https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2021.103212

TOURIST STEREOTYPE CONTENT: DIMENSIONS AND ACCESSIBILITY

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ABSTRACT

Stereotyping tourists is a common practice by hosts to deal with large numbers of culturally different tourists, while research on tourist stereotypes remains limited. Two studies were conducted herein to explore and assess the content and common dimensions of stereotypes shared across tourist groups. Study 1 collected 234 responses from Hong Kong residents to an online repertory grid test. Three dimensions were extracted by a conjunction of multidimensional scaling and content analyses – Civility, Travel Behaviour, and Economic Power. Study 2 collected 97 tourist-host interaction stories from 20 Hong Kong residents. A narrative analysis not only validated the tri-dimension identified by Study 1, but also assessed each dimension's accessibility and predictability by examining residents' emotional and behavioural responses.

KEYWORDS: *Tourist Stereotypes, Repertory Grid Technique, Stereotype Content Model, Stereotype Accessibility, Multidimensional Scaling Analysis, Storytelling*

1. INTRODUCTION

Understanding how residents view and interact with tourists is essential for enhancing tourist experience and comprehending resident attitude toward tourism development. Stereotyping tourists is universal among a wide range of tourism stakeholders (Sheldon & Var, 1984), but little is known about the content and structure of tourist stereotypes (Tse & Tung, 2020; Tung, King, & Tse, 2020). The literature on tourist stereotypes held by host communities is not only sparse but also descriptive in nature, focusing almost entirely on ethnic stereotypes (Hsu & Chen, 2019). The content of ethnic/national stereotypes is obviously different from that of tourist stereotypes, because tourism environments may facilitate stereotypes about visitors that differ from general stereotypes (Tung et al., 2020). For example, Moufakkir (2011) found that Dutch hosts' stereotypical depictions of East Asian people were relatively negative and those of East Asian tourists were more positive.

As a social psychological concept, stereotype is defined as shared beliefs about the features of a social group, which can be positive or negative, correct or incorrect, simple or complicated (Kanahara, 2006). For over twenty years, social psychology has been exclusively concerned about the cognitive process by which stereotypes shape social perceptions, because of their potential to create social problems such as discrimination and intergroup conflicts (Madon et al., 2001). Nevertheless, this process focus failed to address the accuracy of its content in real-world contexts, because most studies used laboratory conditions that promote biased, inaccurate, and irrational stereotypic inferences (Lee, Jussim, & McCauley, 1995). Academic interest in the content and underlying components of stereotypes re-emerged since the 1990s when scholars realized issues of content and process are complementary lines of inquiry (Madon, 1997).

From a functional and pragmatic perspective, Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, and Xu (2002) suggested that dimensions of the stereotype content should be generated from interpersonal/intergroup interactions. The two dimensional Stereotype Content Model (i.e., warmth and competence) was thus developed and empirically tested to be a "pancultural tool for predicting group stereotypes from structural relations with other groups in society, and comparing across societies" (Cuddy et al., 2009, p.2). However, the ability of this supposedly universal model in capturing the stereotype content of different social groups is disputable (Brambilla & Leach, 2014; David et al., 2018). There is an increasing call for additional dimensions of stereotype content (López-Rodríguez & Zagefka, 2015).

Since the early 1980s, tourism scholars have suggested that stereotypes specific to the tourism context are more useful due to their ability of providing clear action guidance for involved stakeholders (Brewer, 1984). Multiple angles can be identified from previous descriptive studies on tourist stereotypes/image, such as physical characteristics, language, personality, service expectations, and consumption style (e.g., Evans-Pritchard, 1989; Sheldon & Var, 1984). But these early atheoretical studies did not even distinguish triggers of tourist stereotype from its content. Tung et al. (2020) made the first attempt in developing measurements for tourist stereotype, but the four dimensions (i.e., competence, approachability, rude, and boastful) they identified based on a single ethnic group of tourists (Mainland Chinese) cannot be generalized to other tourist groups. Given the multi-dimensional nature of tourist stereotypes (Brewer, 1984), identifying its universal dimensions is necessary to facilitate cross-cultural comparisons which are important for tourism scholars and practitioners. This article is thus aimed to explore tourist stereotype content and identify the universal dimensions that residents use when evaluating various tourist groups.

Since different research methods have been found to prime different stereotype content (David et al., 2018), two exploratory studies were conducted – Study 1 employed a cued-

recall approach (i.e., an online survey structured by a Repertory Grid Test) to elicit available tourist stereotype content from participants; Study 2 adopted a free recall approach (i.e., storytelling) to validate the tourist stereotype dimensions identified from Study 1 and examine their accessibility. Residents' emotional and behavioural responses to the stereotyped tourists will also be identified to examine the consequences of stereotyping tourists. Cognitive science has made an important distinction between availability of a mental content and its accessibility, because constructs with higher accessibility can exert stronger influence on judgements (Higgins et al., 1982). But stereotype studies rarely distinguish its availability and accessibility (Miller et al., 2009). Stereotype availability refers to the presence of its content in long-term memory, which can be retrieved using specific questions, while stereotype accessibility (i.e. activation potential) refers to the readiness to which a stereotype content is retrieved from memory (David et al., 2018). Different methods are required to capture the two distinct types of information: cued recall is more related to availability while free recall is more relevant to accessibility (Tulving & Pearlstone, 1966). Both methods empower respondents to freely report their personal constructs of tourist stereotype, without the influence of investigators (Coshall, 2000). The elicited tourist stereotype content and dimensions would be personally relevant to residents and represent meaningful criteria they use in stereotyping and comparing various types of tourists.

The two studies were conducted between 2017 and 2019 when global tourism was breaking records in terms of tourist arrival numbers and tourist expenditure. Tourism was taken for granted in most parts of the world; over-tourism and anti-tourist sentiment appeared in some destinations (Kim, Duffy, & Moore, 2020). Thus, an investigation of tourist stereotype was a timely topic and the exploration of tourist stereotype content could lay the foundation for future research. Findings would also have practical implications for a sustainable recovery of the tourism industry after the COVID-19 pandemic.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Stereotype Content

Stereotype content studies focus on assessing "the specific attributes/traits within stereotypes, their valence, strength, and accuracy, and thus lay the necessary groundwork to examine the processes by which stereotypes may create social problems" (Madon, 1997, p. 664-665). Katz and Braly (1933) conducted one of the earliest empirical investigations of stereotype content by presenting a list of 84 trait adjectives to Princeton University students and asking them to select five that strongly characterized ten different racial/national groups. The Princeton Trilogy, an adjective checklist method, has become the most popular stereotype assessment technique since then and been widely applied in various social groups. However, this long attribute list, with a unilateral overgeneralized stereotype construct, also seriously restricted the ensuing theoretical breakthrough in this research field until the establishment of the Stereotype Content Model (Madon et al., 2001).

Stereotype studies conducted in the tourism context are very limited, except those focusing on ethnic and national stereotypes (e.g., Pizam & Sussmann, 1995), or host-/tourist-gaze (e.g., Moufakkir, 2011), or stereotypical images of destinations (e.g., Chung & Chen, 2019). Most early tourist stereotype studies are descriptive in nature, employing various lists of ethnic characteristics to describe tourists from specific countries. For instance, Catalan stereotypes of English tourists include "steadiness, integrity, social distance, and stiffness" (Pi-Sunyer, 1977, p.153). French and Italian tourists were perceived by Maltese as

"excessively demanding", and Swedish tourists as "misers who order a bottle of soft drink and share it with several straws" (Boissevain & Inglott, 1979, p.283). Brewer (1984) conducted the first significant study on content of tourist stereotypes and suggested that tourist stereotypes are different from ethnic stereotypes, although they are correlated in some degree. In his study, Mexican storekeepers were found to cognize American tourists from multiple perspectives: physical characteristics, language, personality, warmth, consumption style, service expectations, and specific behaviours of sub-groups. These criteria demonstrate the complex multi-dimensional nature of tourist stereotype content. Unfortunately, few scholars have made further progress since then in conceptualizing or operationalizing the multi-dimensional tourist stereotypes. It wasn't until the past two years that tourism researchers made new attempts (Hsu & Chen, 2019; Tse & Tung, 2020; Tung et al., 2020). However, the emerging studies are either conceptual or restricted to a specific group of tourists. As no precise definition or consistent measurement criteria are available, the present investigation aims to conceptualize tourist stereotype with sufficient precision that it can be distinguished from other social group stereotypes, and to holistically operationalize this construct so that a generalized measurement scheme can be established.

The bi-dimensional Stereotype Content Model developed by Fiske et al. (2002) was adopted as the theoretical framework, because this model opened up new horizons for stereotype research. Its three established hypotheses elucidate the content and consequences of stereotypes: [1] Across social groups and cultures, stereotypes share two common dimensions of content – warmth (e.g., good-natured, friendly, and sincere) and competence (e.g., skilful, capable, confident, and competent). [2] Most out-group stereotypes are ambivalent – more positive on one dimension coupled with less positive on the other (Fiske et al., 1999). For instance, Asian Americans are seen as high in competence but low in warmth, while women as low in competence but high in warmth. [3] Four combinations of *high/low warmth* and *high/low competence* judgements lead to four types of prejudiced emotions – admiration/pride, contempt/disgust, sympathy/pity, and envy (Fiske et al., 2002), which then result in discriminatory behavioural tendencies array along two dimensions of intensity ("active – passive") and valence ("facilitation - harm") (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2007). Stereotypes, therefore, become a fundamental construct leading to a series of complicated intergroup perceptions, and emotional as well as behavioural responses. Applying the Stereotype Content Model in the tourist-host context could facilitate the discovery of common dimensions underlying the complex, multidimensional tourist stereotype content, and guide the examination of residents' emotional and behavioural responses to the stereotyped tourists. Scholars have challenged the universality of stereotype content dimensions (David et al., 2018), because most empirical studies focused on national/ethnic stereotypes only and were limited to the Western context. This study will adapt Stereotype Content Model to a new context of tourist-host interaction and re-examine its hypotheses from a non-Western perspective.

2.2 Personal Construct Theory and Repertory Grid Technique

Repertory Grid Technique (RGT) is an operational procedure for analysing people's constructions of reality, supported by a sound psychological theory, Personal Construct Theory, developed by George Kelly. Kelly (1955/1991) believed that every individual is a prototype-scientist having his/her own patterns to interpret and predict the outer environment. The individual patterns are called "personal constructs" which vary from person to person because they are established on individuals' unique life and experiences. As the core of Kelly's theory, construing is a process of discriminating and differentiating between objects,

events and people that "make up" the world. Construct is thus defined as "a way in which things are construed as being alike and yet different from others" (Kelly, 1991; p.74). Constructs are, therefore, bipolar in nature with one pole contrasting the other and do not exist in isolation – they tend to interconnect and form a consistent system (Embacher & Buttle, 1989).

To explore and assess the content and structure of personal construct systems, Kelly developed RGT as a methodology. A repertory grid is a matrix of elements, constructs and a relation that defines how constructs discriminate among the elements (Caputi, Hunter, & Tan, 2009). As the keystones of RGT, elements are the objects, events, people, things to be considered or evaluated within a particular context, and constructs are the qualities/properties that people attribute to these objects. A standard RGT consists of three steps (Fransella, Bell, & Bannister, 2004): selecting elements (i.e., "objects of attention", tourists in this study), eliciting constructs, and linking elements to constructs. In practice, elements can be either elicited from participants or supplied by researchers. Construct elicitation can be performed in different forms, including monadic, dyadic, triadic, and full context, among which the triadic sorting method is the most common (Fransella et al., 2004).

RGT is appraised as a well-established technique to uncover individuals' idiosyncratic perceptions, intuitions and feelings toward certain objects or phenomena (Pearce, 1982). Beyond its original field of psychology, it has been widely applied in multiple disciplines, including health, computer science, marketing, and business management (Marsden & Littler, 1998; Saúl et al., 2012). A principal merit of RGT is its emic perspective and the inherent theoretical base, which provides strong face validity for the elicited constructs. Encouraging participants to use their own language to describe the attributes deemed most important in interpretation/evaluation can effectively eliminate researcher bias and potential semantic ambiguities associated with pre-specified scales (Coshall, 2000). Another core strength of RGT is its flexibility in data collection and analysis. RGT does not require a large sample to reach data saturation, and can elicit data with both qualitative attributes and quantitative ratings. The qualitative data can also be analysed quantitatively through either non-parametric or parametric analysis (Whyte, 2018). Although RGT was developed for application to individuals, it can be used to elicit collective constructs. Kelly's (1955/1991) commonality corollary suggested that while each individual has a unique personal construct system, there is a commonality of some constructs across a group of individuals who share similar backgrounds or experiences which permits the existence of communities and social life. Adopting RGT to explore the content of tourist stereotypes, a collective concept, is thus justified.

Tourism research employing RGT seems being dominated by imagery studies (e.g., Chang & Mak, 2018; Pearce, 1982), because RGT is especially suitable for identifying attributes of destination image/brand which are bearers of emotional and symbolic meanings (Pike, 2003). Moreover, RGT can effectively improve the validity of attribute lists used to measure images because the attributes elicited from participants can represent the meaningful semantic domains they use in real judgements, and thus of greater relevance and validity than those provided by researchers (Potter & Coshall, 1988). RGT can also produce a wealth of information about participants' perceptions of competitive destinations/attractions, configurations of similarly perceived objects, ways of construing, and criteria used in product selection (e.g., Embacher & Buttle, 1989).

An alternative line of research, inheriting Kelly's experience corollary, employs RGT to investigate individuals' travel experience and how the experience influences their personal construct system. Botterill and Crompton (1996) combined photographs and RGT to explore

individuals' travel experience from a humanistic psychological perspective. Although RGT has been shown as a useful and powerful method for understanding individual perceptions of leisure destinations, it is still an underutilized method in tourism research (Pike, 2018; Whyte, 2018) – perhaps due to its interpretive nature and sophisticated administration steps (Pearce & Pearce, 2017), or lack of awareness and mainstream acceptance (Pike, 2018). The current study, for the first time, utilized RGT to elicit residents' perceptions and evaluations of tourists.

3. STUDY 1

3.1 Method

Materials

Study 1 employs RGT in an online survey to elicit pertinent content of tourist stereotypes and identify its underlying dimensions. This method does not impose predetermined tourist characteristics that may or may not be relevant to all respondents; rather, RGT permits individuals to set their own parameters within their personal meaning system (Kelly, 1955/1991). The main body of the questionnaire includes three grouping exercises designed to elicit the content and potential dimensions of tourist stereotypes from residents' personal constructs. Sociodemographic and travel experience data were also collected. The grouping exercise designed according to RGT principles is detailed as follows.

Element selection: To explore the content and underlying dimensions of tourist stereotypes, the first step is to identify which tourists are being stereotyped and the triggers of TS. In the context of tourists visiting Hong Kong (HK), preliminary interviews with 26 HK permanent residents identified Mainland Chinese, Euro-Americans, Japanese, South Koreans, South(east) Asians and Taiwanese as the main stereotyped groups. These groups are consistent with the tourist arrival statistics (HKTB, 2019) as major source markets. North American, Australian and European visitors were mingled as Euro-Americans because many respondents admitted that they could only differentiate Caucasians from other ethnic groups by appearance (esp. skin colour) and language, but could not identify specific nationalities.

After obtaining an initial set of tourist groups distinguished by source markets, two other prominent triggers of tourist stereotypes were added to further subdivide tourists – age (young vs. old) and travel style (independent vs. package tours). These triggers were considered because preliminary interview participants reported consistent stereotypes: young and/or independent travellers were perceived as more knowledgeable, friendly, polite and energetic than older and/or package tour participants. After repeated discussion and revision, the research team agreed on a set of 14 tourist groups (see Table 2) to be used as RGT elements to elicit residents' constructs of tourist stereotypes. Not all possible combinations of the three key triggers (i.e., ethnic/nationality, age, and travel style) were adopted, because some combinations are less likely to happen or make no sense to potential respondents (e.g., younger Euro-Americans on package tours, older Korean and Japanese travelling independently).

Construct Elicitation: The full context and personal role forms of RGT were used to elicit residents' constructs of TS (Fransella et al., 2004): the former means all elements were shown at one time and participants were asked to indicate in what ways the presented elements are alike; the latter instructed respondents to imagine the potential triads (i.e., three tourist groups they perceived similar) in a specific situation/place (i.e., the public) and

describe the similarities of each triad. Although we did not ask how elements/triads differ from each other, opposite pole of constructs can still be obtained. For example, a triad of tourist groups was considered to respect local culture, implying that other dissimilar groups do not respect local culture as much; the construct emerged can be summarized by its polar opposites as "respectful - disrespectful".

The 14 tourist groups were all listed in a box and shown to respondents, who were asked to select the three groups (called "a triad" later) that they feel as the MOST SIMILAR in the way of behaving in public. This exercise was conducted three times to enable respondents to fully express their repertory of constructs. Participants were instructed that the three groups selected in the repeated exercises could not be exactly the same as previous selections. After each round of selection, a follow-up question was asked: "please clarify what are the similarities among the above three tourist groups you just selected?" Participants were encouraged to provide as many answers as possible to each open-ended question by setting a minimum length for text entry, and they were free to provide attributes based on their judgement of similarities. The resultant dimensions are thus unbiased because they do not rely on predefined scales but existing in individual "psychological space" (Palmer, 1978).

Procedure and Participants

A pilot study was conducted with 24 HK residents to check the clarity of instructions, validity of element design, and survey administration. Subsequently, criteria were set for minimum time required for the exercise and word count for open-ended questions. The invitation was distributed through two rounds of email to 3,027 HK permanent residents. Of these, 467 (15.4%) residents attempted the survey. Incoherent/meaningless responses (n = 119) were removed. To retain a representative sample based on sociodemographic characteristics, 114 respondents were screened out. Thus, 234 usable responses were imported into SPSS 25.0 for analyses. Respondents' profile was shown in Table 1, demonstrating a representative sample of HK permanent residents in terms of age, gender, education level, monthly household income, and residential area (Census and Statistics Department 2019).

INSERT TABLE 1

3.2 Repertory Grid Analysis Results and Discussion

The participants provided 148 different triad combinations of tourist groups that they perceived similar. Table 2 displays the 24 triads that were selected 8 or more times. A close relationship between age and travel style can be observed from a variety of triads. That is, older tourists on package tours and younger tourists traveling independently were mostly grouped separately, regardless of nationality; and the former received more negative comments than the latter. In addition to observable general patterns, the analysis of RGT data can take many sophisticated forms (Fransella et al., 2004). Since the focus of this study is not about individual residents' constructs of TS, the aggregation of individual grids was conducted through multidimensional scaling analysis and content analysis.

INSERT TABLE 2

Multi-dimensional Scaling Analysis

A quantitative mapping technique, multidimensional scaling (MDS), was used to map collective meanings among individuals based on the frequency of each pair of tourist groups that were clustered together (i.e., an index of similarity). This technique can transform judgements of similarity into distances represented in a multidimensional perceptual map (Carroll & Green, 1997), which demonstrates the relative positioning of all groups and provides reference points for further interpretation and exploration. MDS is particularly useful in obtaining comparative evaluations when the specified bases of comparison are unknown or undefined, thus suited to image and positioning studies in which the evaluation dimensions may be too global or affective to be measured by conventional scales (Pearce, 1982).

From the current grouping exercise results, the index of similarity for each pair of tourist groups was obtained by running a self-developed computational code, and then transformed into "distances" by a function of "1/index of similarity". Alternating Least-squares Scaling algorithm (Young, Takane, & Lewyckyj, 1978) was used to estimate the Euclidean distance model, with the measurement level being specified as ordinal and the matrix shape being specified as symmetric. Four rounds of analysis were performed to assess the fit of solutions. The results showed improvements in fit indices as dimensionality increased from 2 to 3, and also 3 to 4, with subsequent levelling off beyond four dimensions (see Table 3). A scree-plot also suggests that the minimum dimensionality of the 14 groups occurs with a solution of four dimensions with a level of stress below 0.1. However, stress value can always be improved by increasing dimensions, thus a trade-off needs to be made between the fit of the solution and the number of dimensions. As an increase in dimensionality decreases readability and interpretation of the MDS map (Jaworska & Chupetlovska-Anastasova, 2009), a three-dimensional configuration was adopted with acceptable fit measures. The stress value of 0.12 is perceived fair (Kruskal, 1964); and RSQ indicated 84% of the data variance can be explained by the hypothesized 3-dimensional configuration, much higher than the acceptable level of 0.6. The resulting normative map, representing a best-fit distribution of objects based on similarity judgements of all participants, was analysed to understand similarities and differences between the 14 tourist groups, which were projected on the "stereotyping space" (see Figure 1).

INSERT TABLE 3 AND FIGURE 1

The inter-point distances are a function of the perceived similarity between the tourist groups. Pairs of tourist groups that were more frequently judged similar appear closer together; as the perceived similarity decreases, the distance between the corresponding groups increases. To interpret this MDS map, clusters and dimensions were examined closely (Borg, Groenen, & Mair, 2012). Clusters are groups of elements that are closer to each other than to other elements. As shown in Figure 1, five clusters can be observed from the 14 groups divided by the three dimensions. Tourist groups within each cluster may share more common features than groups belonged to other clusters. None of the three observable triggers (nationality, age, and travel style) can fully explain the cluster division, implying the existence of additional subjective constructs from respondents. Specifically, Cluster 1 comprises two older Euro-American groups (EAOIT and EAOPT), suggesting that older Euro-American tourists' behaviour patterns were perceived similar by HK residents, regardless of their travel style. Cluster 2 consists of three Mainland Chinese tourist groups (COIT, COPT and CYPT) but excludes the younger independent Chinese tourists, indicating

this subordinate group might have impressed HK residents uniquely. Cluster 3 contains two groups that were excluded from the previous two clusters (i.e., EAYIT and CYIT), maybe because they were young and energetic. Cluster 4 contains elderly tourists from Japan, Korea and Taiwan (JOPT, TOIT, TOPT, and KOPT) while their younger counterparts are gathered in Cluster 5 (JYIT, TYIT, and KYIT). This indicates tourists from Japan, Korea and Taiwan share much in common in the eyes of HK residents, including generational differences. It's worth noting that within Cluster 4, older independent Taiwanese tourists were perceived similar to older Japanese package tour participants while Taiwanese package tour participants were similar to their Korean counterparts.

After identifying the five clusters that were stereotyped similarly, the three dimensions were examined to reveal qualities and characteristics, either perceived or actual, of the tourist groups. For example, the first dimension suggests a basic distinction between eight younger, more energetic groups (i.e., all four Mainland and four younger groups from other markets) and six older, more traditional and experienced groups from Euro-America, Japan, Korea, and Taiwan. The second dimension locates seven groups (i.e., all three Euro-American groups, both Japanese groups, and two young groups from Korea and Taiwan) at a higher position whereas another seven groups (i.e., all four Mainland groups, older Taiwanese and Korean groups) are located at the lower extreme – maybe because of their different degrees of Westernization. The third dimension reveals seven groups from traditionally wealthy regions or the fastest-growing economy (i.e., three Euro-American and four Mainland Chinese groups) versus the other seven groups from countries/regions with perceived modest economic conditions (i.e., Japan, Korea, and Taiwan).

Although the five clusters and three dimensions can be roughly explained by the location information in the stereotyping space, the precise nature of the dimension qualities cannot be derived from the MDS result (Palmer, 1978). Because mathematical dimensions (axes) are necessarily orthogonal while human constructs may be highly inter-correlated and contain redundant information (Borg et al., 2012). If researchers attempt to label the dimensions of MDS map subjectively, the labels may not necessarily correspond to the respondents' judgements. To further interpret the three dimensions, we analysed the open-answers of participants which explain why they perceived each triad as similar.

Content Analysis of Open-answers

Content analysis is "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use" (Krippendorff, 2018, p.24). It is also a research method for "subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278)." To discover the common dimensions underlying HK residents' complex stereotypes of tourists, qualitative content analysis was applied to the text obtained from open-ended follow-up questions by following an inductive reasoning. Because the potential content dimensions are expected to be drawn from the original responses provided by informants rather than from existing literature or researchers' prior knowledge (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008).

Two researchers with different backgrounds coded the open-question answers independently to improve the credibility of qualitative findings (Pike, 2018). Both coders followed a standard procedure of "open coding – creating categories – abstraction" suggested by Elo and Kyngäs (2008). Open coding means that notes are written in the text whilst reading the answers to describe all aspects of the content. The open codes were collected and compiled on a coding sheet for further clustering into high-level themes/meta-themes. Synonyms were unified and the words with multiple meanings were clarified. Categories

were generated by grouping these themes under higher-order themes. The abstraction process proceeded repeatedly to formulate a general description of the research topic by generating multi-layers of categories as far as the categories are conceptually and empirically grounded. This procedure can effectively reduce the number of codes and categories by collapsing terms that are similar or dissimilar into substantially broad higher-order themes/categories (Dey, 1993).

To ensure the accuracy and confirmability of the coding results, two coders developed two separate coding sheets. An agreement of 75% (using the "percent agreement" formula provided by Nili et al., 2020) was achieved between the two coders on the preliminary coding results. The classifications input by the two coders were then iteratively compared to improve consistency. Differences in the two coding sheets were noted and discussed among the coders and the project leader. A consensus was achieved after several iterations, and a common coding frame was developed (*see* column 3 of Table 4). The agreed themes (called "elicited constructs" here) were then further combined into higher-level categories and dimensions. Frequency counting of the data items under each category was carried out separately by the two coders for the purposes of acquiring collective constructs and showing how each element was evaluated based on the generated constructs. To enhance the robustness of inter-coder reliability evaluation, Krippendorff's alpha was selected as an appropriate method by considering the nature of data (ordinal), number of coders (two), and the need for minimizing the effect of chance in agreement (Nili et al., 2020). Krippendorff's alpha was calculated in SPSS using the PROCESS macro, generating a reliability estimate of 0.84 which guarantees fair reliability (Krippendorff, 2018). Moreover, an external auditor was invited to evaluate the accuracy of the interpretations of and dimensions drawn from the data. Thus, the trustworthiness of this study was established through investigator and theoretical triangulations (Decrop, 1999).

More than 700 unique constructs provided by the 234 participants were reduced to 25 core constructs based on common wording or themes. The core constructs were presented as either bipolar or unipolar statements, based on which seven higher-level categories and three general dimensions were extracted ultimately. Table 4 displays these constructs, categories and dimensions in order of frequency being mentioned, and provides exemplary descriptors for each construct.

INSERT TABLE 4

The most frequently elicited constructs of various tourist groups are those associated with politeness, manners, and cultivation, the first dimension of tourist stereotype content was thus named "Civility". Residents evaluated tourists' civility primarily from: I) manners, demonstrated in attitude, speech and deportment; II) public virtues, mainly reflected in complying with local rules or custom and showing concerns for others; and III) educational level, manifested in knowledge and experience, as well as necessary skills for travelling freely. The second dimension was termed "Travel Behaviour" which focuses on tourists' psycho- and behavioural features, including travel mode and preferences (e.g., seeking for conventional, secured versus novel, exciting experiences), tourist activities and impacts on local livelihood, as well as interests in exploring local culture and communicating with local people. The third dimension was called "Economic Power" focusing on the consumption style and wealth of tourists. All attributes related to enjoyment-centric consumption and economic benefits brought by tourists to local communities were coded into this dimension.

To further validate the three dimensions identified for tourist stereotype content, all evaluations received by the 14 groups were re-examined on each bipolar dimension (see Table 5). Specifically, all four groups of Mainland tourists received much more negative evaluations than other groups in terms of Civility and Travel Behaviour, verifying HK residents' generally negative impression of Mainlanders (Chen, Hsu, & Li, 2018). However, young Mainlanders fared better than their older counterparts, especially the young, independent travellers who were viewed as the most desirable subgroup. Among the remaining 10 groups, older package tour participants from Korea and Taiwan were also considered less civilized. Contrarily, tourists from Japan and Euro-America were stereotyped as the most civilized, regardless of age and travel style. In terms of Travel Behaviour, all package tour participants, regardless of nationality, received more negative evaluations than independent travellers. As for Economic Power, all Mainland Chinese groups and older Euro-American and Japanese tourists were viewed more positively than others, especially young travellers. However, younger tourists from Mainland, Taiwan and Euro-America were considered pleasure seekers more interested in experiential consumption (e.g., dining or participating in events) and more willing to pay for new experiences rather than luxury goods. To sum up, Mainland Chinese tourists were stereotyped as the most negative in terms of Civility and Travel Behaviour, with only strong purchasing power acknowledged. Japanese and Euro-American tourists were stereotyped as the most positive groups, with merely scattered negative comments in all three dimensions.

INSERT TABLE 5

The three dimensions and associated constructs were then applied to the MDS map to check their efficacy in distinguishing the tourist groups and clusters. By analysing the spatial locations, it is apparent that dimension 1 represents Travel Behaviour, dimension 2 refers to Civility, and dimension 3 indicates Economic power. When examining dimension 2 in Figure 1, the height of vertical lines below each point represents the level of Civility and thus the 14 groups are evenly distributed on both sides of the origin – this pattern is consistent with the positive/negative evaluations these groups received as shown in Table 5. Similarly, on dimension 3, the wealthier tourist groups or those with stronger purchasing power are located in the right-side while the younger, independent tourist groups having weaker purchasing power are located in the left-side of the space.

4. STUDY 2

4.1 Storytelling Method

Mair (1989) proposed that storytelling is another personal construct elicitation approach that Kelly had employed but was largely ignored by his followers adopting RGT. Epting, Probert, and Pittman (1993) detailed storytelling method in RGT to elicit personal and interpersonal constructions and stated that this method can "provide contextual elaborations and applications of an individual's constructs, situating them in the social context within which they were forged" (p. 94). Lyons and Kashima (2006) further suggested that biases consistent with common stereotypes would emerge when individuals reproduce a story from memory. The storytelling method was thus adopted in Study 2 as a free recall task to collect residents' realistic encounters with tourists, thereby revealing the accessible stereotype

content that residents apply to tourists in reality. In this paper, Study 2 is primarily used to verify the findings of Study 1, thus we will only report the summative analysis results according to the coding frame of Study 1, rather than elaborating the stepwise coding process and interview excerpts. It is worth emphasizing that no new tourist stereotype content beyond the three dimensions were found in Study 2. Storytellers' emotional and behavioural responses toward the stereotyped tourists were also analysed to disclose the predictability of tourist stereotype content. Each participant was invited to share at least three stories about noteworthy behaviours or incidents they had encountered that involved Mainland Chinese, Asian, and/or Euro-American tourists in Hong Kong. Probing questions focused on details of the stories, including time, place, characteristics of the people involved, their interpretation of tourists' behaviour and resulting responses.

Procedure and Participants

Individual in-depth interviews were conducted by a HK-born, Cantonese-speaking research associate with 20 permanent residents of HK, selected purposefully or through a snowball sampling. Interviewees included 14 females and 6 males, aged between 21 and 59, with one-quarter working in the tourism industry. During the interview, elaboration was encouraged using such narrative devices as "then what happened?" and "go ahead" to prompt further story-like communication. Flexible follow-up questions were also asked to investigate informants' attribution of the tourist(s)' behaviour, as well as their emotional and behavioural responses. The average duration of the interviews was 30 minutes. All interviews were audio-recorded upon participants' permission, and then transcribed verbatim in standard written Chinese by a research company based in Shenzhen, China. The transcriber is fluent in both Cantonese and Mandarin.

Two analysts engaged in the content analysis of all collected stories, following a deductive approach with a structured matrix (Eo & Kyngäs, 2008). A categorization matrix was firstly developed based on Study 1 findings (see Table 6), and then both analysts coded the data separately according to the agreed bipolar categorises. Because of the prior agreement on the categorization matrix, there is little difference between the two analysts' results. Slight differences in frequencies was quickly resolved after contrasting the findings and discussion with the project leader. A 100% inter-coder agreement was thus achieved for Study 2.

4.2 Story Analysis Results

Informants provided 97 stories about personal interactions with tourists. Of which, 61.9% of the stories (n = 60) were negative, 25.8% (n = 25) were positive, and 12.4% (n = 12) were neutral. Table 6 demonstrates how the five tourist groups were stereotyped by local participants from the three tourist stereotype content dimensions, and the resulting emotional and behavioural responses.

INSERT TABLE 6

From the frequencies of bipolar evaluations, all participants described/evaluated tourists from the Civility dimension, indicating the most accessible domain when residents stereotyping tourists. The next accessible dimension is Travel Behaviour, highlighting the specificity of the stereotyped social group in this study – tourists – who exhibit unique

features or engage in travel-specific behaviours, such as becoming more curious and liberated, or less restrained (Jafari, 1987). The least accessible dimension is Economic Power; and it seems that only Mainland Chinese tourists have impressed HK residents by their strong purchasing power (Chen et al., 2018), not all tourist groups could attract the attention of their hosts in this regard. Furthermore, the polarized comments received by each tourist group show that Mainland Chinese and Korean tourists impressed HK residents most negatively in both Civility and Travel Behaviour, while Japanese were the most positive group, with Euro-Americans having the most ambivalent stereotypes. This finding is consistent with the RGT results in Study 1. It is worth noting that most tourist groups' stereotypes were mixed among the three dimensions – none was perceived by the host community as purely positive or negative; thus supporting hypothesis 2 of Stereotype Content Model. For example, strong Economic Power was more prevalent in descriptions of Mainland Chinese who were stereotyped poorly in Civility and Travel Behaviour. South(east) Asian tourists were considered enthusiastic and friendly, but with relatively low Economic Power.

The results are also consistent with social psychological research demonstrating relations between stereotype content and emotional/behavioural reactions (Cuddy et al., 2007). Generally speaking, negative tourist stereotype traits made local residents feel unpleasant, contempt or disappointed, even disgusted or angry; corresponding behavioural responses include active/passive harm, passive facilitation due to professional ethics, or doing nothing as an observer. Positive tourist stereotype traits could make residents feel pleasant even appreciative, thus provide active or passive facilitation. However, some slight differences can be observed from HK residents' emotional and behavioural responses to tourists from different source markets. For example, they appreciated and admired Euro-American and Japanese tourists, but felt surprised when seeing Mainland tourists behave well. They also reported discontent with the strong consumption power of Mainlanders because of a perceived mismatch between economic status and civility. Additionally, HK residents tended to offer Mainland tourists help only when being requested, but were more likely to proactively help Euro-American and Japanese tourists. This suggests the impact of overall stereotypes on residents' emotional and behavioural reactions is far greater than the influence of specific stereotype dimensions, which supports Tung et al.'s (2020) conclusion that although residents may distinguish between tourist and general stereotypes, their views are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

Although residents may have multiple stereotypes available in memory, a correspondence between stereotype content and emotional/behavioural responses might be apparent only for those stereotype domains that are most accessible. In this study, greater accessibility of tourists' Civility implies that the perceived Civility level can determine, to a great extent, residents' emotional and behavioural reactions to a specific tourist group. Tourists who deviate from expected Civility might incur negative consequences by residents. Travel Behaviour or Economic Power alone does not appear to sufficient in determining the polarity of overall TS and residents' reactions. The two less accessible dimensions are likely to moderate the relations between overall TS and resident responses. For instance, residents' emotional responses toward tourists who are uncivilized but can bring economic benefits may remain negative, but may lead to more tolerant behavioural responses.

5. GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Dimension, Accessibility and Consequences of Tourist Stereotype Content

Although the methods of two studies vary in purpose and implementation, they are underpinned by the same Personal Construct Theory. The two studies not only complement each other, but also facilitate results cross-validation. Study 1 adopted a cued recall (i.e., RGT) to elicit an exhaustive set of tourist stereotype constructs that is available and relevant to the participants, thereby identifying three common dimensions of tourist stereotypes – Civility, Travel Behaviour, and Economic Power. Study 2 employed a free, unaided recall to validate the three dimensions identified in Study 1 and examine the accessibility of each dimension and the consequences of stereotyping tourists.

This is the first study employing RGT to identify the content and structure of tourist stereotypes. RGT provides a semi-structured approach to qualitatively and quantitatively explore tourist stereotype content in a systematic manner that differs from the common approach of using structured questionnaires developed without a meaningful investigation into the relevance of items under study. In previous phenomenological studies on tourist stereotypes, attributes were mostly collected from ethnographic observation of tourists (e.g., Brewer, 1984; Sheldon & Var, 1984), whereas this study used a full-context RGT to elicit residents' constructs of tourist stereotypes through a repetitive comparison of multiple tourist groups. The efficacy of RGT is represented in the resulting 25 unique, subordinate constructs and the three superordinate dimensions, which tap all the information available from participants about previously learned tourist stereotypes. The elicited constructs present an exhaustive set of tourist stereotype attributes based on participants' own vocabulary, accounting for HK residents' stereotypes of various tourist groups. Moreover, the common dimensions generated from elicited constructs are capable of simultaneously categorizing and discriminating between the tourist groups under scrutiny (Pike, 2003). The hierarchically organized construct system supports Kelly's proposition that subordinate constructs are more concrete and represent a specific application, while superordinate constructs are abstract in nature and can be applied more widely (Walker & Winter, 2007). Each superordinate construct (i.e., the three dimensions of tourist stereotypes) encompasses a construct subsystem, within which strong interrelationships exist, while there are relatively few links between this and other construct subsystems (Coshall, 2000).

The Civility dimension is exposed to be the primary and most accessible construct. This dimension echoes the call for adding a new "morality" dimension to Stereotype Content Model (Brambilla & Leach, 2014). Poppe and Linssen (1999) discovered two dimensions, competence and morality, for the content of nationality stereotypes. Wojciszke (2005) also reported a dimension of "morality" in his study on personal perception process. Both studies claimed that impressions/evaluations of others were more strongly influenced by morality than competence-related information, and this dimension of "morality" might be even more essential in a Confucius cultural background setting, such as China. The current study provides additional evidence for this conclusion – Civility is the primary and most accessible criterion for residents to evaluate or profile tourists, and residents' evaluation of tourists' Civility can accurately predict their responses: polite and cultivated tourists are welcome while impolite visitors are unwanted.

The next accessible dimension, Travel Behaviour, highlights the features and activities that belonged to a special social group, tourists, as well as the impacts they brought to host communities. Since residents can also share this group identity when leaving their home community and becoming tourists, their stereotypes of touristic activities/behaviours inevitably involve their own likes or dislikes as tourists. For instance, many participants reported an appreciation or envy of the tourists who can travel freely and enjoy the world and life, but expressed a regret or even despise to tourists who only engage in superficial sightseeing. Some residents also showed a mix of admiration and sympathy with young,

independent travellers who know how to enjoy travelling but sometimes cannot afford preferred activities. Rich, hidden emotions could be extracted from residents' seemingly "objective" evaluation of tourists' travel style. Additionally, residents showed great concern about various impacts caused by visitors on their communities. A common, consistent sentiment observed from residents is that tourists who disturb the lives of local people are definitely unwelcome. Particularly, the attributes of "going native" and "respecting/appreciating local culture" were emphasized by participants as an important indicator to distinguish tourists they appreciate/welcome from those they dislike, conveying a strong desire for tourists to recognize their unique cultural identity (Cheung, 1999).

The least accessible but unneglectable dimension is Economic Power, due to the economic nature of tourism activities and the economic exchange relationship between tourists and hosts (Bimonte & Punzo, 2016). This dimension effectively buffers the harmful resident responses caused by negative evaluations of tourists' Civility or Travel Behaviour. Residents showed a certain level of tolerance for tourists who have contributed to local economy regardless of their misbehaviour. This is roughly consistent with previous research findings on resident perceptions of tourism – residents are inclined to support tourism development and welcome tourists when their perceived benefits outweigh the perceived costs, as the Social Exchange Theory suggests (Ap, 1992).

The findings lend support to some of the stereotype attributes/dimensions identified by previous studies on tourist stereotyping, such as Brewer's (1984) consumption style, Kim et al.'s (2020) financial capacity and tourist responsibility, as well as Tung et al.'s (2020) rude. But the three common dimensions identified here are not limited to a certain group/type of tourists, and can be generalized to a broader population because they were extracted from the analysis of multiple tourist groups. Using the common tourist stereotype content dimensions, any group of tourists can be positioned on the same tourist stereotype map to predict perceivers' responses and elicit management strategies.

Utilizing the three general dimensions, HK residents provided a clear portrait of "ideal tourists"– warm and polite, respecting/appreciating local people and culture, easy to communicate and open-minded, having certain economic power but not involved in bulk or wild shopping. Older Euro-American and Japanese tourists represent such tourists, while Mainland package tourists represent the opposite stereotypes. Moreover, the five ethnic groups mentioned by the storytellers in Study 2 can be distinguished by the three dimensions, forming three distinct clusters – Mainland Chinese and Korean tourists were stereotyped negatively in Civility and Travel Behaviour but positively in Economic Power; Japanese and Euro-American tourists were stereotyped positively in all three dimensions but with increasingly more inconsistent exemplars; South(east) Asian tourists were stereotyped positively in Civility or Travel Behaviour, but negatively in Economic Power. All clusters reflected mixed stereotypes – high on some dimension(s) but low on other(s). No tourist group was perceived negatively in all three dimensions. These ambivalent tourist stereotypes well support the second hypothesis of Stereotype Content Model (Fiske et al., 1999). In addition, the judgement of Civility could determine the polarity of residents' emotional and behavioural tendencies toward the tourists while evaluations of Travel Behaviour and Economic Power could not decide but only moderate residents' responses. This may explain the finding that residents' active and passive harmful behaviour (e.g., explicitly or implicitly asking tourists to correct behaviours or apologize, refusing to help) can only be observed in stories involving Mainland and Korean tourists. Moreover, four combinations of *high/low Civility* and *high/low Economic Power* judgements lead to three types of emotions (no group was perceived as low in both dimensions) – pleasant and appreciation, disdain, unpleasant and

discontent/angry, which then result in behavioural tendencies ranged from facilitation to harm and doing nothing. The third hypothesis of Stereotype Content Model was also supported.

5.2 Implications, Limitations and Future Research Direction

The findings of this paper made an innovative contribution to tourism literature on residents stereotyping tourists, an area that has not received adequate research attention. In particular, an identification of the common dimensions of tourist stereotype content allows researchers to compare various types/groups of tourists on a shared stereotyping map. The stereotype content map provides valuable groundwork for further studies on residents' responses to tourists and tourist-host interactions. Additionally, RGT was used to elicit tourist stereotypes based on the participants' own vocabulary, allowing for a systematic elicitation and evaluation of personal constructs that comprise residents' cognitive structures, and also enabling a graphic representation of the analysis results.

Findings also provide the industry with valuable information by identifying the most important and accessible dimensions of tourist stereotype content from residents' perspective. These dimensions indicate how residents differentiate various tourist groups and form their corresponding responses. As destinations eager to restart their tourism industry after the devastating effect of the COVID-19 pandemic, results of this study provide insights to tourism planning and management, because stereotypes facilitate the prediction of resident sentiment toward tourists, so that destination management organizations (DMOs) can better coordinate and manage host-guest relation for more socially sustainable development. The information can also provide policymakers and DMOs with fresh perspectives, to more effectively communicate with residents as well as inspire better marketing and development strategies. For instance, HK should increase marketing efforts to Euro-American and Japanese markets and focus on stimulating their consumptions. Similarly, findings can be communicated to the negatively stereotyped tourists tactfully, stimulating their self-reflection and behavioural change if appropriate. Finally, the traveling public should be made aware that intercultural competence is essential for being popular tourists, because those with high intercultural competence and good communication skills represent "ideal" guests in the eyes of residents.

There are two key limitations to this study. First, as an initial effort of defining tourist stereotypes, the study is of an exploratory nature and findings need further validation. The interpretation of tourist stereotype content dimensions is largely based on a descriptive analysis. To fully implement the RGT, participants should rate/score each tourist group by using the three identified dimensions. Therefore, the three dimensions need to be tested in a large-scale survey, which can also quantitatively examine the influence of tourist stereotype content on residents' emotional and behavioural responses toward the stereotyped tourists. Results of Study 2 on accessibility of stereotype content dimensions also prompt further examination of the moderating role of accessibility in the relation between tourist stereotypes and residents' responses. Second, the sample was limited to a specific host community due to time and resource constraints. Research team members are all ethnically Chinese and have being living in Hong Kong for many years, thus can be viewed as "insiders" to the investigated community, even though we come from different socio-cultural and political backgrounds. The insider positionality in terms of language ability and cultural identity ensures a better representation of participants (Bakas, 2017), but detailed insider knowledge could also lead to the inability to see a bigger picture outside of the Chinese perspective. Therefore, whether the three dimensions of tourist stereotypes can be generalized to other host communities remains unclear. The study needs to be replicated in other locations of varying

socio-cultural contexts, such as European, American, African, or Caribbean destinations, to test the external validity of findings. In addition, considering the impact of recent unsettling events (i.e., political unrest and the global pandemic), replicating this study in Hong Kong is also valuable, to examine the stability of these content dimensions and tourist groups' positions on the stereotype map.

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Table 1.

Respondent Profile of Study 1

Demographics (N = 234)			Percentage	HK Census Mid-2019
Gender	Male	115	49.1%	45.6%
	Female	119	50.9%	54.4%
Age	18-24	54	23.1%	9.3%
	25-34	49	20.9%	13.9%
	35-44	49	20.9%	15.6%
	45-54	40	17.1%	15.5%
	55 and above	42	17.9%	33.8%
Education Level	Secondary school and below	81	34.6%	58.3%
	Diploma / Certificate	24	10.3%	3.7%
	Sub-degree	15	6.4%	6.4%
	Degree	114	48.7%	31.6%
Monthly Household Income (HK$)	19,999 and below	40	17.1%	36.1%
	20,000–39,999	74	31.6%	27.4%
	40,000-59,999	63	27.0%	15.9%
	60,000 and above	57	24.4%	20.6%
Residential Area	Hong Kong Island	41	17.5%	16.8%
	Kowloon	68	29.1%	30.4%
	New Territory	125	53.4%	52.8%
Overseas Travel Experience	Never	12	5.1%	/
	Only once	10	4.3%	
	2-5 times	32	13.7%	
	Above 5 times	180	76.9%	

Table 2.

Most Similar Tourist Groups

14 Tourist Groups			
1	Older Mainland Chinese on package tours (COPT)	8	Younger Japanese travelling independently (JYIT)
2	Younger Mainland Chinese on package tours (CYPT)	9	Older Euro-Americans travelling independently (EAOIT)
3	Younger Mainland Chinese travelling independently (CYIT)	10	Younger Euro-Americans travelling independently (EAYIT)
4	Older Mainland Chinese travelling independently (COIT)	11	Older Euro-Americans on package tours (EAOPT)
5	Older Korean on package tours (KOPT)	12	Older Taiwanese on package tours (TOPT)
6	Younger Korean travelling independently (KYIT)	13	Younger Taiwanese travelling independently (TYIT)
7	Older Japanese on package tours (JOPT)	14	Older Taiwanese travelling independently (TOIT)

Triads (Three Similar Tourist Groups)				The Frequency of triad selected
[1]	1	2	4	**50**
[2]	9	10	11	**44**
[3]	6	8	13	**41**
[4]	1	2	3	**37**
[5]	1	3	4	**35**
[6]	8	10	13	**28**
[7]	12	13	14	**22**
[8]	6	10	13	**17**
[9]	1	5	12	**15**
[10]	3	6	13	**15**
[11]	3	8	13	**13**
[12]	2	3	4	**13**
[13]	7	8	13	**12**
[14]	3	10	13	**11**
[15]	5	7	12	**11**
[16]	7	11	12	**11**
[17]	1	4	12	**10**
[18]	1	4	5	**10**
[19]	3	6	8	**9**
[20]	6	8	10	**9**
[21]	4	9	14	**9**
[22]	5	7	11	**8**
[23]	7	8	9	**8**
[24]	8	9	10	**8**

Table 3.

Stress and RSQ Values for One- to Four-Dimension Solutions

Solution	Stress	RSQ values
One-dimension	0.43	0.44
Two-dimension	0.21	0.69
Three-dimension	0.12	0.84
Four-dimension	0.06	0.94
Five-dimension	0.04	0.97

Table 4.

Attributes and Content Dimensions of Tourist Stereotypes

Dimensions	Categories	Elicited Constructs *(bipolar descriptors)*	Absolut freq.	% freq.
Civility (547'; 59.5%)	**Manners (318')**	▪ Politeness (*polite-impolite*)	117	12.72
		▪ Speech & Deportment (*refined-robust; quiet - noisy/loud*)	94	10.22
		▪ Attitude (*friendly/kind - arrogant*)	49	5.33
		▪ Personality (*generous-selfish, impetuous-placid*)	27	2.93
		▪ Civility (*civilized-uncivilized*)	22	2.39
		▪ Etiquette/courtesy (*courteous-discourteous*)	9	0.98
	Public Virtue (120')	▪ Social morality (*obeying - violating*)	63	6.85
		▪ Compliance (*obeying /violating local rules/custom; ruly-unruly*)	49	5.33
		▪ Character/Moral conduct (*good - bad*)	8	0.87
	Educational Level (109')	▪ Multi-lingual skill (*high - low*)	32	3.48
		▪ Knowledge & Competence (*well-educated - uneducated; knowledgeable/informed - uninformed*)	31	3.37
		▪ Hygiene awareness (*cleanly/tidy - frowzy*)	25	2.72
		▪ Man of culture (*cultivated - uncultivated*)	21	2.28
Travel Behaviour (292'; 32%)	**Tourist Activity (193')**	▪ Travel mode (*psychocentric - allocentric*)	83	9.02
		▪ Travel preference & activity	45	4.89
		▪ Destination exploration (*exploratory - conventional; immersive - superficial*)	38	4.13
		▪ Travel motivation/purpose	17	1.85
		▪ Mind-set (*energetic, active, curious, adventurous*)	10	1.09
	Intrusiveness (99')	▪ Impact on local community (*intrusive - unintrusive; welcome - unwelcome*)	34	3.70
		▪ Going native (*appreciative - inappreciative*)	30	3.26
		▪ Respecting local people/culture (*respectful-disrespectful*)	22	2.39
		▪ Communication with locals (*easy/like - difficult/dislike; sociable - unsociable*)	13	1.41
Economic Power (81'; 9%)	**Consumption Style (74')**	▪ Consumption power (*high/strong – low/weak; buying luxury*)	43	4.67
		▪ Shopping/purchasing (*keen interest – uninterested; bulk shopping*)	31	3.37
	Wealth (7')	▪ Affluence (*rich - ordinary*)	7	0.76
Total			**920**	**100.00**

Table 5.

Tourist Group Evaluation based on the Three Bipolar Stereotype Content Dimensions

Stereotype Content \ Tourist Groups	COPT	CYPT	CYIT	COIT	KOPT	KYIT	JOPT	JYIT	EAOIT	EAYIT	EAOPT	TOPT	TYIT	TOIT
Civility [Uncivilized - Civilized] (incl. politeness, speech and deportment, attitude, social normality, compliance, skills, knowledge & competence, cultivation etc.)	278	185	141	228	58	10	5	1	4	6	4	39	19	11
	3	4	8	1	32	81	91	154	112	128	94	62	154	53
Travel Behavior [Conservative - Exploratory] (incl. travel mode and preference, tourist activity, destination exploration, intrusiveness, respect/appreciate local culture & people, go native and communicative etc.)	119	65	72	73	34	7	19	8	9	13	21	18	4	5
	15	13	72	20	28	83	54	124	76	107	56	31	141	31
Economic Power [Weak - Strong] (incl. consumption style, purchasing power, and wealth etc.)	3	1	3	2	6	3	7	4	7	9	2	2	10	4
	55	29	42	52	9	11	30	15	23	15	16	16	20	11
Times of being selected	230	139	194	167	108	138	140	192	127	157	112	106	214	82

Note: The numbers indicate the frequency of the content dimensions evaluated for each tourist group. The red and green colours represent negative and positive comments respectively.

Table 6.

Content and Consequences of Tourist Stereotypes

	Stereotype Content			Emotional Responses	Behavioural Responses*
	Civility	Travel Behaviour	Economic Power	e.g., Pleasant - Unpleasant	AF-PF; AH-PH; DN
Mainland Chinese Tourists (n = 57)	8	5	19	Surprised; Pleasant; Discontent	AF; PF; DN
	51	20	3	Unpleasant; Angry; Disgust; Disdain	AH; PH; DN; PF
Euro-American Tourists (n = 19)	10	8	2	Appreciative; Pleasant	AF
	9	5	3	Surprised/disappointed; Unpleasant; Humiliated; Disdain	PF; DN
Japanese Tourists (n = 11)	9	3	1	Appreciative; Pleasant	AF
	3	1	1	Surprised; Unpleasant	PF; DN
Korean Tourists (n = 5)	1	/	/	Pleasant	PF
	4	2		Surprised; Unpleasant; Angry	PH; DN
South(east) Asian Tourists (n = 5)	3	4	/	Pleasant	PF
	2	1	2	Disdain	PF

Note: *The numbers indicate the frequency of mentions of each bipolar TS content dimension for respective tourist group. The green and red colours represent positive and negative comments respectively.*

* *AF/PF – active/passive facilitation; AH/PH – active/passive harm; DN – do nothing.*

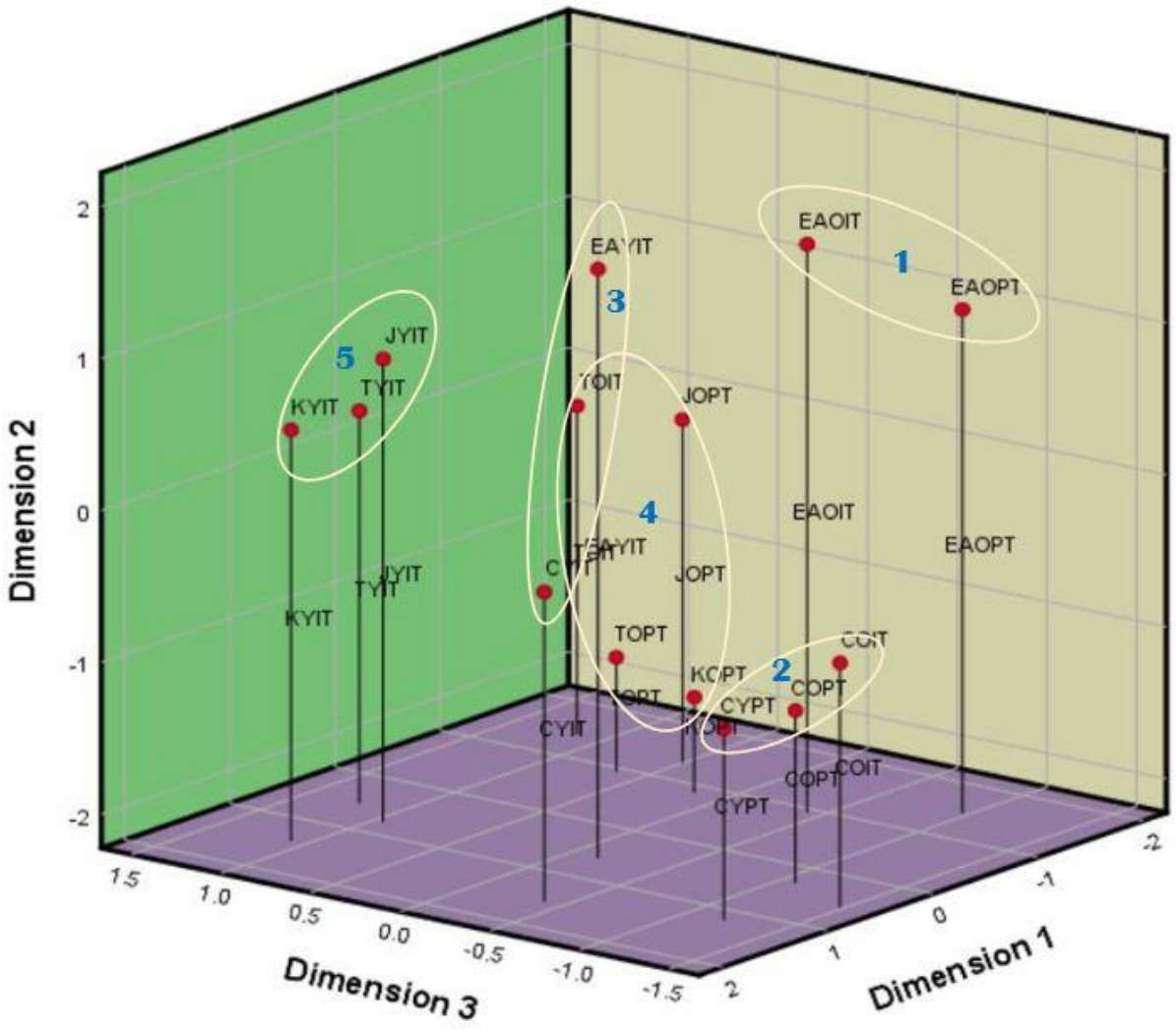

Figure 1. **Tourist Stereotyping Space - MDS Solution based on Three Potential Dimensions**