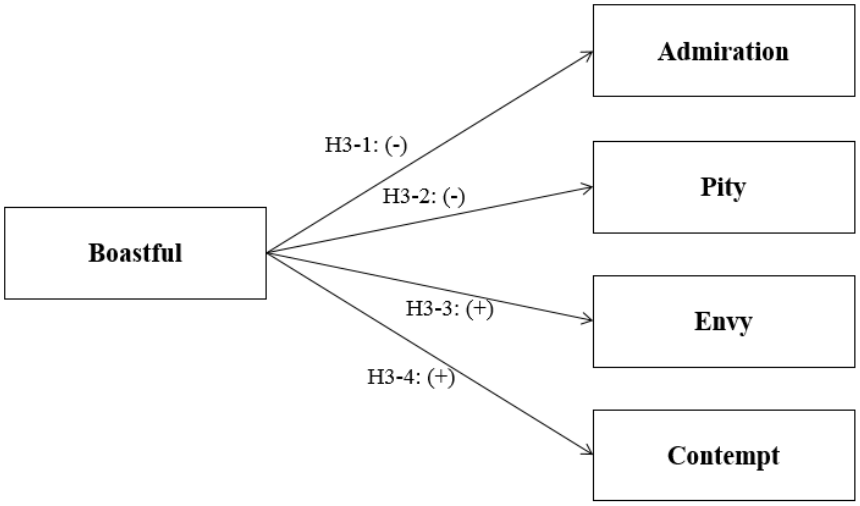


Figure 3.3 – Direct Effects of Boastful on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.2.4 Direct Effects of Rude on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H4-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude ***reduces*** feelings of admiration.
H4-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude ***reduces*** feelings of pity.
H4-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude elicits feelings of envy.
H4-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude elicits feelings of contempt.

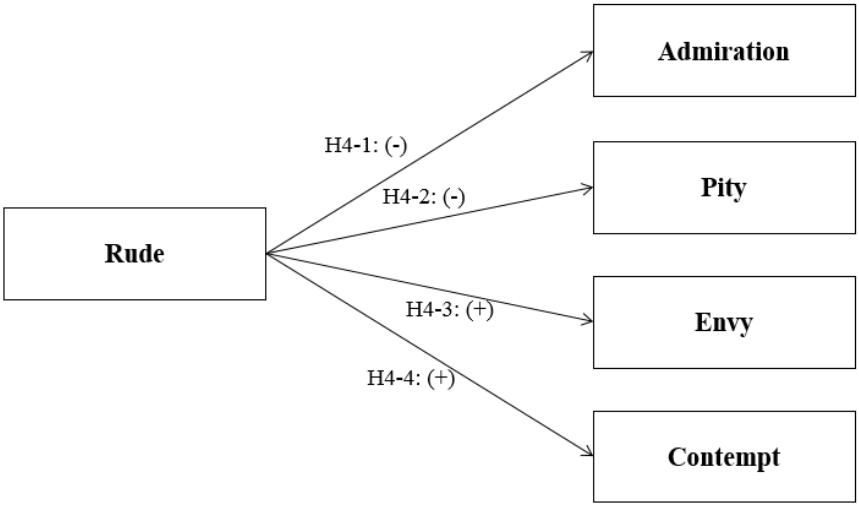


Figure 3.4 – Direct Effects of Rude on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.2.5 Direct Effects of Implicit Measured Stereotypes on Emotions

H5-1: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score elicit feelings of admiration.
H5-2: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score elicit feelings of pity
H5-2: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score ***reduce*** feelings of envy.
H5-4: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score ***reduce*** feelings of contempt.

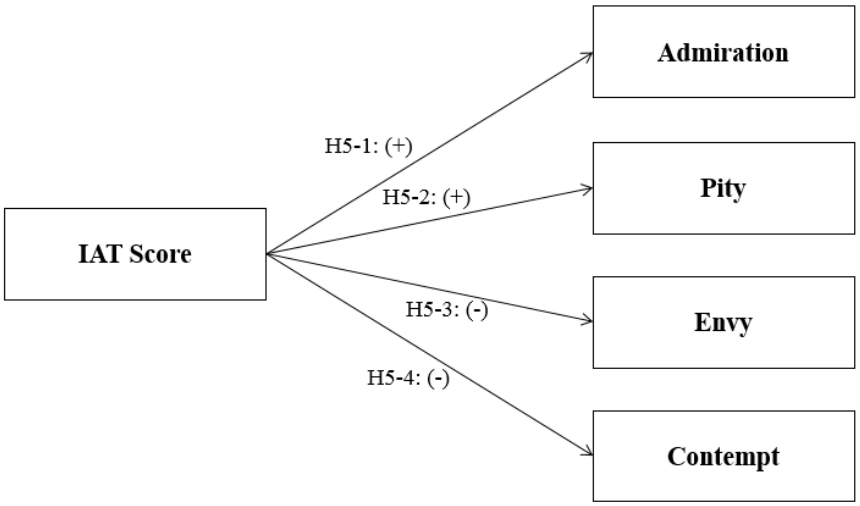


Figure 3.5 – Direct Effects of Implicit Measured Stereotypes on Emotions

3.3 Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Behaviours

Given that the tourist stereotype model has not been examined against the BIAS map, the direct effects of all stereotype dimensions on all behavioural responses must be explored. The existing literature indicates that positive stereotypes activate facilitations and reduce harm, whereas negative stereotypes activate harm and reduce facilitations. Approachable and competence activate facilitations actively and passively but reduce harm actively and passively, and these associations are opposite for boastful and rude. Moreover, explicit and implicit stereotypes are examined. The direct effects of stereotypes on behaviours are also separated into two sections, that is, direct effects of measured explicit and implicit stereotypes on behavioural responses.

As such, 20 hypotheses are proposed from the combinations of tourist stereotypes with each quadrant of behavioural responses. Previous studies have indicated the influence of stereotypes on performed behaviours but not the relationship between tourist stereotypes and residents' behavioural responses. Thus, this investigation will add value towards the tourism literature focusing on intergroup relationships.

3.3.1 Direct Effects of Approachable on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H1-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable activate behaviours of active–facilitation.
H1-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable activate behaviours of passive–facilitation.
H1-7: Positive evaluations of tourist as approachable ***reduce*** behaviours of active–harm.
H1-8: Positive evaluations of tourist as approachable ***reduce*** behaviours of passive–harm.

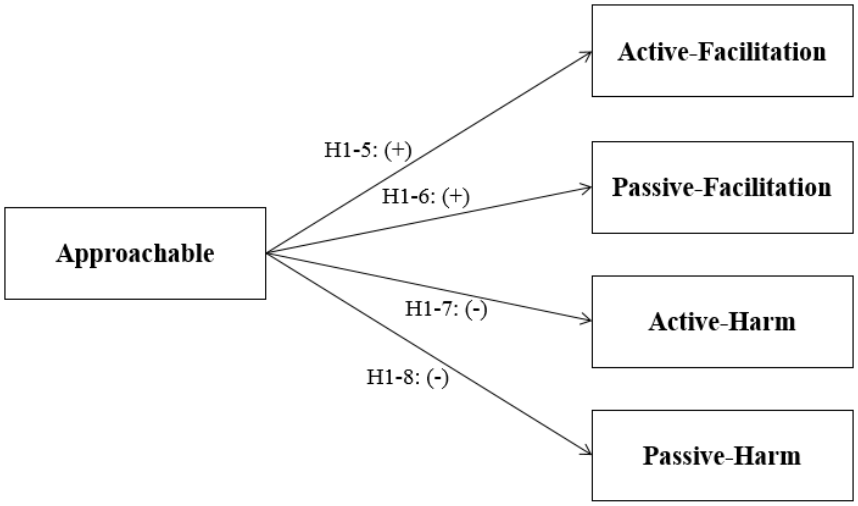


Figure 3.6 – Direct Effects of Approachable on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.3.2 Direct Effects of Competence on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H2-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence activate behaviours of active–facilitation.
H2-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence activate behaviours of passive–facilitation.
H2-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence ***reduce*** behaviours of active–harm.
H2-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence ***reduce*** behaviours of passive–harm.

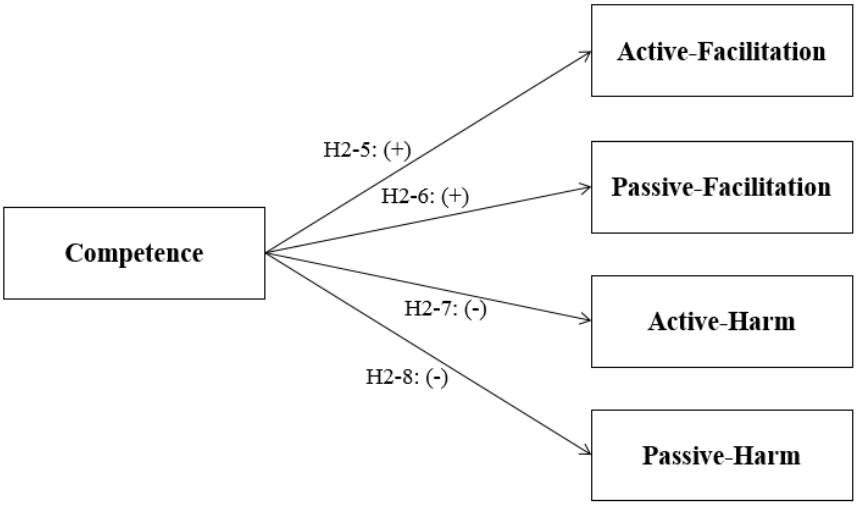


Figure 3.7 – Direct Effects of Competence on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.3.3 Direct Effects of Boastful on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H3-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful ***reduce*** behaviours of active–facilitation.
H3-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful ***reduce*** behaviours of passive–facilitation.
H3-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful elicit behaviours of active–harm.
H3-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful elicit behaviours of passive–harm.

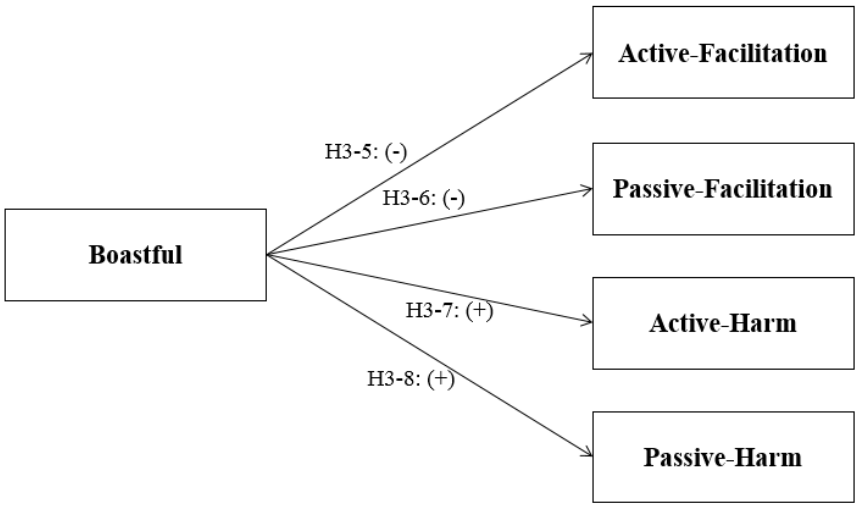


Figure 3.8 – Direct Effects of Boastful on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.3.4 Direct Effects of Rude on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H4-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude ***reduce*** behaviours of active–facilitation.
H4-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude ***reduce*** behaviours of passive–facilitation.
H4-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude elicit behaviours of active–harm.
H4-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude elicit behaviours of passive–harm.

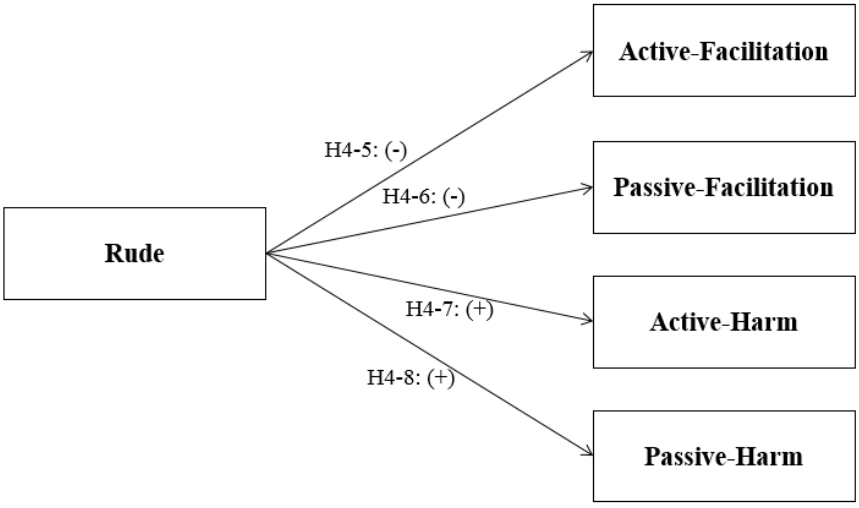


Figure 3.9 – Direct Effects of Rude on Behaviour via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.3.5 Direct Effects of Implicit Measured Stereotypes on Behaviours

H5-5: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score activate behaviours of active–facilitation.
H5-6: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score activate behaviours of passive–facilitation.
H5-7: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score ***reduce*** behaviours of active–harm.
H5-8: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score ***reduce*** behaviours of passive–harm.

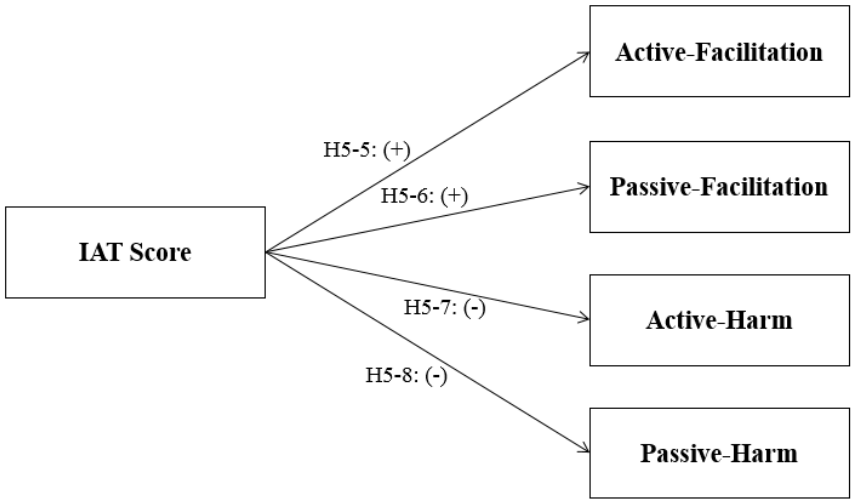


Figure 3.10 – Direct Effects of Implicit Measured Stereotypes on Behaviours

3.4 Direct Effects of Emotions on Behaviours

On the basis of existing studies, each emotion is associated with two types of behaviours, namely, active and passive. Admiration elicits active– and passive–facilitation, pity activates active–facilitation and passive–harm, envy induces passive–facilitation and passive–harm and contempt cues active– and passive– harm.

As such, eight hypotheses are proposed based on existing intergroup studies on the relationships between emotional reactions and behavioural responses. This exploration will validate the combination of each type of emotional response with each quadrant of behavioural responses.

3.4.1 Direct Effects of Admiration on Behaviours

H6-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration activate behaviours of active–facilitation.
H6-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration activate behaviours of passive–facilitation.

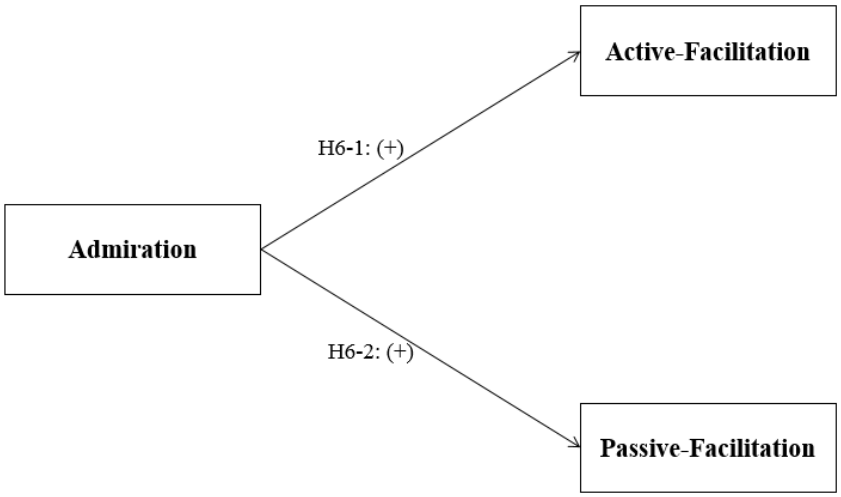


Figure 3.11 – Direct Effects of Admiration on Behaviours

3.4.2 Direct Effects of Pity on Behaviours

H7-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity activate behaviours of active–facilitation.
H7-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity activate behaviours of passive–harm.

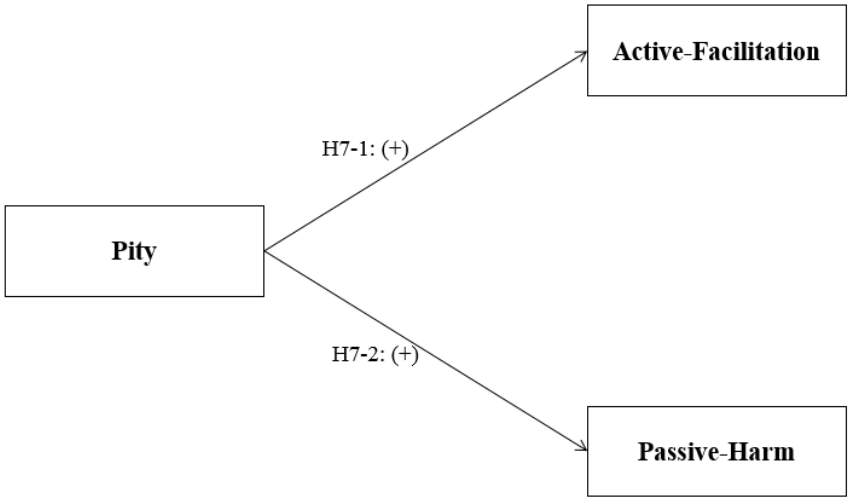


Figure 3.12 – Direct Effects of Pity on Behaviours

3.4.3 Direct Effects of Envy on Behaviours

H8-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy activate behaviours of passive-facilitation.
H8-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy activate behaviours of active–harm.

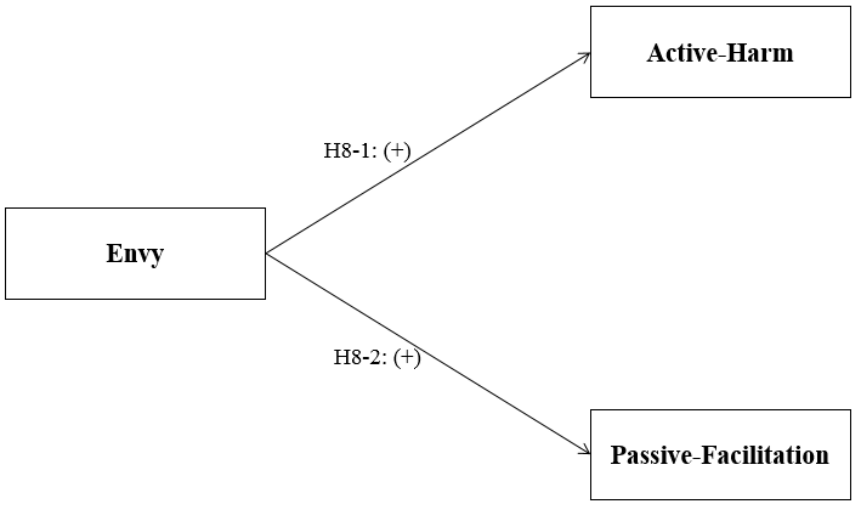


Figure 3.13 – Direct Effects of Envy on Behaviours

3.4.4 Direct Effects of Contempt on Behaviours

H9-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt activate behaviours of active–harm.
H9-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt activate behaviours of passive–harm.

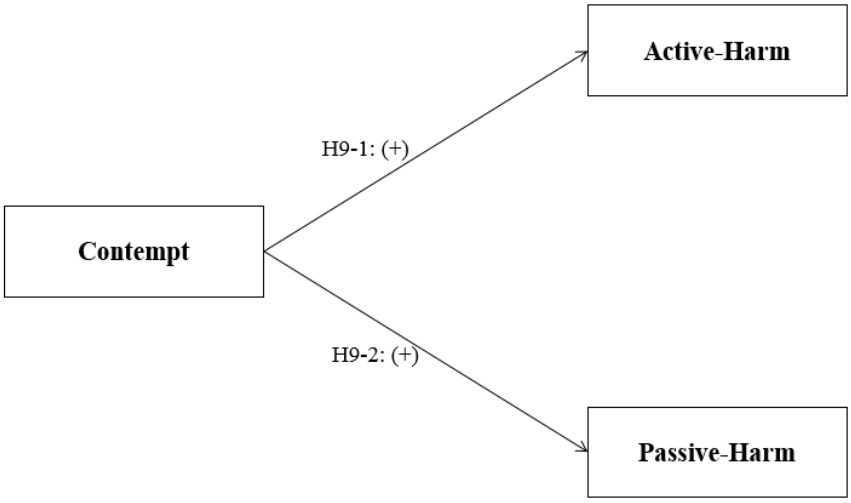


Figure 3.14 – Direct Effects of Contempt on Behaviours

3.5 Mediating Effects of Emotions on the Direct Effects of Stereotypes and Behaviours

In addition to direct effects, the existing literature indicates the mediating effects of emotions on stereotypes and behaviours. From the supports of previous findings, hypothetically, each emotion mediates one stereotype content and two behavioural responses.

As such, 40 hypotheses are proposed from the combinations of each dimension of tourist stereotypes and each type of emotional reaction, with each quadrant of behavioural responses. The investigation will identify the overall model of residents' attitude towards tourists, focusing on stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. The explorations on these relationships will elevate the tourism knowledge on understanding the dynamic of intergroup relations through the cognitive, affective and behavioural constructs.

3.5.1 Mediating Effects of Emotions on Approachable and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.1.1 Mediating Effects of Admiration on Approachable on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H10-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of approachable on active–facilitation.

H10-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of approachable on passive–facilitation.

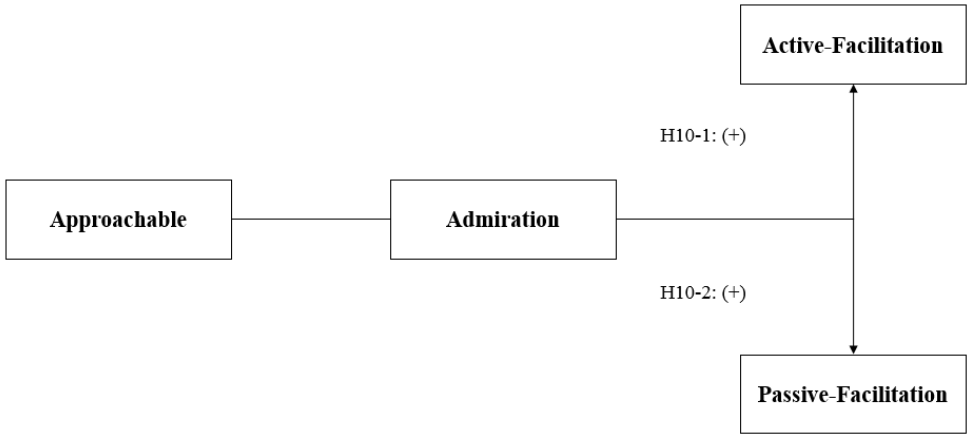


Figure 3.15 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Approachable and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.1.2 Mediating Effects of Pity on Approachable on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H10-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of approachable on active–facilitation.

H10-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of approachable on passive–harm.

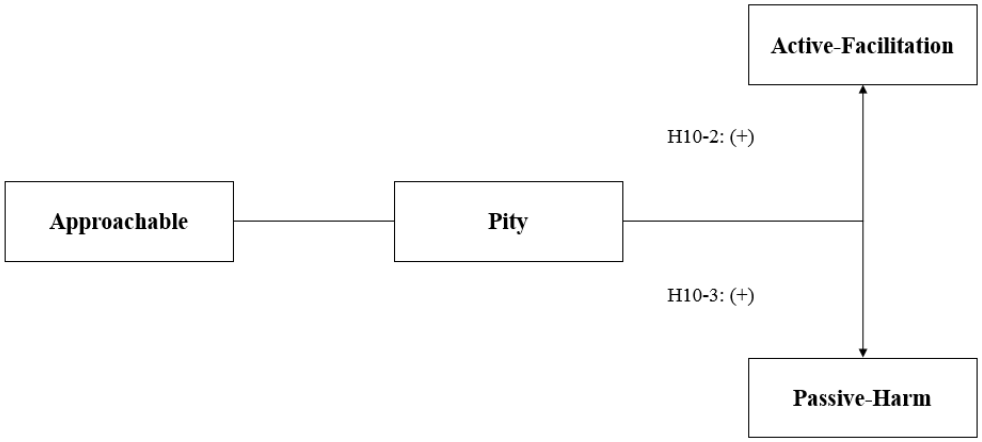


Figure 3.16 – Mediating Effects of Pity on Approachable and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.1.3 Mediating Effects of Envy on Approachable on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H10-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of approachable on passive–facilitation.

H10-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of approachable on active–harm.

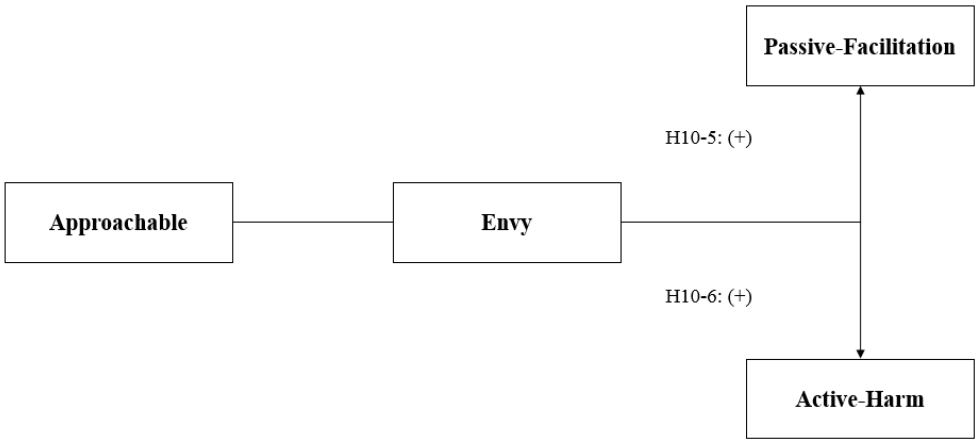


Figure 3.17 – Mediating Effects of Envy on Approachable and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.1.4 Mediating Effects of Contempt on Approachable on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H10-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of approachable on active–harm.

H10-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of approachable on passive–harm.

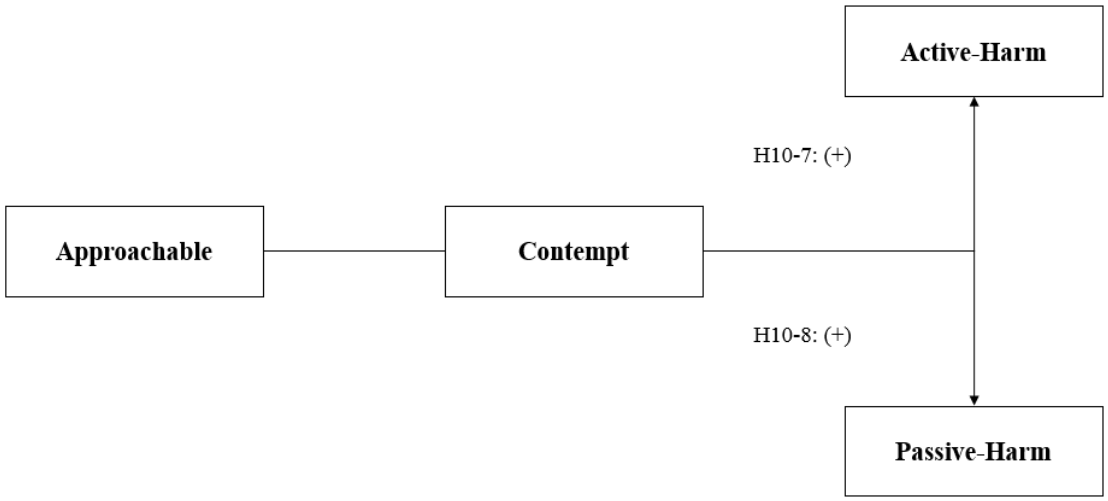


Figure 3.18 – Mediating Effects of Contempt on Approachable and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.2 Mediating Effects of Emotions on Competence and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.2.1 Mediating Effects of Admiration on Competence and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H11-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of competence on active–facilitation

H11-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of competence on passive–facilitation.

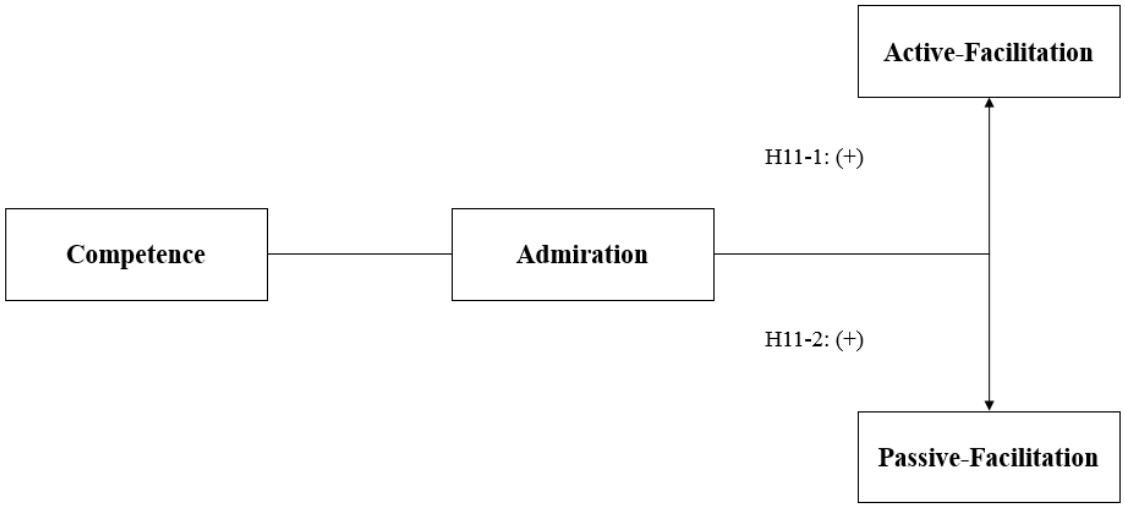


Figure 3.19 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Competence and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.2.2 Mediating Effects of Pity on Competence and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H11-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of competence on active–facilitation.

H11-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of competence on passive–harm.

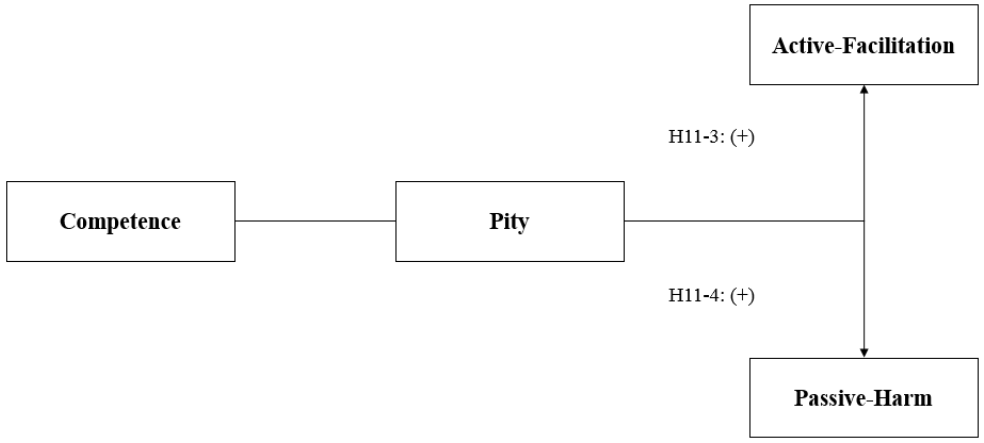


Figure 3.20 – Mediating Effects of Pity on Competence and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.2.3 Mediating Effects of Envy on Competence and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H11-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of competence on passive–facilitation.

H11-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of competence on active–harm.

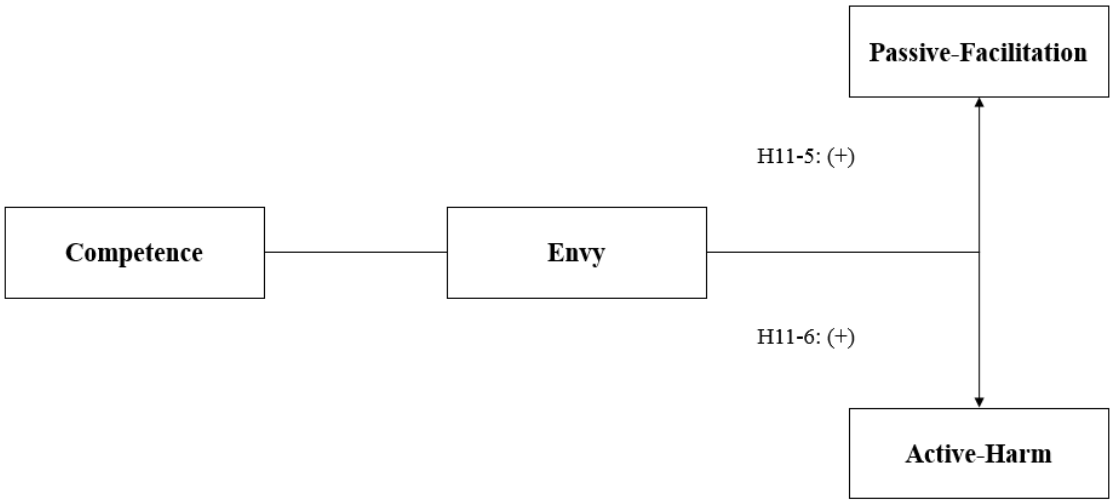


Figure 3.21 – Mediating Effects of Envy on Competence and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.2.4 Mediating Effects of Contempt on Competence and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H11-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of competence on active–harm.

H11-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of competence on passive–harm.

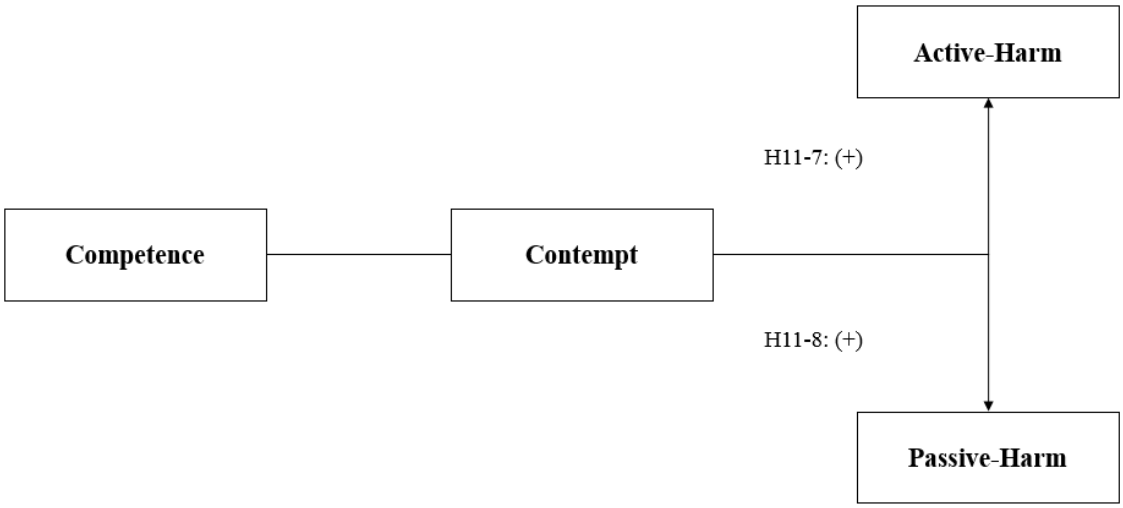


Figure 3.22 – Mediating Effects of Contempt on Competence and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.3 Mediating Effects of Emotions on Boastful and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.3.1 Mediating Effect of Admiration on Boastful and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H12-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediates the direct effect of boastful on active–facilitation

H12-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediates the direct effect of boastful on passive–facilitation.

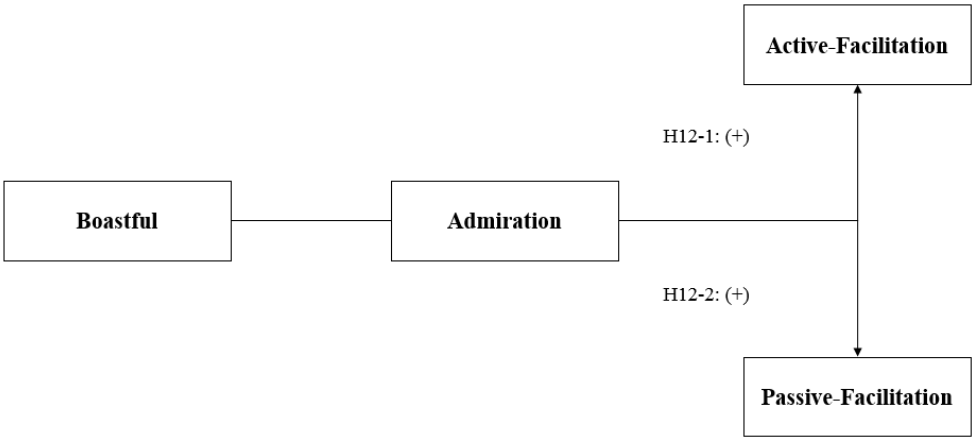


Figure 3.23 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Boastful and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.3.2 Mediating Effects of Pity on Boastful and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H12-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of boastful on active–facilitation.

H12-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–harm.

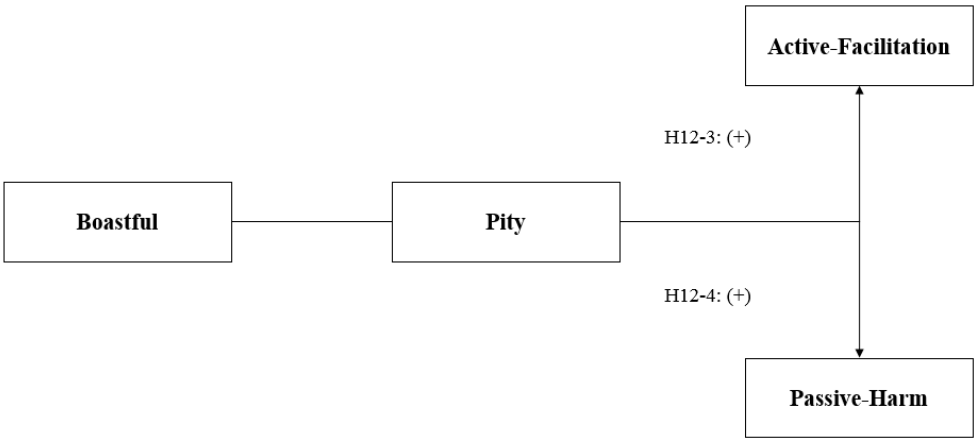


Figure 3.24 – Mediating Effects of Pity on Boastful and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.3.3 Mediating Effects of Envy on Boastful and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H12-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–facilitation.

H12-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of boastful on active–harm.

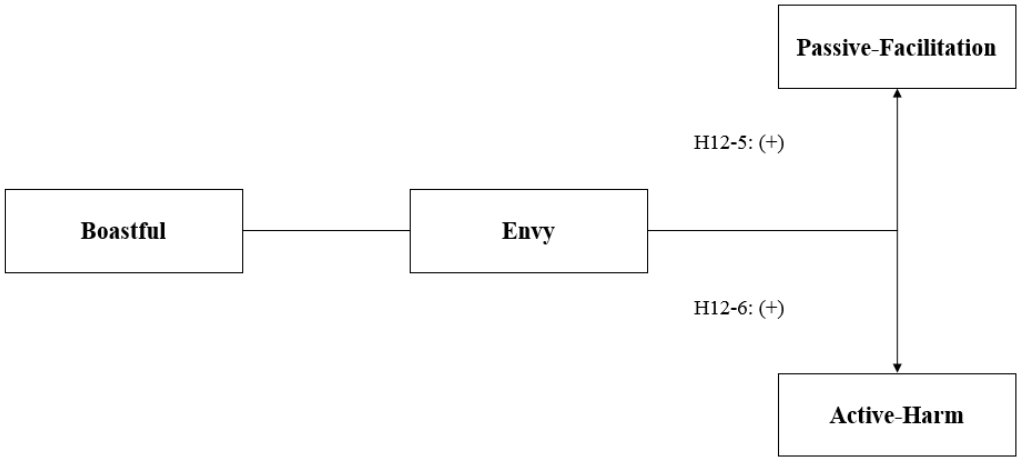


Figure 3.25 – Mediating Effects of Envy on Boastful and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.3.4 Mediating Effects of Contempt on Boastful and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H12-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of boastful on active–harm.

H12-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–harm.

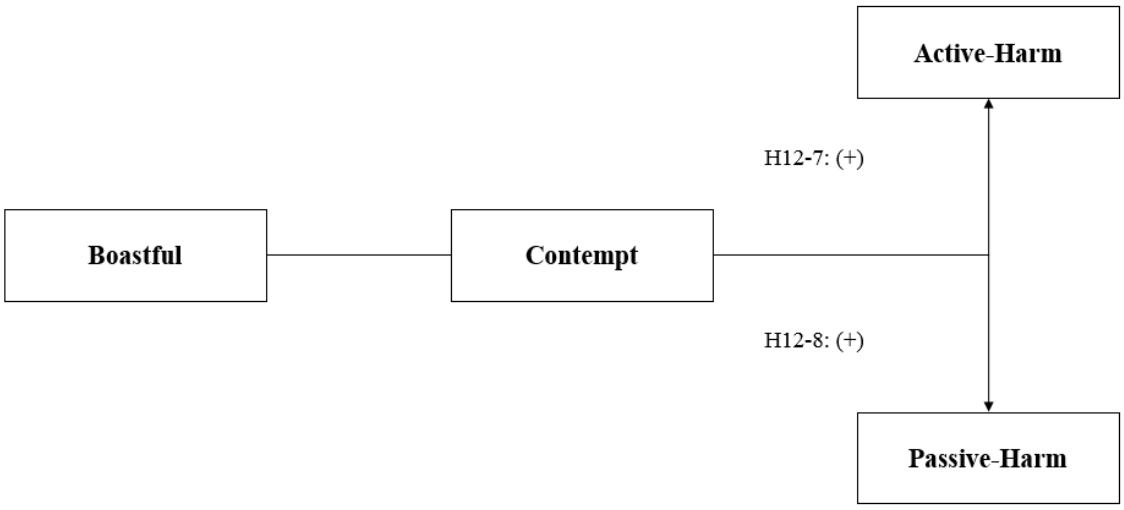


Figure 3.26 – Mediating Effects of Contempt on Boastful and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.4 Mediating Effects of Emotions on Rude and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.4.1 Mediating Effects of Admiration on Rude and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of rude on active–facilitation.

H13-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–facilitation.

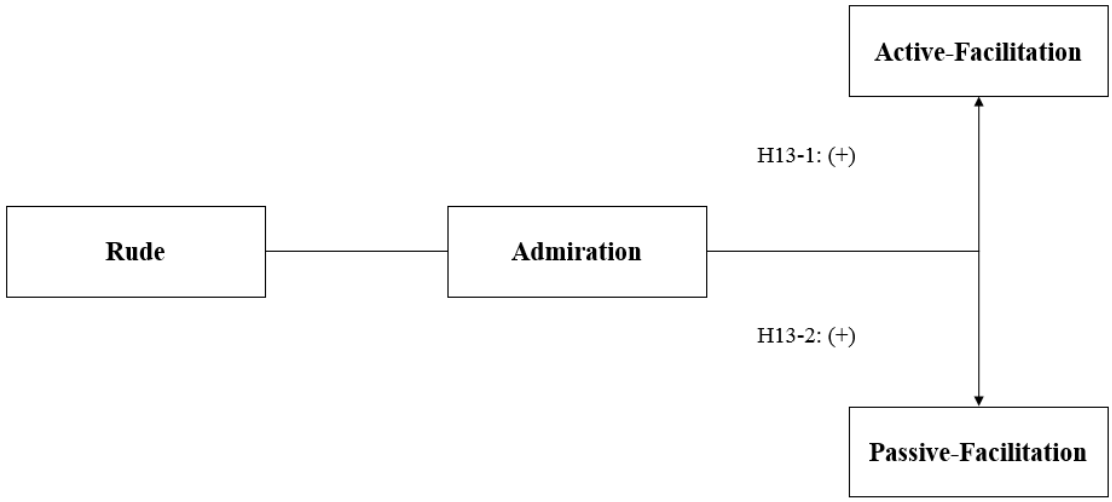


Figure 3.27 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Rude and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.4.2 Mediating Effects of Pity on Rude and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of rude on active–facilitation.

H13-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of rude on passive-harm

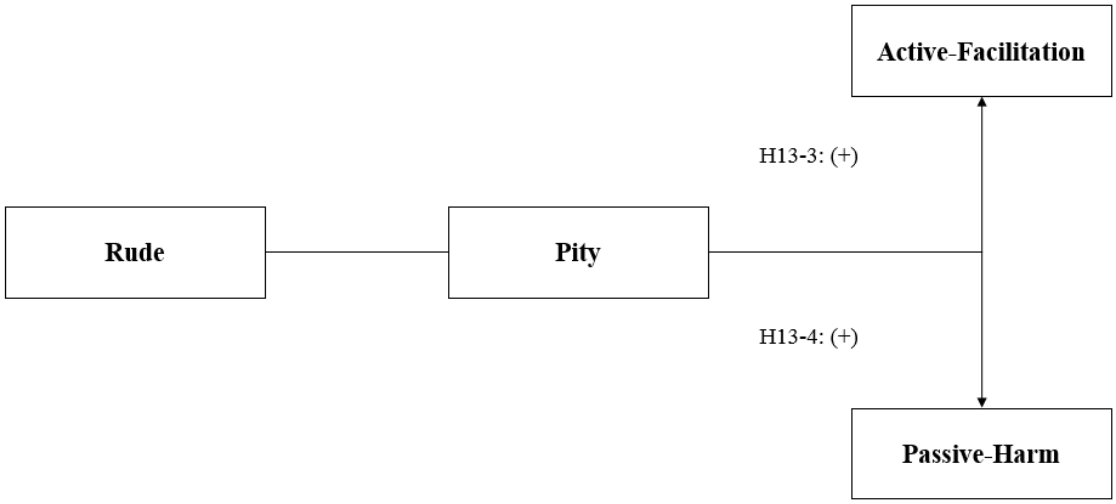


Figure 3.28 – Mediating Effects of Pity on Rude and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.4.2 Mediating Effects of Envy on Rude and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–facilitation.

H13-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of rude on active–harm.

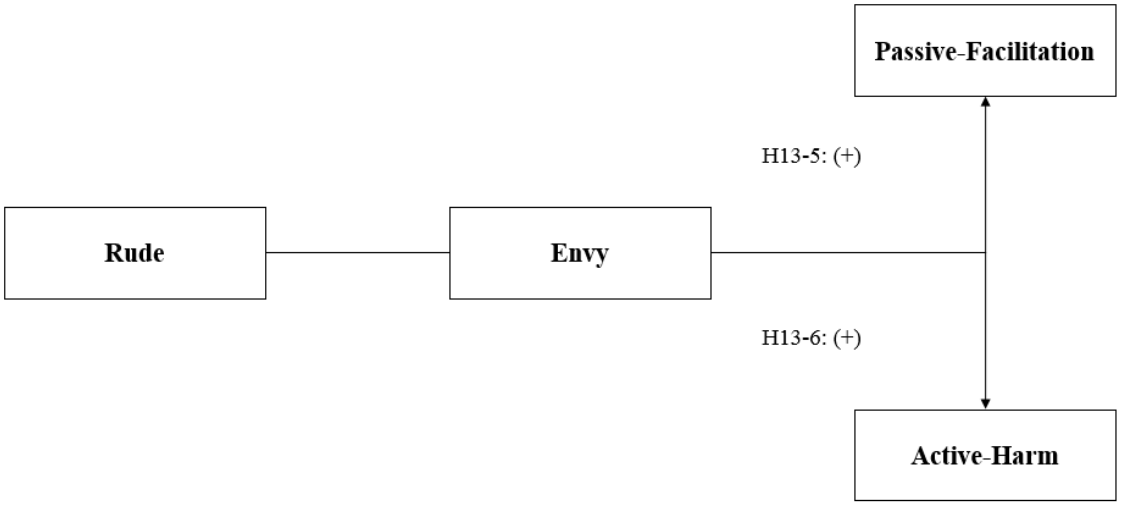


Figure 3.29 – Mediating Effects of Envy on Rude and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.4.3 Mediating Effects of Contempt on Rude and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of rude on active–harm.

H13-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–harm.

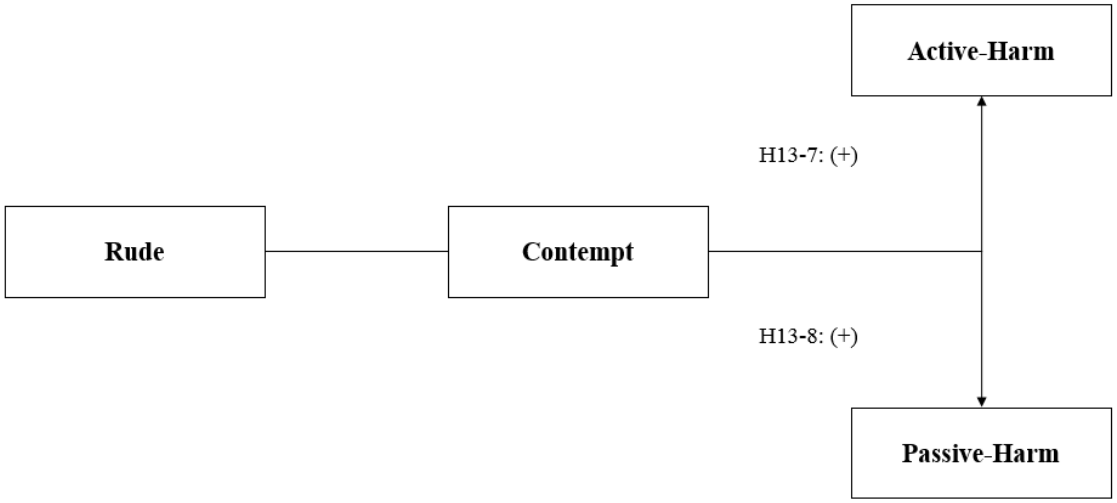


Figure 3.30 – Mediating Effects of Contempt on Rude and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

3.5.5 Mediating Effects of Emotions on Implicit Measured Stereotypes and Behaviours

3.5.5.1 Mediating Effects of Admiration on Implicit Measured Stereotypes and Behaviours

H14-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of IAT score on active–facilitation.

H14-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of IAT score on passive–facilitation.

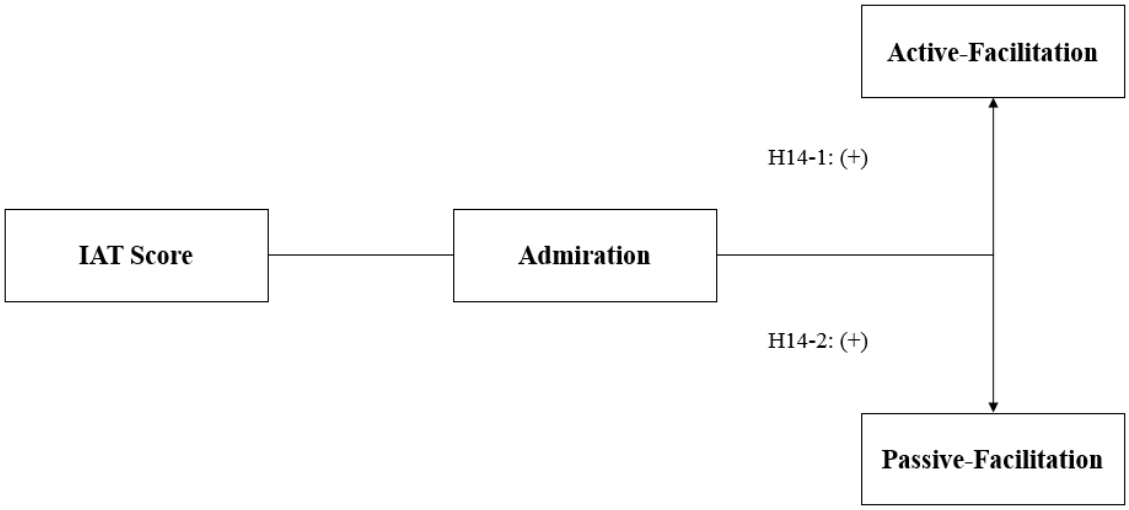


Figure 3.31 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Implicit Measured Stereotypes on Behaviours

3.5.5.2 Mediating Effects of Pity on Implicit Measured Stereotypes and Behaviours

H14-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of IAT score on active–facilitation.

H14-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of IAT score on passive–harm.

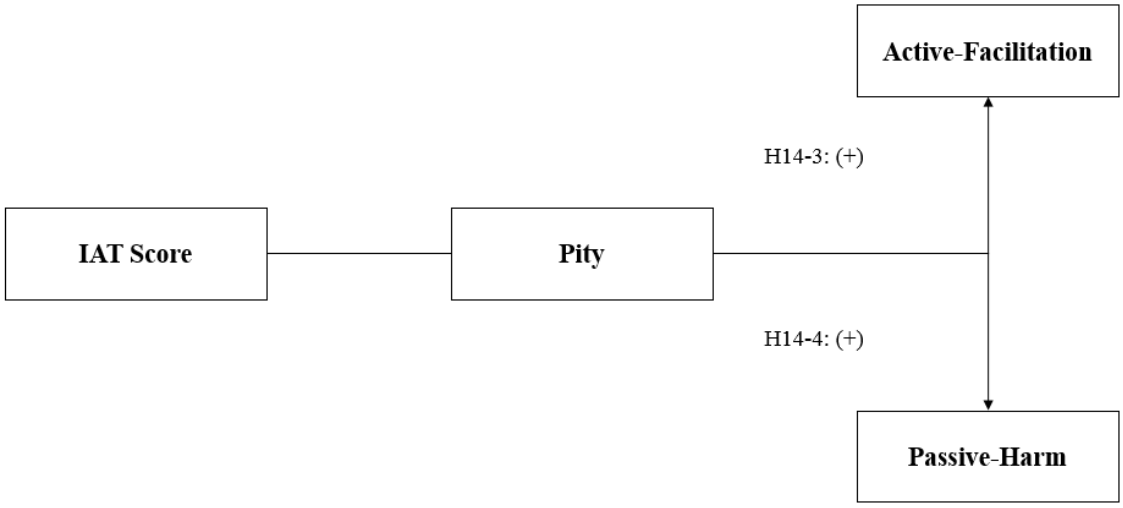


Figure 3.32 – Mediating Effects of Pity on Implicit Measured Stereotypes and Behaviours

3.5.5.3 Mediating Effects of Envy on Implicit Measured Stereotypes and Behaviours

H14-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of IAT score on passive–facilitation.

H14-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of IAT score on active–harm.

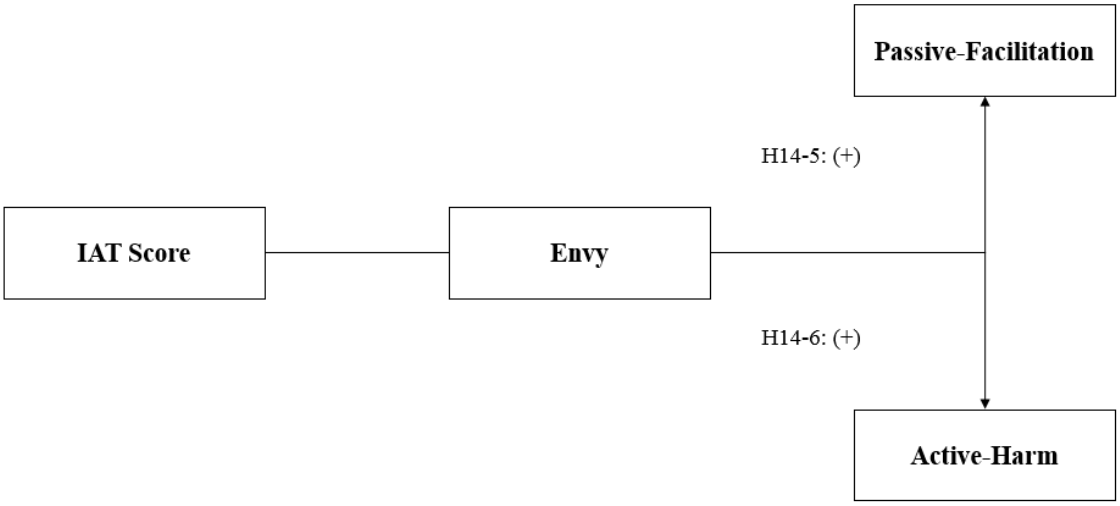


Figure 3.33 – Mediating Effects of Envy on Implicit Measured Stereotypes and Behaviours

3.5.5.4 Mediating Effects of Contempt on Implicit Measured Stereotypes and Behaviours

H14-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of IAT score on active–harm.

H14-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of IAT score on passive–harm.

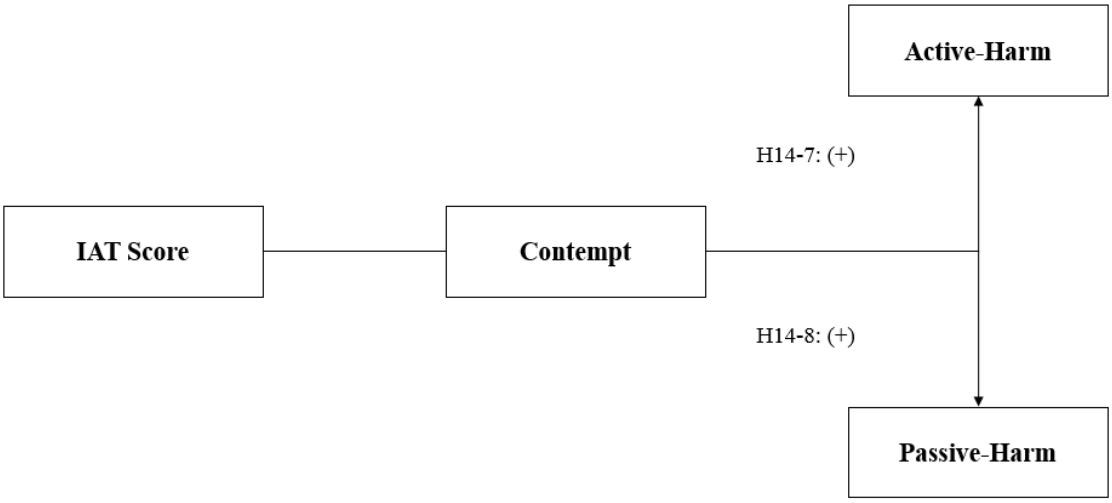


Figure 3.34 – Mediating Effects of Contempt on Implicit Measured Stereotypes and Behaviours

3.6 Conceptual Model

On the basis of the aforementioned hypotheses, a proposed conceptual model is formulated amongst the three constructs of stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. The proposed model indicates that stereotype contents elicit emotional reactions, which then activate two behavioural responses. The conceptual model consists of (1) direct effects of stereotypes on emotions, (2) direct effects of stereotypes and behaviours, (3) direct effects of emotions on behaviours and (4) mediating effects of emotions on the effects of stereotypes on behaviours.

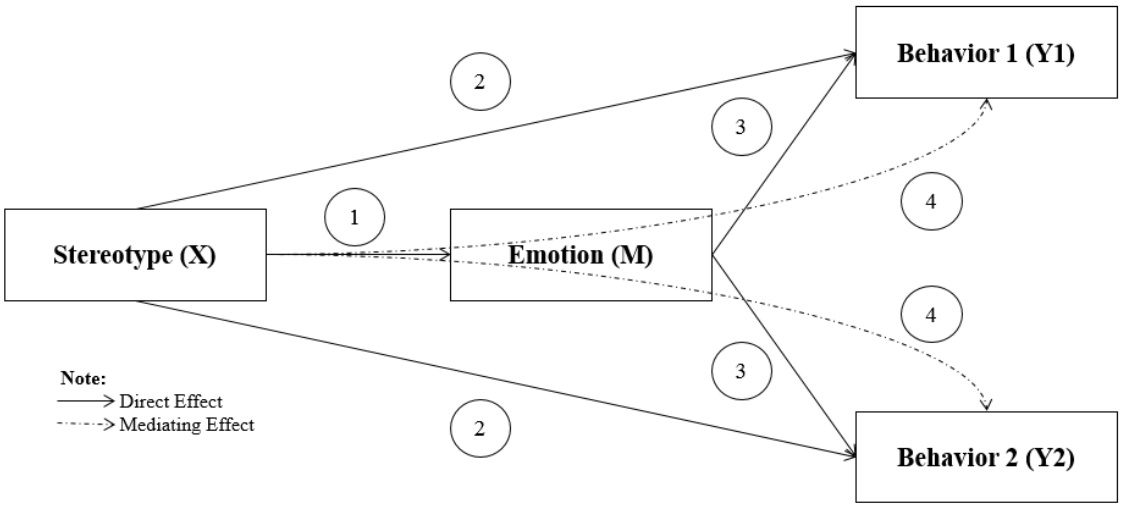


Figure 3.35 – Conceptual Model of Stereotypes, Emotions, and Behaviours

3.7 Hypotheses of the Research

Twenty hypotheses are proposed to examine the direct effects of stereotypes on emotions, 20 to explore the direct effects of stereotypes on behaviours, 8 to verify the direct effects of emotions on behaviours and 40 to test the mediating effects of emotions on the effects of stereotypes on behaviours. Table 3.1 summarises the proposed hypotheses. These hypotheses are examined across Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand.

Table 3.1 – Summary of the Proposed Hypotheses

Hypotheses No.	Independent	Mediator	Dependent
(1) Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Emotions			
H1-1	Approachable		Admiration
H1-2			Pity
H1-3			Envy
H1-4			Contempt
H2-1	Competence		Admiration
H2-2			Pity
H2-3			Envy
H2-4			Contempt
H3-1	Boastful		Admiration
H3-2			Pity
H3-3			Envy
H3-4			Contempt
H4-1	Rude		Admiration
H4-2			Pity
H4-3			Envy
H4-4			Contempt
H5-1	IAT Score		Admiration
H5-2			Pity
H5-3			Envy
H5-4			Contempt
(2) Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Behaviours			
H1-5	Approachable		Active-Facilitation
H1-6			Passive-Facilitation
H1-7			Active-Harm
H1-8			Passive-Harm
H2-5	Competence		Active-Facilitation
H2-6			Passive-Facilitation
H2-7			Active-Harm
H2-8			Passive-Harm
H3-5	Boastful		Active-Facilitation
H3-6			Passive-Facilitation
H3-7			Active-Harm
H3-8			Passive-Harm
H4-5	Rude		Active-Facilitation
H4-6			Passive-Facilitation
H4-7			Active-Harm
H4-8			Passive-Harm
H5-5	IAT Score		Active-Facilitation
H5-6			Passive-Facilitation
H5-7			Active-Harm
H5-8			Passive-Harm

(3) Direct Effects of Emotion on Behaviours			
H6-1	Admiration		Active-Facilitation
H6-2			Passive-Facilitation
H7-1	Pity		Active-Facilitation
H7-2			Passive-Harm
H8-1	Envy		Passive-Facilitation
H8-2			Active-Harm
H9-1	Contempt		Active-Harm
H9-2			Passive-Harm
(4) Mediating Effects of Emotion on Stereotypes and Behaviours			
H10-1	Approachable	Admiration	Active-Facilitation
H10-2			Passive-Facilitation
H10-3		Pity	Active-Facilitation
H10-4			Passive-Harm
H10-5		Envy	Passive-Facilitation
H10-6			Active-Harm
H10-7		Contempt	Active-Harm
H10-8			Passive-Harm
H11-1	Competence	Admiration	Active-Facilitation
H11-2			Passive-Facilitation
H11-3		Pity	Active-Facilitation
H11-4			Passive-Harm
H11-5		Envy	Passive-Facilitation
H11-6			Active-Harm
H11-7		Contempt	Active-Harm
H11-8			Passive-Harm
H12-1	Boastful	Admiration	Active-Facilitation
H12-2			Passive-Facilitation
H12-3		Pity	Active-Facilitation
H12-4			Passive-Harm
H12-5		Envy	Passive-Facilitation
H12-6			Active-Harm
H12-7		Contempt	Active-Harm
H12-8			Passive-Harm
H13-1	Rude	Admiration	Active-Facilitation
H13-2			Passive-Facilitation
H13-3		Pity	Active-Facilitation
H13-4			Passive-Harm
H13-5		Envy	Passive-Facilitation
H13-6			Active-Harm
H13-7		Contempt	Active-Harm
H13-8			Passive-Harm

H14-1	IAT Score	Admiration	Active-Facilitation
H14-2			Passive-Facilitation
H14-3		Pity	Active-Facilitation
H14-4			Passive-Harm
H14-5		Envy	Passive-Facilitation
H14-6			Active-Harm
H14-7		Contempt	Active-Harm
H14-8			Passive-Harm

3.8 Summary of Chapter 3 – Hypotheses and Conceptual Model

This chapter has presented the sets of relationships among intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. Firstly, the direct effects between intergroup stereotypes and emotions have been discussed. Approachable and competence are positive stereotypes, whereas boastful and rude are negative stereotypes. Admiration and pity are considered positive emotions, whereas envy and contempt are negative emotions. Hence, approachable and competence are proposed to elicit admiration and pity while reducing envy and contempt. By contrast, boastful and rude are proposed to reduce admiration and pity but elicit envy and contempt. Furthermore, explicit and implicit stereotypes are measured in this study. Thus, the direct effects of measured explicit and implicit stereotypes on emotions have been proposed.

Secondly, the direct effects of intergroup stereotypes on intergroup behaviours have been hypothesised. The existing literature indicates that positive stereotypes activate facilitations and reduce harm, whereas negative stereotypes activate harm and reduce facilitations. Thus, approachable and competence activate facilitations actively and passively but reduce harm actively and passively, and these associations are opposite for boastful and rude. Moreover, explicit and implicit stereotypes have been examined, as well as the direct effects of measured explicit and implicit stereotypes on behavioural responses.

Thirdly, the direct effects of intergroup emotions on intergroup behaviours have been hypothesised. On the basis of existing studies, each emotion is associated with two types of behaviours, namely, active and passive. Admiration elicits active– and passive–facilitations, pity activates active–facilitation and passive–harm, envy induces passive–facilitation and passive–harm and contempt cues active– and passive–harm. In addition to direct effects, intergroup emotions mediate the direct effects of intergroup stereotypes and emotions. The combinations of each dimension of tourist stereotypes has each type of emotional reaction with each quadrant of behavioural responses. The investigation has identified the overall model of residents' attitudes towards tourists, focusing on stereotypes, emotions and behaviours.

These relationships are integrated to the overall conceptual model of this study. Overall, the proposed model implies that stereotype contents elicit emotional reactions, which then activate two behavioural responses. A visual diagram of the overall model with the proposed relationships has been presented. Finally, the full set of relationships have been summarised and presented in the last section of this chapter.

Chapter 4 will present the research instrument used in this study, which consists of three major sections that reflect intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. Next, the sample size and process of data collection will be discussed. Finally, the data analysis in achieving the research questions and objectives will be presented.

CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methods used to achieve the four objectives of this study. It is divided into two sections. Firstly, the research instrument is illustrated by developing the scale of residents' response behaviours towards tourists and the overall questionnaire. The second part explains the sample size, process of data collection and the statistical analysis that are used in this study.

4.1 Research Instrument

This section presents the instrument adopted in this study to achieve the objectives. Firstly, residents' tourist stereotypes and their emotional reactions are measured based on existing measurement scale. Stereotypes are measured in implicit and explicit approaches. Next, a scale is developed to measure residents' responsive behaviours towards tourists. Then, the developed scale is used to understand the consequential effects of stereotypes on behaviours through emotions. An online questionnaire is developed. This questionnaire integrates the IAT Likert scale rating on stereotype contents, reactive emotions and responsive behaviours, including a set of demographic questions that capture gender, age, education level and experiences in the hospitality and tourism industry. In the next sections, each part is presented and discussed in detail.

4.1.1 Measurement Scale for Tourist Stereotypes

The examination of stereotypes has been studied across various contexts, including in the field of tourism where recent studies have explored the influence of stereotypes on destination image (Chen, Lin, & Petrick, 2013) and tourists' perceptions of service suppliers (Luoh & Tsaur, 2014). Despite its popularity, the measurement scale adopted in previous studies came from a Western perspective and is outside the tourism context; thus, it fails to

reflect the epistemic value, which might lead to the failure in capturing the real understandings of residents' stereotypes and attitude formations. A measurement model that assesses tourist stereotypes from residents' perspectives was recently developed by Tung et al. (2020). By using an exploratory study on the stereotyping of Mainland Chinese tourists through a free response tasked from Hong Kong residents, 12 stereotypical attributes were identified across four dimensions, that is, friendly, sincere and good under the approachable dimension; intelligent, industrious and competent under the competence dimension; materialistic and loud under the boastful dimension; and unreasonable, immoral, rude and uncivilised under the rude dimension. Approachable and competence are regarded as positive stereotypes, whereas boastful and rude as negative stereotypes. These stereotypical attributes are also supported by Mainland Chinese tourists when they are self-stereotyping their counterparts. This measurement scale is adopted in implicit and explicit measurement of residents' tourist stereotypes. Table 4.1 summarises the stereotype contents from the tourist stereotype model.

Table 4.1 – Dimensions and Attributes of Tourist Stereotypes Model

Dimension	**Attributes**
Approachable	Friendly, Sincere, Good
Competent	Intelligent, Industrious, Competent
Boastful	Materialistic, Loud
Rude	Unreasonable, Immoral, Rude, Uncivilized

Source: Tung et al. (2020)

4.1.1.1 Explicit Measurement of Tourist Stereotypes

Explicit tourist stereotypes are investigated based on the attributes from the tourist stereotypes model (Tung et al., 2020). These stereotypes are used to measure residents' evaluations explicitly through the adoption of a Likert scale rating. Consistent with existing studies on explicit measurement of one's stereotypes towards the others (Cuddy et al., 2008; Fiske et al., 2002), a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree is adopted in this study.

The adoption of this measurement approach aims to achieve Objectives 1 and 2.

4.1.1.2 Implicit Measurement of Tourist Stereotypes

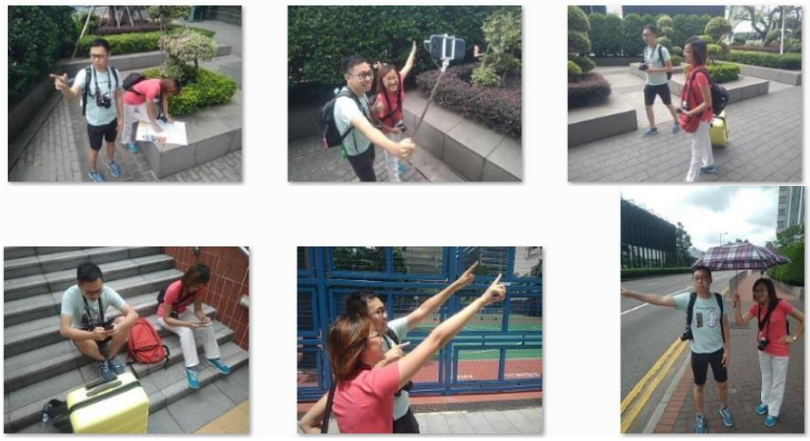
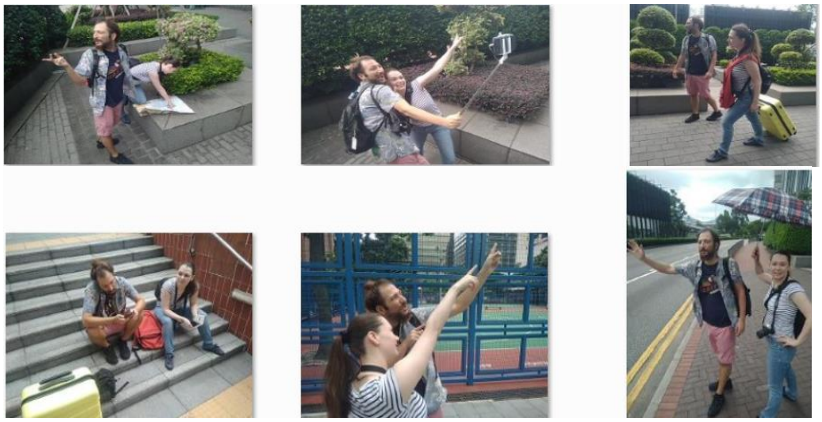
The use of implicit measurement to study the automatic activation of stereotypes started in the 1980s when sequential priming tasks developed from cognitive psychology was widely adopted (Fazio, Sanbonmatsu, Powell, & Kardes, 1986; Gaertner & McLaughlin, 1983). Particularly, evaluative and semantic priming tasks are frequently used measurements. Evaluative priming task assesses the evaluative responses where respondents are initially briefly presented with a prime target and positive or negative attributes (Fazio et al., 1986). Then, respondents are asked to determine whether the attributes are positive or negative by pressing one of the two response keys as fast as possible. Faster responses to positive words are associated with positive stereotypes, and vice versa. Semantic priming task is analogous to evaluative priming, except that respondents are presented with a set of meaningful or meaningless letter strings as attributes. It is testing the association of the prime target with the semantic meaning of the attributes. Although sequential priming tasks have provided significant findings in understanding the cognitive–behaviour relationship (Fazio, 2007), they are vulnerable to measurement errors, such as distraction, which lower their reliability, such that the value of Cronbach's alpha rarely exceeds 0.50 (Fazio, 2007).

Building on the foundation of cognitive priming task, the IAT was developed by Greenwald et al. (1998), and it has been one of the most widely adopted instruments in studying cognitive psychology in the recent decades (Gawronski & De Houwer, 2014). The IAT consists of congruent and incongruent tasks where the duration for associating target and attributes are recorded. Given the advancement of information technology, online data collection has been the platform for large and high-powered samples (Buhrmester, Talaifar, & Gosling, 2018; Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). However, amongst the various cognitive instruments, the IAT has

better interface with online surveys, as well as merging of data and attrition from software requirements. On this basis, the IAT is adopted in this study as the implicit measurement of tourist stereotypes.

The IAT consists of congruent and incongruent tasks that are used to measure the psychological association of two categories, namely, the target and attributes. In this study, the two categories comprise tourists (target) and tourist stereotypes (attributes). The tourist stereotypes are those that are used in the explicit measurement. Photos of six Mainland Chinese tourists' photos and six non-Mainland Chinese tourists are used. Table 4.2 summarises the stereotypical attributes and target photos.

Table 4.2 – Stereotypes Contents and Target Photos used in (IAT)

Dimensions	**Attributes**
Stereotypes Contents	
Positive	Friendly, Sincere, Good, Intelligent, Industrious, Competent
Negative	Materialistic, Loud, Unreasonable, Rude, Immoral, Uncivilized
Target	
Mainland Chinese Tourist	
Non-Mainland Chinese Tourist	

The IAT is constructed on the principle that a faster time is recorded when the two examined categories are associated than when they are not. For example, respondents with positive stereotypes on Mainland Chinese tourists (e.g. Mainland Chinese tourists = in a friendly way) should respond faster when the positive stereotypes and Mainland Chinese tourists' photos share a response key (congruent task) than when negative stereotype contents and Mainland Chinese tourists' photos are mapped on different response keys (incongruent task). Iatgen (Carpenter et al., 2018) is adopted the IAT in programming, and seven blocks of the standard paradigm are used. Iatgen is preferred over the other existing IAT given its adaptability to Qualtrics, a United States online questionnaire company that is used in this study. Furthermore, editing can be performed on the desired characteristics of the target and attributes through Iatgen's web applet.

Table 4.3 presents the procedure of the IAT used in this study. The first and second blocks allow respondents to familiarise the tourists and stereotype categorisation. In the first block, the respondents classify the photos of Mainland and non-Mainland Chinese tourists by pressing the 'E' or 'I' key, respectively. For the second block, the respondents categorise the stereotypes by pressing the 'E' or 'I' response key when positive or negative stereotype contents are displayed, respectively. The third block makes a joint discrimination where respondents press the 'E' key when Mainland Chinese tourist photos and positive stereotypes are shown, and the 'I' key when pictures of non-Mainland Chinese tourists and negative stereotypes are shown. The fourth block repeats the third block. The fifth block repeats the second block but switches sides of the polarity of the stereotypes. The 'E' or 'I' key is pressed when negative or positive stereotypes appear, respectively. The sixth block repeats the third block but in a new configuration. The respondents are required to classify Mainland Chinese

tourists' photos and negative stereotype contents by pressing the 'E' response key and the 'I' key for non-Mainland Chinese tourists' photos and positive stereotype contents. The seventh block repeats the sixth block. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 show the visual illustration of the IAT and an example of the IAT procedures.

Table 4.3 – Procedures of the Mainland Chinese Tourist – Stereotypes Content IAT

Block	Task Description	Assigned to "E" key	Assigned to "I" key
1	Target Congruent Practice	Mainland Chinese	Non-Mainland Chinese
2	Attribute Congruent Practice	Positive Content	Negative Content
3	Congruent Practice	Mainland Chinese or Positive Content	Non-Mainland Chinese or Negative Content
4	Congruent Test	*Same as Block 3*	
5	Attribute Incongruent Practice	Negative Content	Positive Content
6	Incongruent Practice	Mainland Chinese or Negative Content	Non-Mainland Chinese or Positive Content
7	Incongruent Test	*Same as Block 6*	

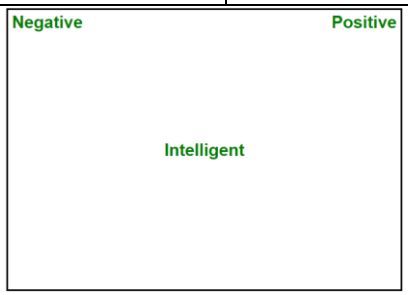
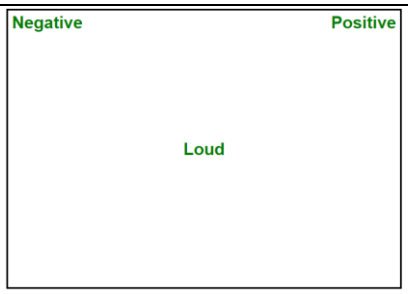
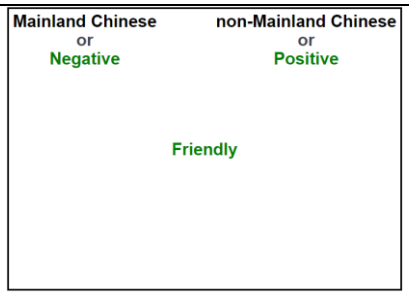
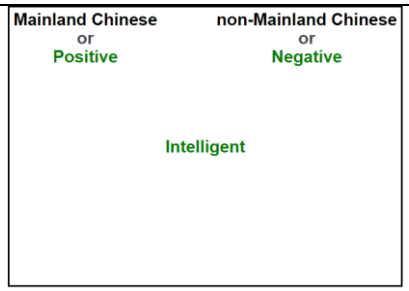
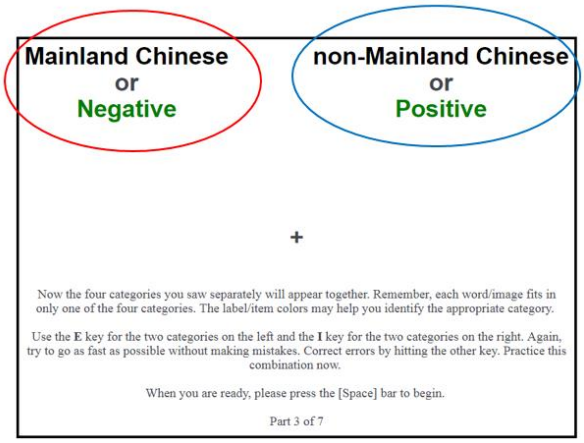
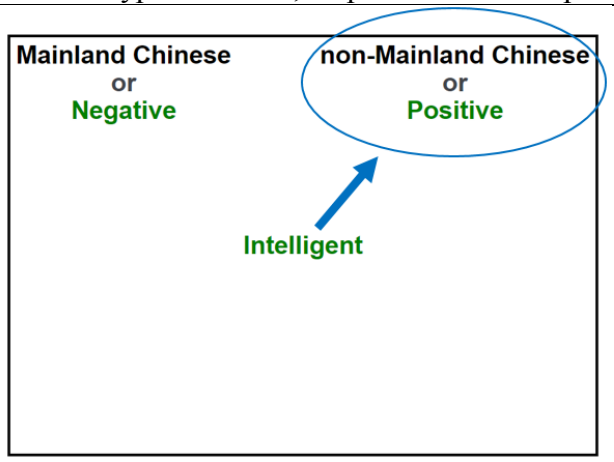
Block 1 Instructions	If the picture is Mainland Chinese, press the “E” key. If the picture is a Non-Mainland Chinese, press the “I” key Press SPACE BAR to start
	
Block 2 and 5 Instructions * E and I position are switched in Block 5	If the word is positive, press the “E” key. If the word is negative, press the “I” key. Press SPACE BAR to start
	
Block 3 and 6 Instructions Block 4 and 7 Instructions * E and I position are switched in Block 6	If the picture is Mainland Chinese or words is positive, press the “E” key. If the picture is a Non-Mainland Chinese or word is negative, press the “I” key. Press SPACE BAR to start
	
	

Figure 4.1 - Visual Illustration of Implicit Association Test (IAT)

Based on the item displayed in the middle of the screen.
Press the “I” key if the pictures or words shown are “non-Mainland Chinese” or “Positive”
Press the “E” key if the pictures or words shown are “Mainland Chinese” or “Negative”



For example:
“Intelligent” is a positive stereotypes attribute, respondents should press the “I” Key



However, if the respondent pressed the “E” key, a red cross is showed.
And correction has to be made.

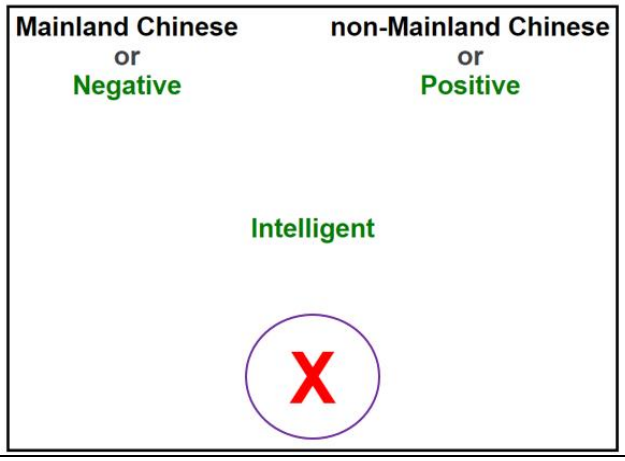


Figure 4.2 - Example of Implicit Association Test (IAT) procedures

A red cross ‘X’ is shown whenever a mistake is made, and respondents are forced to correct errors before continuing the test. The first, second and fifth blocks are practice blocks; the third and sixth blocks are practice tasks; and the fourth and seventh blocks are key tasks. The reaction times of the four blocks are recorded to calculate the value of *D*. According to Greenwald et al. (2003), *D* is recommended as the scoring procedures for IAT because it is proven with psychometrically justification. *D* is the mean of D_1 and D_2. D_1 is derived by subtracting the reaction time of Block 6 from Block 3, divided by the inclusive standard deviation of these blocks. D_2 is obtained from the difference of the reaction time between Blocks 7 and 4, divided by their inclusive standard deviation. In this study, a positive *D* value indicates association in the form of Mainland Chinese tourists with positive stereotypes or non-Mainland Chinese tourists with negative stereotypes. By contrast, a negative score indicates the opposite association of Mainland Chinese tourists with negative stereotypes or non-Mainland Chinese tourists with positive stereotypes.

Prior to the calculation of *D* score, a number of data cleaning procedures are performed. On the basis of the recommendation of Greenwald et al. (2003), respondents who used more than 10,000 ms, more than 10% of trails responded in less than 300 ms are not included in the analysis. The calculated *D* score should be within the possible range of −2 to +2. On the basis of the psychological conventions for effect size, the results are categorised into groups, that is, 0–0.14, 0.15–0.34, 0.35–0.64 and >0.65 indicate neither positive nor negative, slightly positive, moderately positive and strongly positive tourist stereotypes, respectively. Negative scores of the same degree indicate similar categories of negative tourist stereotypes. Table 4.4 presents the break range with the corresponding stereotype associations.

The IAT is used to accomplish Objectives 1 and 2.

Table 4.4 – IAT Break Range and its Stereotypes Associations

Break Range	Stereotypes Associations
- 0.65 ≤ x ≤ - 2	Strong Negative Association
- 0.35 ≤ x < -0.65	Moderate Negative Association
- 0.15 ≤ x < -0.35	Slight Negative Association
- 0.15 < x < 0.15	Neither Negative nor Positive Association
0.15 ≤ x < 0.35	Slight Positive Association
0.35 ≤ x < 0.65	Moderate Positive Association
0.65 ≤ x ≤ 2	Strong Positive Association

Source: Haider et al. (2011)

4.1.2 Measurement Scale for Residents' Responsive Behaviours towards Tourist

Amongst the constructs identified in this study, tourist stereotypes and intergroup emotions have been examined in the literature. However, a measurement scale for residents' behaviours towards tourists has yet to be developed. Therefore, this study aims to develop a reliable and valid measurement scale for residents' responsive behaviours towards tourists. This measurement is developed based on the concept of the BIAS map (Cuddy et al., 2007). This map consists of quadrants, namely, active–facilitation, passive–Facilitation, active–harm and passive–harm. Together, behavioural items from the BIAS map and existing resident–tourist tourism literature form a pool of 24 initial items, where a list of 11 positive and 13 negative resident behaviours are compiled (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 – List of Residents' Behaviours (Existing Tourism Literatures)

Positive Behaviours	***Negative Behaviours***
Accept the tourist behaviors (Pile, 2017) Assist the tourist (Tung, 2019) Endure the tourist behaviors (Pile, 2017) Help the tourist (Tung, 2019) Interact with the tourist (Chen et al., 2019) Show courtesy to tourist (Nadeau et al., 2008) Show hospitality to tourist (Teng, 2011) Show politeness to tourist (Nadeau et al., 2008) Socialize with the tourist (Saveriades, 2000) Start a conversation with tourist (Thiel et al., 2015) Tolerate the tourist behaviors (Pile, 2017)	Act in a threatening manner toward tourist (otoo et al., 2019) Avoid going to spaces filled with tourist (Chen et al., 2018) Avoid interacting with tourist (Chen et al., 2018) Despise the tourist (Huang & Hsu, 2005) Harass the tourist (Otoo et al., 2019) Insult the tourist (Kozak, 2007) Look down on tourist (Huang & Hsu, 2005) Mock at the tourist (Ambroz, 2008) Refrain to help tourist (Ye et al., 2012) Reluctant to help tourist (Ye et al., 2012) Resist to help tourist (Ye et al., 2012) Stare at the tourist (Maoz, 2006) Use offensive nicknames on tourist (Kozak, 2007)

4.1.3 Measurement Scale for Resident Emotional Reactions towards Tourist

The investigation on residents' reactive emotions towards tourists is conducted through the rating of residents' reactive emotion attributes. Although some resident–tourist studies have adopted other emotional measurements, such as ESS, the present work prefers the emotional measurement proposed by Fiske et al. (2002) because the identified emotions are elicited on the basis of intergroup stereotypes and comparisons, which evoke specific response behaviours. Such consequential effect is not examined in other emotional measurements and are thus not used in this study. Twelve reactive emotions across four dimensions are identified, namely, respect, admiration, pride and inspiration under the admiration dimension; pity and sympathy under the pity dimension; envy and jealousy under the envy dimension; and contempt, disgust, hate and resentment under the contempt dimension. This measurement scale has been adopted in various intergroup relationship studies to investigate the emotional reactions of individuals towards members of other social groups (Cuddy et al., 2007; Fiske et al., 2002). Consistent with existing studies and the previous section on explicit measurement of tourist stereotypes, a

seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree is used. Table 4.6 summarises the emotion dimensions and attributes.

This measurement scale is introduced to achieve Objective 4.

Table 4.6 - Dimensions and Attributes of Affective Structures from Stereotype Content Model

Dimensions	**Contents**
Admiration	Respect, Admiration, Pride, Inspiration
Pity	Pity, Sympathy
Envy	Envy, Jealousy
Contempt	Contempt, Disgust, Hate, Resentment

Source: Fiske et al. (2002)

4.2 Pilot Tests

Three pilot tests were conducted to ensure the applicability and validity of the measurement items used in this thesis. The first pilot test consisted of Implicit Association Test (IAT) and explicit tourist stereotypes, the second pilot test focused on Residents' Behaviour Model, and the final pilot test is the main survey of this thesis that contained all the scales measuring stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours.

4.2.1 Pilot Test for Tourist Stereotypes

Tourist stereotypes are formed by two dichotomy streams of explicit and implicit activations which should be measured separately. In this research, the explicit tourist stereotypes are measured with existing measurement items and scales, while the implicit tourist stereotypes are measured with Implicit Association Test (IAT) that is newly adopted in the human-human relation tourism studies. To ensure the clarity of instructions and operation of IAT, a pilot test was conducted with 167 Hong Kong residents in January 2019. Respondents are to complete both IAT and Likert scale rating via an online questionnaire. The result of this pilot test showed the reaction time of each target-attribute association of each individuals, allowing the identification of disqualified data and the incorrect association

made of the respondents. Also, the collected reaction times were able to calculate into stereotype associations that fall within the range of -2 to +2. No modification were made in the Main Survey.

4.2.2 Pilot Test for Residents' Behaviour Model

The list of residents' behaviour accumulated from existing tourism literature reflect 24 behavioural items, 11 positive and 13 negative. In addition, to avoid the missing of some resident behaviours, a free response task was conducted with 56 Hong Kong residents in early-February 2019. Respondents are to rate their frequencies on performing the identified resident behaviours on a 7-point Likert scales. Next, they have to list behaviour(s) that they have performed onto Mainland Chinese tourists. Behaviours that are mentioned by two or more respondents are kept, and only one version of repeated behaviours is used in the analysis. The results showed that 13 more behavioural items, 7 positive and 6 negative, were added to the list. Eventually, an initial pool of 37 resident behavioural items are generated with 18 positive and 19 negative items, as summarised in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 – Initial Pool of Residents' Behaviours (Existing Literature and Free Response Task)

	Positive Behaviours	***Negative Behaviours***
In Existing Literature	Accept the tourist behaviors Assist the tourist Endure the tourist behaviors Help the tourist Interact with the tourist Show courtesy to tourist Show hospitality to tourist Show politeness to tourist Socialize with the tourist Start a conversation with tourist Tolerate the tourist behaviors	Act in a threatening manner toward tourist Avoid going to spaces filled with tourist Avoid interacting with tourist Despise the tourist Harass the tourist Insult the tourist Look down on tourist Mock at the tourist Refrain to help tourist Reluctant to help tourist Resist to help tourist Stare at the tourist Use offensive nicknames on tourist
Free Response Task	Answer questions from tourist when they ask Compliment the tourist Going to spaces filled with tourist Practice good manner on tourists Provide recommendations to tourist Respect the tourist Volunteer to help tourist	Express unfriendliness to tourist Ignore questions from tourist when they ask Scold the tourist for their wrongdoings Show hostility to tourist Speak negatively about tourist Use negative words on tourist

Furthermore, this list of positive and negative residents' behaviours were examined by 30 tourism professional and experts in late-February 2019. They were assigned with a randomized list of residents' behaviours and were required to sort them into positive and negative columns. All respondents were able to sort the residents' behaviours same the arrangement shown in Table 4.7. Also, the respondents acknowledged the clarity of these residents' behaviours. No modification were made to the list for subsequent analysis in the formation of Residents' Behaviour Model.

4.2.3 Pilot Test for Main Survey

The main survey consisted of four sections of IAT, explicit stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours. This main survey was launched after the finalization of the Residents' Behaviours Model. The questionnaire was initially developed in English and then translated

into traditional and simplified Chinese, Bahasa Malay and Thai by ProLink, an international translation service company based in Hong Kong. The translated version was read, reviewed and revised by Chinese, Malaysian and Thai doctoral students. The survey was corrected to improve the accuracy and understandability for the respondents. Additionally, the main surveys were piloted to 20 respondents in each destinations in mid-June 2019 (Hong Kong – Traditional Chinese; Malaysia – Malays; Singapore – English; Thailand – Thai). The results showed that no modification was needed and the surveys are shared with Qualtrics for data collection. Qualtrics suggested a soft launch with 15 respondents from each destination in end-June 2019. The soft launch allowed the identification any discrepancies or data quality issues. No problems were identified and the surveys proceed to the full launch in end-June 2019.

4.3 Sample size and Process of Data Collection

An online questionnaire was distributed to residents in Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. For Malaysia and Thailand, capital cities Kuala Lumpur and Bangkok, respectively, are selected as the sample area due to their popularity amongst Mainland Chinese tourists. The questionnaire was initially developed in English and then translated into traditional and simplified Chinese, Bahasa Malay and Thai by ProLink, an international translation service company based in Hong Kong. The translated version was read, reviewed and revised by Chinese, Malaysian and Thai doctoral students. The survey was corrected to improve the accuracy and understandability for the respondents.

The online questionnaire was distributed in Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand through Qualtrics. The sample of this study comprised people who are residing in their own places. In other words, Hong Kong permanent residents living in Hong Kong, and so on. The sample size is 250 residents from each destination, which is a total of 1,000

respondents. This sample is concluded based on statistical calculation and the consideration of resource availability. At a 5% margin of error, 95% confidence level and 50% response distribution, each destination ideally should achieved 385 respondents. However, due to budget constraint, the sample was reduced to 250 in each destination. The margin of error, with a sample size of 250, is 6.07% which is still represent the examined population. These respondents were recruited through quota sampling method to ensure the equal representation of respondents in each layer of a stratified sample group (Altinay, Paraskevas, & Jang, 2015). Although the method may not enhance the chance of randomness, the representation of the strata within the selected population can be improved (Altinay et al., 2015). In this study, the quotas are set according to the 2018 gender ratio obtained from the official census data of the respective destinations. Table 4.7 presents the gender percentage across the four destinations with the source of information.

Table 4.8 – 2018 Gender Ratio of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand

	Percentage of		
Destination	**Female**	**Male**	**Source**
Hong Kong	54.23%	45.77%	Hong Kong Census and Statistic Department
Malaysia	48.31%	51.69%	Department of Statistic Malaysia
Singapore	51.03%	48.97%	Department of Statistic Singapore
Thailand	50.87%	49.13%	Thailand Board of Investment

4.4 Data Analysis

4.4.1 Univariate Analysis

Univariate analysis involves only one variable in statistical analysis where it could be in the form of describing or inferring the sample. Objective 1 aims to measure the explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes. Explicit tourist stereotypes are interval level data that can be presented in terms of its means and standard deviation. Implicit tourist stereotypes are

nominal variables where individuals are placed into one of the seven stereotype categories, and presented using frequency analysis.

4.4.2 Bivariate Analysis

Bivariate analysis involves two different set of variables, and the main purpose is to determine the possible association between them. Objective 2 aims to examine the relationship between explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes. There is a lack of existing literature to indicate either explicit or implicit as the dependent variable, as such, this thesis adopts Pearson's correlation to determine their associations. Furthermore, scatterplot is presented to increase the visual results of the association.

4.4.3 Multivariate Analysis

Multivariate analysis involves three or more variables where the structures among these variables are important. Objective 3 aims to develop a resident behaviour model. The collected dataset is analysed by exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using Varimax rotation methods to assess the dimensionality (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003). A measurement scale can be developed on the basis of the EFA outcomes. Next, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is conducted to assess the full factor structure from EFA results. The qualified attributes are retained as the items for measurement scale of residents' behavioural responses.

Additionally, Objective 4 aims to explore the relationship amongst stereotypes, emotions and behaviours towards tourists, by using SPSS Process v3.3. A regression-based approach is used to analyse the mediation effect amongst constructs. Moreover, bootstrapping is adopted to determine the significant influence of indirect effects. Also, on the basis of Hayes's (2013) recommendation, this study uses 10,000 bootstrap samples and 95% confidence interval to determine the significance of the indirect effect in each model.

Table 4.9 – Summary of the Data Analysis

No.	Objective	Data Analysis
1	To measure the explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes	Calculation of *D*-values Frequency analysis
2	To examine the relationship between explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes	Pearson's correlation
3	To develop a scale measuring resident behavioural responses to tourists	Exploratory Factor Analysis Confirmatory Factor Analysis
4	To explore the relationship between stereotypes, emotions and behaviours toward tourist	SPSS PROCESS v3.3

4.5 Summary of Chapter 4 – Methodology

Chapter 4 (Methodology) has indicated the formation of the research instrument used in this study. The research instrument comprises three major parts that measure intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. The intergroup stereotype is further separated into explicit and implicit groups, which are measured using the 12 stereotype contents identified in the tourist stereotype model (Tung et al., 2020). The measured explicit stereotypes adopt a seven-point Likert scale to evaluate the 12 stereotype contents. For the measured implicit stereotypes, the IAT is used to capture the mental association between the stereotype contents and the examined target (i.e. Mainland Chinese tourists). The IAT is relatively new to the tourism studies. Thus, a detailed mapping has been provided to illustrate the development of the IAT in this study.

Next, the intergroup emotion has been measured using the attributes from the SCM (Fiske et al., 2002) with a seven-point Likert scale. Amongst the available measurement scale, the emotions of this scale are identified and concluded on the basis of intergroup stereotypes and the comparison that evokes specific responsive behaviours.

The three parts of the research instrument measure the intergroup behaviours. However, despite the vast range of residents' behaviours towards tourists, no measurement scale for

residents' behaviours towards tourists has been developed. Without a valid and reliable scale, the proposed hypotheses cannot be examined. Therefore, a measurement scale for resident responsive behaviours towards tourists is developed in this work. This measurement is developed on the basis of the concept of the BIAS map (Cuddy et al., 2007). Items of behavioural responses are categorised into the four quadrants of active–facilitation, passive–facilitation, active–harm and passive–harm.

The research instrument was distributed in Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand using an online channel. The instrument was initially developed in English and then translated into traditional and simplified Chinese, Bahasa Malay and Thai by a professional company. The sample size is between 200 and 250 residents from each destination, which is approximately 800–1,000 respondents. These respondents were recruited through gender quota sampling method to improve the representation of the strata within the selected population (Altinay et al., 2015).

The collected data are analysed based on the objectives using IBM SPSS 25.0. Implicit tourist stereotypes lie on the calculated value of association that classifies the respondents into one of the seven stereotype groups. For explicit stereotypes, the mean of each stereotype dimensions is calculated. The relationship between explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes is examined through Pearson's correlation test. The resident behaviour model is developed using EFA and CFA. The qualified behavioural items are retained as the items of the measurement scale. The relationship amongst intergroup stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours towards tourist is analysed using SPSS Process v3.3.

Chapter 5 (Findings) will introduce the results of this study according to each research objective. A detailed analysis of each research objective will be presented using the data collected from Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. Furthermore, the process of

data screening, identification of missing data and outliers, testing of the normality test and corresponding analysis will be discussed.

CHAPTER 5 FINDINGS

This chapter presents the findings of this study based on the four previously stated objectives (i.e. Objective 1—to identify the implicit and explicit stereotypes that residents hold towards tourists; Objective 2—to measure the correlation between implicit and explicit stereotypes; Objective 3—to develop a resident responsive behaviour model; and Objective 4—to explore the relationship of stereotypes on behaviours through emotions). Data screening, missing data and outliers, findings of normality test and corresponding analysis are also discussed in this chapter.

The data used for the main survey were screened to ensure the suitability for investigation. The target samples are residents of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. In this study, permanent resident holders of Hong Kong and citizens of Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand are included in the study. Therefore, one screening question is included in the main survey, 'Are you a permanent resident (citizen) of Hong Kong (Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand)?' Respondents who disagreed with the question were terminated immediately from the main survey. Only those who agreed with the question were invited to complete the survey. A total of 1,040 responses, 260 from each destination, remained for the next stage.

The results of the analysis are presented in the subsequent section based on the corresponding objectives.

5.1 Results of Objective 1 – To Measure the Explicit and Implicit Tourist Stereotypes

Objective 1 aims to measure the explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes. The implicit tourist stereotypes are determined by calculating the *D* scores of the IAT, the procedures of which has been discussed in Chapter 2. Next, the frequency distribution of explicit and implicit

tourist stereotypes across Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand can be identified using frequency analysis.

5.1.1. Missing Data and outliers

Missing data pose problems that can reduce the statistical power of a study, and the production of biased estimate can result in invalid conclusion. In the present work, 40 respondents were removed due to their invalid *D* score from the IAT. They were either too fast or too slow in associating the pictures and words; thus, calculating the *D* score was impossible. Box plots were conducted to check outliers, which detected 10 outliers. Finally, 990 respondents (247 from Hong Kong, 249 from Malaysia, 246 from Singapore and 248 from Thailand) comprised the sample for analysis. It is noted that the sample size is less than 250 across the four destinations, the margin of error was calculated for each destination. The results showed that the values of margin of error of the four destinations remain high confidence where the collected samples reflect the examined populations (Hong Kong - 6.24%; Malaysia - 6.21%; Singapore - 6.25%; Thailand - 6.22%).

5.1.2 Normality Test

Tables 5.1 and 5.2 present the results of normality test for the IAT score and measured explicit stereotype dimensions. Normality test examines the assumption that the collected data are normally distributed. The violation of such assumption poses accuracy and reliability issues on the conclusion. The asymmetry and peak of a distribution can be examined using skewness and kurtosis. Skewness value can be positive or negative, where positive and negative values respectively indicate a higher and lower score than the mean score. A positive kurtosis value is called leptokurtic distribution with high peak, whereas a negative value is called platykurtic distribution with flat top. According to Kline (2011), an absolute value of skewness that is greater than 3 is regarded as ‘greatly skewed’. In terms of kurtosis, the absolute value of 9 is

adopted in this study. Across the four destinations, the absolute values of skewness are between 0.01 and 1.28 (Table 5.1), whereas the absolute values of kurtosis are between 0.05 and 1.39 (Table 5.2). The data are normally distributed because the values of measurement items lie within the suggested range.

Table 5.1 – Skewness Test for IAT Scores and Tourist Stereotypes across Four Destinations

	Hong Kong		**Malaysia**		**Singapore**		**Thailand**	
Variables	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**
IAT Score	0.10	0.16	-0.10	0.15	-0.02	0.16	0.16	0.16
Approachable								
Friendly	0.08	0.16	-0.30	0.15	-0.13	0.16	-0.34	0.16
Sincere	-0.11	0.16	-0.35	0.15	-0.26	0.16	-0.31	0.16
Good	-0.24	0.16	-0.39	0.15	-0.26	0.16	-0.39	0.16
Competence								
Intelligent	0.01	0.16	-0.32	0.15	-0.38	0.16	-0.39	0.16
Industrious	-0.33	0.16	-0.44	0.15	-0.29	0.16	-0.59	0.16
Competent	-0.39	0.16	-0.06	0.15	-0.21	0.16	-0.40	0.16
Boastful								
Materialistic	-0.61	0.16	-0.43	0.15	-0.52	0.16	-0.74	0.16
Loud	-1.27	0.16	-0.55	0.15	-1.28	0.16	-0.32	0.16
Rude								
Unreasonable	-0.07	0.16	-0.37	0.15	-0.64	0.16	-0.21	0.16
Immoral	-0.58	0.16	-0.28	0.15	-0.54	0.16	-0.26	0.16
Rude	-0.57	0.16	-0.21	0.15	-0.45	0.16	0.10	0.16
Uncivilized	-0.10	0.16	-0.14	0.15	-0.25	0.16	0.12	0.16

Table 5.2 – Kurtosis Test for IAT Scores and Tourist Stereotypes across Four Destinations

	Hong Kong		Malaysia		Singapore		Thailand	
Variables	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**
IAT Score	0.06	0.31	-0.21	0.31	0.15	0.31	0.36	0.31
Approachable								
Friendly	-0.76	0.31	0.09	0.31	-0.62	0.31	-0.35	0.31
Sincere	0.07	0.31	0.06	0.31	0.27	0.31	-0.16	0.31
Good	0.43	0.31	-0.25	0.31	-0.03	0.31	-0.35	0.31
Competence								
Intelligent	-0.57	0.31	-0.39	0.31	-0.29	0.31	0.21	0.31
Industrious	-0.05	0.31	0.47	0.31	-0.11	0.31	0.10	0.31
Competent	0.80	0.31	-0.31	0.31	0.10	0.31	0.20	0.31
Boastful								
Materialistic	0.23	0.31	-0.49	0.31	0.25	0.31	-1.00	0.31
Loud	1.39	0.31	-0.52	0.31	1.44	0.31	-0.73	0.31
Rude								
Unreasonable	0.21	0.31	-0.54	0.31	0.15	0.31	-1.04	0.31
Immoral	-0.03	0.31	-0.40	0.31	0.28	0.31	-0.85	0.31
Rude	0.15	0.31	-0.58	0.31	-0.29	0.31	-0.31	0.31
Uncivilized	-0.53	0.31	-0.57	0.31	-0.19	0.31	-0.87	0.31

5.1.3 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Table 5.3 presents the demographic profile of the respondents in the main survey. Four demographic variables are investigated, namely, gender, age, education level and working experience in the hospitality and tourism industry. The results indicated that the collected data have similar gender representation with respect to the census provided by the government of the four destinations. Male respondents comprise 46.15%, 51.81%, 49.59% and 49.19% coming from Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand, respectively. Referring to the official census provided by respective governments in 2018, the proportions of males are 45.77%, 51.69%, 48.97% and 49.13% in Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand, respectively, which indicate the representative data from both genders. The Hong Kong sample is dominated by 40–44 years old, Singapore sample is mainly aged between 25 and 29 years

old, whereas Malaysia and Thailand are largely represented by respondents aged between 25 and 29 years old and 35 and 39 years old, respectively. Regarding education level, 68.02%, 64.26%, 63.82% and 88.61% of the Hong Kong, Malaysian, Singapore and Thailand residents have obtained at least a bachelor's degree, respectively. Furthermore, 19.43%, 30.12%, 21.54% and 32.26% of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand samples have work experience in the hospitality and tourism industry, respectively.

Table 5.3 – Demographic Profile of Respondents across Four Destinations

	Hong Kong (n = 247)		Malaysia (n = 249)		Singapore (n = 246)		Thailand (n = 248)	
Variables	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Gender								
Female	133	53.85%	120	48.19%	124	50.41%	126	50.81%
Male	114	46.15%	129	51.81%	122	49.59%	122	49.19%
Age								
18 - 24	55	19.86%	57	22.89%	48	19.51%	37	14.92%
25 - 29	36	13.00%	49	19.68%	51	20.73%	48	19.35%
30 -34	50	18.05%	43	17.27%	43	17.48%	47	18.95%
35 - 39	51	18.41%	49	19.68%	38	15.45%	48	19.35%
40 - 44	59	21.30%	23	9.24%	28	11.38%	31	12.50%
45 - 49	9	3.25%	16	6.43%	18	7.32%	16	6.45%
50 - 54	8	2.89%	5	2.01%	7	2.85%	10	4.03%
55 - 59	8	2.89%	2	0.80%	8	3.25%	8	3.23%
60 and Above	1	0.36%	5	2.01%	5	2.03%	3	1.21%
Education								
Secondary school or less	27	10.93%	21	8.43%	20	8.13%	11	4.64%
Post-Secondary	52	21.05%	68	27.31%	69	28.05%	27	11.39%
Bachelor degree	131	53.04%	99	39.76%	115	46.75%	183	77.22%
Master degree	34	13.77%	51	20.48%	40	16.26%	26	10.97%
Doctorate degree	3	1.21%	10	4.02%	2	0.81%	1	0.42%
Working Experience in Hospitality and Tourism								
Yes	48	19.43%	75	30.12%	53	21.54%	80	32.26%
No	199	80.57%	174	69.88%	193	78.46%	168	67.74%

5.1.4 Reliability of Stereotypes Dimensions

The internal consistency for the dimensions of each construct is calculated. Table 5.4 shows that the reliability alpha of the four stereotype dimensions (i.e. approachable, competence, boastful and rude) are within the range of 0.74 to 0.92 across Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. All the values are greater than the threshold value of 0.70, which represents good internal consistency of the items in each subscale (Nunnally, 1978) of the tourist stereotype model.

Table 5.4 – Internal Consistency of Tourist Stereotypes across Four Destinations

Variables	**Hong Kong**	**Malaysia**	**Singapore**	**Thailand**
Approachable	0.76	0.83	0.86	0.89
Competence	0.80	0.79	0.81	0.82
Boastful	0.82	0.82	0.74	0.84
Rude	0.87	0.92	0.90	0.90

5.1.5 Explicit Tourist Stereotypes

Table 5.5 presents the mean of the tourist stereotypes of each examined destination via explicit measurement approach.

Across the four destinations, the Southeast Asian destinations reported neutral to somehow agree on stereotyping Mainland Chinese tourists as approachable. For instance, Thailand sample ($M_{Thailand}$ = 4.91, $SD_{Thailand}$ = 1.27) rates Mainland Chinese tourists with the highest approachable, followed by Malaysia ($M_{Malaysia}$ = 4.59, $SD_{Malaysia}$ = 1.13) and Singapore ($M_{Singapore}$ = 4.36, $SD_{Singapore}$ = 1.19) samples, and Hong Kong ($M_{Hong\ Kong}$ = 3.83, $SD_{Hong\ Kong}$ = 1.21) sample indicates a disagreement on this stereotype content.

A similar pattern is observed in another positive stereotype content of competence where Thailand sample agrees with a high average score of 5.15 ($SD_{Thailand}$ = 1.07). Next,

Singapore and Malaysia samples indicate a lower agreement than Thailand ($M_{Singapore}$ = 4.88, $SD_{Singapore}$ = 1.04; $M_{Malaysia}$ = 4.68, $SD_{Malaysia}$ = 1.05). Hong Kong sample displayes lowest agreement towards stereotyping Mainland Chinese tourists with positive contents ($M_{Hong\ Kong}$ = 4.02, $SD_{Hong\ Kong}$ = 1.21).

For the negative stereotype contents, Hong Kong sample agrees that Mainland Chinese tourists are boastful ($M_{Hong\ Kong}$ = 5.42, $SD_{Hong\ Kong}$ = 1.31), followed by Singapore ($M_{Singapore}$ = 5.30, $SD_{Singapore}$ = 1.27). The results show that Malaysia and Thailand samples indicate a neutral evaluation of stereotyping Mainland Chinese tourists as boastful ($M_{Malaysia}$ = 4.61, $SD_{Malaysia}$ = 1.51; $M_{Thailand}$ = 4.41, $SD_{Thailand}$ = 1.83).

Furthermore, none of the respondents agree that Mainland Chinese tourists are rude. Hong Kong has the highest agreement with an average score of 4.89 ($SD_{Hong\ Kong}$ = 1.26), followed by Singapore ($M_{Singapore}$ = 4.68, $SD_{Singapore}$ = 1.26) and Malaysia ($M_{Malaysia}$ = 4.23, $SD_{Malaysia}$ = 1.44). Interestingly, Thailand disagrees that Mainland Chinese tourists are rude ($M_{Thailand}$ = 3.70, $SD_{Thailand}$ = 1.48).

Across the four stereotype contents, the results indicate that the image of Mainland Chinese tourists are stereotyped as boastful in Hong Kong and Singapore and competence in Thailand. No distinctive stereotypical image is formed by the Malaysian sample with nearly neutral evaluations in positive and negative stereotype contents.

Table 5.5 – Means and Standard Deviations of Explicit Tourist Stereotypes across Four Destinations

Stereotypes	**Hong Kong**	**Malaysia**	**Singapore**	**Thailand**
Approachable	3.83 (1.21)	4.59 (1.13)	4.36 (1.19)	4.91 (1.27)
Competence	4.02 (1.21)	4.68 (1.05)	4.88 (1.04)	5.15 (1.07)
Boastful	5.42 (1.31)	4.61 (1.51)	5.30 (1.27)	4.41 (1.83)
Rude	4.89 (1.26)	4.23 (1.44)	4.68 (1.26)	3.70 (1.48)

5.1.6 Implicit Tourist Stereotypes

The speed of association between the target and attributes are recorded Using the IAT to be transformed into the IAT effect score (*D* score), which represents relative preference for the congruent and incongruent association. On the basis of the value of *D* score, the respondents can categorised into seven groups of stereotyped effects towards the target, namely, no effect, slightly positive, medium positive, strongly positive, slightly negative, medium negative and strongly negative. The frequency distributions show that most of the respondents have no stereotype effect on Mainland Chinese tourists (Hong Kong = 66, 26.72%; Malaysia = 48, 19.28%; Singapore = 56, 22.76%; Thailand = 69, 27.82%; Figure 5.1). Moreover, the respondents' associative evaluation is more negative for Hong Kong and Malaysian samples, whereas more positive for the Singapore and Thailand samples.

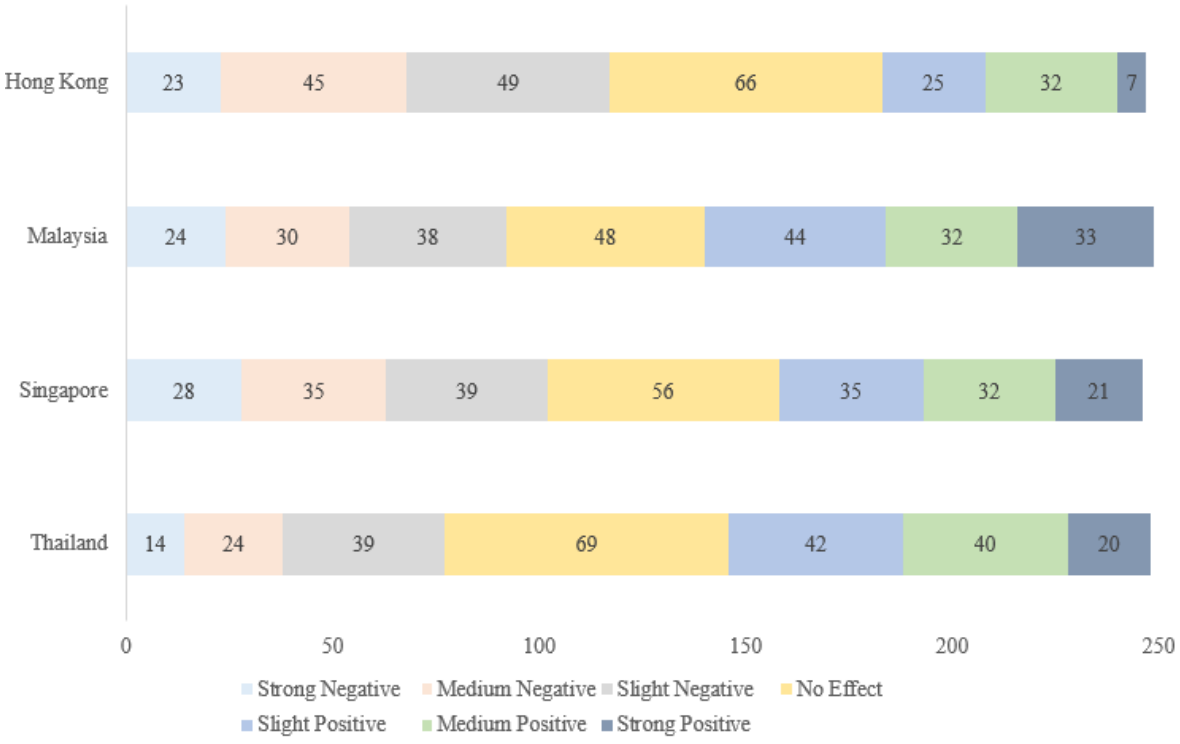


Figure 5.1 – Frequency Distribution of IAT Associations across Four Destinations

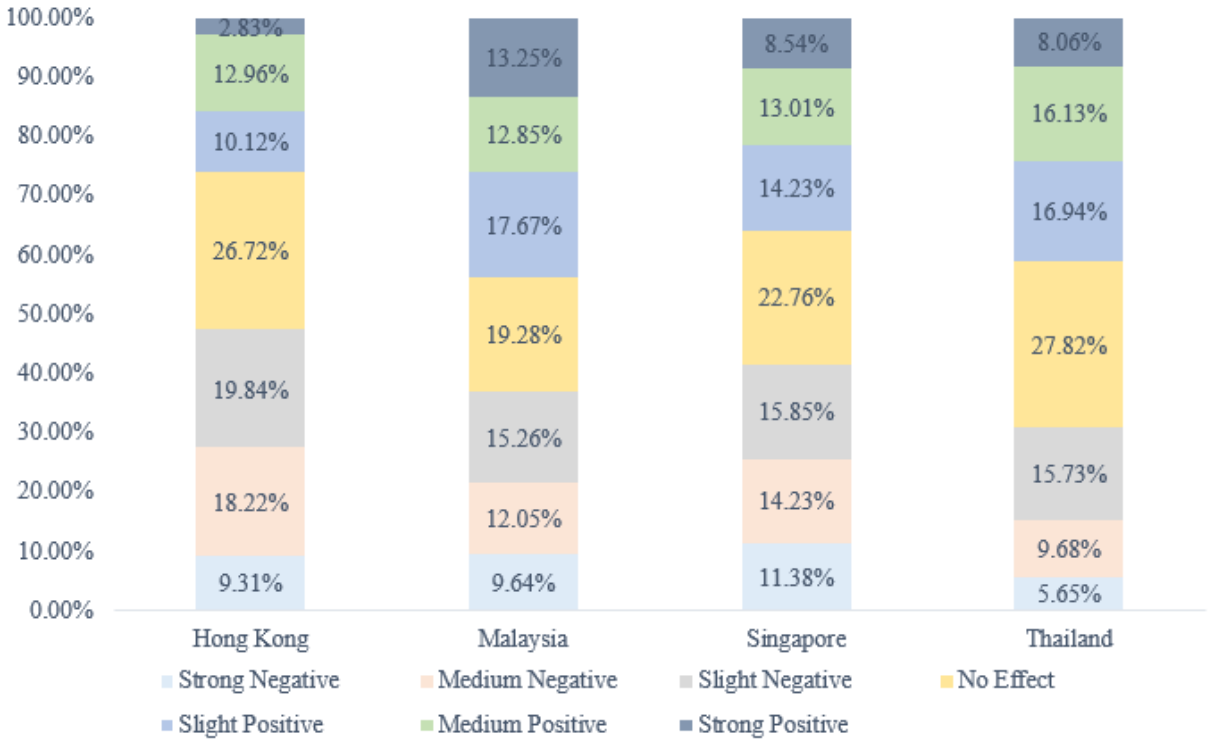


Figure 5.2 – Percentage Distributions of IAT Association across Four Destinations

5.1.7 Summary of Objective 1

From the analysis, Hong Kong and Thailand respondents are relatively consistent with their explicit and implicit stereotypes of Mainland Chinese tourists, where Hong Kong residents perform stereotypes more negatively, whereas the Thailand sample stereotypes with more positive results in both measurements. Discrepancy results are noted in Singapore and Malaysia. For Singapore, the measured explicit stereotypes indicate more identified negativity, whereas the measured implicit stereotypes show that Singaporeans associate Mainland Chinese tourists with more positive evaluations. For Malaysia, their explicit stereotypes towards Mainland Chinese tourists are relatively neutral, whereas the implicit stereotypes indicate that they evaluated Mainland Chinese tourists with more positive views than the other samples.

5.2 Results of Objective 2 - To Examine the Relationships between Explicit and Implicit Tourist Stereotypes

Objective 2 aims to examine the relationship between explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes. This objective can be achieved using Pearson's correlations between the IAT scores and measured score of explicit stereotypes. The IAT score is the calculated value of *D.* The measured score of explicit stereotypes is the difference between positive (approachable and competence) and negative (boastful and rude) stereotypes. Respondents with positive and negative scores indicate positive and negative associations with Mainland Chinese tourists, respectively. The respondent evalautes, approachable = 5, competence = 4, boastful = 6 and rude = 6. Thus, the measured score of explicit stereotypes is $[(5 + 4) - (6 + 6) = 9 - 12 = -3)$, indicating negative association.

5.2.1 Correlation Analysis between Explicit and Implicit Tourist Stereotypes

A Pearson's correlation analysis is performed to determine the correlation between the measured explicit and implicit stereotypes. Table 5.7 shows the results of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. Across the four destinations, the correlation is positive but weak and insignificant ($r_{Hong\ Kong} = 0.01$, n = 247, p = 0.84; $r_{Malaysia} = 0.00$, n = 249, p = 0.94; $r_{Singapore} = 0.07$, n = 246, p = 0.31; $r_{Thailand} = 0.04$, n = 248, p = 0.57). The scatterplots of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand summarise the correlation of implicit–explicit tourist stereotypes (Figure 5.3).

Table 5.6 – Correlation Coefficient of Explicit and Implicit Tourist Stereotypes across Four Destinations

Variables	**Explicit Tourist Stereotypes**							
	Hong Kong		**Malaysia**		**Singapore**		**Thailand**	
	coe.	**sign**	**coe.**	**sign**	**coe.**	**sign**	**coe.**	**sign**
Implicit Tourist Stereotypes	0.01	0.84	0.00	0.94	0.07	0.31	0.04	0.57

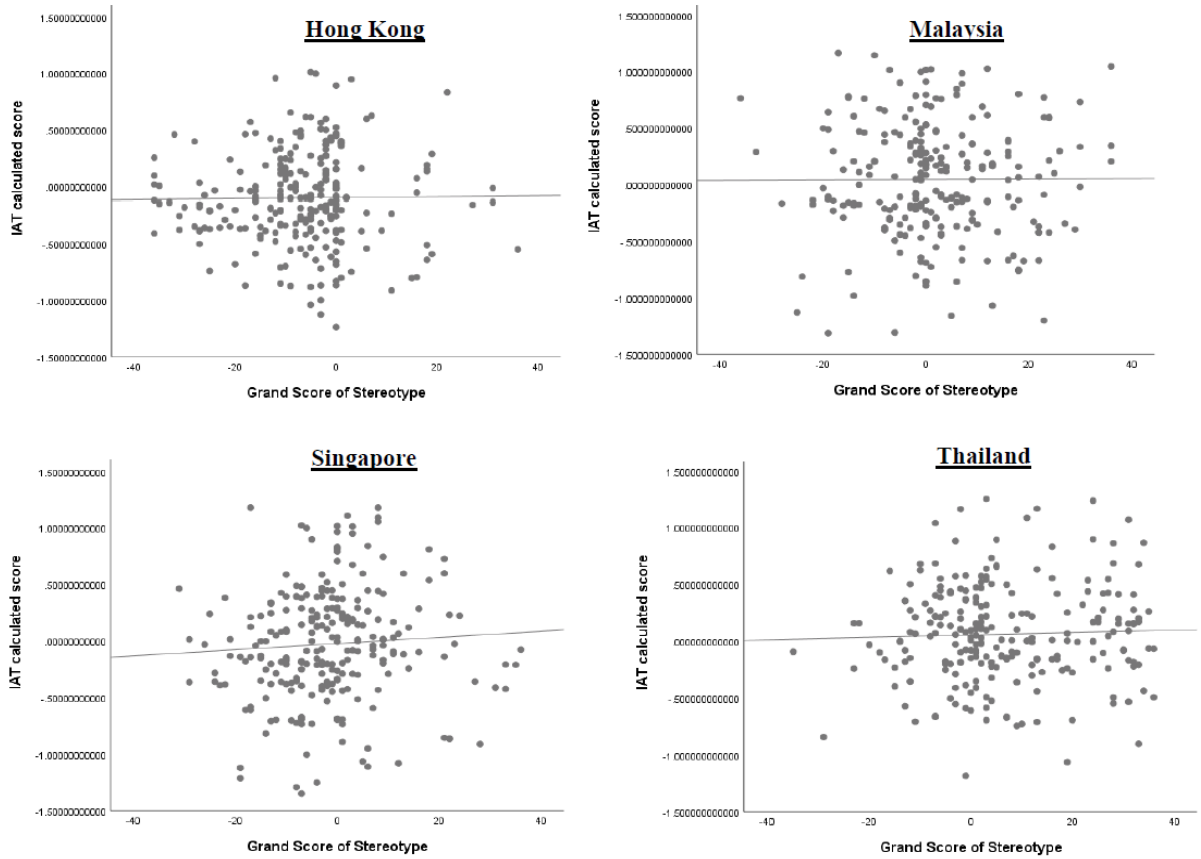


Figure 5.3 – Scatterplots of Explicit-Implicit Tourist Stereotypes across Four Destinations

5.2.2 Summary of Objective 2

From the result, an insignificant correlation is determined between measured explicit and implicit stereotypes. These results are similar to the existing intergroup relation literature on measured explicit–implicit stereotypes, especially on highly sensitive topics, where the differences are influenced by one's conscious intention to evaluate. Measured explicit stereotypes allow one to think and report, the answer of which can be socially desired; whereas measured implicit stereotypes eliminate such process, thereby allowing the identification of one's evaluation without conscious awareness or control. As such, the results from this work suggest that studies on intergroup stereotypes should adopt implicit and explicit measurement to capture the overall stereotypes.

5.3 Results of Objective 3 - To Develop a Scale Measuring Resident Behavioural Responses to tourist

Objective 3 aims to develop a resident behaviour model based on the BIAS map. This objective can be achieved in two steps. Firstly, the exploration of behavioural items led to the four quadrants of the BIAS map using a calibration sample. Secondly, the identified model is validated with a new sample of respondents. To attain this objective, Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (EFA, CFA) are used to identify and verify the dimensions.

5.3.1 Calibration Sample

On the basis of the 37 identified behavioural items, an online questionnaire was distributed to Hong Kong residents to evaluate the extent of their subjective frequency of occurrence of these behaviours on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = I never do this, 7 = I often do this). By using convenience and snowball sampling, 178 respondents were recruited (75.8% female, 24.2% male) in March 2019. The questionnaire was first distributed to contacts of the research team, and the respondents were then invited to forward the questionnaire through their networks. Approximately 83.1% of the respondents are aged 35 years old and below. Amongst them, 7.3%, 16.9%, 70.2% and 5.6% achieved high school education, post-secondary certificate, university degree and 5 post-graduate degree, respectively. Moreover, 64.6% of the respondents reported hospitality and tourism background. Table 5.7 summarises the demographic profile of the calibration sample.

Table 5.7 – Demographic Profile of Calibration Sample

Variables	Distribution (%)
Gender	
Female	135 (75.8)
Male	43 (24.2)
Age	
18 - 24	118 (66.3)
25 - 34	30 (16.9)
35 - 44	13 (7.3)
45 - 54	12 (6.7)
55 and above	5 (2.8)
Education	
Up to Secondary School	13 (7.3)
Post-Secondary	30 (16.9)
Bachelor	125 (70.2)
Master	8 (4.5)
Doctorate	2 (1.1)
Experience in Hospitality and Tourism	
Yes	115 (64.6)
No	63 (35.4)

The initial pool of items consists of positive and negative behaviours. Thus, scale purification is conducted separately prior to a full model assessment. Prior to EFA, the item-to-total correlation of positive and negative behaviours are examined, and items that are correlated with less than 0.4 with the total score are removed (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005; Kim et al., 2012). After the removal of two items from positive and negative behaviours, the Cronbach's alpha values are 0.92 and 0.93, respectively. Both values are greater than the threshold value of 0.70, which represent good internal consistency of the items in each subscale (Nunnally, 1978).

An EFA using principal component analysis and applying Varimax rotation is conducted to assess the dimensionality of each subscale. For positive behaviours, Bartlett's test of Sphericity is 1,278.68 ($p < 0.01$), indicating that the items are appropriate for factor analysis. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy is 0.91, which is considered a good representation of the proportion of variance amongst the measured items (Kaiser, 1974).

Items with communality and factor loading less than 0.50 are removed, and factors with eigenvalues less than 1 are also eliminated (Kaiser, 1960). A two-factor model is extracted, each containing three items, which account for 65.7% of the total variance. Factor 1 contains active and facilitative behaviours (i.e. start a conversation, socialise and interact with a tourist), whereas Factor 2 contains passive and facilitative behaviours (i.e. accept, tolerate and endure tourist behaviours). Both factors achieve a Cronbach's alpha of 0.82 and 0.78.

For the negative behavioural dimension, Bartlett's test of Sphericity is 1,679.54 ($p < 0.01$), and KMO measure of sampling adequacy is 0.87 where KMOs between 0.80 and 0.90 are regarded meritorious (Kaiser, 1974). Items with community and factor loading less than 0.50 are removed, and factors with eigenvalues less than 1 are also eliminated (Kaiser, 1960). Similarly, a two-factor model is extracted, each containing three items, which account for 70.8% of the total variance. Factor 1 involves passive and harmful behaviours (i.e. reluctant, resists and refrains to help tourists), whereas Factor 2 involves active and harmful behaviours (i.e. unfriendly to tourists, mocks tourists and acts threateningly towards tourists). Both factors achieve Cronbach's alpha values of 0.72 and 0.84, respectively. Tables 5.8 and 5.9 summarise the EFA result of the resident responsive behavioural measurement scale and the construct intercorrelation, respectively.

Table 5.8 - Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) from Calibration Sample

Variables	Communalities	Standardized Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	AVE
Factor 1: Active-Facilitation			0.82	0.64
Start a conversation with tourist	0.69	0.81		
Socialize with the tourist	0.74	0.81		
Interact with the tourist	0.74	0.78		
Factor 2: Passive-Facilitation			0.78	0.61
Accept the tourist behaviours	0.61	0.68		
Tolerate the tourist behaviours	0.73	0.83		
Endure the tourist behaviours	0.79	0.83		
Factor 3: Passive-Harm			0.72	0.56
Reluctant to help the tourist	0.76	0.86		
Resist to help the tourist	0.63	0.71		
Refrain to help the tourist	0.59	0.63		
Factor 4: Active-Harm			0.84	0.54
Unfriendly to the tourist	0.74	0.80		
Mock at the tourist	0.68	0.71		
Act in a threatening manner at the tourist	0.64	0.73		

Table 5.9 - Construct Intercorrelation of Resident Responsive Behaviour from Calibration Sample

Variables	AF	PF	PH	AH
Active-Facilitation (AF)	1.000			
Passive-Facilitation (PF)	0.336	1.000		
Passive-Harm (PH)	0.233	0.149	1.000	
Active-Harm (AH)	0.238	0.107	0.605	1.000

5.3.2 Validation Sample

A new sample of Hong Kong residents were recruited to serve as the validation sample via gender quota sampling in June 2019. Following the sample data collection process described in the calibration sample, 381 valid questionnaires were collected, in which 54.6% and 45.4% are from female and male respondents, respectively. According to the Hong Kong Census and Statistic Department (2018), the percentages of female and male Hong Kong residents are 54.1% and 45.9%, respectively. From the respondents, 69.5% are below 35 years old, 7.9% obtained education up to high school level and 74.8% achieved at least a bachelor's degree. Moreover, 29.4% disclosed work experience in the hospitality and tourism field. Table 5.10 presents the demographic profile of the validation sample.

Table 5.10 - Demographic Profile of Validation Sample

Variables	Distribution (%)
Gender	
Female	208 (54.6)
Male	173 (45.4)
Age	
18 - 24	154 (40.4)
25 - 34	111 (29.1)
35 - 44	81 (21.2)
45 - 54	22 (5.8)
55 and above	13 (3.4)
Education	
Up to Secondary School	30 (7.9)
Post-Secondary	66 (17.3)
Bachelor	241 (63.3)
Master	39 (10.2)
Doctorate	5 (1.3)
Experience in Hospitality and Tourism	
Yes	112 (29.4)
No	269 (70.6)

CFA is used to evaluate the measurement model for reliability and validity. Several fit indices [e.g. CMIN/DF, comparative fit index (CFI), goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and root mean square of approximation (RMSEA)] are used to assess the degree to which the measurement model fits the observed data. The cut-off criteria used in this study are 3:1 for the ratio of χ^2 to the degrees of freedom (χ^2/d*f*; Bollen, 1989), values greater than 0.9 for the CFI and GFI (Blunch, 2008; Kline, 2011) and values less than 0.08 for RMSEA (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Convergent and discriminant validity are also assessed. For convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) should be greater than 0.5. In case the AVE is less than 0.5, the composite reliability of the dimension will be applied where the value of Cronbach's alpha is greater than 0.6, such that the convergent validity of the construct is adequate (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Huang, Wang, Wu, & Wang, 2013). Discriminant validity is examined in two ways: (1) as suggested by Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010), the square root of the AVE

should be higher than the inter-dimension correlation coefficient, and (2) the correlation amongst the variables should not be greater than 0.85 (Kline, 2005).

The validation sample result, which presents a good model fit with CFI, GFI, NNFI and RMSEA, is better than the mentioned threshold values. The data show that the maximum degree of freedom χ^2/df is within the acceptable range (χ^2/df = 119.324/46 = 2.594). The CFI (0.971), GFI (0.952) and NNFI (0.958) achieve more than 0.90 with the RMSEA (0.07); thus, the model has acceptable fit. The composite reliability of each dimension is between 0.75 and 0.89, which suggests reliable internal consistency of the measured variables in their respective constructs (Table 5.11). The three dimensions have an AVE value of ≥0.5 for passive–facilitation (AVE = 0.44); this result is slightly lower than the ideal value but achieves a composite reliability of 0.75, which suggests the adequate level of convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Huang et al., 2013). Table 5.12 shows the result of discriminant validity; all dimensions have a square root of AVE higher than their interdimension correlation coefficient without correlation amongst variables exceeding 0.85. In sum, these values suggest that the four-dimensional model is an acceptable model for measuring resident behaviours towards tourists.

Table 5.11 - Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) from Validation Sample

Variables	Standardized Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	AVE
Factor 1: Active-Facilitation		0.89	0.72
Start a conversation with tourist	0.85		
Socialize with the tourist	0.88		
Interact with the tourist	0.83		
Factor 2: Passive-Facilitation		0.75	0.44
Accept the tourist behaviours	0.92		
Tolerate the tourist behaviours	0.47		
Endure the tourist behaviours	0.48		
Factor 3: Passive-Harm		0.85	0.66
Reluctant to help the tourist	0.79		
Resist to help the tourist	0.79		
Refrain to help the tourist	0.86		
Factor 4: Active-Harm		0.83	0.62
Unfriendly to the tourist	0.84		
Mock at the tourist	0.76		
Act in a threatening manner at the tourist	0.77		

Table 5.12 - Construct Intercorrelation of Resident Responsive Behaviour from Validation Sample

Variables	AF	PF	PH	AH
Active-Facilitation (AF)	**0.851**			
Passive-Facilitation (PF)	0.549	**0.661**		
Passive-Harm (PH)	-0.148	-0.159	**0.787**	
Active-Harm (AH)	0.058	-0.001	0.754	**0.812**

Note: Bold value is the squared root of AVE

5.3.3 Summary of Objective 3

On the basis of the BIAS map and the use of calibration and validation sample, 12 resident responsive behaviours are identified across the 4 behavioural dimensions. Active–facilitation contains interactive residents' behaviours with some degree of initiations, such behaviours include communicating, socialising and interacting with tourists. Passive–facilitation tolerates tourists in three levels, which reveals a sense of unhappiness amongst residents. Active–harm includes intimidating behaviours, such as being unfriendly, mocking and doing threatening actions towards tourists. For passive–harm, neglecting behaviours of reluctance, resistance and refrain are identified, which show the residents' effort in distancing themselves from tourists.

5.4 Results of Objective 4 - To explore the relationship between stereotypes, emotions and behaviours toward tourist

Objective 4 aims to explore the relationship amongst stereotypes, emotions and behaviours towards tourists. Simple mediation analysis is adopted to investigate the hypothesised relationship paths from tourist stereotypes (X) to resident behaviours (Y) through the proposed mediator of emotion (M). These hypothesised relationships have been discussed in Chapter 3, and the findings are presented in the subsequent sections. Figure 5.4 presents the visual diagram of the hypothesised model of this study.

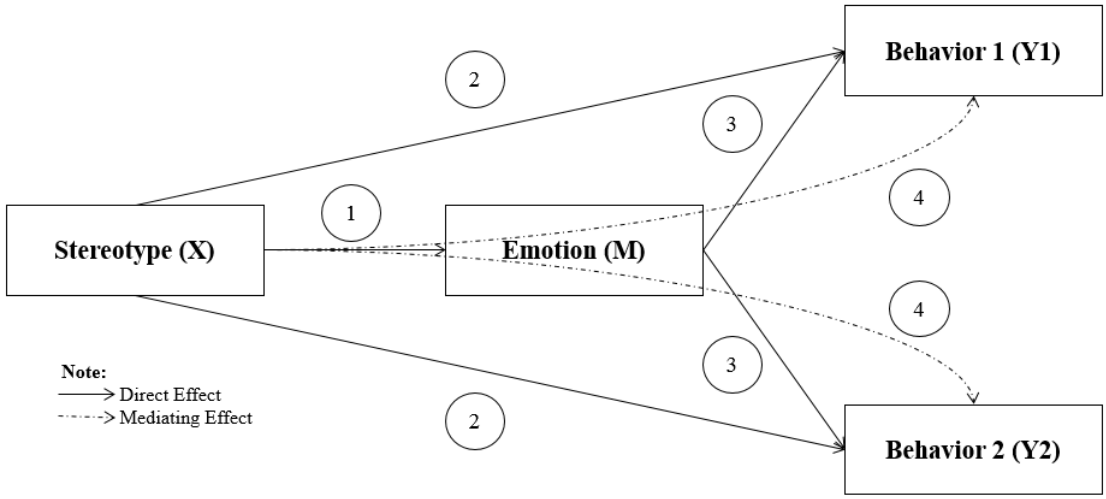


Figure 5.4 – Visual Diagram of Stereotypes-Emotion-Behaviour Model

The numbered paths are regression coefficients that can be estimated using IBM SPSS 25.0 and SPSS Process v3.3 (Hayes, 2013), which uses a regression-based approach to mediation. The model number used in this analysis is 4. SPSS Process displays the regression coefficient of the paths with their statistically significant values. The indirect effects of stereotypes on behaviours through emotions are presented with the bootstrapping result. Bootstrapping can determine if the indirect effect (*path-4*) is different from zero. Bootstrapping is known as a resampling method that aims to construct a confidence interval around the examined indirect effect. This result is achieved by treating the collected sample as a mini population. Then, the system will take a random bootstrap sample of observations within the

mini population with replacement. Thus, samples might be selected more than once or not at all within each bootstrapped sample. The selection of the observations is random and with replacement; thus, the confidence interval of each bootstrap sample will be slightly different. Next, the system will run on all the bootstrapped samples to obtain the desired indirect effect for each of them. Finally, indirect effects are ranked in ascending order to identify the lower and upper bounds of the confidence interval. If the value of zero is included in the bounds of the confidence interval, then the indirect effect is not statistically different from zero; hence the mediation effect is insignificant. If the bound of confidence level is above or below zero, then the indirect effect is significant. This study adopts Hayes's recommendation of using 95% confidence level and 10,000 bootstrap samples for mediation analysis.

The findings are as follows. First, the direct effects of stereotypes on emotions (*path-1*) are investigated. Next, the direct effects of stereotypes on behaviours are examined (*path-2*). Then, the direct effects of emotions on behaviours are validated (*path-3*). Finally, the mediating effects of emotions on stereotypes and behaviours are presented (*path-4*).

5.4.1 Missing Data

Identification is performed in the preceding objectives. Thus, no missing data are further removed for analysis. In conclusion, the data for further analysis came from 990 respondents comprising 247, 249, 246 and 248 from Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand, respectively.

5.4.2 Normality Test

Tables 5.13 and 5.14 present the results of normality test for emotional and behavioural dimensions across the four destinations, respectively. Across the four destinations, the absolute values of skewness are between 0.02 and 1.77 (Table 5.13), whereas the absolute values of

kurtosis are located between 0.03 and 2.47 (Table 5.14). The values of measurement items lie within Kline's (2011) recommendation; thus, the data are normally distributed.

Table 5.13 – Skewness Test for Emotions and Behaviours across Four Destinations

	Hong Kong		Malaysia		Singapore		Thailand	
Variables	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**
Admiration								
Respect	-0.13	0.16	-0.42	0.15	-0.31	0.16	-0.23	0.16
Admiration	0.20	0.16	-0.38	0.15	-0.16	0.16	-0.24	0.16
Pride	0.15	0.16	-0.20	0.15	-0.29	0.16	-0.26	0.16
Inspiration	0.16	0.16	-0.24	0.15	-0.25	0.16	-0.32	0.16
Envy								
Envy	0.37	0.16	0.04	0.15	-0.02	0.16	-0.04	0.16
Jealousy	0.45	0.16	0.14	0.15	0.14	0.16	0.21	0.16
Contempt								
Contempt	0.07	0.16	0.19	0.15	-0.23	0.16	0.12	0.16
Disgust	-0.33	0.16	0.08	0.15	-0.30	0.16	0.11	0.16
Hate	-0.15	0.16	0.05	0.15	-0.16	0.16	0.37	0.16
Resentment	-0.30	0.16	0.35	0.15	-0.21	0.16	0.04	0.16
Pity								
Pity	0.20	0.16	-0.06	0.15	-0.34	0.16	-0.08	0.16
Sympathy	0.24	0.16	0.02	0.15	-0.30	0.16	-0.61	0.16
Active-Facilitation								
Communicate	-0.05	0.16	-0.35	0.15	-0.02	0.16	0.03	0.16
Socialize	0.16	0.16	-0.24	0.15	0.02	0.16	0.08	0.16
Interact	-0.03	0.16	-0.48	0.15	-0.02	0.16	0.45	0.16
Passive-Facilitation								
Accept them	-0.13	0.16	0.08	0.15	-0.16	0.16	0.20	0.16
Tolerate them	-0.03	0.16	1.29	0.15	-0.16	0.16	0.13	0.16
Endure them	-0.15	0.16	0.35	0.15	-0.17	0.16	0.57	0.16
Active-Harm								
Been Unfriendly	0.67	0.16	1.20	0.15	0.40	0.16	1.62	0.16
Mock at them	-0.67	0.16	1.29	0.15	0.86	0.16	2.69	0.16
Threatening actions	1.17	0.16	1.49	0.15	1.24	0.16	1.61	0.16
Passive-Harm								
Reluctant to help	0.37	0.16	0.89	0.15	0.27	0.16	0.58	0.16
Resist to help	0.34	0.16	1.01	0.15	0.50	0.16	1.37	0.16
Refrain to help	0.57	0.16	0.95	0.15	0.66	0.16	1.77	0.16

Table 5.14 – Kurtosis Test for Emotions and Behaviours across Four Destinations

	Hong Kong		Malaysia		Singapore		Thailand	
Variables	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**
Admiration								
Respect	-0.66	0.31	0.03	0.31	-0.42	0.31	-0.58	0.31
Admiration	-0.49	0.31	-0.13	0.31	-0.49	0.31	-0.19	0.31
Pride	-0.59	0.31	-0.45	0.31	-0.39	0.31	-0.05	0.31
Inspiration	-0.14	0.31	-0.20	0.31	-0.66	0.31	0.08	0.31
Envy								
Envy	-0.32	0.31	-0.42	0.31	-0.57	0.31	-0.81	0.31
Jealousy	-0.44	0.31	-0.68	0.31	-0.58	0.31	-1.06	0.31
Contempt								
Contempt	-0.22	0.31	-0.61	0.31	0.26	0.31	-0.94	0.31
Disgust	-0.44	0.31	-0.79	0.31	-0.69	0.31	-1.12	0.31
Hate	-0.14	0.31	-0.64	0.31	-0.47	0.31	-0.79	0.31
Resentment	-0.39	0.31	-0.51	0.31	0.02	0.31	-0.93	0.31
Pity								
Pity	-0.13	0.31	-0.30	0.31	-0.35	0.31	-0.17	0.31
Sympathy	-0.40	0.31	0.02	0.31	-0.17	0.31	0.16	0.31
Active-Facilitation								
Communicate	-0.82	0.31	-0.53	0.31	-1.05	0.31	-0.61	0.31
Socialize	-0.57	0.31	-0.19	0.31	-0.67	0.31	-0.96	0.31
Interact	-0.73	0.31	-0.07	0.31	-0.76	0.31	-0.11	0.31
Passive-Facilitation								
Accept them	-0.49	0.31	-0.79	0.31	-0.40	0.31	-0.21	0.31
Tolerate them	-0.37	0.31	0.71	0.31	-0.40	0.31	-0.23	0.31
Endure them	-0.47	0.31	-0.51	0.31	-0.19	0.31	0.48	0.31
Active-Harm								
Been Unfriendly	-0.68	0.31	0.44	0.31	-1.03	0.31	1.55	0.31
Mock at them	-0.72	0.31	0.71	0.31	-0.30	0.31	7.63	0.31
Threatening actions	-0.06	0.31	0.97	0.31	0.41	0.31	3.20	0.31
Passive-Harm								
Reluctant to help	-0.91	0.31	-0.28	0.31	-1.12	0.31	-0.07	0.31
Resist to help	-0.88	0.31	-0.06	0.31	-0.82	0.31	1.21	0.31
Refrain to help	-0.66	0.31	-0.05	0.31	-0.59	0.31	2.47	0.31

5.4.3 Common Method Variance

Common Method Variance (CMV) is a potential problem in social studies and behavioural studies. It is focusing on the variance associated with the measurement method rather than the measured constructs. The issue of CMV threatens the relationships among constructs as the intercorrelations among them could inflated or deflated the coefficient values. As such, this research adopts Harman's single-factor test, one of the most widely used technique to address the issue of CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It is achieved by loading all measured items of every constructs into an exploratory study and examine the unrotated factor results to determine the variance of the measured items. The validation is based on two assumptions: (1) a single factor is resulted from the factor analysis, and (2) the variance extracted should be below the threshold of 50% (Fuller et al., 2006; Podsakoff, 2003). Based the above suggestion, the samples of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand were examined. Using Principal Component Analysis and none rotation, the measured items across stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours were included in analysis. The results showed that all the four samples are validated with no CMV issues (Hong Kong = 31.26%; Malaysia = 29.37%; Singapore = 26.74%; Thailand = 36.33%).

5.4.4 Demographic Profile of Respondents

No further removal of respondents across the four destination is performed. The demographic profile of the data remained unchanged as the aforementioned.

5.4.5 Reliability of Emotions and Behaviours

The internal consistency for the dimensions of each construct is calculated. Table 5.15 shows the reliability alpha of the emotion and behaviour dimensions. For emotions, admiration, envy, contempt and pity are within the range of 0.75–0.93 across Hong Kong, Malaysia,

Singapore and Thailand. For behaviours, active–facilitation, passive–facilitation, active–harm and passive–harm are within the range of 0.73–0.90 across the four destinations. All the values are greater than the threshold value of 0.70, which represents good internal consistency of the items in each subscale (Nunnally, 1978).

Table 5.15 – Internal Consistency of Emotions and Behaviours across Four Destinations

Variables	**Hong Kong**	**Malaysia**	**Singapore**	**Thailand**
Admiration	0.83	0.75	0.87	0.93
Envy	0.88	0.80	0.79	0.80
Contempt	0.86	0.91	0.80	0.90
Pity	0.80	0.76	0.85	0.90
Active-Facilitation	0.90	0.77	0.90	0.82
Passive-Facilitation	0.76	0.74	0.73	0.74
Active-Harm	0.88	0.90	0.82	0.73
Passive-Harm	0.90	0.88	0.86	0.73

5.4.5 Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Emotions (path-1)

Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H1: Direct Effects of Approachable on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H1-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable elicit feelings of admiration.

Significant direct effects are found across the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.77$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.61$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.77$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.92$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, the coefficients indicate a positive relationship. Hence, H1-1 is not rejected.

H1-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable elicit feelings of pity.

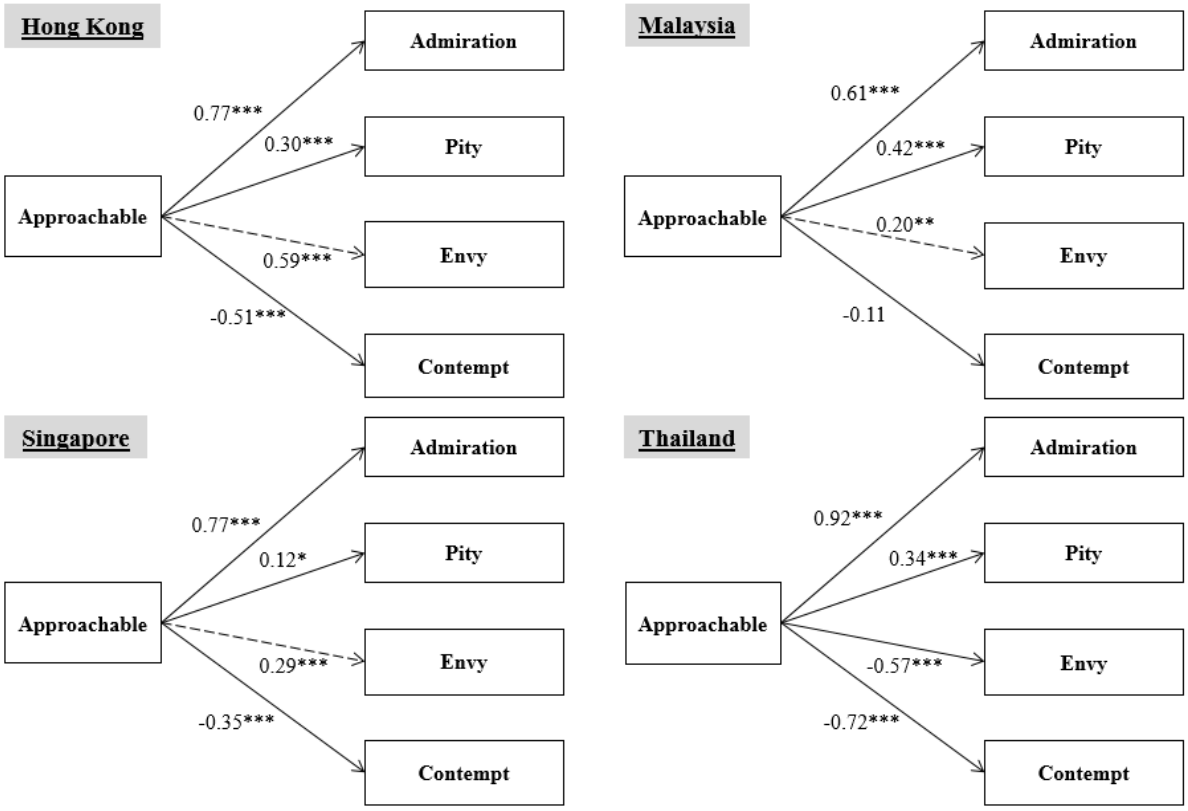
Significant direct effects are identified in all destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.42$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.12$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, the coefficients indicate a positive relationship. Therefore, H1-2 is not rejected.

H1-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable ***reduce*** feelings of Envy.

Significant direct effects resulted from all destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.59$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.57$, $p < 0.01$). However, only Thailand's result indicated a negative relationship between Approachable and Envy, while the others were positive. Thus, H1-3 is rejected.

H1-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable ***reduce*** feelings of contempt.

Significant direct effects are found in Hong Kong, Singapore and Thailand but not in Malaysia ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.51$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = -0.11$, $p = 0.17$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.35$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.72$, $p < 0.01$). The relationship coefficients are negative across the four destinations. Consequently, H1-4 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.5 – Results of Direct Effects of Approachable on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H2: Direct Effects of Competence on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H2-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence elicit feelings of admiration.

Significant direct effect of competence on admiration is found across the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.70$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.68$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.62$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.98$, $p < 0.01$). The coefficients indicate a positive relationship. Hence, H2-1 is not rejected.

H2-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence elicit feelings of pity.

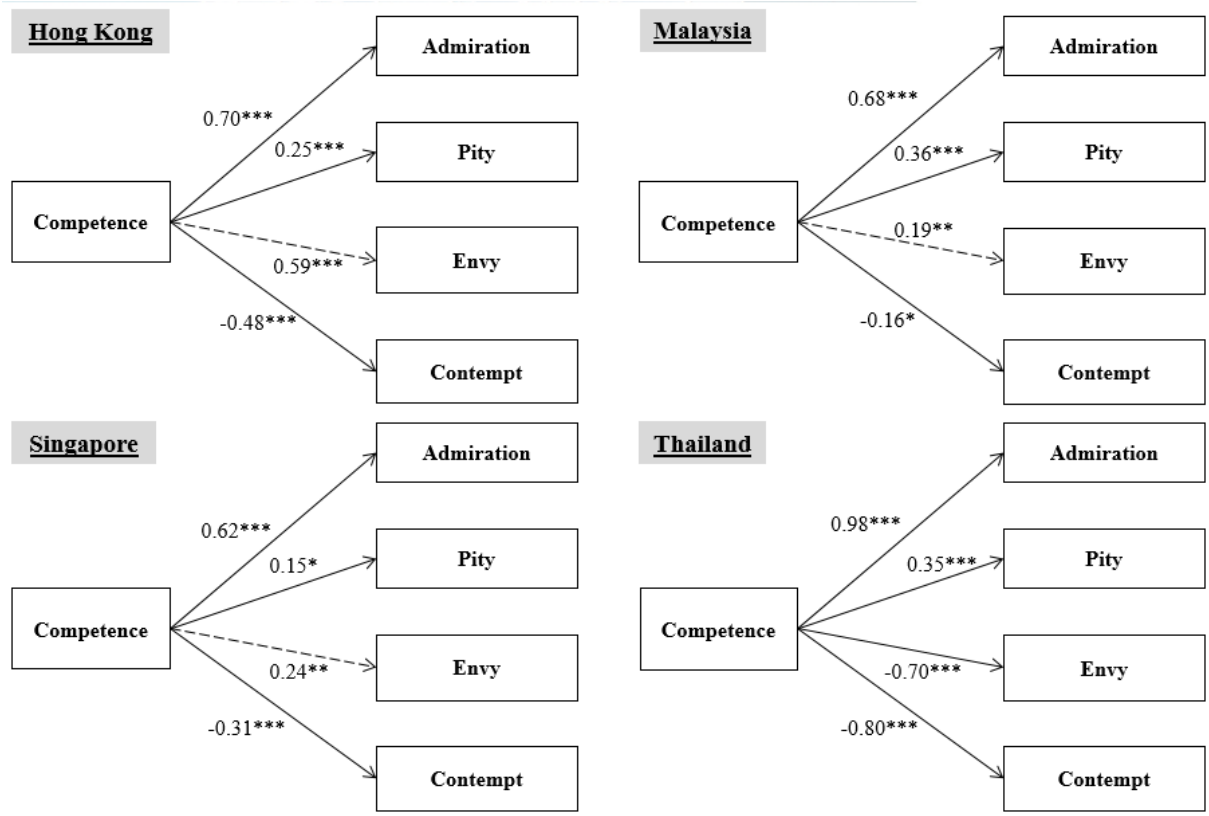
Significant direct effect of competence on pity is found across the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.36$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.15$, $p < 0.1$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.35$, $p < 0.01$). The coefficients indicate a positive relationship. Therefore, H2-2 is not rejected.

H2-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence ***reduce*** feelings of envy.

Significant direct effect of approachable on envy is found across the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.59$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.19$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.24$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.70$, $p < 0.01$). However, only Thailand's result indicate a negative relationship between approachable and envy, whereas the others are positive. Thus, H2-3 is rejected.

H2-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence ***reduce*** feelings of contempt.

Significant direct effect of competence on contempt is found in all four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.48$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = -0.16$, $p < 0.1$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.31$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.80$, $p < 0.01$). The relationship coefficients are negative across the four destinations. Consequently, H2-4 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.6 – Results of Direct Effects of Competence on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H3: Direct Effects of Boastful on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H3-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful ***reduce*** feelings of admiration.

Significant direct effects are found across the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.44$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = -0.23$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.38$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.48$, $p < 0.01$). The coefficients indicate a negative relationship between approachable and admiration. Hence, H3-1 is not rejected.

H3-2: Positive evaluations of tourist as boastful ***reduce*** feelings of pity.

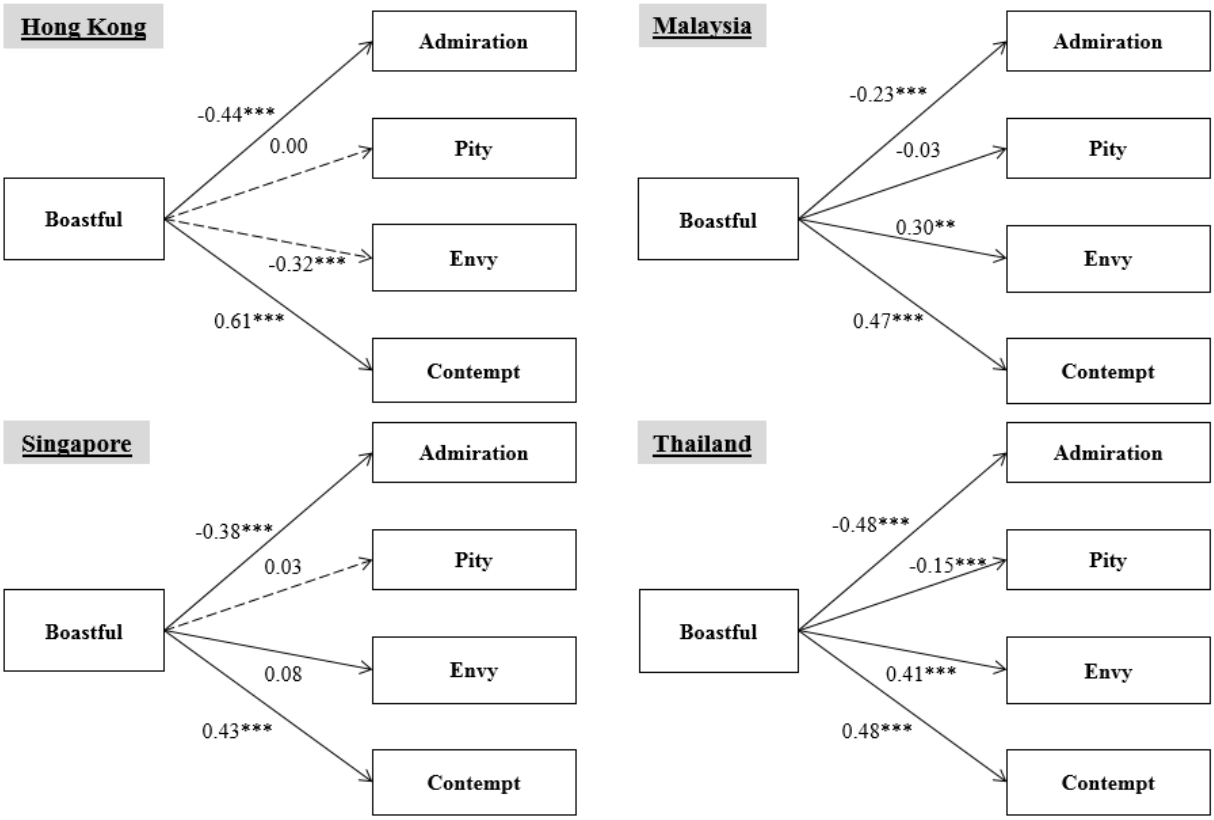
Significant direct effect is found only in Thailand ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.00$, $p = 0.98$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = -0.03$, $p = 0.53$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.03$, $p = 0.66$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.15$, $p < 0.01$). Given that the majority of the relationships are insignificant and due to inconsistency of the directions, H3-2 is rejected.

H3-3: Positive evaluations of tourist as boastful elicit feelings of envy.

Significant direct effects are identified in Hong Kong, Malaysia and Thailand, but not in Singapore ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.32$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.08$, $p = 0.23$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$). Except for Hong Kong, the other coefficients indicate a positive relationship. Thus, H3-3 is not rejected.

H3-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful elicit feelings of contempt.

Significant direct effects are found in all destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.61$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.47$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.43$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$). The relationship coefficients are positive across the four destinations. Consequently, H3-4 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.7 – Results of Direct Effects of Boastful on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H4: Direct Effects of Rude on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H4-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude ***reduce*** feelings of admiration.

Significant direct effects are identified across the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.47$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = -0.27$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.35$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.60$, $p < 0.01$). The coefficients indicate a negative relationship. Hence, H4-1 is not rejected.

H4-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude ***reduce*** feelings of pity.

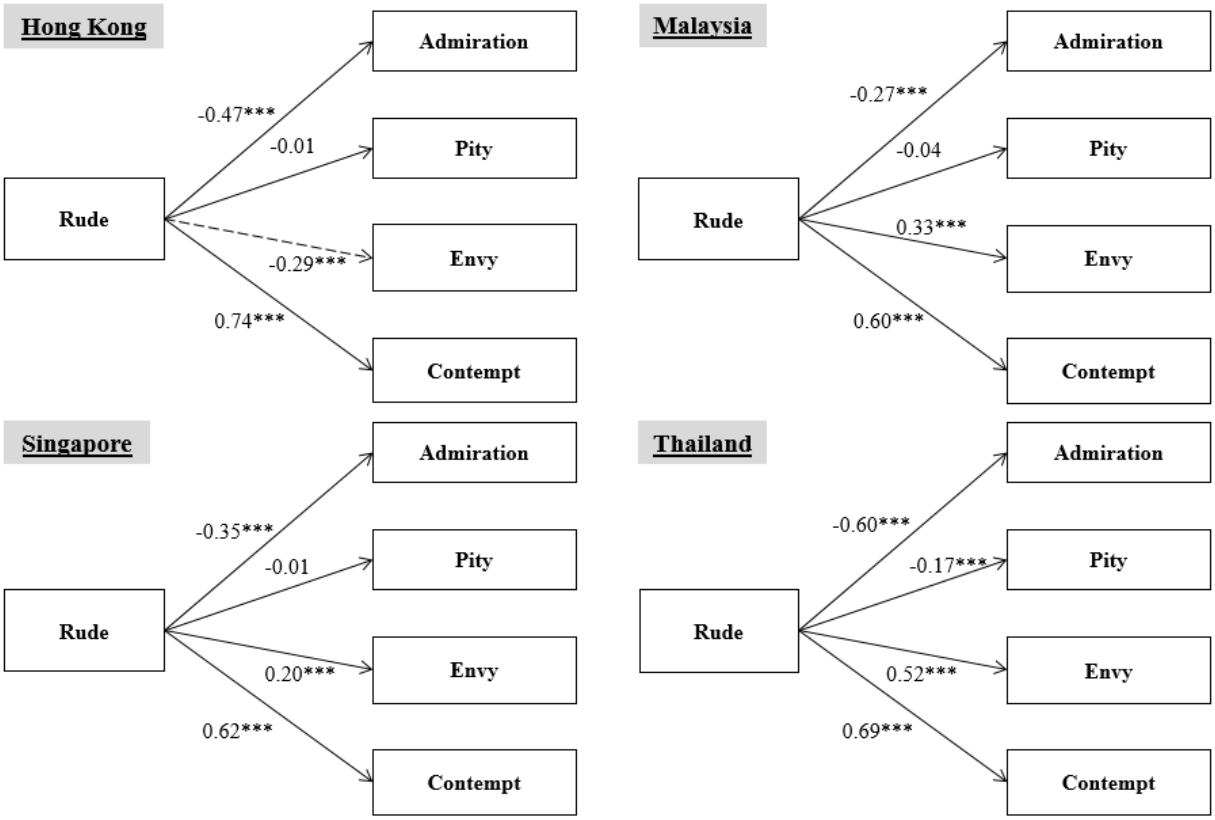
Significant direct effect is found only in Thailand, but not the others ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.01$, $p = 0.90$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = -0.04$, $p = 0.52$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.01$, $p = 0.94$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.17$, $p < 0.01$). Despite majority of the effects being insignificant, the coefficients indicate a negative relationship across the four destinations. Therefore, H4-2 is not rejected.

H4-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude elicit feelings of envy.

The significant direct effect of rude on envy is found across all the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.29$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.33$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.52$, $p < 0.01$). The other coefficients indicate a positive relationship, except in Hong Kong. Thus, H4-3 is not rejected.

H4-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude elicit feelings of contempt.

Significant direct effects are recognised in all four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.74$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.60$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.62$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.69$, $p < 0.01$). The relationship coefficients are positive across the four destinations. Thus, H4-4 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.8 – Results of Direct Effects of Rude on Emotions via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Emotions via Implicit Measured Stereotypes

H5: Direct Effects of Implicit Association Test (IAT) score on Emotions

H5-1: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score elicit feelings of admiration.

Significant direct effect is only found in Singapore but not in the others ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.12$, $p = 0.52$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.22$, $p = 0.11$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.56$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.17$, $p = 0.42$). Although the majority of the effects are insignificant, they presented a positive relationship. Thus, H5-1 is not rejected.

H5-2: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score elicit feelings of pity.

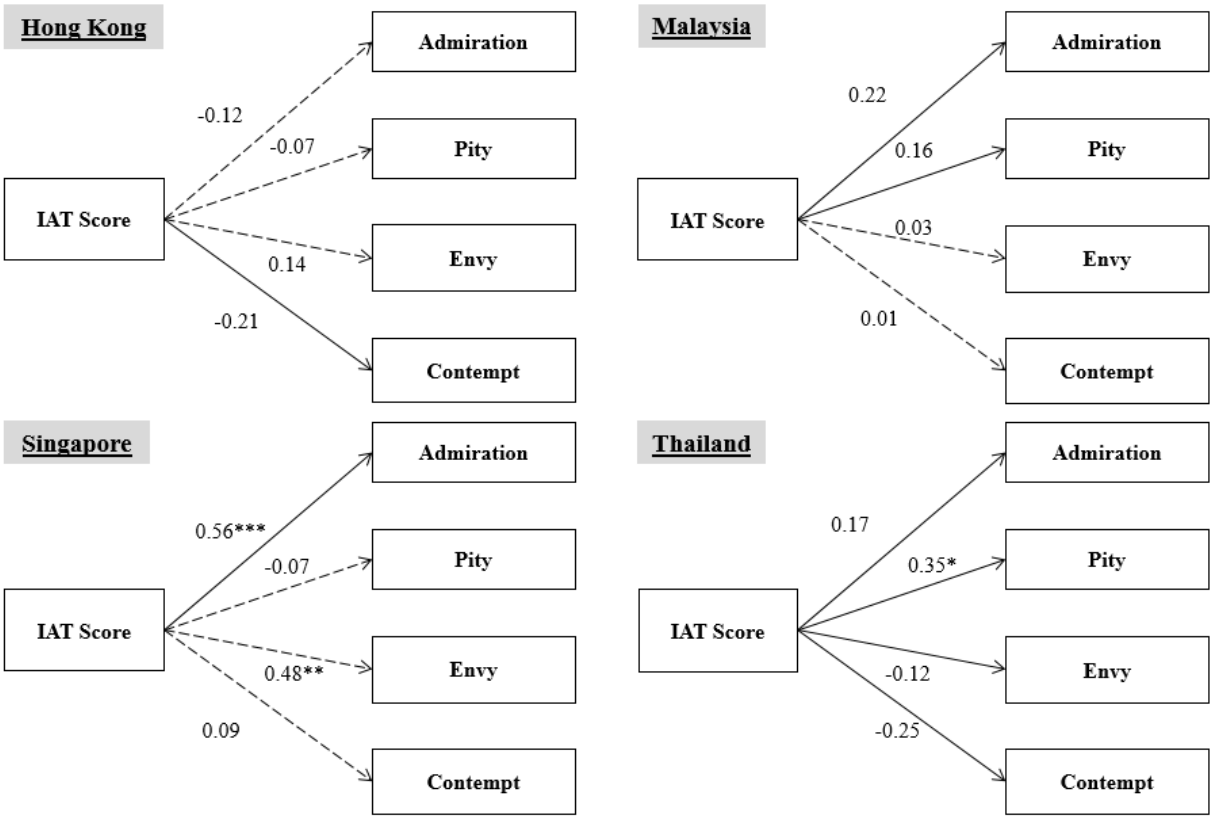
A significant direct effect is only found significant in Thailand but not in the others ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.07$, $p = 0.73$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.16$, $p = 0.30$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.07$, $p = 0.70$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.35$, $p < 0.1$). Given that the majority of the effects is insignificant and due to the inconsistency of direction on relationship, H5-2 is rejected.

H5-3: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score ***reduce*** feelings of envy.

A significant direct effect is only found in Singapore but not in the others ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.14$, $p = 0.56$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.03$, $p = 0.87$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.48$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.12$, $p = 0.56$). Except for Thailand, the findings indicate a positive relationship. Thus, H5-3 is rejected.

H5-4: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT score ***reduce*** feelings of contempt.

A significant direct effect is not found in any of the destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.21$, $p = 0.28$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.01$, $p = 0.95$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.09$, $p = 0.57$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.25$, $p = 0.23$). Thus, H5-4 is rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.9 – Results of Direct Effects of IAT Scores on Emotions

In summary, this section has investigated 20 direct effects of stereotypes, measured explicitly and implicitly, on emotions across the four destinations. Amongst the examined hypotheses, six are rejected, and they are ‘direct effect of approachable on envy’, ‘direct effect of competence on envy’, ‘direct effect of boastful on pity’, ‘direct effect of IAT score on pity’, ‘direct effect of IAT score on envy’ and ‘direct effect of IAT score on contempt’. Table 5.15 summarizes the results of the 20 hypotheses.

Table 5.16 – Summary of Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Emotions across Four Destinations

			Hong Kong		**Malaysia**		**Singapore**		**Thailand**		
No.	**Stereotypes**	**Emotions**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Overall Decision**
H1-1	Approachable	Admiration	0.77***	**N.R**	0.61***	**N.R**	0.77***	**N.R**	0.92***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H1-2		Pity	0.30***	**N.R**	0.42***	**N.R**	0.12*	**N.R**	0.34***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H1-3		Envy	0.59***	R	0.20**	R	0.29***	R	-0.57***	**N.R**	R
H1-4		Contempt	-0.51***	**N.R**	-0.11	R	-0.35***	**N.R**	-0.72***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H2-1	Competence	Admiration	0.70***	**N.R**	0.68***	**N.R**	0.62***	**N.R**	0.98***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H2-2		Pity	0.25***	**N.R**	0.36***	**N.R**	0.15*	**N.R**	0.35***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H2-3		Envy	0.59***	R	0.19**	R	0.24**	R	-0.70***	**N.R**	R
H2-4		Contempt	-0.48***	**N.R**	-0.16*	**N.R**	-0.31***	**N.R**	-0.80***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H3-1	Boastful	Admiration	-0.44***	**N.R**	-0.23***	**N.R**	-0.38***	**N.R**	-0.48***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H3-2		Pity	0.00	R	-0.03	R	0.03	R	-0.15***	**N.R**	R
H3-3		Envy	-0.32***	R	0.30***	**N.R**	0.08	R	0.41***	**N.R**	**N.R**[@]
H3-4		Contempt	0.61***	**N.R**	0.47***	**N.R**	0.43***	**N.R**	0.48***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H4-1	Rude	Admiration	-0.47***	**N.R**	-0.27***	**N.R**	-0.35***	**N.R**	-0.60***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H4-2		Pity	-0.01	R	-0.04	R	-0.01	R	-0.17***	**N.R**	**N.R**[#]
H4-3		Envy	-0.29***	R	0.33***	**N.R**	0.20***	**N.R**	0.52***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H4-4		Contempt	0.74***	**N.R**	0.60***	**N.R**	0.62***	**N.R**	0.69***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H5-1	IAT Score	Admiration	-0.12	R	0.22	R	0.56***	N.R	0.17	R	R
H5-2		Pity	-0.07	R	0.16	R	-0.07	R	0.35*	N.R	R
H5-3		Envy	0.14	R	0.03	R	0.48**	R	-0.12	R	R
H5-4		Contempt	-0.21	R	0.01	R	0.09	R	-0.25	R	R

Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Coe refers to coefficient of the effect; N.R refers to hypothesis is Not Rejected; R refers to hypothesis is Rejected.

Note: [@] H3-3 is Not Rejected, although Hong Kong and Singapore show rejections, majority of coefficients are positive which matched with the proposed association.

Note: [#] H4-2 is Not Rejected, although Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore show rejections, all coefficients are negative which matched with the proposed association.

5.4.6 Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Behaviours (path-2)

Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H1: Direct Effects of Approachable on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H1-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable activate behaviours of active–facilitation.

Significant direct effects are found across the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.47$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.56$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$). All coefficients indicate a positive relationship. Hence, H1-5 is not rejected.

H1-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as approachable activate behaviours of passive–facilitation.

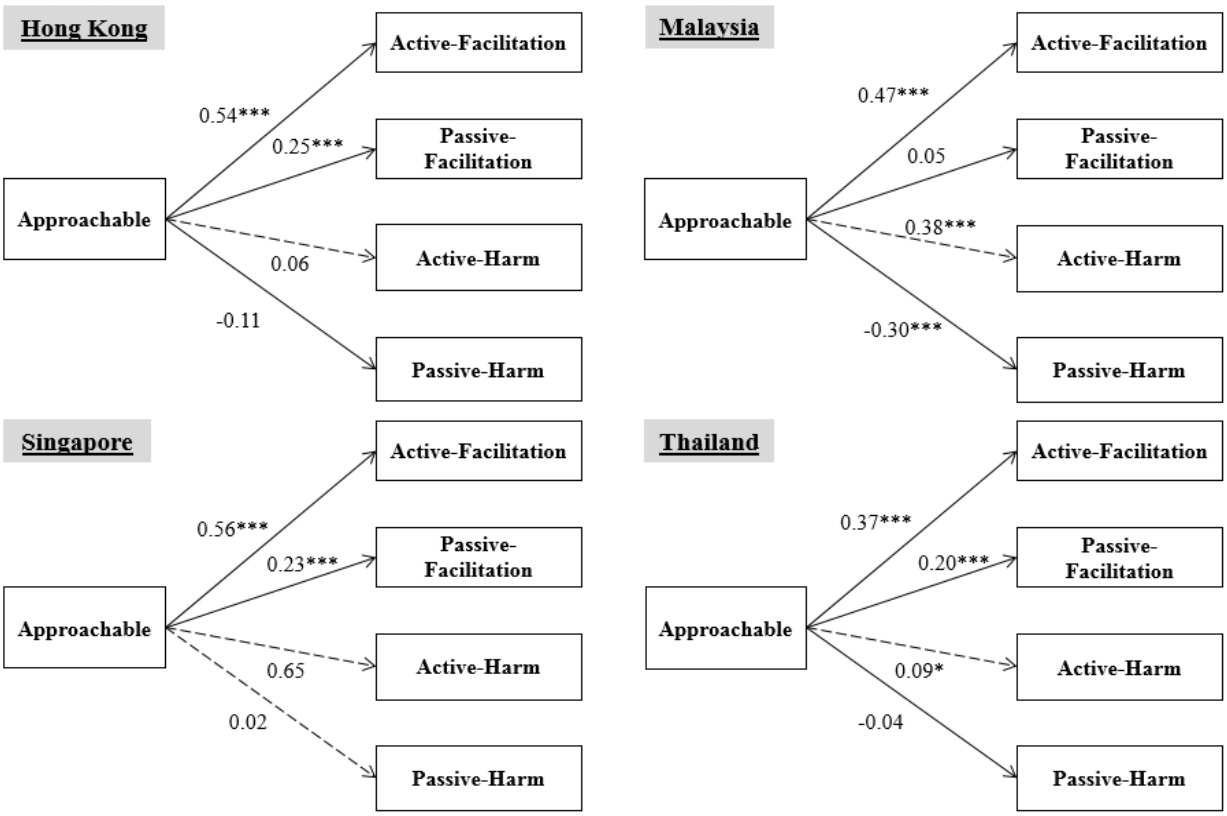
Significant direct effects are recognised in Hong Kong, Singapore and Thailand but not in Malaysia ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.05$, $p = 0.53$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, all coefficients are positive. Thus, H1-6 is not rejected.

H1-7: Positive evaluations of tourist as approachable ***reduce*** behaviours of active–harm.

Significant direct effects are only identified in Malaysia and Thailand ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.06$, $p = 0.52$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.38$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.65$, $p = 0.35$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.09$, $p < 0.1$). Moreover, all coefficients are positive instead of negative. Thus, H1-7 is rejected.

H1-8: Positive evaluations of tourist as approachable ***reduce*** behaviours of passive–harm.

A significant direct effect is identified only in Malaysia ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.11$, $p = 0.20$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.02$, $p = 0.78$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.04$, $p = 0.53$). Majority of the effects are insignificant and inconsistent of the polarity of the coefficient. Thus, H1-8 is rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.10 – Results of Direct Effects of Approachable on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H2: Direct Effects of Competence on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H2-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence activate behaviours of active–facilitation.

Significant direct effects are found across the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.44$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.39$, $p < 0.01$). The coefficients indicate a positive relationship. Hence, H2-5 is not rejected.

H2-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as competence activate behaviours of passive–facilitation.

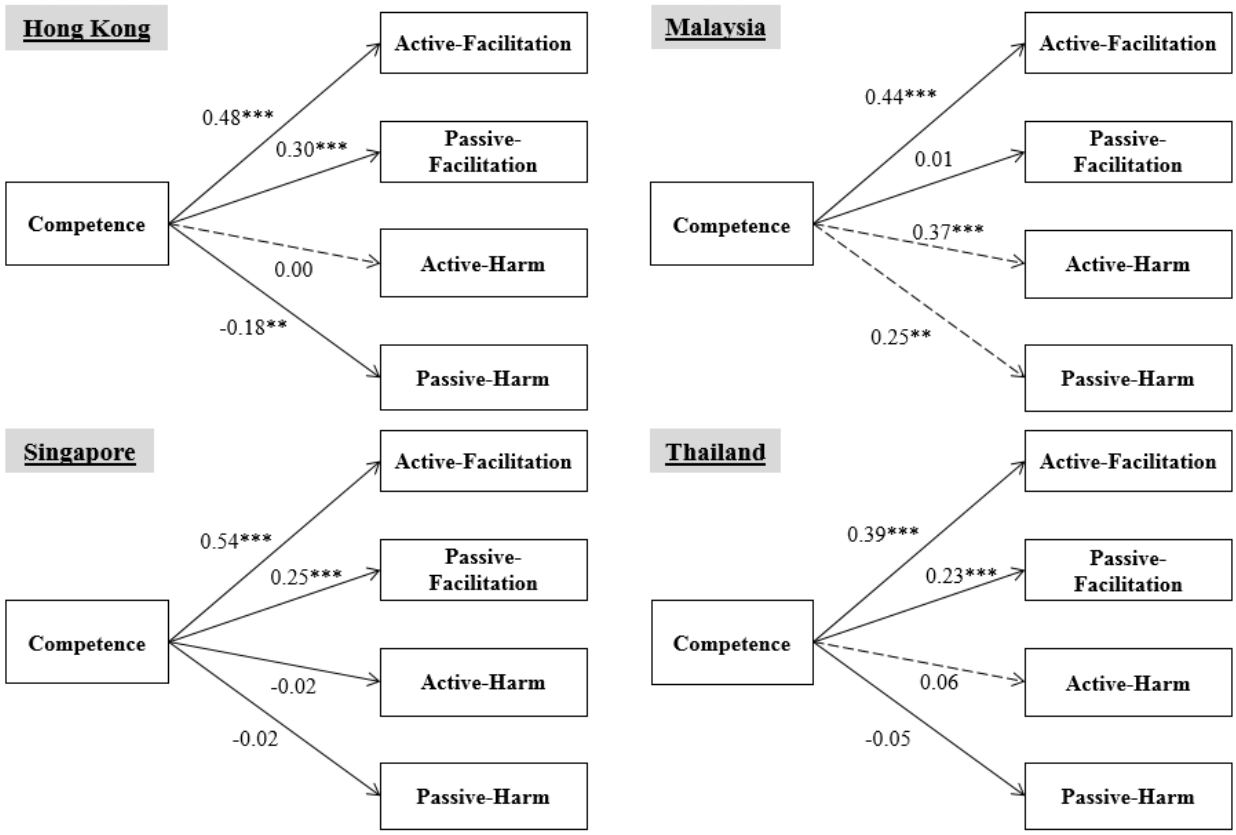
Significant direct effects are recognised in Hong Kong, Singapore and Thailand but not in Malaysia ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.01$, $p = 0.91$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, all coefficients, including Malaysia, present a positive relationship of the examined variables. Therefore, H2-6 is not rejected.

H2-7: Positive evaluations of tourist as competence ***reduce*** behaviours of active–harm.

Significant direct effect of competence on active–harm is identified only in Malaysia ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.00$, $p = 0.99$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.02$, $p = 0.85$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.06$, $p = 0.36$). Moreover, majority of the coefficients are positive. Thus, H2-7 is rejected.

H2-8: Positive evaluations of tourist as competence ***reduce*** behaviours of passive–harm.

Significant direct effect of competence on passive–harm is identified in Hong Kong and Malaysia ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.18$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.25$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.02$, $p = 0.78$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.05$, $p = 0.45$). Majority of the coefficients are negative. Thus, H2-8 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.11 – Results of Direct Effects of Competence on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H3: Direct Effects of Boastful on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H3-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful ***reduce*** behaviours of active–facilitation.

Significant direct effects are found in Hong Kong, Singapore and Thailand but not in Malaysia ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.32$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = -0.07$, $p = 0.18$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.31$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.16$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, the coefficients of these effects are negative. Hence, H3-5 is not rejected.

H3-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful ***reduce*** behaviours of passive–facilitation.

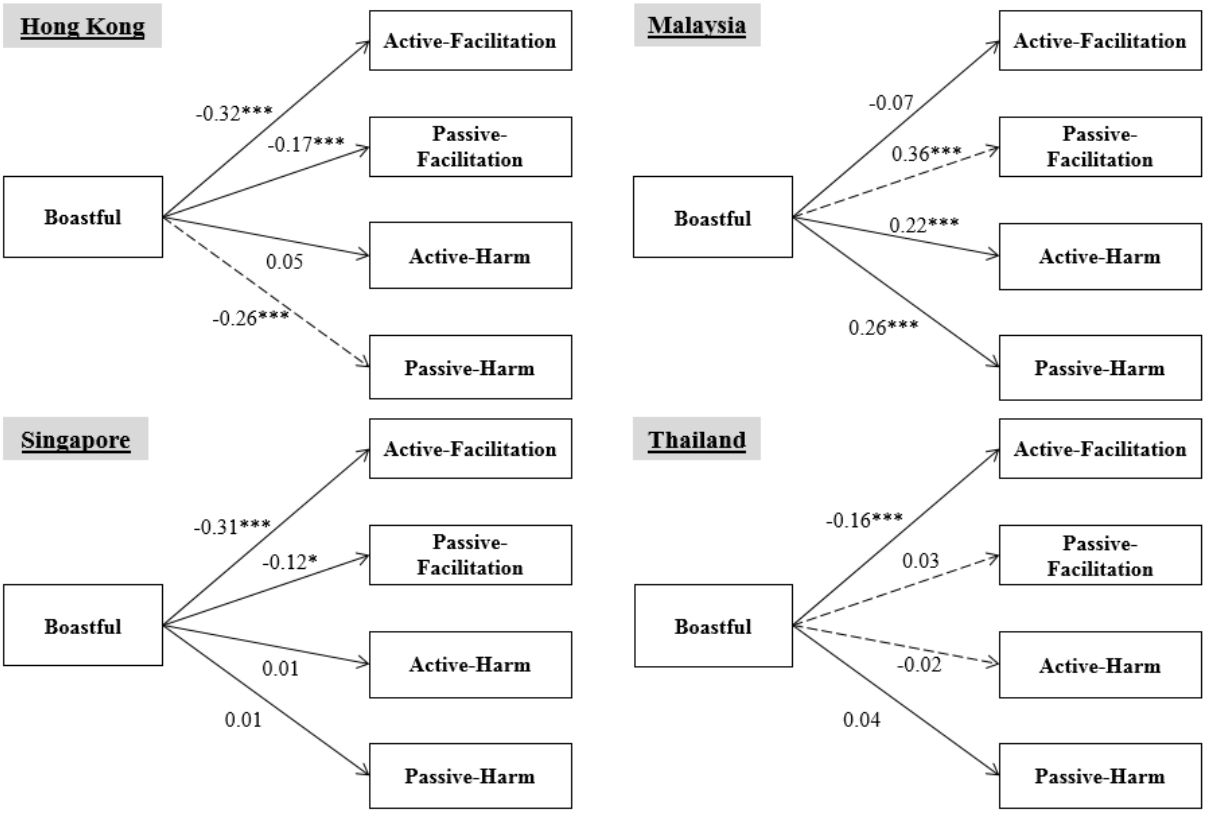
Significant direct effects are found in Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.17$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.36$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.12$, $p < 0.1$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.03$, $p = 0.42$). The significant effects indicate that Hong Kong and Singapore have a negative association between the examined variables. Thus, H3-6 is not rejected.

H3-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful elicit behaviours of active–harm.

A significant direct effect is found only in Malaysia ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.05$, $p = 0.51$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.01$, $p = 0.87$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.02$, $p = 0.68$). Except for Thailand, the other coefficients indicate a positive relationship. Thus, H3-7 is not rejected.

H3-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as boastful elicit behaviours of passive–harm.

Significant direct effects are identified in Hong Kong and Malaysia ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.01$, $p = 0.85$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.04$, $p = 0.34$). Although two of the destinations result in insignificant relationships, all four destinations indicate positive coefficients. Thus, H3-8 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.12 – Results of Direct Effects of Boastful on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H4: Direct Effects of Rude on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H4-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude ***reduce*** behaviours of active–facilitation.

Significant direct effects are found in all the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.44$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = -0.12$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.31$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.12$, $p < 0.05$). The coefficients of these effects are negative. Thus, H4-5 is not rejected.

H4-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude ***reduce*** behaviours of passive–facilitation.

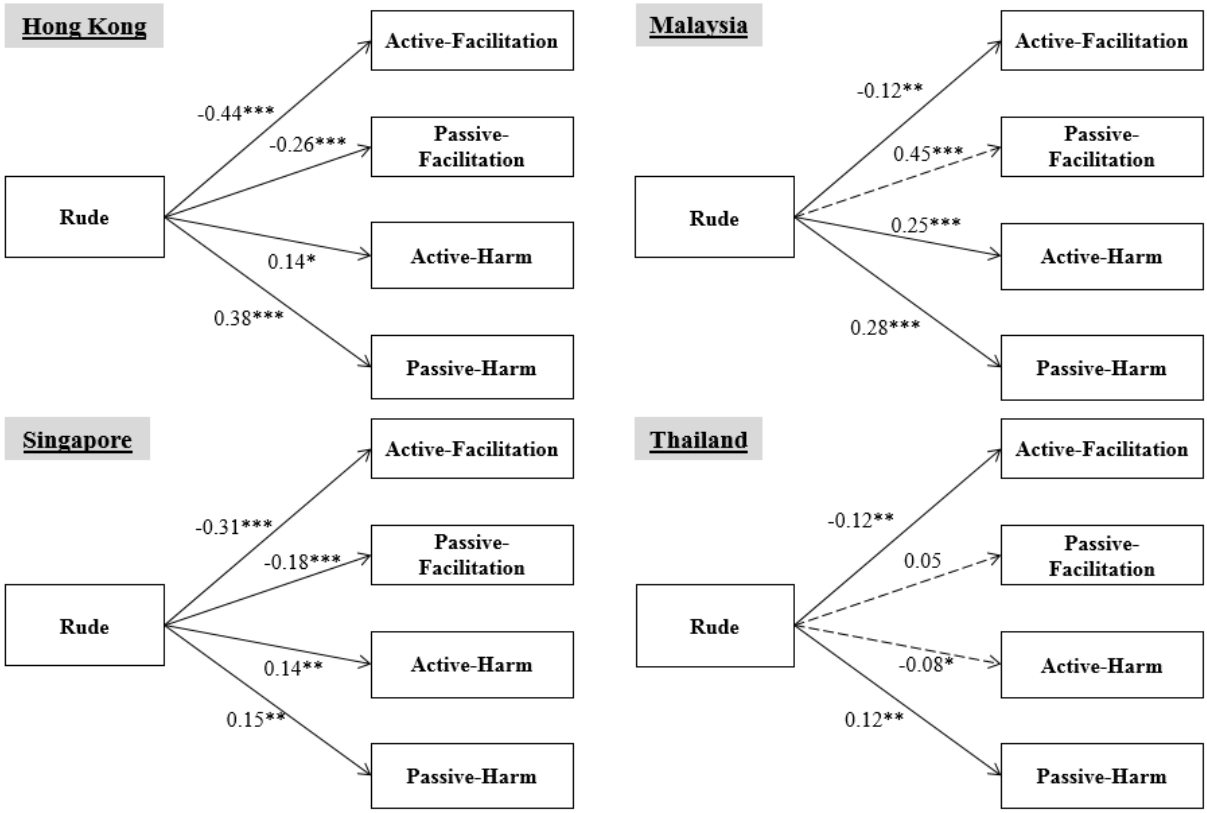
Significant direct effects are identified in Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore, but not in Thailand ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.26$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.45$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.18$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.05$, $p = 0.27$). Amongst the significant effects, Hong Kong and Singapore indicate a negative coefficient. Thus, H4-6 is not rejected.

H4-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude elicit behaviours of active–harm.

Significant direct effects are found in all destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.14$, $p < 0.1$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.14$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.08$, $p < 0.1$). All coefficients are positive. Thus, H4-7 is not rejected.

H4-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as rude elicit behaviours of passive–harm.

Significant direct effects are identified in all four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.38$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.01$, $p = 0.15$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.12$, $p < 0.05$). All coefficients are positive. Thus, H4-8 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.13 – Results of Direct Effects of Rude on Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Behaviours via Implicit Measured Stereotypes

H5: Direct Effects of IAT Score on Behaviours

H5-5: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT scores activate behaviours of active–facilitation.

A significant direct effect is found only in Thailand ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.17$, $p = 0.43$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.21$, $p = 0.19$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.07$, $p = 0.71$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.44$, $p < 0.05$). Although majority of the effects are insignificant, they present a positive relationship. Thus, H5-5 is not rejected.

H5-6: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT scores activate behaviours of passive–facilitation.

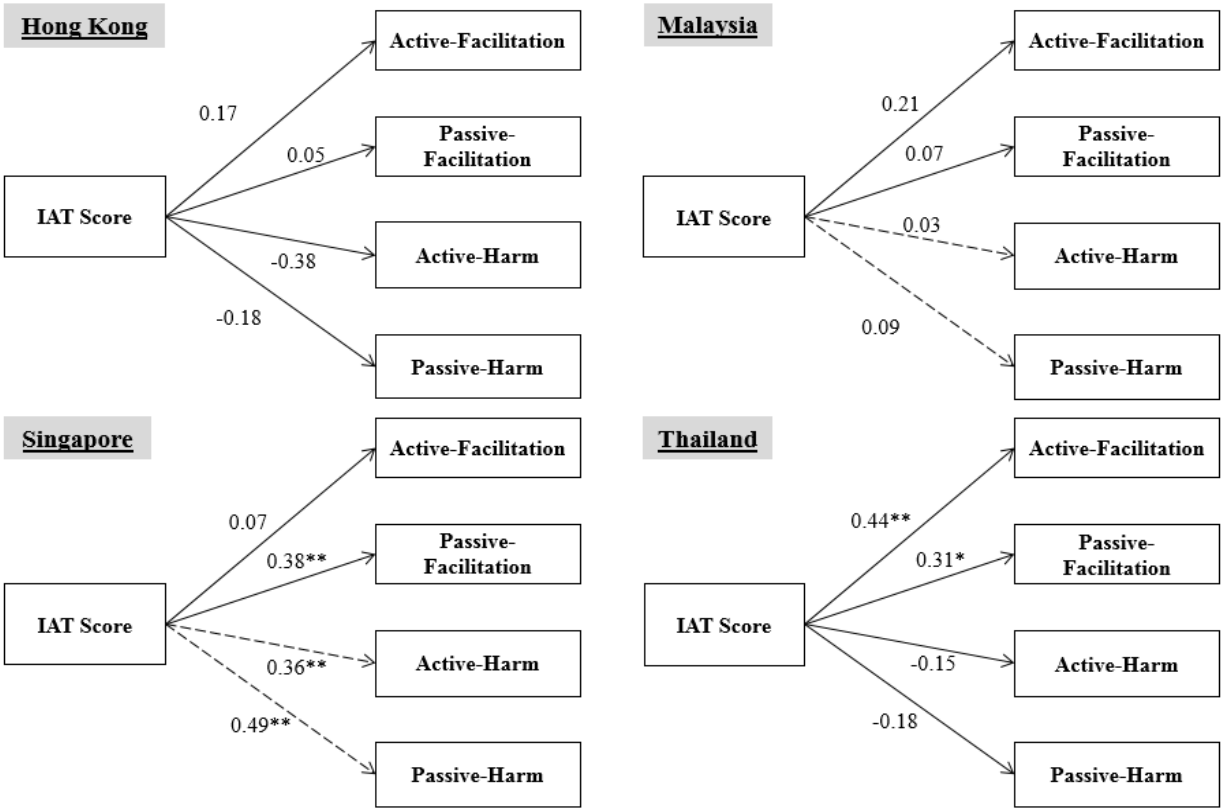
A significant direct effect was found significant only in Singapore and Thailand ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.05$, $p = 0.79$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.07$, $p = 0.68$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.38$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.31$, $p = 0.07$). Although some effects are insignificant, all coefficients are positive. Thus, H5-6 is not rejected.

H5-7: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT scores ***reduce*** behaviours of active–harm.

A significant direct effect was found only in Singapore ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.38$, $p = 0.13$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.03$, $p = 0.88$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.36$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.15$, $p = 0.33$). The coefficient of the significant effect is positive. Thus, H5-7 is rejected.

H5-8: Positive evaluations of tourists' IAT scores ***reduce*** behaviours of passive–harm.

A significant direct effect is found only in Singapore ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = -0.18$, $p = 0.48$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.09$, $p = 0.63$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.49$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = -0.18$, $p = 0.30$). The coefficient of the only significant effect is positive. Thus, H5-8 is rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.14 – Results of Direct Effects of IAT Scores on Behaviours

In summary, this section has investigated 20 directs effect of stereotypes, measured explicitly and implicitly, on behaviours across four destinations. Amongst the examined hypotheses, five of them are rejected. They are ‘direct effect of approachable on active–harm’, ‘direct effect of approachable on passive–harm’, ‘direct effect of competence on active–harm’, ‘direct effect of IAT score on active–harm’ and ‘direct effect of IAT score on passive–harm’. Table 5.16 summarizes the results of the 20 hypotheses.

Table 5.17 – Summary of Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Behaviours across Four Destinations

			Hong Kong		**Malaysia**		**Singapore**		**Thailand**		
No.	**Stereotypes**	**Behaviours**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Overall Decision**
H1-5	Approachable	AF	0.54***	**N.R**	0.47***	**N.R**	0.56***	**N.R**	0.37***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H1-6		PF	0.25***	**N.R**	0.05	R	0.23***	**N.R**	0.20***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H1-7		AH	0.06	R	0.38***	R	0.65	R	0.09*	R	R
H1-8		PH	-0.11	R	0.30***	R	0.02	R	-0.04	R	R
H2-5	Competence	AF	0.48***	**N.R**	0.44***	**N.R**	0.54***	**N.R**	0.39***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H2-6		PF	0.30***	**N.R**	0.01	R	0.25***	**N.R**	0.23***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H2-7		AH	0.00	R	0.37***	R	-0.02	R	0.06	R	R
H2-8		PH	-0.18**	**N.R**	0.25**	R	-0.02	R	-0.05	R	R
H3-5	Boastful	AF	-0.32***	**N.R**	-0.07	R	-0.31***	**N.R**	-0.16***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H3-6		PF	-0.17***	**N.R**	0.36***	R	-0.12*	**N.R**	0.03	R	**N.R**[&]
H3-7		AH	0.05	R	0.22***	**N.R**	0.01	R	-0.02	R	R
H3-8		PH	0.26***	**N.R**	0.26***	**N.R**	0.01	R	0.04	R	**N.R**[+]
H4-5	Rude	AF	-0.44***	**N.R**	-0.12**	**N.R**	-0.31***	**N.R**	-0.12**	**N.R**	**N.R**
H4-6		PF	-0.26***	**N.R**	0.45***	R	-0.18***	**N.R**	0.05	R	**N.R**[&]
H4-7		AH	0.14*	**N.R**	0.25***	**N.R**	0.14**	**N.R**	0.08*	**N.R**	**N.R**
H4-8		PH	0.38***	**N.R**	0.28***	**N.R**	0.15**	**N.R**	0.12**	**N.R**	**N.R**
H5-5	IAT Score	AF	0.17	R	0.21	R	0.07	R	0.44**	**N.R**	R
H5-6		PF	0.05	R	0.07	R	0.38**	**N.R**	**0.31***	**N.R**	**N.R**^
H5-7		AH	-0.38	R	0.03	R	0.36**	R	-0.15	R	R
H5-8		PH	-0.18	R	0.09	R	0.49**	R	-0.18	R	R

Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Coe refers to coefficient of the effect; N.R refers to hypothesis is Not Rejected; R refers to hypothesis is Rejected.

Note: [&] H3-6 and H4-6 are Not Rejected, although Malaysia and Thailand show rejections, Hong Kong and Singapore show significant negative coefficient which matched with the proposed association.

[+] H3-8 is Not Rejected, although Singapore and Thailand show rejections, all coefficients are positive which matched with the proposed association.

^ H5-6 is Not Rejected, although Hong Kong and Malaysia show rejections, all coefficient are positive which matched with the proposed association.

5.4.7 Direct Effects of Emotion on Behaviours (path-3)

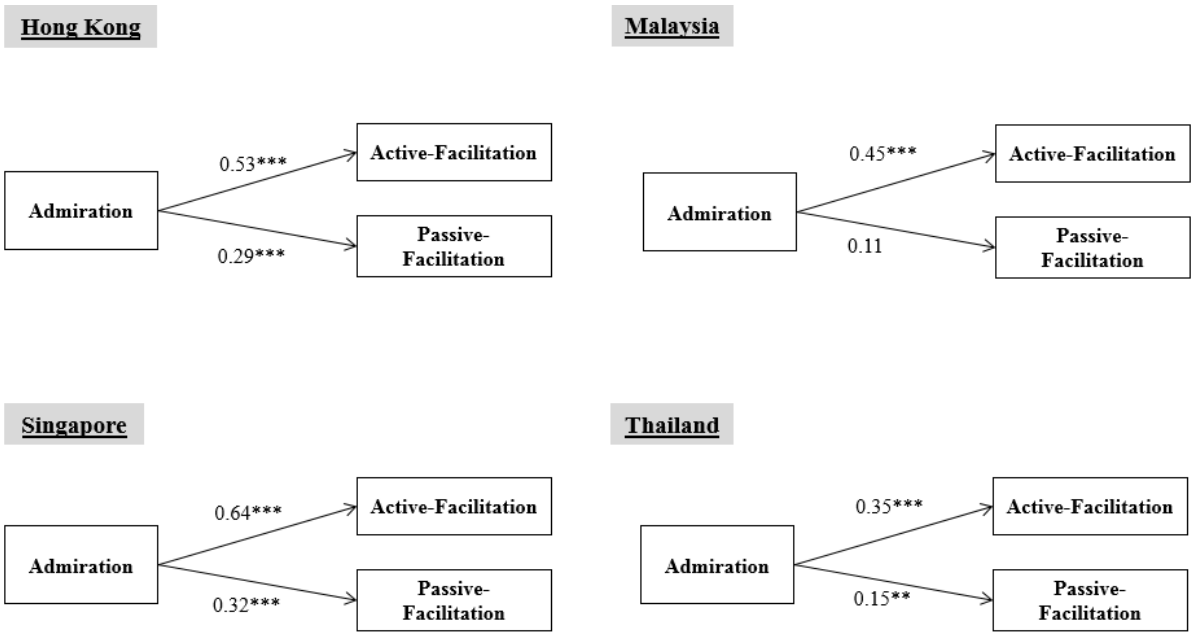
H6: Direct Effects of Admiration on Behaviours

H6-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration activate behaviours of active–facilitation.

Significant direct effects are found in all four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.53$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.45$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.64$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.35$, $p < 0.01$). All coefficients are positive. Thus, H6-1 is not rejected.

H6-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration activate behaviours of passive–facilitation.

Significant direct effects are identified in Hong Kong, Singapore and Thailand but not in Malaysia ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.11$, $p = 0.17$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.15$, $p < 0.01$). Nevertheless, all coefficients, including Malaysia, are positive. Thus, H6-2 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.15 – Results of Direct Effects of Admiration on Behaviours

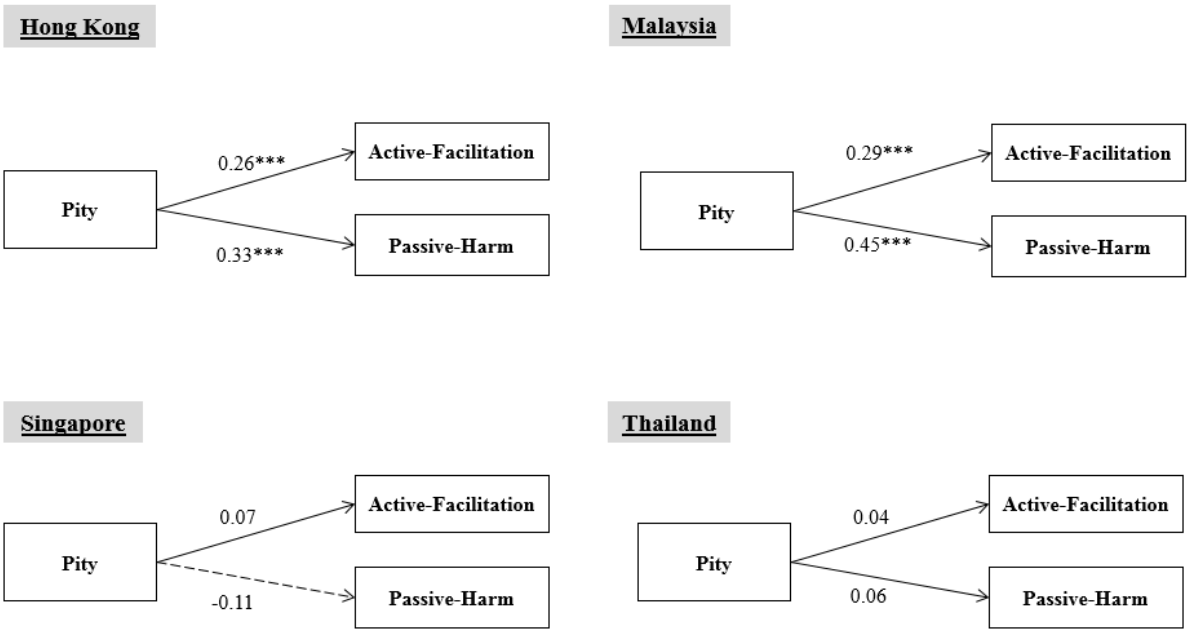
H7: Direct Effects of Pity on Behaviours

H7-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity activate behaviours of active–facilitation.

Significant direct effects are found in Hong Kong and Malaysia only ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.07$, $p = 0.32$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.04$, $p = 0.52$). Despite some insignificant effects, all coefficients are positive. Thus, H7-1 is not rejected.

H7-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity activate behaviours of passive–harm.

Significant direct effects are identified in Hong Kong and Malaysia but not in Singapore and Thailand ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.33$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.45$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = -0.11$, $p = 0.10$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.06$, $p = 0.24$). Particularly, only Singapore results in a negative coefficient. Thus, H7-2 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.16 – Results of Directs Effects of Pity on Behaviours

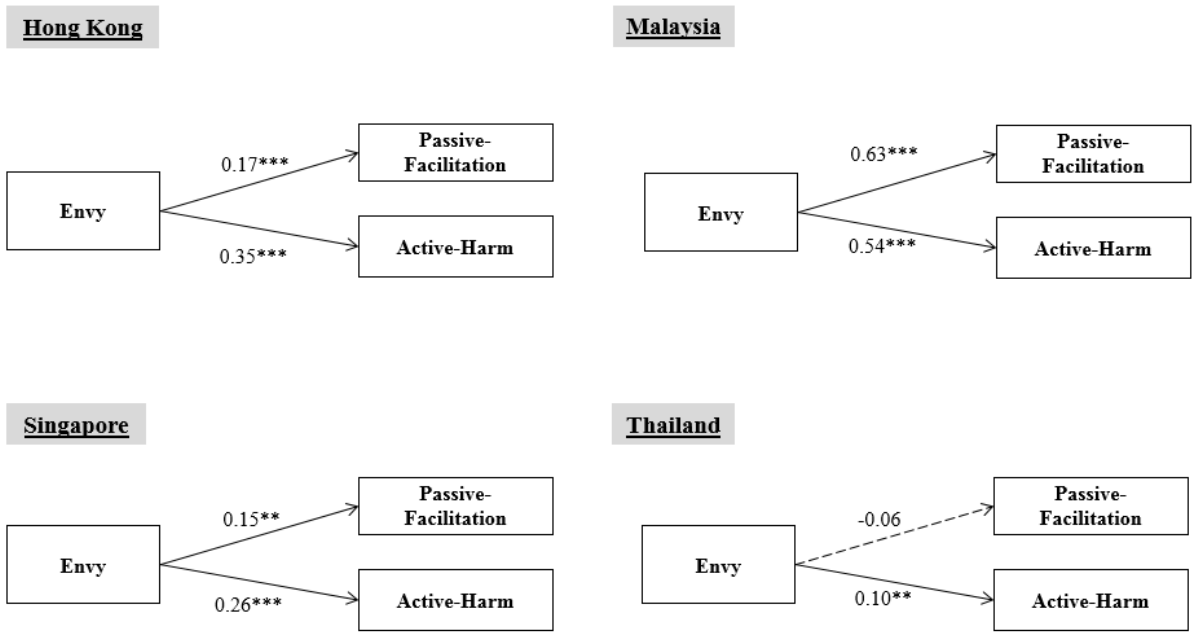
H8: Direct Effects of Envy on Behaviours

H8-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy activate behaviours of passive–facilitation.

Significant direct effects were noted in all destinations except Thailand ($\beta_{Hong\ Kong} = 0.17$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{Malaysia} = 0.63$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{Singapore} = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{Thailand} = -0.06$, $p = 0.26$). In addition to Thailand, which is insignificant with negative effect, the others indicate a positive association amongst the examined variables. Thus, H8-1 is not rejected.

H8-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy activate behaviours of active–harm.

Significant direct effects are identified across all the four destinations ($\beta_{Hong\ Kong} = 0.35$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{Malaysia} = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{Singapore} = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{Thailand} = 0.10$, $p < 0.05$). All coefficients are positive. Thus, H8-2 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.17 – Results of Direct Effects of Envy on Behaviours

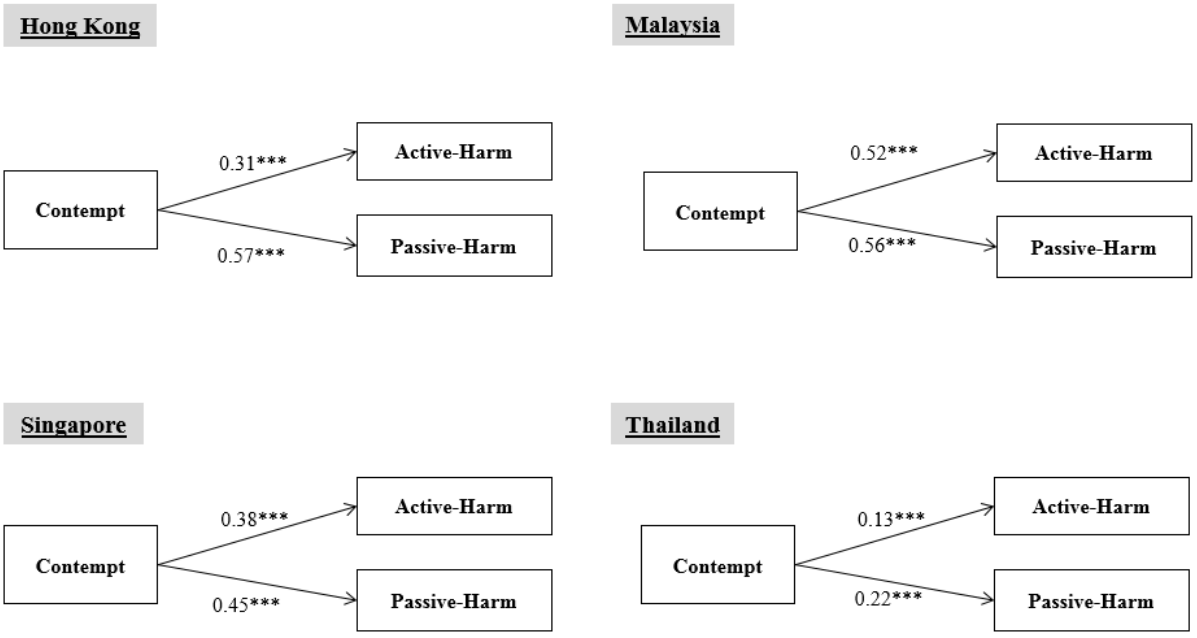
H9: Direct Effects of Contempt on Behaviours

H9-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt activate behaviours of active–harm.

Significant direct effects are found in all destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.31$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.52$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.38$, $p < 0.01$ $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.13$, $p = 0.26$). All the coefficients are positive. Thus, H9-1 is not rejected.

H9-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt activate behaviours of passive–harm.

Significant direct effects are identified across all the four destinations ($\beta_{\text{Hong Kong}} = 0.57$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Malaysia}} = 0.56$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Singapore}} = 0.45$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{Thailand}} = 0.22$, p , 0.05). All coefficients are positive. Thus, H9-2 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents the opposite direction as per hypothesis.

Figure 5.18 – Results of Direct Effects of Contempt on Behaviours

In summary, this section has investigated eight direct effects of emotions on behaviours across the four destinations. None of the examined hypotheses are rejected. Table 5.17 summarizes the results of the eight hypotheses.

Table 5.18 – Summary of Direct Effects of Emotions on Behaviours across Four Destinations

			Hong Kong		**Malaysia**		**Singapore**		**Thailand**		
No.	**Emotions**	**Behaviours**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Coe**	**Decision**	**Overall Decision**
H6-1	Admiration	AF	0.53***	**N.R**	0.45***	**N.R**	0.64***	**N.R**	0.35***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H6-2		PF	0.29***	**N.R**	0.11	R	0.32***	**N.R**	0.15**	**N.R**	**N.R**
H7-1	Pity	AF	0.26***	**N.R**	0.29***	**N.R**	0.07	R	0.04	R	**N.R**[%]
H7-2		PH	0.33***	**N.R**	0.45***	**N.R**	-0.11	R	0.06	R	**N.R**[$]
H8-1	Envy	PF	0.17**	**N.R**	0.63***	**N.R**	0.15**	**N.R**	-0.06	R	**N.R**
H8-2		AH	0.35***	**N.R**	0.54***	**N.R**	0.26***	**N.R**	0.10**	**N.R**	**N.R**
H9-1	Contempt	AH	0.31***	**N.R**	0.52***	**N.R**	0.38***	**N.R**	0.13***	**N.R**	**N.R**
H9-2		PH	0.57***	**N.R**	0.56***	**N.R**	0.45***	**N.R**	0.22***	**N.R**	**N.R**

Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Coe refers to coefficient of the effect; N.R refers to hypothesis is Not Rejected; R refers to hypothesis is Rejected.

[%] H7-1 is Not Rejected, although Singapore and Thailand show rejections, all coefficients are positive which matched with the proposed association.

[$] H7-2 is Not Rejected, although Singapore and Thailand show rejections, majority of coefficients are positive which matched with the proposed association.

Table 5.19 – Overall Summary of Direct Effects

No.	Independent	Dependent	Overall Decision
Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Emotions			
H1-1	Approachable	Admiration	**Not Rejected**
H1-2		Pity	**Not Rejected**
H1-3		Envy	Rejected
H1-4		Contempt	**Not Rejected**
H2-1	Competence	Admiration	**Not Rejected**
H2-2		Pity	**Not Rejected**
H2-3		Envy	Rejected
H2-4		Contempt	**Not Rejected**
H3-1	Boastful	Admiration	**Not Rejected**
H3-2		Pity	Rejected
H3-3		Envy	**Not Rejected**
H3-4		Contempt	**Not Rejected**
H4-1	Rude	Admiration	**Not Rejected**
H4-2		Pity	**Not Rejected**
H4-3		Envy	**Not Rejected**
H4-4		Contempt	**Not Rejected**
H5-1	IAT Score	Admiration	Rejected
H5-2		Pity	Rejected
H5-3		Envy	Rejected
H5-4		Contempt	Rejected
Direct Effects of Stereotypes on Behaviours			
H1-5	Approachable	Active-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H1-6		Passive-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H1-7		Active-Harm	Rejected
H1-8		Passive-Harm	Rejected
H2-5	Competence	Active-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H2-6		Passive-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H2-7		Active-Harm	Rejected
H2-8		Passive-Harm	Rejected
H3-5	Boastful	Active-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H3-6		Passive-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H3-7		Active-Harm	Rejected
H3-8		Passive-Harm	**Not Rejected**
H4-5	Rude	Active-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H4-6		Passive-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H4-7		Active-Harm	**Not Rejected**
H4-8		Passive-Harm	**Not Rejected**
H5-5	IAT Score	Active-Facilitation	Rejected
H5-6		Passive-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H5-7		Active-Harm	Rejected
H5-8		Passive-Harm	Rejected

Direct Effects of Emotion on Behaviours			
H6-1	Admiration	Active-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H6-2		Passive-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H7-1	Pity	Active-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H7-2		Passive-Harm	**Not Rejected**
H8-1	Envy	Passive-Facilitation	**Not Rejected**
H8-2		Active-Harm	**Not Rejected**
H9-1	Contempt	Active-Harm	**Not Rejected**
H9-2		Passive-Harm	**Not Rejected**

5.4.8 Mediating Effects of Emotions on Stereotypes and Behaviours (path-4)

In the previous sections, the direct effects amongst stereotypes, emotions and behaviours are investigated. The findings not only present the direct influence of one onto the other but also verify if the proposed model is applicable for the examination of the mediating effect of emotion. Several requirements must be met to achieve a mediation relationship. Firstly, independent variable (X) is a significant predictor of the dependent variable (Y). The direct effects of stereotypes on behaviours (*path-2*) is not rejected. Independent variable (X) is a significant predictor of the mediator (M). The direct effects of stereotypes on emotion (*path-1*) is not rejected. Mediator (M) is a significant predictor of dependent variable (Y). The direct effects of emotions on behaviours (*path-3*) is not rejected. If any of the three direct effects are rejected, then the independent variable/mediator is not a significant predictor of mediator/dependent variable, indicating that no association is identified. Thus, performing mediation analysis is futile.

Fifteen of the direct effects are rejected. The proposed models that consist of associations should not be included in the mediation analysis.

1. H1-3: Direct effect of approachable on envy
2. H2-3: Direct effect of competence on envy
3. H3-2: Direct effect of boastful on pity
4. H5-1: Direct effect of IAT score on admiration
5. H5-2: Direct effect of IAT score on pity
6. H5-3: Direct effect of IAT score on envy
7. H5-4: Direct effect of IAT score on contempt
8. H1-7: Direct effect of approachable on active–harm
9. H1-8: Direct effect of approachable on passive–harm
10. H2-7: Direct effect of competence on active–harm
11. H2-8: Direct effect of competence on passive–harm
12. H3-7: Direct effect of boastful on active–harm
13. H5-5: Direct effect of IAT score on active–facilitation
14. H5-7: Direct effect of IAT score on active–harm
15. H5-8: Direct effect of IAT score on passive–harm

Eighteen hypotheses are applicable for the mediation analysis.

1. H10-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of approachable on active–facilitation.
2. H10-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of approachable on passive–facilitation.
3. H10-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of approachable on active–facilitation.
4. H11-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of competence on active–facilitation.
5. H11-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of competence on passive–facilitation.
6. H11-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of competence on active–facilitation.
7. H12-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of boastful on active–facilitation.
8. H12-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–facilitation.
9. H12-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–facilitation.
10. H12-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–harm.
11. H13-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of rude on active–facilitation.
12. H13-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–facilitation.
13. H13-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of rude on active–facilitation.
14. H13-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–harm.
15. H13-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–facilitation.
16. H13-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of rude on active–harm.
17. H13-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of rude on active–harm.
18. H13-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of rude on active–harm.

Table 5.20 summarizes the decisions of all hypotheses with regard to the continuation of mediation analysis.

Table 5.20 – Summary of All Hypotheses for Mediation Analysis

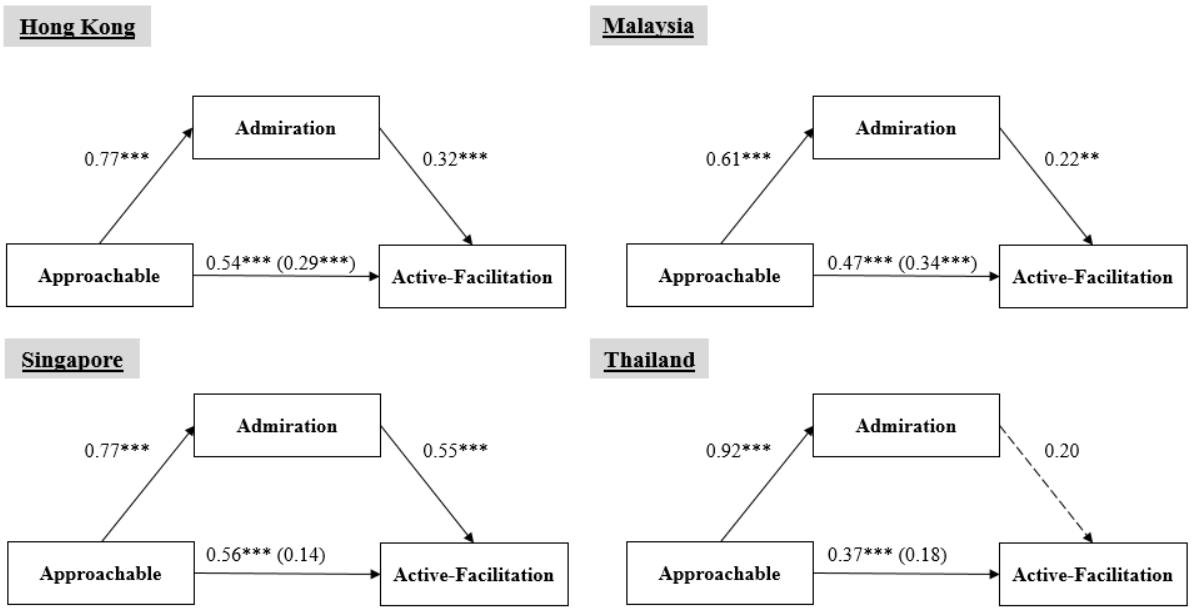
No.	Stereotypes	Emotions	Behaviours	Decision	Remarks
H10-1	Approachable	Admiration	AF	**Mediation**	
H10-2			PF	**Mediation**	
H10-3		Pity	AF	**Mediation**	
H10-4			PH	No Mediation	Rejection of Approachable on PH (H1-8)
H10-5		Envy	PF	No Mediation	Rejection of Approachable on Envy (H1-3)
H10-6			AH	No Mediation	Rejection of Approachable on Envy (H1-3) and AH (H1-8)
H10-7		Contempt	AH	No Mediation	Rejection of Approachable on AH (H1-7)
H10-8			PH	No Mediation	Rejection of Approachable on PH (H1-7)
H11-1	Competence	Admiration	AF	**Mediation**	
H11-2			PF	**Mediation**	
H11-3		Pity	AF	**Mediation**	
H11-4			PH	No Mediation	Rejection of Competence on PH (H2-8)
H11-5		Envy	PF	No Mediation	Rejection of Competence on Envy (H2-3)
H11-6			AH	No Mediation	Rejection of Competence on Envy (H2-3) and AH (H2-7)
H11-7		Contempt	AH	No Mediation	Rejection of Competence on AH (H2-7)
H11-8			PH	No Mediation	Rejection of Competence on PH (H2-8)
H12-1	Boastful	Admiration	AF	**Mediation**	
H12-2			PF	**Mediation**	
H12-3		Pity	AF	No Mediation	Rejection of Boastful on Pity (H3-2)
H12-4			PH	No Mediation	Rejection of Boastful on Pity (H3-2)
H12-5		Envy	PF	**Mediation**	
H12-6			AH	No Mediation	Rejection of Boastful on AH (H3-7)
H12-7		Contempt	AH	No Mediation	Rejection of Boastful on AH (H3-7)
H12-8			PH	Mediation	
H13-1	Rude	Admiration	AF	**Mediation**	
H13-2			PF	**Mediation**	
H13-3		Pity	AF	**Mediation**	
H13-4			PH	**Mediation**	
H13-5		Envy	PF	**Mediation**	
H13-6			AH	**Mediation**	
H13-7		Contempt	AH	**Mediation**	
H13-8			PH	**Mediation**	

H14-1	IAT Score	Admiration	AF	No Mediation	Rejection of IAT Score on Admiration (H5-1) and AF (H5-5)
H14-2			PF	No Mediation	Rejection of IAT Score on Admiration (H5-1)
H14-3		Pity	AF	No Mediation	Rejection of IAT Score on Pity (H5-2) and AF (H5-5)
H14-4			PH	No Mediation	Rejection of IAT Score on Pity (H5-2) and PH (H5-8)
H14-5		Envy	PF	No Mediation	Rejection of IAT Score on Envy (H5-3)
H14-6			AH	No Mediation	Rejection of IAT Score on Envy (H5-3) and AH (H5-7)
H14-7		Contempt	AH	No Mediation	Rejection of IAT Score on Contempt (H5-4) and AH (H5-7)
H14-8			PH	No Mediation	Rejection of IAT Score on Contempt (H5-4) and PH (H5-8)

H10: Mediating Effect of Emotions on Approachable and Behaviour via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H10-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of approachable on active–facilitation.

The indirect effect (*Path-4*) was significant in Hong Kong ((0.77) (0.32) = 0.25, 95%CI [0.10, 0.39]), Malaysia ((0.61) (0.22) = 0.13, 95%CI [0.03, 0.25]) and Singapore ((0.77) (0.55) = 0.42, 95%CI [0.25, 0.63]) but not Thailand ((0.92) (0.20) = 0.19, 95%CI [−0.03, 0.41]). Moreover, Hong Kong and Malaysia result in a partial mediation, whereas Singapore result in a full mediation. Thus, H10-1 is not rejected.

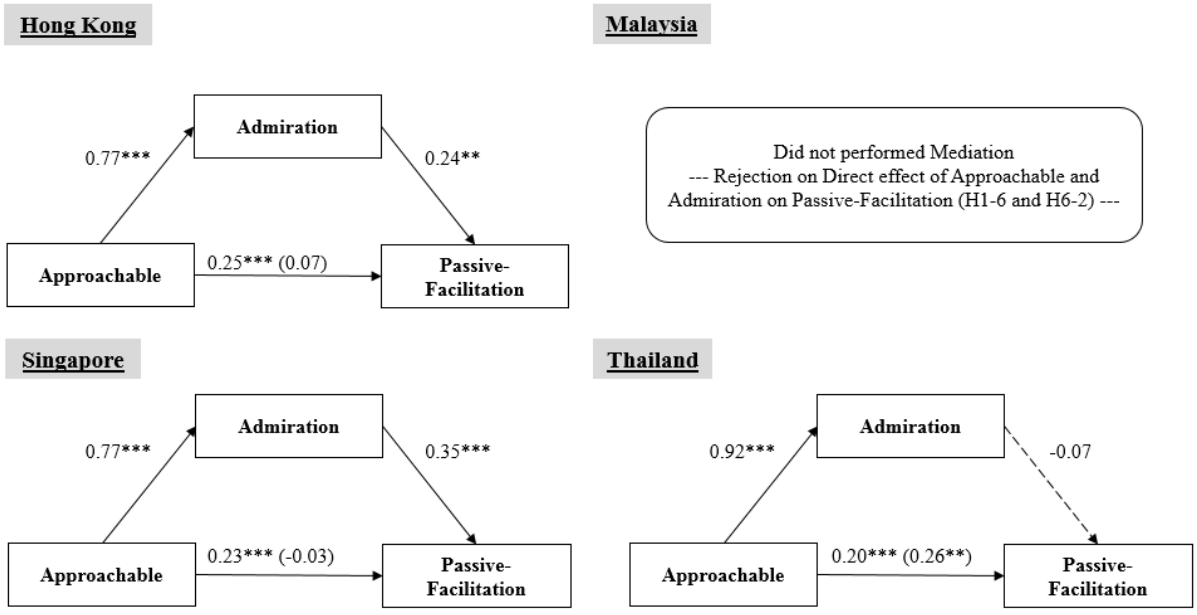


Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.19 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Approachable and Active-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H10-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of approachable on passive-facilitation.

Malaysia is excluded from the mediation analysis given that the direct effect of approachable and admiration on active–facilitation (H1-6 and H6-2) is rejected. The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant in Hong Kong ((0.77) (0.24) = 0.19, 95%CI [0.01, 0.37]) and Singapore ((0.77) (0.35) = 0.26, 95%CI [0.10, 0.44]) but not in Thailand ((0.92) (−0.07) = −0.06, 95%CI [−0.27, 0.14]). Hong Kong and Singapore have a full mediation. Thus, H10-2 is not rejected.

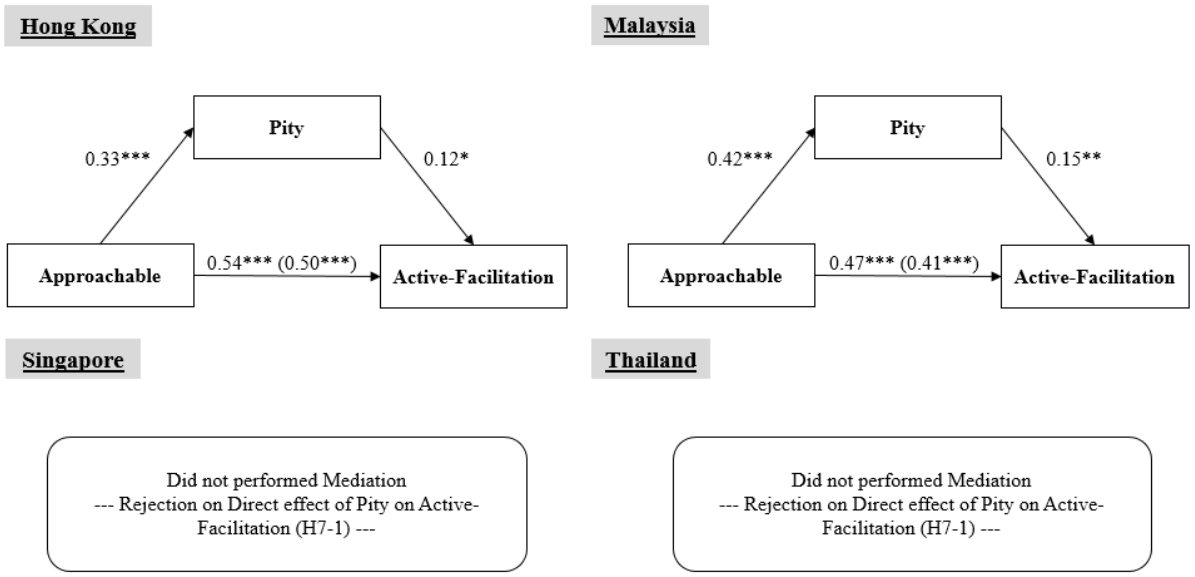


Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.20 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Approachable and Passive-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes.

H10-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of approachable on active–facilitation.

Singapore and Thailand are excluded from the mediation analysis because both indicated that the direct effect of pity on active–facilitation is rejected (H7-1). The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant in Malaysia ((0.42) (0.15) = 0.06, 95%CI [0.01, 0.12]) but not in Hong Kong ((0.33) (0.12) = 0.04, 95%CI [−0.01, 0.10]). The mediation effect in Malaysia is partial. No conclusion can be drawn given the inconsistent results. Thus, H10-3 is inconclusive.



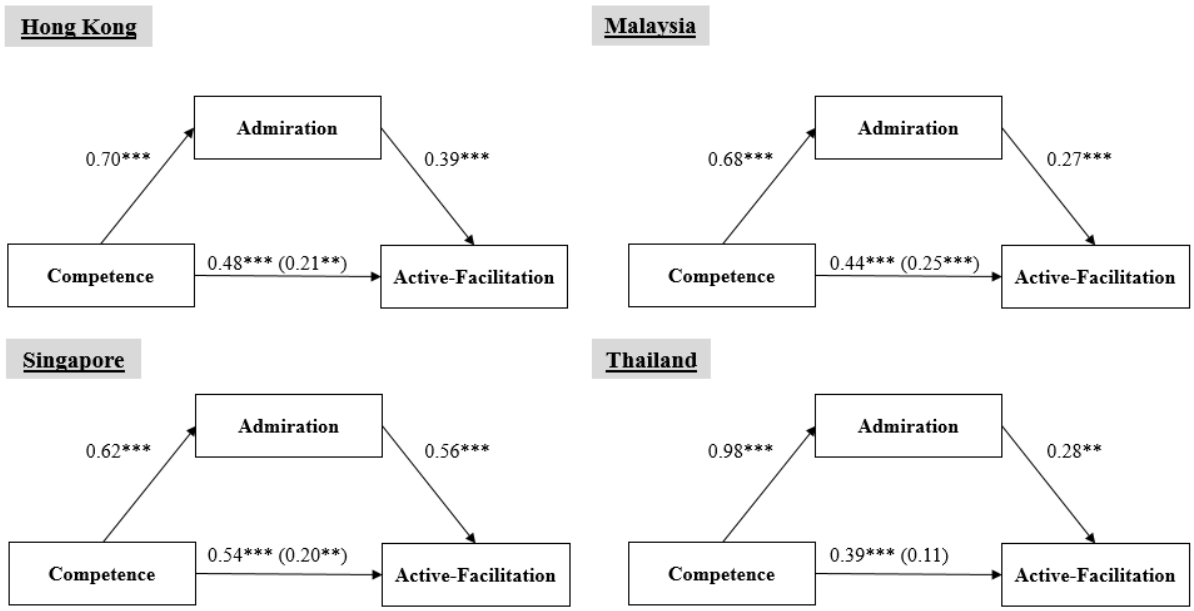
Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.21 – Mediating Effects of Pity on Approachable and Active-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H11: Mediating Effect of Emotions on Competence and Behaviour via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H11-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of competence on active–facilitation.

The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant across the four destinations (Hong Kong: (0.70) (0.39) = 0.27, 95%CI [0.14, 0.40]); (Malaysia: (0.68) (0.27) = 0.19, 95%CI [0.06, 0.34]); (Singapore: (0.62) (0.56) = 0.35, 95%CI [0.22, 0.50]); (Thailand: (0.98) (0.28) = 0.28, 95%CI [0.08, 0.48]). The results indicate partial mediation in Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore, whereas full mediation in Thailand. Thus, H11-1 is not rejected.

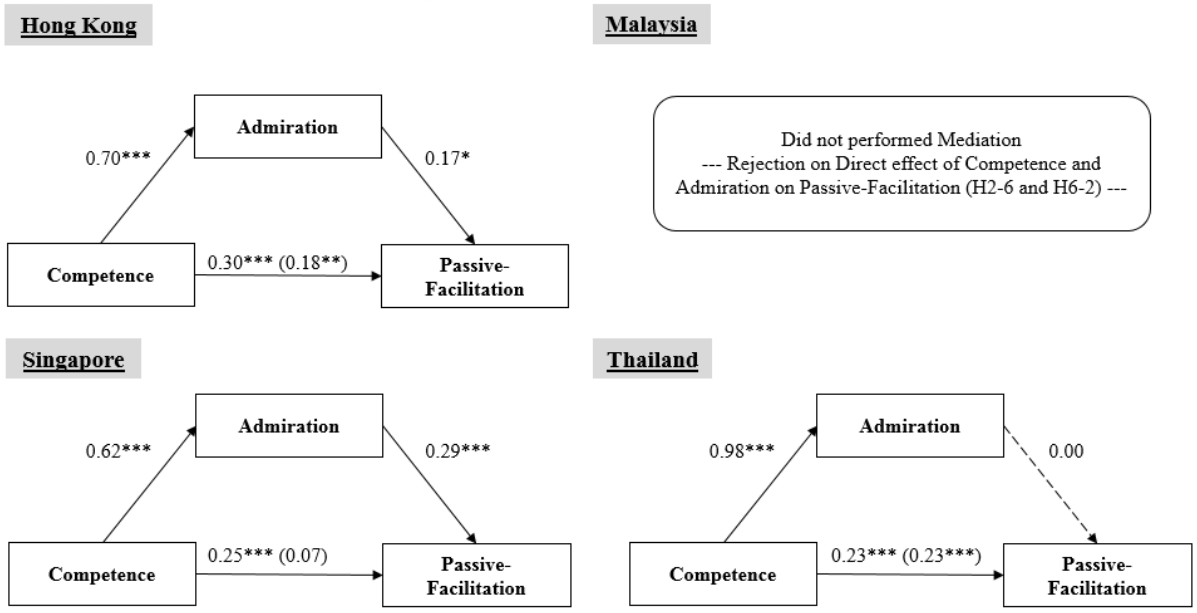


Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.22 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Competence and Active-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H11-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of competence on passive–facilitation.

Malaysia is excluded from mediation analysis given that previous results indicated the rejection of the direct effects of competence and admiration on passive–facilitation (H2-6 and H6-2). The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant only in Singapore ((0.62) (0.29) = 0.18, 95%CI [0.08, 0.30]) but not in Hong Kong and Thailand ((Hong Kong: (0.70) (0.17) = 0.11, 95%CI [−0.03, 0.26]); (Thailand: (0.98) (0.00) = 0.00, 95%CI [−0.21, 0.20])). Thus, H11-2 is rejected.

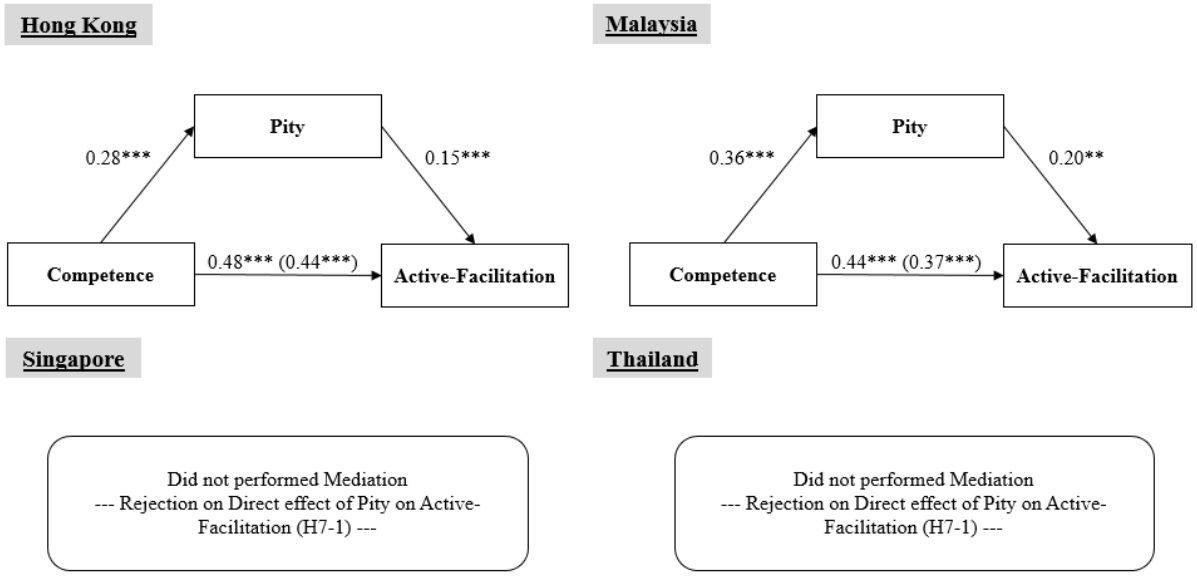


Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.23 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Competence and Passive-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H11-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of competence on active–facilitation.

Singapore and Thailand are excluded from mediation analysis because the direct effect of pity on active–facilitation is rejected (H7-1). The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant in Hong Kong ((0.28) (0.15) = 0.04, 95%CI [0.00, 0.11]) and Malaysia ((0.36) (0.20) = 0.07, 95%CI [0.02, 0.13]). Both results indicate a partial mediation effect. Thus, H11-3 is not rejected.



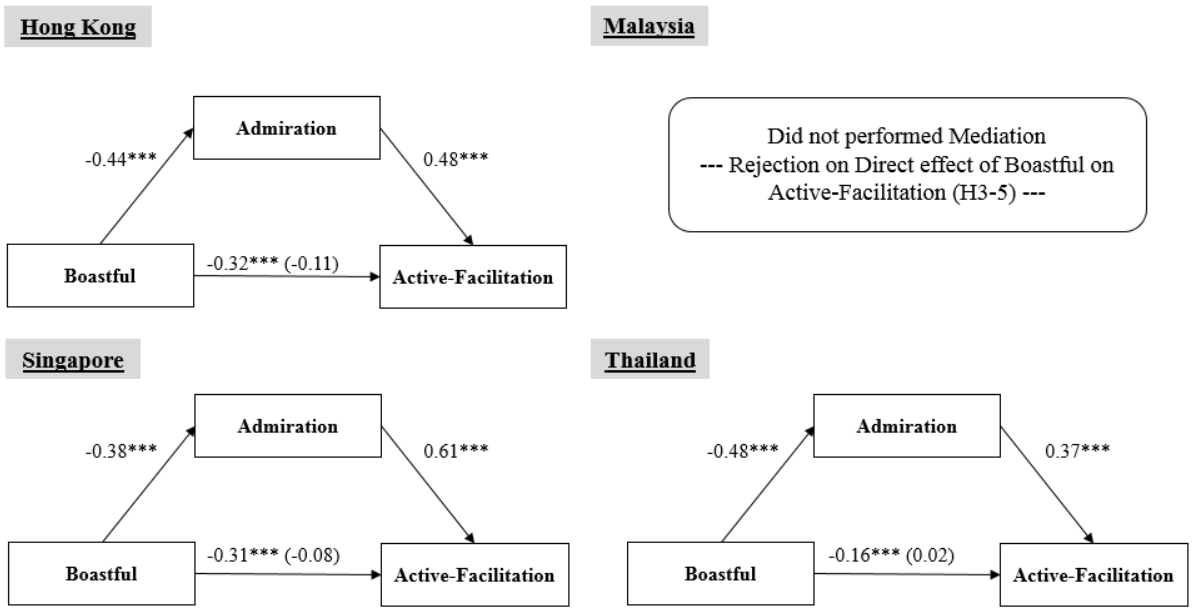
Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.24 – Mediating Effects of Pity on Competence and Active-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H12: Mediating Effects of Emotions on Boastful and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H12-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediates the direct effect of boastful on active–facilitation.

Malaysia is excluded from mediation analysis because the direct effect of boastful on active–facilitation is rejected (H3-5). The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant across the examined three destinations (Hong Kong: (−0.44) (0.48) = −0.21, 95%CI [−0.34, −0.10.]); Singapore: (−0.38) (0.61) = −0.23, 95%CI [−0.35, −0.13]); (Thailand: (−0.48) (0.37) = −0.18, 95%CI [−0.26, −0.10]). They all indicate a full mediation effect. Thus, H12-1 is not rejected.

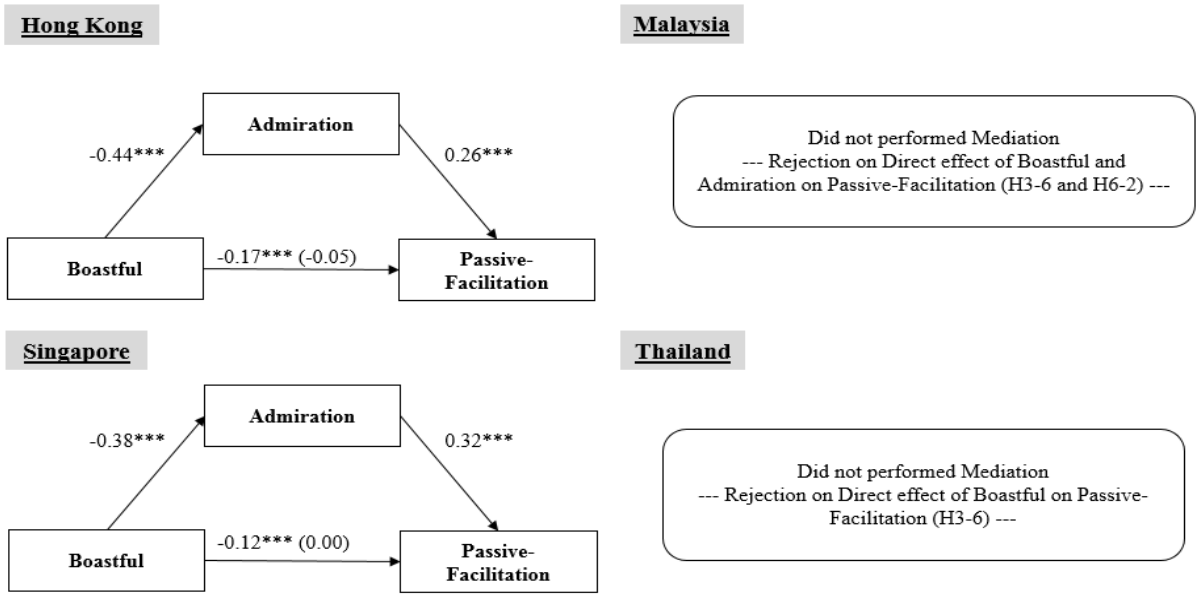


Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.25 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Boastful and Active-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H12-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–facilitation.

Malaysia and Thailand are excluded from the mediation analysis because both indicate a rejection on the direct effect of boastful on passive–facilitation (H3-6). Malaysia also indicates that the direct effect of admiration on passive–facilitation is rejected (H6-2). The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant across the examined three destinations (Hong Kong: (−0.44) (0.26) = −0.12, 95%CI [−0.22, −0.03]); (Singapore: (−0.38) (0.32) = −0.12, 95%CI [−0.20, −0.06]). Hong Kong and Singapore result in a full mediation. Thus, H12-2 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.26 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Boastful and Passive-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H12-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediates the direct effect of boastful on passive–harm.

Although the preceding results indicate the applicability for the mediation analysis, no mediation can be performed on any of the destinations. Hong Kong and Singapore indicate a rejection of the direct effect of boastful on envy (H3-3). Malaysia and Thailand indicate a rejection of the direct effect of boastful on passive–facilitation. Thailand also shows that the direct effect of envy on passive–facilitation (H8-1) is rejected. As such, no complete sets of significant direct effects are detected in any of the four destinations. No mediation analysis can be performed. Thus, H12-5 is inconclusive.

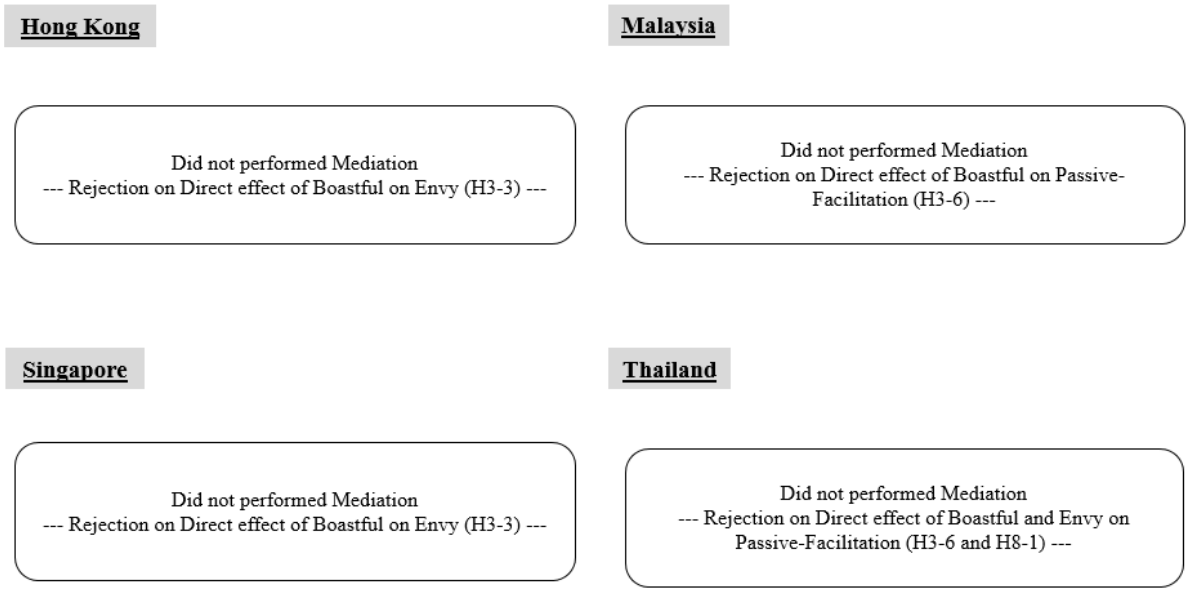
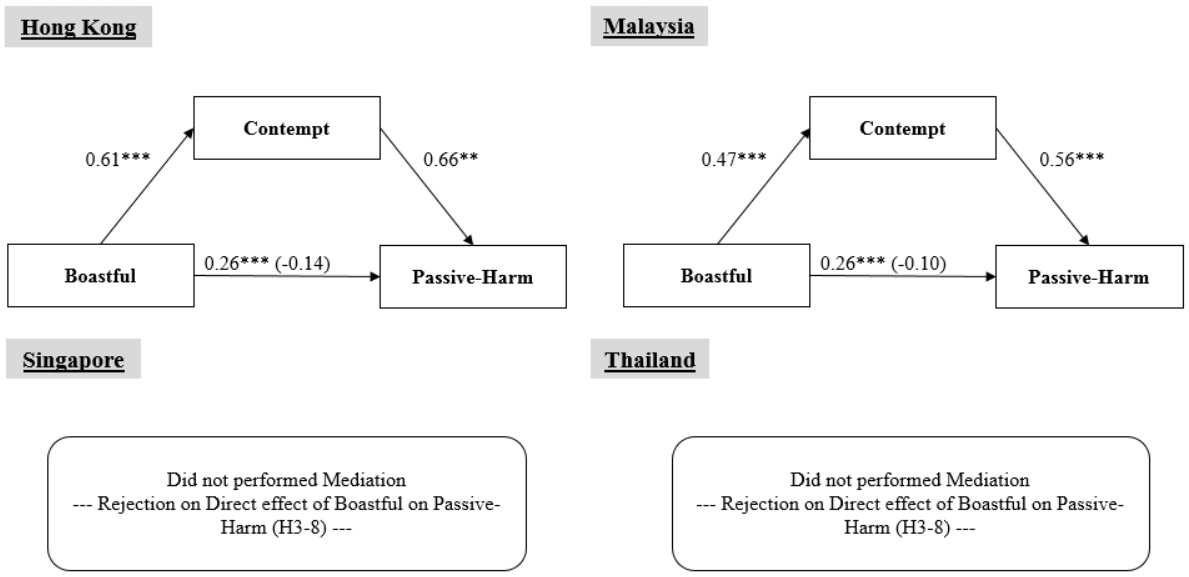


Figure 5.27 – Mediating Effects of Envy on Boastful and Passive-Harm via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H12-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–harm.

Singapore and Thailand are excluded from mediation analysis because they reject the direct effect of boastful on passive–harm (H3-8). The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant in Hong Kong and Malaysia (Hong Kong: (0.61) (0.66) = 0.40, 95%CI [0.26, 0.57]); Malaysia: (0.47) (0.56) = 0.27, 95%CI [0.18, 0.03]) with full mediations. Thus, H12-8 is accepted.



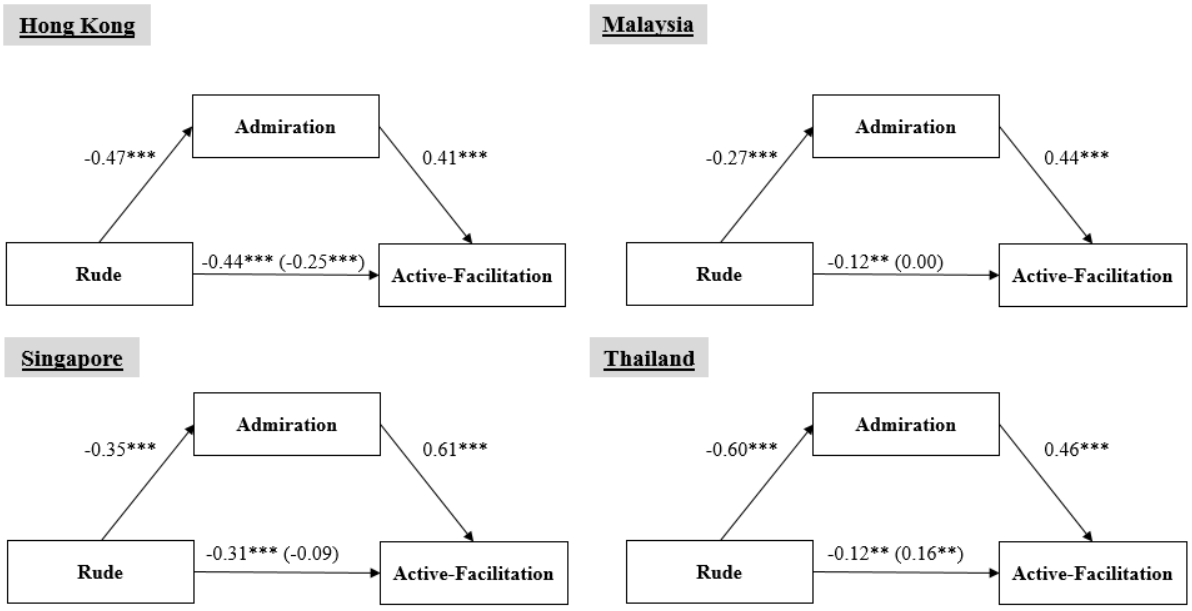
Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.28 – Mediating Effects of Contempt on Boastful and Passive-Harm via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13: Mediating Effects of Emotions on Rude and Behaviours via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of rude on active–facilitation.

The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant across the four destinations (Hong Kong: (−0.47) (0.41) = −0.19, 95%CI [−0.30, −0.09]); (Malaysia: (−0.27) (0.44) = −0.12, 95%CI [−0.18, −0.07]); (Singapore: (−0.35) (0.61) = −0.22, 95%CI [−0.33, −0.12]); (Thailand: (−0.60) (0.46) = −0.28, 95%CI [−0.38, −0.18]). Hong Kong and Thailand result in partial mediation, whereas Malaysia and Singapore result in full mediation. Thus, H13-1 is not rejected.

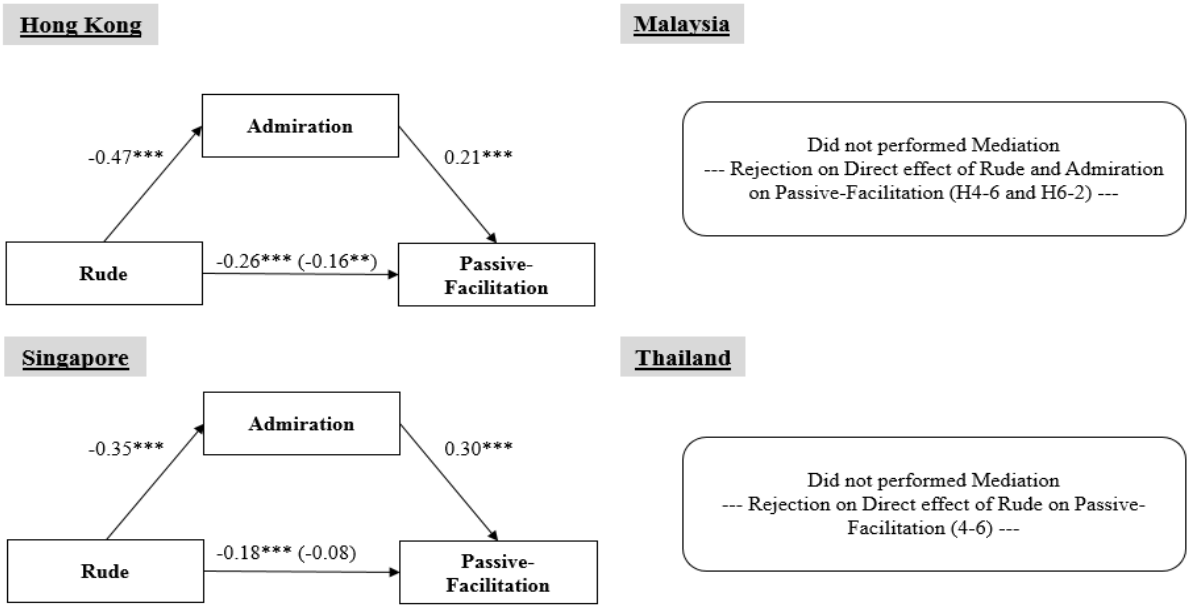


Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.29 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Rude and Active-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–facilitation.

Malaysia and Thailand are excluded because they reject the direct effect of rude on passive–facilitation (H4-6). Malaysia rejects the direct effect of admiration on passive–facilitation (H6-2). The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant in Hong Kong and Singapore (Hong Kong: (−0.47) (0.21) = −0.10, 95%CI [−0.19, −0.01]); (Singapore: (−0.35) (0.30) = −0.02, 95%CI [−0.17, −0.05]) with partial and full mediation, respectively. Thus, H13-2 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.30 – Mediating Effects of Admiration on Rude and Passive-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of rude on active–facilitation.

Although the preceding results indicate the applicability for the mediation analysis, no mediation can be performed on any of the destinations. Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore reject the direct effect of rude on pity (H4-2). Singapore and Thailand reject the direct effect of pity on active–facilitation (H7-1). No complete sets of significant direct effects are detected in any of the four destinations. No mediation analysis can be performed. Thus, H13-3 is inconclusive.

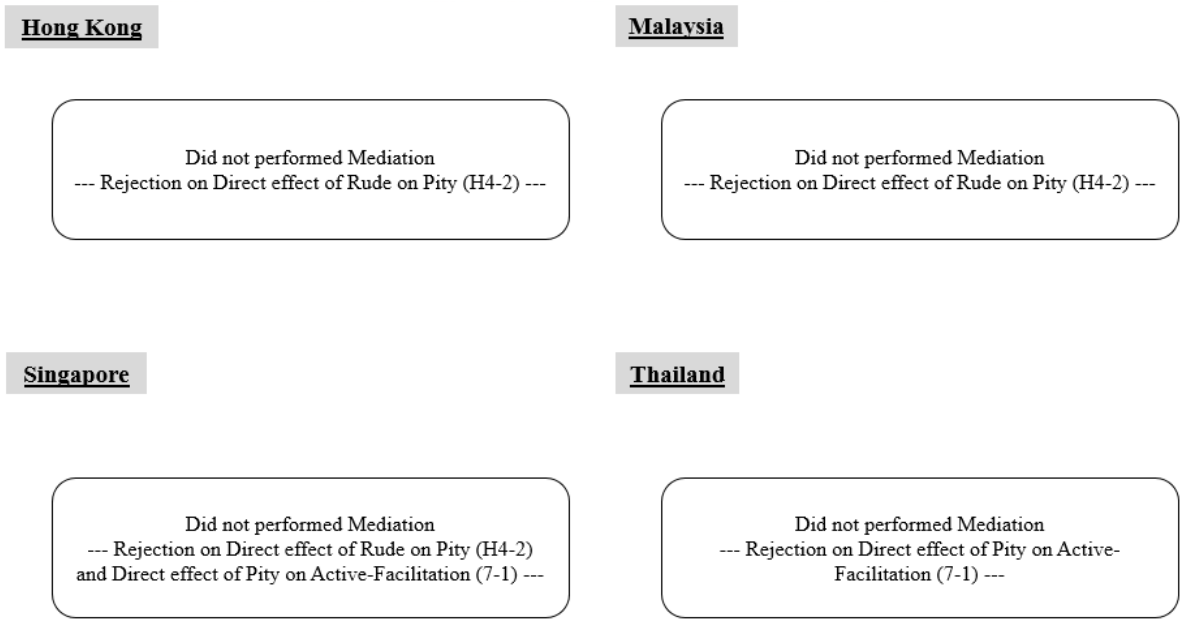


Figure 5.31 – Mediating Effects of Pity on Rude and Active-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–harm.

Although the preceding results indicate the applicability for the mediation analysis, no mediation can be performed on any of the destinations. Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore reject the direct effect of rude on pity (H4-2). Singapore and Thailand reject the direct effect of pity on passive–harm (H7-2). As such, no complete sets of significant direct effects are detected in any of the four destinations. No mediation analysis can be performed. Thus, H13-4 is inconclusive.

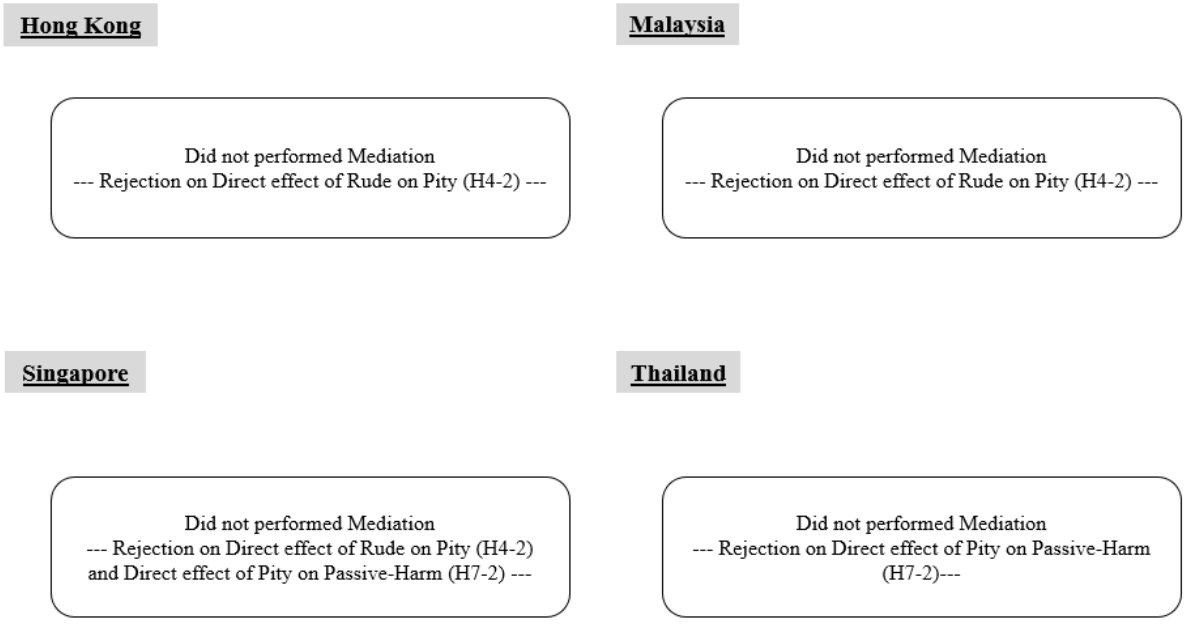
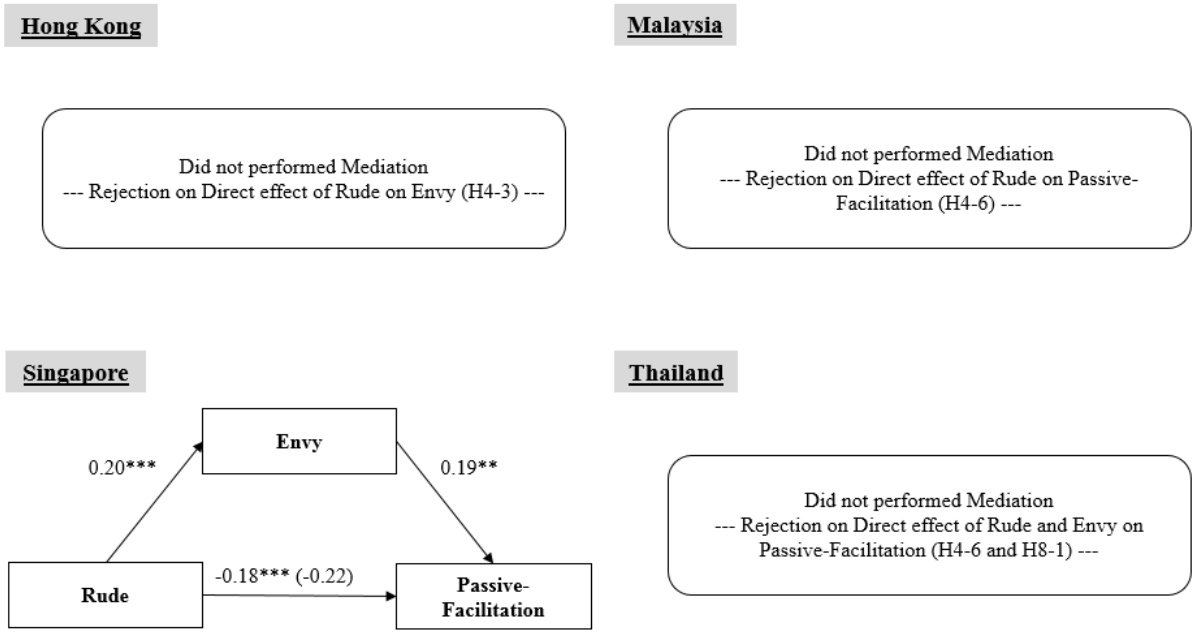


Figure 5.32 – Mediating Effects of Pity on Rude and Passive-Harm via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–facilitation.

Hong Kong, Malaysia and Thailand are excluded from the mediation analysis. Hong Kong rejects the direct effect of rude on envy (H4-3). Malaysia and Thailand reject the direct effect of rude on passive–facilitation (H4-6). Thailand also rejects the direct effect of envy on passive–facilitation (H8-1). Hence, only Singapore is fitted for the mediation analysis. The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant in Singapore (0.20) (0.19) = 0.04, 95%CI [0.01, 0.08] with a partial effect. Thus, H13-5 is not rejected.

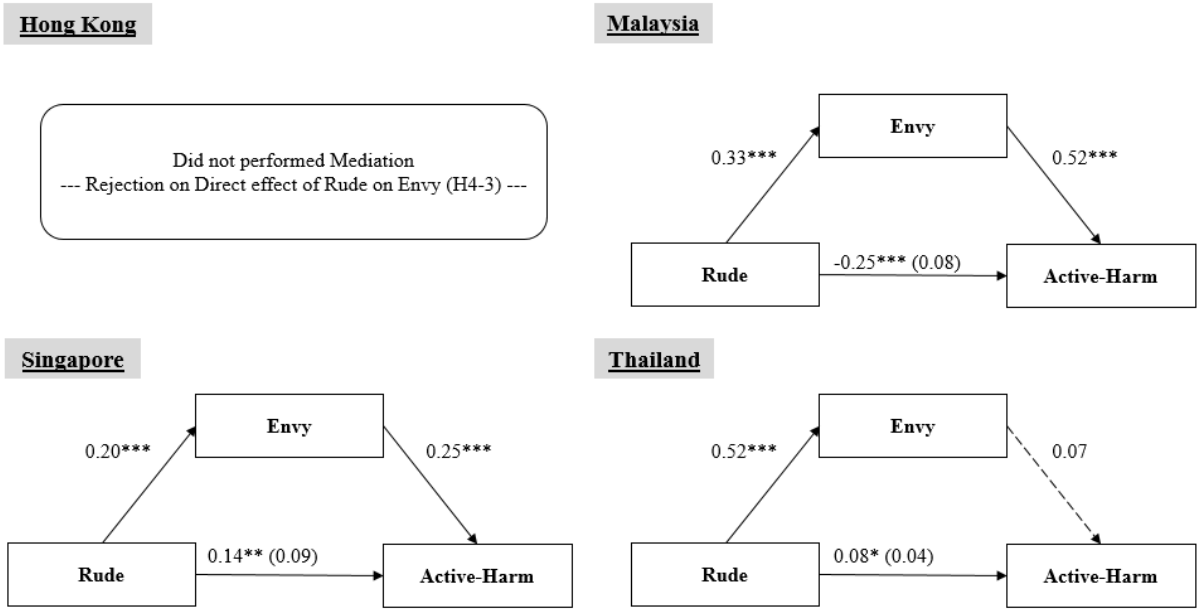


Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.33 – Mediating Effects of Envy on Rude and Passive-Facilitation via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of rude on active–harm.

Hong Kong is excluded from mediation analysis because the direct effect of rude and envy are rejected (H4-3). The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant in Malaysia and Singapore but not in Thailand (Malaysia: (0.33) (0.52) = 0.17, 95%CI [0.09, 0.26]); (Singapore: (0.20) (0.25) = 0.05, 95%CI [0.01, 0.10]); (Thailand: (0.52) (0.07) = 0.04, 95%CI [−0.04, 0.12]). Malaysia and Singapore result in a full mediation effect. Thus, H13-6 is not rejected.

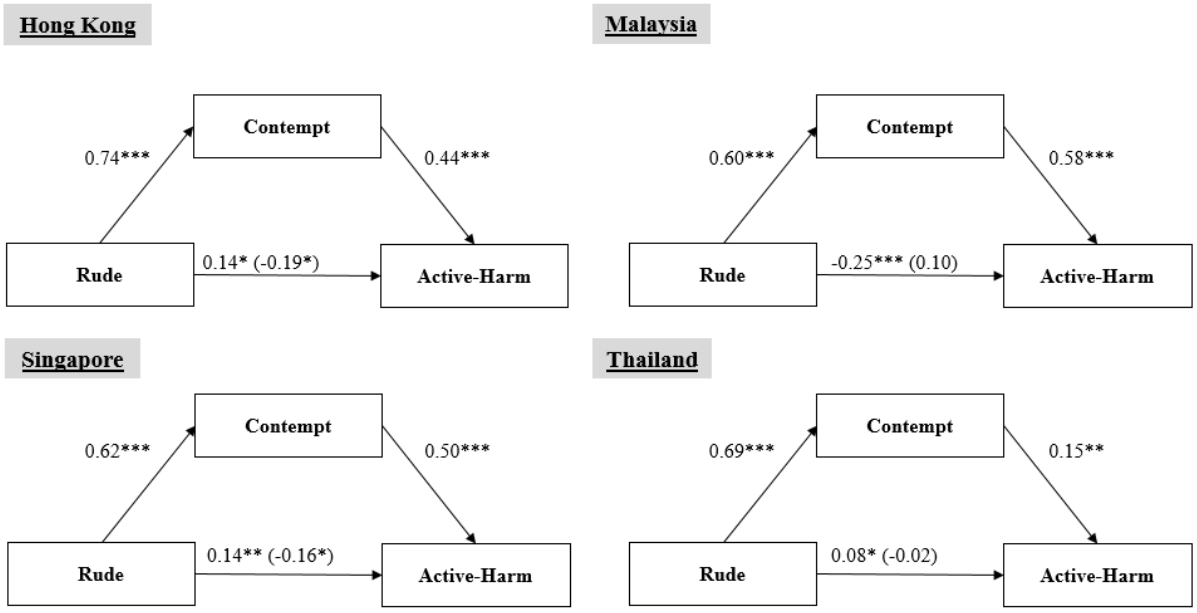


Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.34 – Mediating Effects of Envy on Rude and Active-Harm via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of rude on active–harm.

The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant in Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore but not in Thailand (Hong Kong: (0.74) (0.44) = 0.33, 95%CI [0.16, 0.51]); (Malaysia: (0.60) (0.58) = 0.34, 95%CI [0.24, 0.46]); (Singapore: (0.62) (0.50) = 0.15, 95%CI [0.15, 0.34]); (Thailand: (0.69) (0.15) = 0.10, 95%CI [−0.03, 0.24]). Hong Kong and Singapore resulted in a partial mediation effect, whereas Malaysia resulted in a full mediation effect. Thus, H13-7 is not rejected.

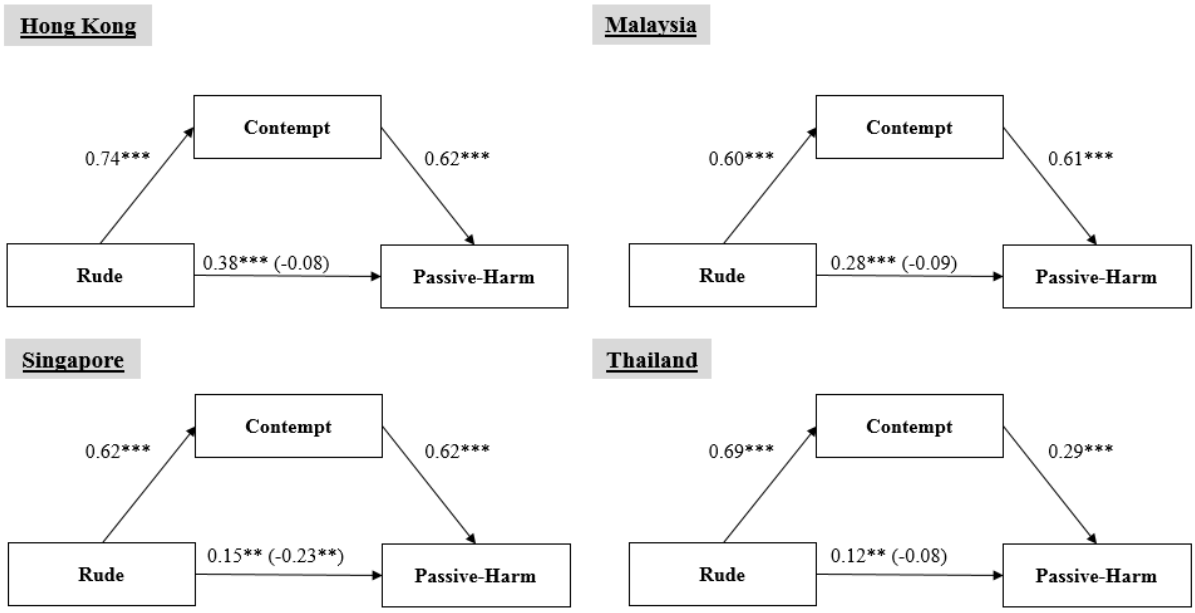


Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.35 – Mediating Effects of Contempt on Rude and Active-Harm via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

H13-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–harm.

The indirect effect (*Path-4*) is significant across all the examined destinations (Hong Kong: (0.74) (0.62) = 0.46, 95%CI [0.28, 0.66]); (Malaysia: (0.60) (0.61) = 0.3, 95%CI [0.26, 0.48]); (Singapore: (0.62) (0.62) = 0.38, 95%CI [0.25, 0.54]); (Thailand: (0.69) (0.29) = 0.20, 95%CI [0.07, 0.33]). In addition to Singapore, which results in a partial effect, the other three destinations result in a full mediation effect. Thus, H13-8 is not rejected.



Note: *p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Dotted line represents insignificant relationship.

Figure 5.36 – Mediating Effects of Contempt on Rude and Passive-Harm via Explicit Measured Stereotypes

In summary, 18 mediating effects of emotions on stereotypes and behaviours have been examined. The results indicate that 13 of them are accepted, 4 are inconclusive and 1 is rejected.

The hypotheses that are not rejected are as follows.

1. H10-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of approachable on active–facilitation.
2. H10-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of approachable on passive–facilitation.
3. H11-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of competence on active–facilitation.
4. H11-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of competence on active–facilitation.
5. H12-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of boastful on active–facilitation.
6. H12-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–facilitation.
7. H12-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–harm.
8. H13-1: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of rude on active–facilitation.
9. H13-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–facilitation.
10. H13-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–facilitation.
11. H13-6: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of rude on active–harm.
12. H13-7: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of rude on active–harm.
13. H13-8: Positive evaluations of tourists as contempt mediate the direct effect of rude on active–harm.

The inconclusive hypotheses are as follows.

1. H10-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of approachable on active–facilitation.
2. H12-5: Positive evaluations of tourists as envy mediate the direct effect of boastful on passive–facilitation.
3. H13-3: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of rude on active–facilitation.
4. H13-4: Positive evaluations of tourists as pity mediate the direct effect of rude on passive–harm.

The rejected hypothesis is as follows.

1. H11-2: Positive evaluations of tourists as admiration mediate the direct effect of competence on passive–facilitation.

Tables 5.21–5.24 present the results of the mediation analysis with respect to the four destinations. Table 5.25 summarises the overall mediation effect of the examined hypotheses.

Table 5.21 – Mediation Analysis of Emotions on Stereotypes and Behaviours (Hong Kong Sample)

No.	Stereotypes	Emotions	Behaviours	Path-2	Path-2'	Indirect	95% CI		Effect
							LLCI	ULCI	
H10-1	Approachable	Admiration	AF	0.54***	0.29***	(0.77)(0.32) = 0.25	0.10	0.39	**Partial**
H10-2			PF	0.25***	0.07	(0.77)(0.24) = 0.19	0.01	0.37	**Full**
H10-3		Pity	AF	0.54***	0.50***	(0.33)(0.12) = 0.04	-0.01	0.10	No
H11-1	Competence	Admiration	AF	0.48***	0.21**	(0.70)(0.39) = 0.27	0.14	0.40	**Partial**
H11-2			PF	0.30***	0.18**	(0.70)(0.17) = 0.11	-0.03	0.26	No
H11-3		Pity	AF	0.48***	0.44***	(0.28)(0.15) = 0.04	0.00	0.11	**Partial**
H12-1	Boastful	Admiration	AF	-0.32***	-0.11	(-0.44)(0.48) = -0.21	-0.34	-0.10	**Full**
H12-2			PF	-0.17***	-0.05	(-0.44)(0.26) = -0.12	-0.22	-0.03	**Full**
H12-5		Envy	PF	***--- Direct effect of Boastful on Envy (H3-3) was rejected ---***					
H12-8		Contempt	PH	0.26***	-0.14	(0.61)(0.66) = 0.40	0.26	0.57	**Full**
H13-1	Rude	Admiration	AF	-0.44***	-0.25***	(-0.47)(0.41) = -0.19	-0.30	-0.09	**Partial**
H13-2			PF	-0.26***	-0.16**	(-0.47)(0.21) = -0.10	-0.19	-0.01	**Partial**
H13-3		Pity	AF	***--- Direct effect of Rude on Pity (H4-2) was rejected ---***					
H13-4			PH	***--- Direct effect of Rude on Pity (H4-2) was rejected ---***					
H13-5		Envy	PF	***--- Direct effect of Rude on Envy (H4-3) was rejected ---***					
H13-6			AH	***--- Direct effect of Rude and Envy (H4-3) was rejected ---***					
H13-7		Contempt	AH	0.14*	-0.19*	(0.74)(0.44) = 0.33	0.16	0.51	**Partial**
H13-8			PH	0.38***	-0.08	(0.74)(0.62) = 0.46	0.28	0.66	**Full**

Note: AF refers to Active-Facilitation; PF refers to Passive-Facilitation; AH refers to Active-Harm; PH refers to Passive-Harm. Path-2 refers to the Direct effect of Stereotypes on Behaviours. Path-2' refers to the effect when Emotions were added to the model. Indirect effect refers to the indirect effect between Stereotypes and Behaviours.

Table 5.22 – Mediation Analysis of Emotions on Stereotypes and Behaviours (Malaysia Sample)

No.	Stereotypes	Emotions	Behaviours	Path-2	Path-2'	Indirect	95% CI		
							LLCI	ULCI	Effect
H10-1	Approachable	Admiration	AF	0.47***	0.34***	(0.61)(0.22) = 0.13	0.03	0.25	**Partial**
H10-2			PF	***--- Direct effect of Approachable and Admiration on AF (H1-6 and H6-2) was rejected---***					
H10-3		Pity	AF	0.47***	0.41***	(0.42)(0.15) = 0.06	0.01	0.12	**Partial**
H11-1	Competence	Admiration	AF	0.44***	0.25***	(0.68)(0.27) = 0.19	0.06	0.34	**Partial**
H11-2			PF	***--- Direct effects of Competence and Admiration on PF (H2-6 and H6-2) was rejected---***					
H11-3		Pity	AF	0.44***	0.37***	(0.36)(0.20) = 0.07	0.02	0.13	**Partial**
H12-1	Boastful	Admiration	AF	***--- Direct effect of Boastful on AF was rejected (H3-5) ---***					
H12-2			PF	***--- Direct effect of Boastful and Admiration on PF (H3-6 and H6-2) ---***					
H12-5		Envy	PF	***--- Direct effect of Boastful and PF (H3-6) was rejected ---***					
H12-8		Contempt	PH	0.26***	-0.10	(0.47)(0.56) = 0.27	0.18	0.36	**Full**
H13-1	Rude	Admiration	AF	-0.12**	0.00	(-0.27)(0.44) = -0.12	-0.18	-0.07	**Full**
H13-2			PF	***--- Direct effect of Rude on PF (H4-6) was rejected ---***					
H13-3		Pity	AF	***--- Direct effect of Rude on Pity (H4-2) was rejected ---***					
H13-4			PH	***--- Direct effect of Rude on Pity (H4-2) was rejected ---***					
H13-5		Envy	PF	***--- Direct effect of Rude on PF (H4-6) was rejected ---***					
H13-6			AH	0.25***	0.08	(0.33)(0.52) = 0.17	0.09	0.26	**Full**
H13-7		Contempt	AH	0.25***	-0.10	(0.60)(0.58) = 0.34	0.24	0.46	**Full**
H13-8			PH	0.28***	-0.09	(0.60)(0.61) = 0.37	0.26	0.48	**Full**

Note: AF refers to Active-Facilitation; PF refers to Passive-Facilitation; AH refers to Active-Harm; PH refers to Passive-Harm. Path-2 refers to the Direct effect of Stereotypes on Behaviours. Path-2' refers to the effect when Emotions were added to the model. Indirect effect refers to the indirect effect between Stereotypes and Behaviours.

Table 5.23 – Mediation Analysis of Emotions on Stereotypes and Behaviours (Singapore Sample)

No.	Stereotypes	Emotions	Behaviours	Path-2	Path-2'	Indirect	95% CI		Effect
							LLCI	ULCI	
H10-1	Approachable	Admiration	AF	0.56***	0.14	(0.77)(0.55) = 0.42	0.25	0.63	**Full**
H10-2			PF	0.23***	-0.03	(0.77)(0.35) = 0.26	0.10	0.44	**Full**
H10-3		Pity	AF	***--- Direct effect of Pity on AF was rejected (H7-1) ---***					
H11-1	Competence	Admiration	AF	0.54***	0.20**	(0.62)(0.56) = 0.35	0.22	0.50	**Partial**
H11-2			PF	0.25***	0.07	(0.62)(0.29) = 0.18	0.08	0.30	**Full**
H11-3		Pity	AF	***--- Direct effect of Pity on AF was rejected (H7-1) was rejected ---***					
H12-1	Boastful	Admiration	AF	-0.31***	-0.08	(-0.38)(0.61) = -0.23	-0.35	-0.13	**Full**
H12-2			PF	-0.12*	0.00**	(-0.38)(0.32) = -0.12	-0.20	-0.06	**Partial**
H12-5		Envy	PF	***--- Direct effect of Boastful on Envy (H3-3) was rejected ---***					
H12-8		Contempt	PH	***--- Direct effect of Boastful and PH (H3-8) was rejected ---***					
H13-1	Rude	Admiration	AF	-0.31***	-0.09	(-0.35)(0.61) = -0.22	-0.33	-0.12	**Full**
H13-2			PF	-0.18***	-0.08	(-0.35)(0.30) = -0.10	-0.17	-0.05	**Full**
H13-3		Pity	AF	***--- Direct effect of Rude on Pity (H4-2) and Pity on AF (H7-1) were rejected ---***					
H13-4			PH	***--- Direct effect of Rude on Pity (H4-2) and Pity on PH (H7-2) were rejected ---***					
H13-5		Envy	PF	-0.18***	-0.22***	(0.20)(0.19) = 0.04	0.01	0.08	**Partial**
H13-6			AH	0.14**	0.09	(0.20)(0.25) = 0.05	0.01	0.10	**Full**
H13-7		Contempt	AH	0.14**	-0.16*	(0.62)(0.50) = 0.31	0.15	0.34	**Partial**
H13-8			PH	0.15**	-0.23***	(0.62)(0.62) = 0.38	0.25	0.54	**Partial**

Note: AF refers to Active-Facilitation; PF refers to Passive-Facilitation; AH refers to Active-Harm; PH refers to Passive-Harm. Path-2 refers to the Direct effect of Stereotypes on Behaviours. Path-2' refers to the effect when Emotions were added to the model. Indirect effect refers to the indirect effect between Stereotypes and Behaviours

Table 5.24 – Mediation Analysis of Emotions on Stereotypes and Behaviours (Thailand Sample)

No.	Stereotypes	Emotions	Behaviours	Path-2	Path-2'	Indirect	95% CI LLCI	95% CI ULCI	Effect
H10-1	Approachable	Admiration	AF	0.37***	0.18	(0.92)(0.20) = 0.19	-0.03	0.41	No
H10-2			PF	0.20***	0.26**	(0.92)(-0.07) = -0.06	-0.27	0.14	No
H10-3		Pity	AF	***--- Direct effect of Pity on Active-Facilitation was rejected (H7-1) ---***					
H11-1	Competence	Admiration	AF	0.39***	0.11	(0.98)(0.28) = 0.28	0.08	0.48	**Full**
H11-2			PF	0.23***	0.23**	(0.98)(0.00) = 0.00	-0.21	0.20	No
H11-3		Pity	AF	***--- Direct effect of Pity on Active-Facilitation was rejected (H7-1) was rejected ---***					
H12-1	Boastful	Admiration	AF	-0.16***	0.02	(-0.48)(0.37) = -0.18	-0.26	-0.10	**Full**
H12-2			PF	***--- Direct effect of Boastful on Passive-Facilitation (H3-6) ---***					
H12-5		Envy	PF	***--- Direct effect of Boastful and Envy on Passive-Facilitation (H3-6 and H8-1) were rejected ---***					
H12-8		Contempt	PH	***--- Direct effect of Boastful and Passive-Harm (H3-8) was rejected ---***					
H13-1	Rude	Admiration	AF	-0.12**	0.16**	(-0.60)(0.46) = -0.28	-0.38	-0.18	**Partial**
H13-2			PF	***--- Direct effect of Rude on Passive-Facilitation (H4-6) was rejected ---***					
H13-3		Pity	AF	***--- Direct effect of Pity on Active-Facilitation (H7-1) were rejected ---***					
H13-4			PH	***--- Direct effect of Pity on Passive-Harm (H7-2) were rejected ---***					
H13-5		Envy	PF	***--- Direct effect of Rude and Envy on Passive-Facilitation (H4-6 and H8-1) were rejected ---***					
H13-6			AH	0.08*	0.04	(0.52)(0.07) = 0.04	-0.04	0.12	No
H13-7		Contempt	AH	0.08*	-0.02	(0.69)(0.15) = 0.10	-0.03	0.24	No
H13-8			PH	0.12**	-0.08	(0.69)(0.29) = 0.20	0.07	0.33	**Full**

Note: AF refers to Active-Facilitation; PF refers to Passive-Facilitation; AH refers to Active-Harm; PH refers to Passive-Harm. Path-2 refers to the Direct effect of Stereotypes on Behaviours. Path-2' refers to the effect when Emotions were added to the model. Indirect effect refers to the indirect effect between Stereotypes and Behaviours

Table 5.25 – Summary of the Mediation Analysis across Four Destinations

No.	Stereotypes	Emotions	Behaviours	Hong Kong	Malaysia	Singapore	Thailand	Overall
H10-1	Approachable	Admiration	AF	Partial	Partial	Full	No	**Not Rejected**
H10-2			PF	Full	---	Full	No	**Not Rejected**
H10-3		Pity	AF	No	Partial	---	---	*Inconclusive*
H11-1	Competence	Admiration	AF	Partial	Partial	Partial	Full	**Not Rejected**
H11-2			PF	No	---	Full	No	Rejected
H11-3		Pity	AF	Partial	Partial	---	---	**Not Rejected**
H12-1	Boastful	Admiration	AF	Full	---	Full	Full	**Not Rejected**
H12-2			PF	Full	---	Partial	---	**Not Rejected**
H12-5		Envy	PF	---	---	---	---	*Inconclusive*
H12-8		Contempt	PH	Full	Full	---	---	**Not Rejected**
H13-1	Rude	Admiration	AF	Partial	Full	Full	Partial	**Not Rejected**
H13-2			PF	Partial	---	Full	---	**Not Rejected**
H13-3		Pity	AF	---	---	---	---	*Inconclusive*
H13-4			PH	---	---	---	---	*Inconclusive*
H13-5		Envy	PF	---	---	Partial	---	**Not Rejected**
H13-6			AH	---	Full	Full	No	**Not Rejected**
H13-7		Contempt	AH	Partial	Full	Partial	No	**Not Rejected**
H13-8			PH	Full	Full	Partial	Full	**Not Rejected**

5.4.9 Summary of Objective 4

On the basis of the results, each stereotype is associated with at least one type of emotion and one quadrant of behaviours. Approachable elicits admiration, which then activates behaviours of active– and passive–facilitation. Competence elicits admiration and pity but trigger only the behaviours of active–facilitation. Boastful reduces the feeling of admiration, which then decreases the behaviours of active– and passive–facilitation. Boastful induces contempt, which leads to behaviours of passive–harm. Rude will also reduce the feeling of admiration, which diminishes facilitation behaviours actively and passively. Rude also stimulate the negative feelings of envy and contempt. Envy promotes the performance on behaviours of passive–facilitation and active–harm, whereas contempt stimulates active– and passive–harm. On the basis of the preceding findings, Figure 5.37 presents the stereotype–emotion–behaviour models.

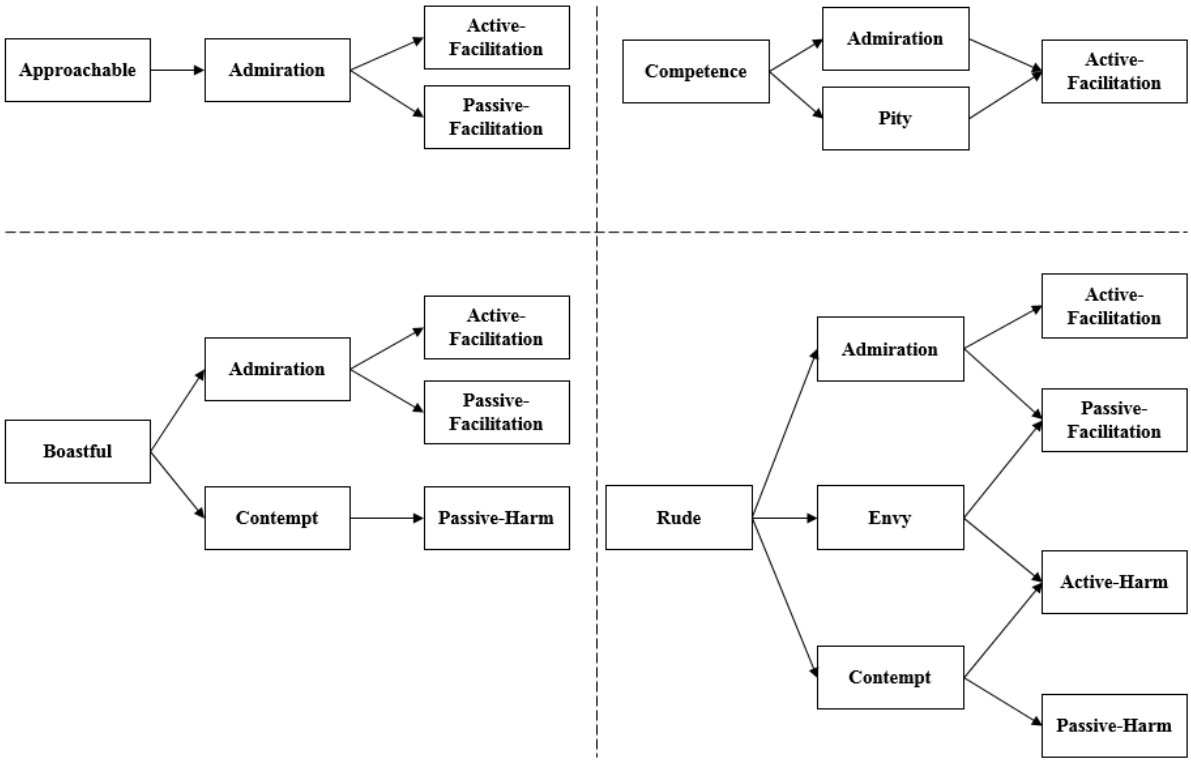


Figure 5.37 – Stereotype-Emotion-Behaviour Model

5.5 Summary of Chapter 5 – Findings

This chapter has presented the results of this study according to the four objectives systematically. First, Objective 3 is achieved by recruiting two different sets of sample: calibration and validation sample in March and June 2019 respectively. Using Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (EFA and CFA), 12 resident behaviours were loaded into four quadrants of Active-Facilitation, Passive-Facilitation, Active-Harm, and Passive-Harm. Next, the results of Objective 3 is combined with Implicit Association Test (IAT), Likert scale rating of Tourist Stereotype Model, and Emotions from Stereotype Content Model to form the main survey. This main survey is aimed to achieve Objective 1, 2 and 4 and is translated into four different languages: English, Traditional Chinese, Malay, and Thai. This main survey is piloted in mid-June 2019 and fully launched in late-June 2019 in Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand.

Objective 1 aims to measure the explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes. IAT *D* score and mean of explicit stereotypes are used. Hong Kong and Thailand respondents are relatively consistent with their explicit and implicit stereotypes of Mainland Chinese tourists. Hong Kong residents perform stereotypes more negatively, whereas the Thailand sample perform stereotypes more positively in both measurements. For Singapore, the measured explicit stereotypes indicate more negativity, whereas the measured implicit stereotypes show more positive evaluations. For Malaysian residents, their explicit stereotypes are relatively neutral, but the implicit stereotypes are more positive.

Objective 2 aims to examine the relationship between explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes. Pearson's correlation indicates that an insignificant correlation is determined between measured explicit and implicit stereotypes across the four destinations.

Objective 3 aims to develop a resident behaviour model based on the concept of BIAS map. On the basis of the existing concept and the use of calibration and validation sample, 12 resident responsive behaviours are identified across the four behavioural dimensions of active–facilitation, passive–facilitation, active–harm and passive–harm. These quadrants indicate four different associations of residents towards tourist, namely, showing initiation, toleration, intimidation, and distancing away.

Objective 4 aims to explore the relationship between tourist stereotypes and residents' emotions and behaviours towards tourists. The results show that each stereotype is associated with at least one type of emotions and one quadrant of behaviours. Generally, positive stereotypes elicit positive emotions, which cue positive behaviours of facilitation. However, no effects on negative emotions nor behaviours of harms are observed. Negative stereotypes can reduce the elicitation of positive emotions and facilitative behaviours and increase the formation of negative emotions and harmful behaviours. A visual diagram has been provided to illustrate the relationship.

The next chapter will present the discussions and the corresponding theoretical and practical contributions of each research objective. From the findings of the analysis, specific discussions are stirred, offering new perspectives on the intergroup relations of residents and tourists through the examination of intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. The implications of each research objective will be presented to enhance the tourism knowledge and provide insights for DMOs and tourism officials who are interested in the management of host–guest relationship.

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter discusses how the research objectives of this study are addressed in the preceding chapters. The study results should enhance the theoretical knowledge on stereotypes in the tourism context and provide practical contribution to DMOs and government officials with regard to the management of their residents and host–guest relationship, which are important for tourism sustainability and development.

6.1 Objective 1: To Measure the Explicit and Implicit Tourist stereotypes

The measured results of explicit stereotypes provide support for the verification of the tourist stereotype model (Tung et al., 2020) by employing the residents of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. The results also reflect the discrepancies of stereotypes across the examined destinations, such as the approachable dimension. Hong Kong is rated with the lowest agreement compared with the three other destinations, which indicates a relatively more discordant intergroup relationship between their residents and Mainland Chinese tourists. One of the possible reasons can be the exacerbation of tensions between people in Hong Kong and Mainland China, which resulted from various controversial polices that may portrayed a negative image of the Mainland Chinese tourists (Prendergast et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2017).

For the measured implicit stereotypes, across the seven categories of association, the neutral association of Mainland Chinese tourists is the mode across the four destinations. The results of this implicit association suggest that one's semantic memory of Mainland Chinese tourists are neither negative nor positive because such memories do not correspond to any event, personal experience or time (Fazio, 2007; Tulving, 1972). For instance, the memories connected to Mainland Chinese tourists may be based on the fact that they are outbound tourists

from China who speak Putonghua (Mandarin) instead of the personal interactions or media reports that can influence the association in positive or negative direction.

6.1.1 Theoretical Contributions of Objective 1

The results of this objective provide theoretical contributions to the tourism knowledge, especially in the research area focusing on individuals' perceptions.

Firstly, this study provides empirical support for the applicability of the tourist stereotype model in measuring tourist stereotypes from the residents' perspective. In response to Tung et al. (2020), this study extends their work by examining the model using residents from different destinations. This study selects Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand as the examined destinations because of their long history in receiving Mainland Chinese tourists. The results indicate that the model is a reliable scale in the region of Southeast Asia despite their diverse background and tourism developments, which can further validate the four dimensions that serve as tourist stereotypes. The results also indicate that those identified stereotypes are not only applicable to Hong Kong residents. The identified stereotypical attributes in the tourist stereotype model can be the general stereotypes residents have towards Mainland Chinese tourists.

Next, this study validates the applicability of the IAT for measuring the association of tourists with stereotypical attributes. Although some tourism studies have used the IAT to investigate perceptions in destination image and restaurant brand, it remains not widely recognised in the tourism and hospitality field. The inclusion of IAT uncovers and confirms the dual-information process in stereotype formation that cannot be captured by one of the other measurement scales. Thus, the sole reliance on either explicit or implicit measurements can provide bias in understanding stereotype association. One example is the problem of the self-presentational effect in measuring cognition using explicit measurements only. This

approach is an important contribution to tourism research because it uncovers the incomplete representation of individuals' cognitive process, in this case the stereotypes, in existing literature. In this study, stereotypes, which are only one example, are measured; any cognitive association can be studied by the IAT.

Thirdly, in addition to the theoretical contributions, this study provides a methodological contribution to tourism research by presenting the development of an instrument, IAT, for collecting implicit stereotypes of individuals. From selection criteria of targets and attributes, description of each block task, choices of analysed blocks, procedures of data cleaning, calculation of stereotype effect and association of stereotype category, the instructions in each step are clearly presented in this study. The detailed mapping of the IAT is important because it can serve as a template for subsequent replication and diffusion of cognitive study using implicit measurement in tourism. Thus, this study contributes by demonstrating the applicability of IAT in measuring the intergroup implicit stereotypes, serving as an alternative method of investigation that can enhance academic knowledge in tourism.

6.1.2 Practical Contribution of Objective 1

This study provides practical suggestions for DMOs and tourism officials in understanding their residents' stereotypes towards tourists; such an understanding is an important element for a harmonious host–guest relationship.

This study has demonstrated the usefulness of IAT in capturing the implicit cognition of residents that can promote the establishment of an online public accessible platform. This establishment serves as a "virtual laboratory" that aims to collect and identify the unconscious and uncontrolled stereotype association of residents towards tourists. This scenario serves as an educational device for residents to learn about their implicit stereotypes using the self-

administered test. This situation creates self-awareness of the existence of implicit stereotypes that are misrepresented by the explicit measurement. This public platform can also benefit the service providers in the hospitality and tourism industry by identifying their frontline staff's implicit stereotypes, possibly affecting service quality. The result can help develop training manuals in reducing or avoiding unwanted discriminations during interactions. Furthermore, the result allows the government to be aware of the residents' implicit stereotypes and formulate events of contacts that can decrease intergroup disparities. Thus, this finding initiates the fostering of an inclusive society.

Next, IAT results can be stored for longitudinal studies in exploring and tracking the changes of residents' implicit stereotypes towards tourists. Implicit stereotypes are formed by a slow learning process that is driven by individuals' memories of past experience and interactions (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995); longitudinal data can allow the tracking of the changes of implicit stereotypes over time. For example, Singapore has been experiencing an unprecedented influx of Mainland Chinese tourists since July 2019, and this influx is predicted to grow in the next few years according to analysts (Sim, 2019). The implicit stereotypes of Singaporeans might be different based on their social interactions with Mainland Chinese tourists over the period of time. A one-time implicit result is only a cross-sectional evaluation that provides limited information for DMOs and officials to policy refinement, such as the successful rate of travel visa applications. Furthermore, the findings can locate the changes in the level of geniality and acceptance of residents towards tourists.

Although the IAT used in this study focuses on the stereotypes of Mainland Chinese tourists, IAT can be used to measure implicit stereotypes of other tourist markets (e.g. the emerging outbound segments, such as the BRICS. These countries are experiencing greater wealth from growing economies, and they are forecasted to stimulate demand for international

tourism (UN World Tourism Organization, 2018; European Strategy and Policy Analysis System, 2015; World Tourism Cities Federation, 2018). The sheer number of tourists from emerging markets will continue to increase, and DMOs that overemphasise attracting them may inadvertently foster social tension between tourists and local residents. In this regard, DMOs who seek to balance the views of residents with the growing tourism market can use the IAT to review the implicit tourist stereotypes with respect to these emerging markets.

6.2 Objective 2: To Examine the Relationship between Explicit and Implicit Tourist Stereotypes

This study provides empirical support to assess explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes. The results reveal a dissociation between overall explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes across the four destinations. The insignificant correlation coefficient between implicit and explicit tourist stereotypes indicated the dissociation between them where the activation of implicit tourist stereotypes is not significant to connect to the activation of explicit tourist stereotypes (Greenwald et al., 1998). In other words, implicit and explicit tourist stereotypes are uncorrelated with each other, hence, support the existing literature that they are two distinctive stream of stereotype activation which should be measured separately. The result of one is unable to infer or compensate for the other (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995).

This finding suggests that the explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes by residents are not in accordance, demonstrating a discrepancy between how residents view Mainland Chinese tourists externally and internally. The results of this study are consistent with those from previous studies, that is, implicit stereotypes are a distinct construct from explicit stereotypes that cannot be obtained by explicit measurement approaches (Fazio & Olson, 2003). Hence, the existing tourism literature fails to present a complete understanding of residents' stereotypes by only relying on either measurement approaches. Moreover, existing studies have used explicit measurement approaches to investigate individuals' stereotypes towards a target

that are prone to provide socially desirable especially on sensitive issues (Hofmann et al., 2005). As such, an incomplete conclusion is reached, possibly leading to inaccurate knowledge contributions academically and practically.

6.2.1 Theoretical Contribution of Objective 2

This study contributes to the literature by detailing the development of an IAT for collecting implicit tourist stereotypes. The study clearly depicts each step of the process, including the selection criteria of targets and attributes, descriptions of each block task, choices of analysed blocks, procedures of data cleaning, calculations of stereotype effect and associations of stereotype category. The detailed mapping of IAT is important because it can serve as template for subsequent replication and diffusion of cognitive research using implicit measurements in tourism.

In addition to IAT development, this study also demonstrates IAT application. Although previous research has applied IAT to investigate perceptions of destination image and restaurant brand (Yang et al., 2012; Choi et al., 2015; Lee & Kim, 2013), it is nevertheless scarcely applied to tourism research related to social and intergroup relations. The inclusion of IAT in tourism stereotype research is crucial because sole reliance on either explicit or implicit measurement can be misleading. For example, the study results reveal dissociation between the overall explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes across the four destinations. Insignificant correlations are obtained, suggesting that explicit and implicit stereotypes are not in accordance, thereby demonstrating a discrepancy between how residents express their views towards Mainland Chinese tourists externally (or consciously) and internally (or subconsciously). Although Hong Kong and Thailand respondents are relatively consistent with their explicit and implicit stereotypes of Mainland Chinese tourists, respondents from Singapore indicate more negativity in explicit measures but more positivity in implicit associations. For the Malaysian

sample, explicit stereotypes are relatively neutral, whereas implicit stereotypes are more positive.

These results contribute to several key ideas. Firstly, the implicit stereotypes are constructed distinctly from explicit biases; these findings are consistent with those from previous studies (Diamantopoulos, Florack, Halkias, & Palcu, 2017; Renner, Gula, Wertz, & Fritzche, 2014; Yang et al., 2012). Secondly, differences between explicit and implicit measurements can be influenced by one's conscious intention to evaluate. Although explicit measures can allow individuals to contemplate and report responses affected by self-representation (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995; Fazio & Olson, 2003; Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013), IAT minimises these effects and measures one's implicit biases without conscious awareness or control. Consequently, future tourism research on intergroup relations and stereotypes should consider adopting implicit and explicit measures as highlighted in this study.

The disassociation between explicit and implicit measurements can be due to the social sensitivity of an examined topic, such as race, ethnicity, discrimination and stereotyping (Hofmann, Gawronski, Gschwendner, Le, & Schmitt, 2005). The domain of stereotyping is a socially sensitive topic because it is closely related to one's identity and group polarisation, possibly eliciting socially desirable results when measured explicitly due to perceived social consensus in facilitating the preconceptions of a particular social group. In the present study, negative impressions of Mainland Chinese tourists, may have been shared amongst residents in Singapore by media and social platforms. Hence, explicit self-reports of negative stereotypes may be considered socially desirable. However, implicitly, Singaporeans are more positive. Their automatic IAT responses are unlikely influenced by tendencies to conform, contemplations of social beliefs and values or motivations to achieve approval in the eyes of the public (Hu, Gawronski, & Balas, 2017).

6.2.2 Practical Contribution of Objective 2

Practical implications can be obtained from an enhanced understanding of explicit and implicit stereotypes for DMOs and public policymakers. The study results show that implicit stereotypes can disassociate from explicit measures, and they may be less negative than expected. This discrepancy emphasises the potential for public policymakers to implement additional internal marketing communication to address misrepresentation of stereotypes amongst residents in the community. For example, public policymakers can use the results of implicit stereotypes as a form of a counter-stereotyping message to educate residents in Singapore about the perceived social consensus towards Mainland Chinese tourists. From a social identity perspective, one's own beliefs can be affected by the beliefs and preconceptions of others (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955; Kelman, 1958; Plous, 1993). In this example, if residents in Singapore believe that most other residents negatively stereotype Mainland Chinese tourists, then they are likely to negatively bias Mainland Chinese tourists (Goldberg, Gustafson, Ballew, Rosenthal, & Leiserowitz, 2019). A lack of communication between residents and overwhelming negative media reports on Mainland Chinese tourists can dominate public opinions and expectations and exacerbate preconceptions. As such, using implicit measures is important to reduce pluralistic ignorance amongst the public by presenting the alternative views of residents (Pizam, Uriely, & Reichel, 2000). In other words, residents should be informed that implicit stereotypes against Mainland Chinese tourists are not as negative as explicit measures would suggest; this situation can be subject to considerable social desirability bias. In this case, the implicit measures can be used to balance the prevailing, negative views from explicit biases.

This study develops and demonstrates the usefulness of IAT in capturing implicit tourist stereotypes. The IAT in this study can be adopted and promoted by public policymakers by an

online platform that serves as a 'virtual laboratory'. A virtual laboratory can collect and identify the unconscious and uncontrolled stereotypical associations of residents towards tourists from major outbound markets identified by DMOs. The laboratory can also serve as an educational device for residents to learn about their implicit biases online. This situation can facilitate residents' levels of self-awareness. This public platform can also benefit service providers in tourism and hospitality. By understanding staff's implicit stereotypes, human resources can develop training manuals aimed at reducing or avoiding unwanted biases during host–guest interactions.

Moreover, the result of the IAT can be stored for a longitudinal study to track the changes in residents' implicit stereotypes against tourists over time. For example, Singapore has experienced an unprecedented influx of Mainland Chinese tourists since July 2019 (Sim, 2019), and this influx is predicted to grow in the next few years from 45% to 166% (China Tourism Academy, 2016). A one-time implicit assessment will only provide cross-sectional evaluations and hence limited information for DMOs and decision makers for policy refinement. Instead, implicit evaluations over time can map changes in negativity (or positivity) amongst Singaporeans towards Mainland Chinese because this market segment continues to grow.

6.3 Objective 3: To Develop a Scale Measuring Resident Behavioural Responses to tourist

A measurement model of resident responsive behaviours towards tourist is developed using two different sets of Hong Kong samples. In adopting the BIAS map, the results identified 12 types of resident behaviours, which are categorised into four discrete quadrants of behavioural responses, namely, active–facilitation, passive–facilitation, active–harm and passive–harm (Cuddy et al., 2007). On the basis of the behavioural items, these quadrants can be regarded as residents' initiatives that can benefit tourists, residents' accommodative

behaviours towards tourists, residents distancing themselves from tourists in need and residents being intimidating against tourists. It reflects the multidimensional of residents' behaviours that was ignored in the existing tourism literature where intensity of active or passive was not take into consideration.

In the resident behaviour mode, some positive and negative behaviours are not included. For example, 'Answering tourists' questions' and 'helping tourists' are considered a form of common interactions between residents and tourists; however, these behaviours are dropped after the analysis. One possible reason for this result is the popularity of mobile applications that help ease the uncertainties of tourists when they are travelling in the destination. Recently, mobile applications provide navigation, reviews, recommendations and itinerary planning for tourists, which may have decreased the chance of tourists asking questions of the residents. The evolution of travel patterns has changed the interaction between tourists and residents where some of the existing measurement items may not be applicable to the current host–guest interactions. The loaded behavioural items across the four quadrants are worded exactly the same as that in previous literature or free response results to allow the best representation of residents' understanding.

6.3.1 Theoretical Contribution of Objective 3

This study connects the BIAS map in the social psychology literature with tourism research to develop a valid and reliable resident behaviour model. Although previous studies have identified residents' attitudes towards tourists and how these attitudes can affect host–guest interactions (Ap & Crompton, 1993; Butler, 1980; Carmichael, 2000), existing studies have not examined residents' behaviours in terms of valence and intensity concurrently. Both considerations are critical because valence provides important information about the attractiveness or averseness of the target, whereas intensity informs about the level of

engagement of these behaviours. By connecting the concepts of intensity with valence, this study strengthens the conceptualisation of resident behaviours in host–guest relationship from a dichotomous (i.e. positive or negative) to a multifaceted perspective (i.e. a 2-by-2 matrix of four quadrants: positive or negative × active or passive).

Furthermore, the results of this study contribute to the psychology literature by providing context to the BIAS map and by identifying new behavioural attributes in an applied tourism perspective. Many studies in psychology have used the BIAS map without considering the societal context, which is a limitation because intergroup dynamics can change based on the relationships between social groups (i.e. in this case, residents and tourists) and the examined context (i.e. Hong Kong or Singapore). In this study, tourism serves as a platform for social exchanges in daily life. Thus, the behavioural attributes in the BIAS quadrants reflect additional considerations beyond some of the interactions documented between individuals in a controlled psychology setting. For example, residents noted their behaviours (i.e. active–harm), such as harassing, mocking and acting in a threatening manner, which have not been reported in the literature but are certainly worthy of additional research attention.

Furthermore, this study shows that intergroup behaviours in the tourism context can differ from general intergroup behaviours identified in the BIAS map from the social psychology literature. As indicated by the results, the behavioural items from passive–facilitation, active–harm and passive–harm are replaced with new behavioural items in the resident behaviour model. For example, the loaded behavioural items in passive–facilitation indicates the different levels of accommodative behaviour that residents will perform onto the tourist. The range, from acceptance and tolerance to endurance, shows that residents allow the occurrence of tourist behaviours without interference but not acting with them. For the harmful

behaviours, although the behavioural items are different from the BIAS map, active– and passive–harm represent the concept of intimidation and distancing, respectively.

6.3.2 Practical Contribution of Objective 3

In addition to theoretical contributions, this study also has social contributions. Social learning theory suggests that individuals can acquire new behaviours by observing and imitating others in a social context (Bandura, 1971). Individuals who acknowledge a shared identity (e.g. residents) may be encouraged to mimic behaviours performed by other members of the same social group towards outgroup members (e.g. tourists). For example, if a resident performed a certain action (i.e. negative behaviour) on a tourist and was observed by other residents, the possibility exists that a contagion effect of that negative behaviour could occur within the society. Thus, facilitation and harmful behaviours should be carefully managed by DMOs and policymakers. Although facilitative behaviours can potentially enhance host–guest relationship and promote approachable interactions with tourists, harmful behaviours may deteriorate intergroup relations and dynamics by avoidance or intimidating behaviours. These behaviours can challenge host–guest relationship and affect tourism experiences in a destination.

In response, DMOs and policymakers can attempt to foster residents' positive responses towards tourists. From the four quadrants, active–facilitation can be promoted as the dominant response to encourage prosocial behaviours, whereas harmful behaviours, regardless of active- or passive-, should be eliminated to avoid antisocial behavioural norms. For Passive-Facilitation, close monitoring is suggested because negative emotions are attached in performing accommodative behaviours, possibly leading to unfavourable interactions between residents and tourists. Although direct internal marketing communications from policymakers to residents (e.g. through advertisements or public announcements) may be one approach to

foster positive behaviours, residents may perceive such communication as staged because the messages are directed from institutions by a top-down approach. Thus, the present study suggests the possible use of a bottom-up approach by allowing the public to upload prosocial behaviours seen around them onto social media as a way of promoting residents' active–facilitation behaviours. This approach cam also spread prosocial norms for residents when interacting with tourists.

For example, Liuzhou Tourism in China initiated a photo competition in 2016, named 'Civilised tourism, I joined' (文明旅游 有我+入) (Liuzhou Tourism, 2016). The goal of this competition was to invite tourists travelling in Liuzhou to take photographs of 'civilised' behaviour performed either by themselves or others. However, a caveat of this example was that the photos were uploaded to a closed system that could not be shared with the public. This situation might have reduced the influential power of the photos in generating prosocial behaviour within society. Nevertheless, in recent years, a trend of uploading prosocial behaviour photos or clips exists, within and beyond the tourism context, onto social media platforms, eliciting enthusiastic responses amongst the public. The individuals are praised and complimented by their actions and promoted as role models for the others. This bottom–up approach can generate awareness and recognition from performing positive, active–facilitative resident behaviours in society.

6.4 Objective 4: To Explore the Relationship between Stereotypes, Emotions and Behaviours toward Tourist

Objective 4 investigates the hypothesised relationships using contemporary models of stereotypes, emotions and behaviours by adopting the measurement scales of the tourist stereotype model (Tung et al., 2020), emotions from the SCM (Fiske et al., 2002) and the developed resident behaviour model in Objective 3. Firstly, the direct effects of stereotypes on emotions are examined. Then, the investigation of the direct effect of stereotypes on behaviour

and the direct effects of emotions on behaviours is validated. Eventually, the mediating effects of emotions on stereotypes and behaviours were tested. The hypotheses are examined across four destinations of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. Using SPSS Process v3.3, 13 significant mediating effects of emotions on stereotypes and behaviours are identified.

The results address the question of resident–tourist intergroup relation by examining how stereotypes and emotions shape behaviours. The findings correspond to existing literature that at least one type of emotion mediates the relationship between stereotypes and behaviours (Cuddy et al., 2007; Dovidio, Brigham, Johnson, & Gaertner, 1996; Esses & Dovidio, 2002). Some findings differ from the existing literature; for example, positive stereotypes elicit positive emotions and behaviours but decrease neither negative emotions nor behaviours. In other words, stereotyping with positive contents does not diminish negative intergroup behaviours. Furthermore, previous studies have concluded that competence will activate passive–harm when attempting to reduce the value of individuals (Cuddy et al., 2008); the results of the present study fail to support these findings. More importantly, these findings indicate an elicitation of active–facilitation, which is not identified in the previous studies. One of the possible reasons is that interacting with smart tourists may elevate the identity of the residents in social settings.

The results indicate that negative stereotypes have more associations with the types of emotion and quadrants of behaviours than the positive stereotypes do. The findings indicate that the existence of negative stereotypes elicit negative emotions and behaviours and reduce positive emotions and behaviours. The results indicate that boastful and rude elicit feelings of contempt, which will lead to the performance of passive–harm behaviours. Furthermore, they can reduce feelings of admiration, which decrease active– and passive–facilitation behaviours. Rude can also induce more negative emotions and behaviours than boastful can. Particularly,

rude is the only stereotype content that can activate the active–harm behaviours, such as intimidating tourists. The findings indicate that if negative tourist stereotypes are prevalent amongst the residents, not only are prosocial behaviours omitted but this situation enhances anti-social behaviours that can cause disruptions within societies and damage the host–guest relationship.

6.4.1 Theoretical Contribution of Objective 4

The results of this are believed to contribute to the tourism literature by connecting tourist stereotypes with intergroup emotions and residents' behaviours. Using the theoretical assumption developed by intergroup studies to an understudied social dynamic of resident and tourist, this study integrates the tourist stereotype model, emotions from the SCM and resident behaviour model developed in the preceding section. The results offer an initial modelling of the relationships between stereotypes, emotions and behaviours of the residents towards the tourists. Consistent with existing sociopsychological studies of intergroup dynamics (Bye & Herrebroden, 2017; Cuddy et al., 2007; Vaughn et al., 2017; Zhang, 2019), the results of this study provide theoretical and empirical support for the significant relationships amongst stereotype contents, emotional reactions and behavioural responses of residents towards tourists. Tourist stereotyped with positive contents elicit positive emotions, which then activate facilitative behaviours. Tourists stereotyped with negative contents elicit negative emotions that induce harmful behaviours; furthermore, the possibility of reducing positive emotions exists, which diminish facilitative behaviours.

Next, this study serves as the pioneering research that investigates the interrelationship amongst measured implicit stereotypes, emotional reactions and behavioural responses. The implicit stereotypes are shown to be influential in predicting behaviours even if it is uncorrelated with the explicit stereotypes (Greenwald at al., 2009; Kurdi at al., 2018; Nunes,

Hermann, & Ratcliffe, 2013). Thus, this study expects that implicit stereotypes may serve as another predictor of intergroup emotions and behaviours. However, no significant associations among implicit stereotypes, emotions and behaviours are concluded. One of the possible explanations is that the attributes of emotions and behaviours are measured using controlled methods of self-reports, whereas implicit stereotypes are collected using an automatic approach, thereby resulting in disassociations. Furthermore, the findings may suggest that emotions and behaviours, similar to cognitions, follow the dual process of explicit and implicit processing. Future studies would need to collect emotions and behaviours by automatic approaches to predict the structural relationships of stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. Despite the failure to identify significant relationships, this dissociation of relationships supports the dual-process system of explicit and implicit processing in tourist stereotypes.

6.4.2 Practical Contribution for Objective 4

Behaviours are one of the influential elements in shaping tourist experience, host–guest relationship and destination image. The models provide pinpoint interrelationships of each tourist stereotype item on the predictions of specific residents' emotional reactions and behavioural responses. In practice, DMOs and tourism officials can estimate the discriminatory behaviours of their residents that will perform on the tourist from the explicit tourist stereotypes. The results imply that positive explicit tourist stereotyping will cue positive emotions, which then activates facilitation behaviours, such as interacting or accommodating tourists, benefiting the dynamic of tourists and residents. However, it reduces neither negative emotions nor behaviours. Although negative explicit tourist stereotypes will induce negative emotions that stimulate negative behaviours of distancing and intimidating and reducing positive emotions and facilitative behaviours, in both cases harming the host–guest relationship. As such, DMOs and tourism officials should be cautious when they are managing the tourist stereotypes

because positive stereotypes may promote prosocial behaviours; however, this situation does not necessarily deter antisocial actions, whereas negative stereotypes will be disrupted by diminished facilitative behaviours and increase harmful actions.

In addition, the findings of this study provide insights for DMOs and tourism officials in prioritising their efforts to address tourist stereotypes. Concentrating on the management of rude is recommended because it activates more harmful behaviours than boastful does. More importantly, residents can provide active–facilitation behaviours to tourists. Rude consists of uncivilised, immoral, rude and unreasonable; these aspects can be formulated from unruly behaviours of tourists. If tourists are stereotyped as rude but residents continue to perform behaviours of active–facilitation, then the prevalence of abhorrent tourist actions within the destinations may be accelerated. Furthermore, such facilitation behaviours can be considered establishing rapports with those unpleasant actions, which can promote imitations or even mirroring tourists' actions amongst residents. Although this situation may not damage the host–guest relationship, residents may enact the mirroring behaviours that can affect the social norms and values. Therefore, DMOs and tourism practitioners should allocate more efforts in managing the negative stereotypes of rude, which can be detected from tourist behaviours within the destinations. This practice can be conducted by reminding the hosting tour guide to educate the tourists of acceptable and prosocial behaviours that are welcomed by residents.

6.5 Summary of Chapter 6 – Discussion and Implications

This chapter, has presented the meaning, importance and relevance of the findings, as well as the theoretical and practical contributions of this study. Objective 1 measures the explicit and implicit stereotypes of residents from Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand, which supports the applicability of the tourist stereotype model (Tung et al., 2020). Furthermore, the detailed mapping of the IAT contributes to the tourism literature by offering

a new methodological approach in capturing stereotypes. Practically, the mapping offers insights to tourism officials to adopt the IAT in understanding the tourist stereotypes of their residents, which benefits the development of a healthy host–guest relationship.

Objective 2 examines and demonstrates a discrepancy between explicit and implicit stereotypes, validating the dichotomous systems of stereotypes even within the tourism context. Furthermore, it validates the inconclusive findings to measure only either system in the existing literature. It enhances the knowledge of tourist stereotypes by measuring both systems, providing a complete understanding. Furthermore, it provides practical contributions by validating the existence of implicit stereotypes, which was often neglected in collecting public opinions and implementation of policies.

Objective 3 develops a resident behaviour mode of mapping the behaviours from locals that are for or against tourists. This model contributes to the tourism literature by strengthening the conceptualisation of intergroup behaviours from a spectrum of avoidance approach to a multifaceted framework that consists of the dimensions of valence and intensity. It categorises behaviours into active–facilitation, passive–facilitation, active–harm and passive–harm with distinctive residents' behaviours onto tourists. In addition to elevating the tourism knowledge, this model offers insights to DMOs and tourism officials on their residents' behavioural association with the tourists. Moreover, the specific intergroup behaviours that residents perform allow practitioners to foster pinpoint strategies for a sustainable host–guest relationship.

Objective 4 explores the interrelationships of tourist stereotypes, emotional reactions and behavioural responses. Using the theoretical assumption developed by intergroup studies to an understudied social dynamic of resident and tourist, this study integrates the tourist stereotype model, emotions from the SCM and the developed resident behaviour model. This

approach enhances the tourism literature by offering an initial modelling of the relationships among stereotypes, emotions and behaviours of the residents towards tourists. Practically, DMOs and tourism officials can estimate the discriminatory intergroup behaviours of their residents through measured explicit tourist stereotypes. Furthermore, they can provide insights in prioritising their efforts to address tourist stereotypes for managing the host–guest relationship.

The next chapter, will present an overview of each chapter of this study. The limitations of this study, as well as recommendations for future research, will be discussed. Finally, concluding remarks that summarise the entire research project will presented.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents an overview of this thesis, followed by limitations and recommendations for future research and the concluding remarks.

7.1 Overview of the Research

This study aims to contribute to understanding tourist stereotypes by using explicit and implicit measurements, resident behaviours in response to tourists, the relationship between stereotypes and behaviours and the mediating effects of emotions on this relationship. The study employs residents in Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand, whereas the targeted tourist market consists of Mainland Chinese tourists.

Chapter 1 introduces the background and rationale for conducting the study. Despite the long history of tourist stereotyping and its importance in building positive social group relations, few applicable studies have been made. Insufficient and inadequate research has been conducted on how explicit stereotypes differ from implicit stereotypes; what behaviours residents show in response to tourists; and how interrelationships are shaped by stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. Previous studies have focused on measured explicitly stereotypes, which tend to downplay the existence of a dual system of explicit and implicit cognitive processes, thereby biasing or providing an incomplete understanding of intergroup stereotypes. Furthermore, existing studies have categorised resident behaviours into opposite sides of a single spectrum in which intergroup behaviours are formed based on a 2 × 2 framework of valence and intensity. This process has prompted the research objectives of the present study, that is, (1) to identify the explicit and implicit tourist stereotypes held by residents, (2) to investigate the correlation between explicit and implicit measurements of tourist stereotypes,

(3) to develop a resident behaviour model in response to tourists and (4) to explore the relationship of stereotypes on behaviour by emotion.

Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature on intergroup stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. The literature review identifies the formation of intergroup stereotypes by a dual-system cognitive process in which implicit and explicit systems are independent of each other (Uleman & Bargh, 1989; Devine, 1989, Brown & Gaertner, 2008). As such, separate measurement should be used. Likert scale ratings of stereotypes are often adopted as explicit measurements, whereas the IAT is introduced as an indirect approach to capture the measured implicit stereotypes. Amongst the various stereotypical attributes determined by the previous literature, the present study adopts the tourist stereotype model (Tung et al., 2020) because this model has been previously developed and validated from a tourism perspective. For intergroup emotions, the affective items identified from the SCM (Cuddy et al., 2002) is used in the present study.

Extending from the SCM, the BIAS map is created to identify the behaviour between social groups based on their stereotypes and corresponding emotions. This map is a two-dimensional matrix that focuses on valence and intensity. Valence refers to the facilitation or harm behaviour, whereas intensity discerns behaviours that are directly or indirectly affecting the target. These dimensions cross each other to form four quadrants of intergroup behaviours, namely, active–facilitation, passive–facilitation, active–harm and passive–harm. Active–facilitation refers to residents acting for the tourists, passive–facilitation implies that residents act with the tourists, active–harm cues that residents act against the tourists and passive–harm indicates that residents act without the tourists. The development of the resident behaviour model in response to tourists in this study is based on the concept of BIAS map and the four quadrants of behaviours. The interrelationship amongst stereotypes, emotions and behaviours

is reviewed. Possible relationships of stereotypes and behaviour, as well as the mediating effect of emotion, are identified in the literature, leading to the development of the hypotheses and the proposed model.

Chapter 3 proposes a conceptual model to test the hypotheses amongst stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. Firstly, the direct effects of stereotypes on emotions, measured explicitly and implicitly, are investigated. Given the lack of existing literature on the association between stereotypes and emotion, this study proposes that each stereotype is associated with all four types of emotion. Next, the direct effects of stereotypes on behaviours, measured explicitly and implicitly, are tested. Similar to the stereotype–emotion relationship, the lack of examination in stereotype–behaviour relationships propose the investigation of each stereotype on all four quadrants of behaviours. Then, the direct effects of emotions on behaviours are proposed. On the basis of the intergroup literature, each emotion will elicit two types of behaviour. Therefore, in this study, each emotion is examined against the respective quadrants of the behaviours. Finally, the mediating effect of emotion on stereotypes and behaviour is proposed for examination.

Chapter 4 explains the methodology adopted in this study. Firstly, the research paradigm is presented. The study adopts a post-positivist approach to explain the relationship among stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. Next, the research instrument is discussed. For measuring the tourist stereotypes, the measurement developed by Tung et al. (2020) is adopted in explicit and implicit measurements. For explicit measurement, a seven-point Likert scale is adopted. For implicit measurement, the IAT is adopted. The IAT development is presented in detail. For the emotion measurement scale, the emotional items identified by Cuddy et al. (2007) is adopted and evaluated on a seven-point Likert scale. For the resident behaviours towards tourists, an initial pool of positive and negative behavioural items from the existing literature

are identified. These behavioural items will be factorised into the four quadrants of active–facilitation, passive–facilitation, active–harm and passive–harm using a calibration and validation sample. Then, these items are evaluated with a seven-point Likert scale to identify the frequency of residents' performance on these behaviours. The sample size and process of data collection are also discussed. Finally, the data analysis for each objective is discussed in the final section.

Chapter 5 presents the findings based on the objective of this study. Firstly, 1,040 questionnaires, 260 from each destination, were collected. A total of 40 respondents were removed due to invalid IAT scores, and an additional 10 were discarded because they were identified as outliers. Finally, 990 questionnaires (Hong Kong, 247; Malaysia, 249; Singapore, 246, Thailand, 248) were used for analysis. Normality and reliability tests are conducted on all items of stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. The first objective is achieved by comparing the mean for explicit stereotypes and frequency of distribution for implicit stereotypes. Significant differences are noted across the four examined destinations. The second objective is attained by correlating the overall score of explicit stereotypes with IAT score. Insignificant correlations are identified in all four destinations. The third objective is accomplished with the identification of 12 behavioural items, 3 each in the four quadrants of behavioural model. The fourth objective is reached by using SPSS Process v3.3 to test the proposed hypotheses. The direct relationship amongst stereotypes, emotions and behaviours is tested, followed by the mediating effect of emotion. The result shows that each stereotypical attribute elicits at least one type of emotion and one quadrant of behaviour. Emotion is indicated to mediate the relationship of stereotypes and behaviour significantly.

Chapter 6 discusses the findings of the study and the theoretical and practical contributions. The discussion and contributions are provided to correspond with the research

objectives. This study measures the explicit and implicit stereotypes of residents towards the tourists and identifies their disassociation. This study successfully develops a measurement model of resident behaviour in response to the tourist based on the concept of valence and intensity identified in the BIAS map. This study also successfully confirms the interrelationship of stereotypes, emotions and behaviours and the mediating effects of emotions on the relationship of stereotypes and behaviour.

Chapter 7 concludes the study by presenting an overview of the entire research. The direction for future research is recommended. Finally, concluding remarks of the study are presented.

7.2 Limitation of Thesis

Although this thesis contributes theoretical and methodological knowledge on intergroup stereotypes between residents and tourists, and provides practical suggestions for tourism officials to re-examine their public policies in managing host-guest relation, it has several limitations. First, to achieve the research questions and proposed research objectives, this thesis adopts a quantitative approach by testing the hypotheses. This thesis revealed the relationship among these three constructs to illustrate how the formation of stereotype influence the subsequent development in emotions and behaviours, yet the reasons for such formation remain unexplored. Hence, future research could adopt alternative approach to measure these three constructs and present the interpretation of the relationships.

Second, the sample is collected via online survey company where it is more accessible to those who are more skillful in using internet and computer technologies. As it is reflected on the demographic distributions of the samples, it is dominated by young and educated adults across the four destinations. The older and less educated adults might be under represented in this thesis that their stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours might not be captured and revealed. Therefore, future studies are recommended to adopt a stricter

sampling quota, for instance the combination of a few quotas (i.e. gender-age-education), so that the collected sample matches the census distribution. While the samples are skewed towards these two groups, they are regarded as the future influential in public policies implementation and society development, hence the results and discussions provide insight knowledge for governments.

7.3 Recommendations for Future Research

On the basis of the findings, some recommendations are provided for future research. Firstly, this study collects data from Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand, addressing the limitation of a single-location study noted by Tung et al. (2020). Although this study provides empirical support for the tourist stereotype model by examining it with Southeast Asian destinations, the examined targets are still Mainland Chinese tourists. Future studies would examine the model beyond Mainland Chinese market, such as emerging markets of Indians and Russians, possibly justifying if the identified stereotypes items are only applicable to a specific tourist market or overall assumptions of the tourists. Furthermore, examining different contexts can provide additional positive and negative stereotype measurement items that have not been identified because the items included in the current model are not definitive. The examination in diverse contexts can provide additional empirical support for the stereotype model that benefits the tourism academia and industry.

Secondly, the data analysed in this study are cross sectional, in which residents' stereotypes, emotions and behaviours are investigated. Although the data were collected from four different destinations, they are measured at a single point in time. Thus, the findings can only provide a snapshot of the phenomena between residents and tourists. Future studies are recommended to adopt a longitudinal study that can track residents' evaluations on tourists over short or long periods of time. Specifically, this suggestion may be more useful to DMOs

and government officials by using this study as a starting point for a longitudinal project in which the goal is to monitor the residents' evaluation on the tripartite views over an extended period. Such an approach can allow researchers to note how stereotypes, emotions and behaviours may change at different points, thereby exploring the reasons for such changes. The collected data can foster practical implications for the tourism industry.

The third recommendation for future study is related to the resident behaviour model developed in this study. The measurement scale identifies the resident behaviours based on the valence and intensity dimension of the BIAS map, which contributes theoretically and practically to the tourism industry. However, these behaviours are the general descriptions of behaviours that residents act in response to the tourist without considering situational contexts. In other words, the scenario that shapes such behaviour should be investigated. For example, the result indicates that 'socialising with tourists' is an active–facilitation behaviour. However, this situation neglected the information in regards to when, where and how residents and tourists socialise. Another question is whether such socialisation occurs when the residents are working, such as a hotel employee, which is part of their duty to socialise with the tourists as a form of hospitality; or could such socialisation occurs in a local restaurant when the residents and tourists dine together. The context of each behaviour provides fruitful insights academically and practically that should be the focus of future studies.

Fourthly, future research can investigate the discrepancies in results found in this study from a cross-cultural perspective. Interesting findings are noted in this study across the four destinations of Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. For example, admiration is found to mediate the relationship between approachable and active–facilitation in Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore, but not in Thailand. This study validates the mediating effects of emotions on stereotypes and behaviour but does not explore the discrepancies of results

between destinations. By using a cross-cultural approach, future research can relate the divergence of results by comparative cultural analysis that provides insights for the differences and explaining why certain phenomena are noted in certain destinations but not in the others. Such an approach may contribute to the academic literature by acknowledging stereotypes as culturally shared knowledge towards a target, as well as providing insights for DMOs and tourism officials that affect tourism collaborations at the regional level.

Lastly, future studies could adopt advance and sophistical modelling approach, such as Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), to examine the relationships of stereotype, emotion, and behaviour. This thesis adopts SPSS PROCESS v3.3 in order to present all possible relationships among stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours. The models examined the independent variables separately. While, it benefits the academic knowledge about the influence of each examined variables, the possible correlational effects or co-founding effects among factors within the same construct were unexplored. For instance, the effect of competence/boastful/rude have on the effect of approachable on the subsequent emotions and behaviours. The consideration of correlational or co-founding effects provide additional knowledge in regards to the dynamic influence between factors, providing more insightful about association of factors within the same construct.

7.4 Concluding Remarks

This four research objectives proposed in this these were achieved. This thesis examined the relationship of stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours that residents hold towards the tourists. More specifically, the residents from Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand about their attitudes towards the Mainland Chinese tourists. Accordingly, this study first developed a valid and reliable multidimensional measurement scale for residents' behaviours based on Behaviour from Intergroup Affect and Stereotypes (BIAS) Map. The

residents' behaviours towards tourists were categorized into four quadrants of Active-Facilitation, Passive-Facilitation, Active-Harm, and Passive-Harm.

Next, an Implicit Association Test (IAT) was developed to capture the implicit activated tourist stereotypes of resident. Existing tourism focuses on explicit activated tourist stereotype only which lack of a complete understanding of tourist stereotypes of the residents. The findings concluded the applicability of IAT is examining intergroup group implicit cognition in an applied tourism context by categorizing respondents into seven groups of stereotype association. Furthermore, the IAT was presented in details where it can be served as a template for subsequent replication or an alternative method of investigation in future tourism studies focusing on respondents' cognitive.

The stereotype-emotion-behaviours model was identified after integrating rigorous procedures. At least one type of emotions mediates the relationship between stereotypes and behaviours. More importantly, it is noted that negative stereotypes have stronger influence on subsequent emotions and behaviours than positive stereotype. Positive stereotypes increases positive emotions and behaviours, they do not decrease negative emotions nor behaviours. But, negative stereotypes elicit negative emotions and behaviours as well as reduce positive emotions and behaviours. The findings highlights the importance of negative stereotypes in affecting host-guest relation and sustainable tourism development.

This thesis broaden the ranges of studies in regards to social tourism impacts, by focusing on residents' stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours towards the tourists. The thesis contributes to paving the new methodology for future research in exploring tourist stereotypes and residents' behaviours. Although this study is considered as an initial step towards enhancing knowledge on these two areas, the findings provide theoretical and methodological

contribution along with useful recommendation for public policies focusing on the societal tourism impacts, harmonious host-guest relations, and sustainable tourism development.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1A – Main Survey Questionnaire (English Version)

Dear Sir/Madam,

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

My name is Serene Tse, PhD candidate from school of Hotel and Tourism Management at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. This survey aims to investigate Resident's evaluation of tourist. The findings will provide insights in the understanding on host-guest relationship. This survey will take about 20-25 minutes.

All collected responses will be treated in strictest confidence, and the data of participants gathered will be kept for future reference purpose for a period of at least seven years of future audit purpose.

You must use your desktop or laptop to complete the survey.

If you are interested in more information about this survey, please do not hesitate to contact me.

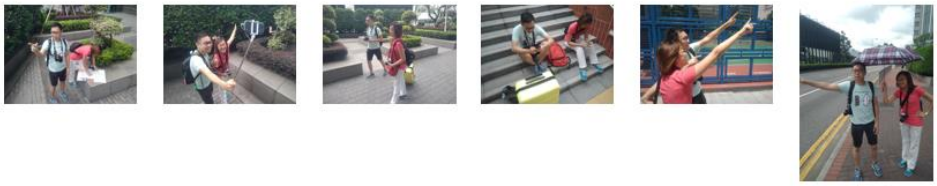
Yours Sincerely,
Tse Wai Tsz, Serene
PhD Candidate
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

1. Are you the Permanent Resident of Hong Kong (Malaysian/Singapore/Thai)?
   □ Yes □ No

Part I

Reminder - The survey software has detected that you are attempting to take this survey from an incompatible device. The survey contains questions that will only function correctly on a computer with a keyboard. Please open this survey from a computer with a keyboard.

Instruction - Next, you will use the 'E' and 'I' computer keys to categorize items into groups as fast as you can. These are the four groups and the items that belong to each:

Positive Attributes	Competent, Friendly, Good, Industrious, Intelligent, Sincere
Negative Attribute	Immoral, Loud, Materialistic, Rude, Uncivilized, Unreasonable
Mainland Chinese Tourist	
Non-Mainland Chinese Tourist	

There are seven parts. The instructions change for each part. Pay attention!

Part II

Please rate the following statement that best describe your views towards Mainland Chinese tourists…

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. Sincere							
2. Intelligent							
3. Rude							
4. Materialistic							
5. Good							
6. Industrious							
7. Unreasonable							
8. Loud							
9. Friendly							
10. Competent							
11. Uncivilized							
12. Immoral							

Part III

Please rate the following emotions that best describe your feelings towards Mainland Chinese tourists…

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. Respect							
2. Envy							
3. Contempt							
4. Pity							
5. Admiration							
6. Jealously							
7. Disgust							
8. Sympathy							
9. Pride							
10. Hate							
11. Inspiration							
12. Resentment							

Part IV

Please rate the following that best describe your behaviours towards Mainland Chinese tourists…

I never do this 1 2 3 4 5 6 I often do this 7

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Start a conversation with tourist							
2. Accept the tourist behaviours							
3. Harass the tourist							
4. Reluctant to help the tourist							
5. Socialize with the tourist							
6. Endure the tourist behaviours							
7. Express unfriendliness to the tourist							
8. Resist to help the tourist							
9. Interact with the tourist							
10. Tolerate the tourist behaviours							
11. Mock at the tourist							
12. Refrain to help the tourist							
13. Act in a threatening manner towards the tourist							

Part V

1. Gender

 Female Male

2. Age

 18 - 24 25 - 29 30 - 34 35 - 39
 40 - 44 45 - 49 50 - 54 55 - 59
 60 - 64 65 and above

3. Highest Education Attained

 High School and below Post-Secondary (e.g. Diploma, Higher Diploma etc.)
 Bachelor Degree Master Degree Doctoral Degree

4. Do you have any working experience in Hospitality and/or Tourism industry?

 Yes, please specify the number of years
 No

----- End of Survey -----

Appendix 1B – Main Survey Questionnaire (Traditional Chinese Version)

親愛的先生／女士：

非常感謝您抽出寶貴的時間來完成這份調查問卷。

我的名字是 Serene Tse，是來自香港理工大學酒店及旅遊業管理學院的博士研究生。本問卷旨在調查市民對遊客的評價。調查結果將有助我們理解主客關係。此問卷大約需時 20-25 分鐘。

所有收集到的答案都將嚴格保密，而收集到的參與者數據將保留至少七年，以供將來作審計參考。

請使用桌上電腦或手提電腦來完成本問卷。

如您有興趣進一步了解本問卷，歡迎聯絡本人。

香港理工大學
酒店及旅遊業管理學院
博士研究生
Tse Wai Tsz, Serene

1. 您是香港永久性居民嗎？
   □是　　□否

第一部份

請注意–問卷軟件檢測到您嘗試使用不兼容的設備進行此問卷。本問卷某些問題只能在附帶鍵盘的電腦上正確顯示。請使用附帶鍵盘的電腦打開此問卷。

說明－請使用電腦鍵盤上的「E」及「I」鍵盡快將項目分組。
以下為四個組別及屬於每個組別的項目：

正面特質	能幹、友善、優秀、勤勞、聰明、誠懇
負面特質	不道德、嘈吵、物質主義、無禮、不文明、不講理
中國大陸遊客	
非中國大陸遊客	

本問卷分為七個部分。每個部分的說明均有所不同。請仔細閱讀！

第二部份

請就以下項目作出評分，以反映您對中國大陸游客最貼切的看法...

非常不同意 1　不同意 2　有些不同意 3　並無不同意或同意 4　有些同意 5　同意 6　非常同意 7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. 誠懇							
2. 聰明							
3. 無禮							
4. 物質主義							
5. 優秀							
6. 勤勞							
7. 不講理							
8. 嘈吵							
9. 友善							
10. 能幹							
11. 不文明							
12. 不道德							

第三部份

請就以下情緒作出評分，以反映您對中國大陸游客最貼切的感覺...

非常不同意 1　不同意 2　有些不同意 3　並無不同意或同意 4　有些同意 5　同意 6　非常同意 7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. 尊重							
2. 羨慕							
3. 鄙視							
4. 憐恤							
5. 敬佩							
6. 嫉妒							
7. 厭惡							
8. 同情							
9. 自豪							
10. 憎恨							
11. 鼓舞							
12. 不滿							

第四部份

請就以下項目作出評分，以反映您如何對待中國大陸游客...

從不 經常

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. 與遊客談話							
2. 接受遊客的表現							
3. 騷擾遊客							
4. 不願幫助遊客							
5. 與遊客交際							
6. 忍受遊客的表現							
7. 不友善對待遊客							
8. 對幫助遊客感到抗拒							
9. 與遊客互動							
10. 容忍遊客的表現							
11. 取笑遊客							
12. 拒絕幫助遊客							
13. 對遊客作出恐嚇表現							

第五部份

1. 性別

□女性 □男性

2. 年齡

□18 - 24 □25 - 29 □30 - 34 □35 - 39

□40 - 44 □45 - 49 □50 - 54 □55 - 59

□60 - 64 □65 或以上

3. 最高學歷

□中學或以下 □中學以上（文憑或高等文憑等）

□學士學位 □碩士學位 □博士學位

4. 您有酒店／旅遊業的相關工作經驗嗎？

□有，請列明年數

□沒有

----- 調查結束-----

Appendix 1C – Main Survey Questionnaire (Malay Version)

Tuan/Puan,

Terima kasih kerana meluangkan masa untuk melengkapkan soal selidik ini.

Nama saya Serene Tse, calon PhD dari fakulti Hotel dan Pengurusan Pelancongan di Universiti Politeknik Hong Kong. Kajian inidijalankan untuk menyelidik penilaian residen terhadap pelancong. . Hasil kajian ini akanakan digunapakai untuk memberi pemahaman yang lebih jelas mengenai hubungan hos-tetamu. . Soal selidik ini akan mengambil masa kira-kira 20-25 minit.

Semua jawapan terkumpul dan data peserta dianggap sulit dan disimpan rapi. Segala maklumat akan disimpan untuk tujuan rujukan masa hadapan untuk tempoh sekurang-kurangnya tujuh tahun bertujuan audit masa depan.

Anda mesti menggunakan komputer atau komputer riba untuk melengkapkan soal selidik ini.

Sekiranya anda berminat untuk mendapatkan maklumat lanjut mengenai tentang soal selidik ini, sila jangan keberatan untuk menghubungi saya.

Yang Ikhlas,
Tse Wai Tsz, Serene
Calon PhD
Sekolah Hotel dan Pengurusan Pelancongan
Universiti Politeknik Hong Kong

1. Adakah anda Malaysian?
   Ya Tidak

Bahagian I: Ujian Perhubungan Tersirat

Peringatan - Perisian soal selidik ini telah mengesan bahawa anda berusaha untuk mengambil soal selidik ini dari peranti yang tidak serasi. Soal selidik ini mengandungi soalan yang hanya akan berfungsi dengan betul pada komputer yang ada papan kekunci. Sila buka soal selidik ini dari komputer yang ada papan kekunci.

Arahan - Seterusnya, anda akan menggunakan kekunci komputer 'E' dan 'T untuk mengkategorikan item ke dalam kumpulan secepat mungkin. Ini adalah empat kumpulan berikut dan item-item yang ditempatkan dalamnya:

Sifat Positif	Kompeten, Mesra, Baik, Tekun, Pandai, Ikhlas
Sifat Negatif	Tidak Bermoral, Bising, Materialistik, Kurang Ajar, Tak Beradab, Tak Munasabah
Pelancong Dari Tanah Besar Cina	
Pelancong Cina yang Bukan Dari Tanah Besar Cina	

Terdapat tujuh bahagian. Arahan bertukar untuk setiap bahagian. Sila ambil perhatian!

Bahagian II:

Sila pilih pernyataan berikut yang paling tepat menggambarkan pandangan anda terhadap pelancong Cina dari Tanah Besar…

Sangat Tidak Setuju	Tidak Setuju	Agak Tidak Setuju	Tidak Setuju ataupun Setuju	Agak Setuju	Setuju	Sangat Setuju
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. Ikhlas							
2. Pandai							
3. Kurang Ajar							
4. Materialistik							
5. Baik							
6. Tekun							
7. Tak Munasabah							
8. Bising							
9. Mesra							
10. Kompeten							
11. Tak Beradab							
12. Tak Bermoral							

Bahagian III:

Sila pilih emosi berikut yang paling tepat menggambarkan perasaan anda terhadap pelancong China dari Tanah Besar…

Sangat Tidak Setuju	Tidak Setuju	Agak Tidak Setuju	Tidak Setuju ataupun Setuju	Agak Setuju	Setuju	Sangat Setuju
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. Hormat							
2. Iri Hati							
3. Hina							
4. Kasihan							
5. Kagum							
6. Cemburu							
7. Jijik							
8. Simpati							
9. Bongkak							
10. Benci							
11. Inspirasi							
12. Dendam							

Bahagian IV:

Sila berikan penilaian berikut yang paling menggambarkan tingkah laku anda terhadap pelancong Cina Tanah Besar…

Saya Tak Pernah Melakukan Ini — Saya Selalu Melakukan Ini

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. Mulakan perbualan dengan pelancong							
2. Terima tingkah laku pelancong							
3. Mengganggu pelancong							
4. Enggan membantu pelancong							
5. Bersosial dengan pelancong							
6. Menahan tingkah laku pelancong							
7. Menunjukkan tingkah laku yang tidak mesra kepada pelancong							
8. Menolak untuk membantu pelancong							
9. Berinteraksi dengan							
10. Menahan tingkah laku pelancong							
11. Mengejek pelancong							
12. Menahan diri dari membantu pelancong							
13. Bertindak secara mengancam terhadap pelancong							

Bahagian V: Demografik

1. Jantina

 Perempuan Lelaki

2. Umur

 18 - 24 25 - 29 30 - 34 35 - 39

 40 - 44 45 - 49 50 - 54 55 - 59

 60 dan ke atas

3. Pendidikan Tertinggi yang Diperolehi:

 Fakulti Menengah dan Kebawah Selepas-Fakulti Menengah (cth. Diploma, Diploma Tertinggi dll.)

 Ijazah Sarjana Muda Ijazah Sarjana Ijazah Kedoktoran

4. Adakah anda mempunyai pengalaman bekerja dalam industri Perhotelan dan/atau Pelancongan?

 Ya, sila nyatakan bilangan tahun

 Tidak

----- Akhir Penyiasatan -----

Appendix 1D – Main Survey Questionnaire (Thai Version)

เรียน ผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามที่เคารพ

ขอขอบคุณที่สละเวลาเพื่อตอบแบบสอบถามนี้

ดิฉันชื่อ Serene Tse (เซรีน) นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก จากสถาบันการจัดการการโรงแรมและการท่องเที่ยว มหาวิทยาลัยฮ่องกงโพลิเทคนิค
แบบสอบถามนี้มีเป้าหมายเพื่อสำรวจการประเมินความรู้สึกของผู้พักอาศัยต่อนักท่องเที่ยว
การศึกษานี้จะให้ข้อมูลเชิงลึกในการทำความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างผู้พักอาศัยและนักท่องเที่ยว แบบสำรวจนี้จะใช้เวลาประมาณ 20-25 นาที

คำตอบที่เก็บรวบรวมทั้งหมดจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับและข้อมูลของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามที่รวบรวมไว้จะถูกเก็บไว้เพื่อการอ้างอิงในอนาคตเป็นระยะเวลาอย่างน้อยเจ็ดปี เพื่อวัตถุประสงค์ในการตรวจสอบในอนาคต

ผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม ต้องใช้คอมพิวเตอร์ตั้งโต๊ะ หรือ คอมพิวเตอร์โน๊ตบุ๊ค ในการตอบแบบสอบถามนี้
หากคุณสนใจข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับแบบสอบถามนี้ สามารถติดต่อดิฉันได้ทันที

ด้วยความเคารพเป็นอย่างสูง
Tse Wai Tsz, Serene (เซรีน)
นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก
สถาบันการจัดการการโรงแรมและการท่องเที่ยว
มหาวิทยาลัยฮ่องกงโพลิเทคนิค

1. คุณเป็นคนไทยหรือเปล่า?

☐ ใช่ ☐ ไม่ใช่

ส่วนที่ **1:** การทดสอบการเชื่อมโยงโดยนัย

คำเตือน - ซอฟต์แวร์แบบสำรวจตรวจพบว่าคุณพยายามทำแบบสำรวจนี้จากอุปกรณ์ที่เข้ากันไม่ได้ แบบสำรวจมีคำถามที่จะสามารถทำงานได้อย่างถูกต้องบนคอมพิวเตอร์ที่มีแป้นพิมพ์ โปรดเปิดแบบสอบถามนี้จากคอมพิวเตอร์ที่มีแป้นพิมพ์

คำแนะนำ - ต่อไปคุณจะใช้ปุ่มคอมพิวเตอร์ 'E' และ 'I' เพื่อจัดรายการให้เป็นกลุ่มให้เร็วที่สุด ต่อไปนี้คือ กลุ่มสี่กลุ่ม และรายการที่เป็นของแต่ละกลุ่ม:

คุณสมบัติเชิงบวก	มีความสามารถ, เป็นมิตร, ดี, มีความพยายาม, ฉลาด, จริงใจ
คุณสมบัติเชิงลบ	ไม่มีศีลธรรม, ส่งเสียงดัง, วัตถุนิยม, หยาบคาย, ไร้อารยธรรม, ไม่มีเหตุผล
นักท่องเที่ยวจากจีนแผ่นดินใหญ่	
นักท่องเที่ยวที่ไม่ใช่คนจีนแผ่นดินใหญ่	

แบบสอบถามนี้มีทั้งหมด 7 ส่วน คำแนะนำในแต่ละส่วนจะแตกต่างกัน ดังนั้นกรุณาสังเกตให้ดี

ส่วนที่ 2:

โปรดประเมินข้อความต่อไปนี้ที่อธิบายความคิดเห็นของคุณที่มีต่อนักท่องเที่ยวจีนแผ่นดินใหญ่ได้ดีที่สุด ...

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ค่อนข้างไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่มีความเห็น	ค่อนข้างเห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1.**จริงใจ**							
2. **ฉลาด**							
3. **หยาบคาย**							
4. **วัตถุนิยม**							
5. **ดี**							
6. **มีความพยายาม**							
7. **ไม่มีเหตุผล**							
8. **ส่งเสียงดัง**							
9. **เป็นมิตร**							
10. **มีความสามารถ**							
11. **ไร้อารยธรรม**							
12. **ไร้ศีลธรรม**							

ส่วนที่ 3 :

โปรดให้คะแนนความรู้สึกต่อไปนี้ที่อธิบายความรู้สึกของคุณที่มีต่อนักท่องเที่ยวชาวจีนแผ่นดินใหญ่ได้ดีที่สุด ...

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ค่อนข้างไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่มีความเห็น	ค่อนข้างเห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. **มีความเคารพ**							
2. **ริษยา**							
3. **ดูถูก**							
4. **สงสาร**							
5. **ชื่นชม**							
6. **ริษยา**							
7. **รังเกียจ**							
8. **เห็นใจ**							
9. **ภูมิใจ**							
10. **เกลียด**							
11. **เป็นแรงบันดาลใจ**							
12. **ไม่พอใจ**							

ส่วนที่ 4 :

โปรดให้คะแนนสิ่งต่อไปนี้ที่อธิบายพฤติกรรมของคุณที่มีต่อนักท่องเที่ยวจีนแผ่นดินใหญ่ได้ดีที่สุด ...

ฉันไม่เคยทำสิ่งนี้ ฉันทำสิ่งนี้บ่อย

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. **เริ่มการสนทนากับนักท่องเที่ยว**							
2. **ยอมรับพฤติกรรมของนักท่องเที่ยว**							
3. **ก่อกวนนักท่องเที่ยว**							
4. **ลังเลที่จะช่วยเหลือนักท่องเที่ยว**							
5. **สังสรรค์กับนักท่องเที่ยว**							
6. **อดทนต่อพฤติกรรมของนักท่องเที่ยว**							
7. **แสดงความไม่เป็นมิตรต่อนักท่องเที่ยว**							
8. **ปฏิเสธที่จะช่วยเหลือนักท่องเที่ยว**							
9. **โต้ตอบกับนักท่องเที่ยว**							
10. **จำยอมต่อพฤติกรรมของนักท่องเที่ยว**							
11. **เยาะเย้ยนักท่องเที่ยว**							
12. **งดให้การช่วยเหลือแก่นักท่องเที่ยว**							
13. **กระทำการในลักษณะที่คุกคามต่อนักท่องเที่ยว**							

ส่วนที่ **5:**

1. เพศ

□ หญิง □ ชาย

2. อายุ

□ 18 - 24 □ 25 - 29 □ 30 - 34 □ 35 - 39
□ 40 - 44 □ 45 - 49 □ 50 - 54 □ 55 - 59
□ 60 - 64 □ 65 หรือสูงกว่า

3. ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุด

□ มัธยมศึกษาหรือต่ำกว่า □ การศึกษาหลังมัธยมศึกษา (เช่น อนุปริญญา, ปวส. เป็นต้น)
□ ปริญญาตรี □ ปริญญาโท □ ปริญญาเอก

4. คุณมีประสบการณ์การทำงานในอุตสาหกรรมการบริการและ / หรือการท่องเที่ยวหรือไม่?

□ ใช่, กรุณาระบุจำนวนปี
□ ไม่

----- สิ้นสุดการสำรวจ -----

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