The Stereotype–Emotion–Interaction Relationship: A Tourist–Resident Dual Perspective

Abstract:

Tourist–resident interactions are essential for determining the social dynamics and sustainability of destinations, but their formation mechanisms from both perspectives are lacking. Based on the behaviours from inter-group affect and stereotypes map and social identity theory, through two surveys, this study explored the relationship between stereotypes, emotions, and interactive behavioural intentions. It also examined the moderating effect of social identity on the relationship between emotions and interactive behavioural intentions. The results demonstrated different mechanisms for interactive behavioural intention formation across people with different social identities and between Mainland Chinese tourists and Hong Kong residents. Moreover, social identity exerted different moderating effects on the relationship between positive and negative emotional pathways, highlighting the importance of emotional valence in the stereotype–interaction link. This study offers a reciprocal view to understand tourist–resident interactions at destinations and provides insightful implications for destination management organisations, tourism operators, and local communities.

Keywords: tourist–resident relationship; stereotype; emotion; social identity; social interaction

Introduction

Tourist–resident relationships play a crucial role in determining destinations' social sustainability (Hsu & Chen, 2019). Theories of social interaction (e.g. Echeverri & Skålen, 2011) suggest that actors interact with each other to create value in various social practices. Therefore, social interactions are an important catalyst for fostering tourist–resident relationships (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). With increased travel accessibility, growing concerns about tourist–resident conflicts, tourists' disrespect for local norms, and residents' discrimination against tourists have been recorded (Chen, Hsu, & Li, 2018). In some destinations, especially those with overtourism, tourists and residents experience hostile emotions towards each other, which lead to irritating contact experiences, social conflicts, and reduced social tolerance and acceptance within the destination community (Zhang et al., 2017). In inter-group social interactions, individuals' beliefs about and expectations from the out-group can influence emotion formation and behavioural tendencies towards the out-group (Stephan & Stephan, 1996). For example, when residents view tourists as disrespectful and disruptive, they may oppose tourism development (Sharpley, 2014), as is evident in destinations such as Venice in Italy and Barcelona in Spain. Conversely, if tourists perceive residents as unwelcoming and unfriendly, they may avoid visiting certain areas (Reisinger & Turner, 2003) and boycott destinations (Seyfi et al., 2024; Su, Jia, & Huang, 2022), such as Hong Kong in China (Luo & Zhai, 2017). Although the outcomes of inter-group interactions depend on the joint efforts of both groups, most studies have examined this interactive phenomenon from the residents' (e.g. Chen, Cottam, & Lin, 2020; Chen & Hsu, 2021; Kim, Duffy, & Moore, 2023; Tse & Tung, 2022a, 2022b) or tourists' (e.g. Lin, Gao, & Tian, 2022; Tu, Zhang, & Jiang, 2023)

viewpoints but not both simultaneously. This underscores the need to understand how tourists and residents holding existing impressions of each other interact in the tourism context from a reciprocal perspective to cultivate positive tourist–resident social interactions and foster social sustainability at destinations.

Studies on tourist–resident relationships have garnered considerable attention from the tourism industry, destination communities, and academics. For example, the social exchange theory argues that tourists' and residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of social interactions are key factors that shape their relationships with each other (Ap, 1992; Fan, 2023). Through social interactions, tourists and locals recognise several advantages and drawbacks, which influence their behaviours and overall attitudes towards each other (Chen et al., 2018). From the residents' perspective, if the perceived benefits outweigh the costs, hosts are likely to support tourism development; however, if the costs are greater, they may develop a negative attitude (Ap, 1992; Ritchie & Inkari, 2006). The application of the social exchange theory implies that developing a reciprocal tourist–resident relationship is essential for long-term tourism development (Kim, Duffy, & Moore, 2023; Zhang et al., 2025). Regarding the contact between tourists and residents, Allport (1979) stated that inter-group contact can mitigate prejudice between groups if the interaction occurs under specific circumstances, including an equal standing, cooperation, shared goals, and support from authorities.

Although the social exchange theory established a solid foundation for understanding the tourist–resident relationship, its simplistic nature offers limited insights into groups' existing impressions of each other and how such 'stereotypes' influence inter-group interactions. Stereotypes act as perceptual lenses through which people form and regulate their emotions, attitudes, and behaviours during interactions (Fan & Jia, 2023). The behaviours from inter-group affect and stereotypes (BIAS) map provides insights for predicting, preventing, or intervening in diverse forms of prejudice and discrimination (Guan, 2009). Following the tripartite attitudinal structure, the BIAS map integrates the behavioural outcomes of stereotypes and associated emotions in social interactions and proposes a framework that contains cognition, affect, and conation components (Cuddy et al., 2007). In tourism studies, Tse and Tung (2022b) and Micevski, Diamantopoulos, and Erdbrügger (2021) explored the tourist–resident relationship and destination branding by integrating stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours. While these studies offer initial insights, a comprehensive understanding of tourist–resident interactions must examine both tourists' and residents' perspectives and the causal pathway from stereotypes to emotions to behaviours.

Moreover, the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) explains how group sentiments are generated from the psychological mechanism of 'social categorisation–social identification–social comparison' (Chen, Li & Ma, 2025). When in-group members perceive themselves as part of a larger, more inclusive group rather than belonging to two entirely separate groups, they are more likely to have positive attitudes towards out-group members (Ye et al., 2014). Despite its relevance, research on the role of social identity in inter-group interactions in the context of tourism remains limited. Few studies have examined how social identity influences the development of inter-group behaviours. To address these gaps in understanding tourist–resident interactions, two surveys were conducted with Hong Kong residents and Mainland Chinese tourists, aiming to: examine the

impact of stereotypes on emotions and intentions in tourist–resident interactions; as well as to investigate the moderating effect of social identity on the relationship between emotions and interactive behavioural intentions from both groups' perspectives. Building on the BIAS map and social identity theory, this study elucidates the connotations of stereotypes and interactive behavioural intentions from tourists' and residents' perspectives and the role of social identity in tourist–resident interactions. Theoretically, it challenges the assumption of a uniform moderating effect and highlights the importance of considering emotional valence in models of inter-group relations. This nuanced perspective advances the BIAS map and social identity theory, suggesting that the mechanisms through which social identity shapes behaviour are more complex and context dependent than previously documented. Furthermore, the findings offer valuable implications for destination management and community development and propose strategies to mitigate negative social impacts and promote social sustainability in tourism destinations.

Literature Review

Stereotypes

Over the last five decades, researchers in social psychology and related fields have investigated the processes by which stereotypes are learned, activated, utilised, and changed over time (Fiske & Tablante, 2015). Stereotypes explain observed behaviours by attributing certain innate traits to the individuals or groups being observed (Yzerbyt, 2016). An early definition described stereotypes as 'pictures in the head' (Yzerbyt, 2016). Although varied, most definitions of stereotypes focus on beliefs towards social groups, with some specifying their widely shared and inaccurate nature (Milner, 1983). A recent definition posits that stereotypes are individuals' beliefs and expectations regarding out-group members. These can be triggered spontaneously by the presentation of social cues (Wang & Yang, 2017). The nature of stereotypes can vary, and they may be accurate, inaccurate, positive, negative, or a combination of both (Chen & Hsu, 2021; Kanahara, 2006). Moreover, stereotypes shape how individuals interact with out-group members (Sinclair et al., 2005).

The content and dimensions of stereotypes have been focal topics in studies on stereotyping. Known as the 'Big Two', the stereotype content model formalised by Fiske et al. (2007) identified two dimensions of stereotypes: warmth and competence. Warmth reflects the perceived intent of group members and assumes precedence in people's representations (Abele & Wojciszke, 2014). It includes friendliness and trustworthiness. Competence concerns others' perceived ability to act on their intent and includes skills and assertiveness (Abele et al., 2008). Social targets are perceived to differ in warmth and competence; therefore, they fall into one of the four quadrants formed by combining these two dimensions (Yzerbyt, 2016). Furthermore, the warmth dimension is of primary importance and can predict active responses such as helping, protecting, attacking, and fighting. By contrast, the competence dimension is secondary and predicts more passive reactions such as associating and neglecting (Yzerbyt, 2016).

Stereotypes in tourism have been studied since the early 1980s. The stereotyping subjects in tourism research include places (destinations) and people. Shen et al. (2019) applied the warmth

and competence dimensions from the stereotype content model to destination image studies. They argued that tourists hold different stereotypes towards different destinations and that these stereotypes could influence their intention to visit. Furthermore, people are likely to share negative stereotypical beliefs about hostile or politically divided nations, and the negative effects of stereotyping are difficult to mitigate through travel experiences (Chen et al., 2016). Tourist stereotypes are defined as residents' preconceived notions about tourists (Tung, King, & Tse, 2020). Host residents frequently engage in tourist stereotyping because interactions between tourists and residents are typically short-lived and superficial (Chen & Hsu, 2021). Hsu and Chen (2019) developed a thorough conceptual framework, precisely outlining the interactions that occur in the process of residents attributing meaning to their encounters with tourists and the activation, application, suppression, and modification of tourist stereotypes. The content and dimensions of stereotypes in tourism differ from those in general settings (Chen & Hsu, 2021). For instance, according to Pi-Sunyer (1977), Catalans stereotyped English tourists as stiff, steady, socially distant, and having integrity. In a Mexican town, Brewer (1984) identified two kinds of tourist stereotypes: a 'general' stereotype referring to individuals' general traits that could explain the observed tourist behaviours and a 'specific' stereotype offering precise descriptions of tourists' needs in native–tourist interactions. Notably, while service providers' perceived economic benefits and individual positive contact can lead to positive attitudes, they are significantly offset by negative tourist stereotypes (Monterrubio, 2018). Tung et al. (2020) identified four dimensions of stereotypes held by Hong Kong residents towards Mainland Chinese tourists: competence, approachability, rudeness, and boasting. Chen and Hsu (2021) proposed three main dimensions: civility, travel behaviour, and economic power. These can be applied to a wider tourist population by analysing multiple tourist groups.

Emotions

The concept of emotion has long been investigated in neuroscience, philosophy, and psychology (Sander & Scherer, 2009). Emotion is defined as 'episodes of coordinated changes in several components in response to external or internal events of major significance to the organism' (Scherer, 2000, p. 138–139). According to Bagozzi et al. (1999), emotions are, at their core, mental states primed for action. They serve as the driving force that prompts individuals to act and have a significant impact on shaping human behaviour. Emotions are primarily measured by their valence and/or intensity (Russell, 1980; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The positive or negative valence of emotions is particularly useful in predicting individual behaviours (Nawijn & Biran, 2019). Early research advocated that positive and negative emotions are bipolar and mutually exclusive and cannot be felt at the same time (Babin, Darden, & Babin, 1998). Conversely, Larsen and McGraw (2011) and other scholars recently revealed that positive and negative emotions are processed independently and are unipolar, underscoring the existence of mixed emotions. Furthermore, although positive emotions generally occur more frequently, the influence of negative emotions may be more powerful than that of positive emotions (Nawijn & Biran, 2019).

Cognitive theories of emotion suggest that people's evaluations of their circumstances determine the type, intensity, and valence of their emotions. Emotions can be triggered by various factors, resulting in different consequences through various mechanisms. The stimulus–organism–response model explains how organismic components mediate the relationship between external stimuli and human behaviour (Buxbaum, 2016; Tuerlan, Li, & Scott, 2021). Emotions have been recognised as typical organisms in various studies (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Tuerlan et al. (2021) categorised 'emotion-arousing' stimuli into five types: built environment (e.g. architectural appearance, interior decoration, and layout), social environment (e.g. crowding), activities or products (e.g. picture taking and souvenir purchase), marketing stimuli (e.g. brand personality), and natural environment (e.g. air pollution).

As socially constructed beliefs, stereotypes are powerful antecedents of emotions. With compatriot travel as the context, Sun, Chien, Ritchie, and Pappu (2022) argued that the meta-stereotypes held by compatriot tourists depend on the level of their emotional solidarity with the destination residents. Holding a positive stereotype generates positive emotional expressions towards stereotyped groups (DePretis et al., 2021). Additionally, positive stereotypes can reduce negative emotions towards others (Rast et al., 2018; Vaughn, Teeters, Sadler, & Cronan, 2017). By contrast, negative stereotypes can induce negative emotions (Bedyńska & Zołnierczyk-Zreda, 2015). Tourism studies have examined the relationship between stereotypes and emotions, especially in the context of tourist–resident interactions. Using a multinational sample of residents from Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand, Tse and Tung (2022b) examined the influence of four dimensions of stereotypes on upward assimilative or downward contrastive emotions. Micevski et al. (2021) reported that country stereotypes of competence and warmth generate country-related emotions of admiration. Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H1a: Positive stereotypes positively influence positive emotions.

H1b: Negative stereotypes negatively influence positive emotions.

H2a: Positive stereotypes negatively influence negative emotions.

H2b: Negative stereotypes positively influence negative emotions.

Interactive behavioural intentions

Behavioural intentions are important in understanding individuals' future motives and behaviours (Afshardoost & Eshaghi, 2020) and refer to the tendency to engage in a particular behaviour in the future (Ajzen, 1991). When there is an opportunity to act, intention results in behaviour. Several intention studies have been conducted in the tourism context, including behavioural intentions, intentions to recommend, and intentions to visit and revisit (Afshardoost & Eshaghi, 2020). In tourist–resident interaction studies, behaviours have been thoroughly explored, with an emphasis on an individual's actions towards another. These actions are influenced by the individual's identity and corresponding stereotypes (Tajfel, 1984; Tse & Tung, 2022a). In Tse and Tung's (2022a) study, interactive behaviours between tourists and residents included facilitating behaviours, such as interacting and socialising, and harmful behaviours, such as yelling, mocking,

and disapproval. Chen, Hsu, and Pearce (2022) classified Hong Kong residents' behavioural responses towards Mainland Chinese tourists according to the four classes of discriminatory behavioural tendencies suggested by the BIAS map (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2007). First, active facilitation was demonstrated by providing help, satisfying needs, and engaging in more communication. Second, passive facilitation was reflected in welcoming, including, and associating with tourists. Third, active harm was reflected in refusing help or meeting requests, preventing or warning tourists about behaviours they considered inappropriate, and excluding and belittling tourists. Finally, passive harm involved deliberate avoidance—avoiding chatting or meeting with tourists. In this study, Hong Kong residents reported another behavioural tendency towards tourists that went beyond the BIAS map: doing nothing.

Emotions can influence visitors' and residents' behavioural intentions towards each other during various encounters (Akgu¨n et al., 2020; Ratnasari et al., 2021). For example, Yang et al. (2011) found that the emotional experiences of festival attendees positively impacted their behavioural intentions. Leri and Theodoridis (2019) emphasised that winery tourists' emotions can predict individuals' post-visit behavioural intentions. In the context of red tourism, Liu et al. (2021) and Liu and Teng (2021) demonstrated that tourists' sense of awe motivates their intentions for civilised tourism behaviour. Moreover, Hu and Sung (2022) contended that mixed (positive and negative) emotional experiences have a U-shaped influence on travel intentions. Tse and Tung (2022b) pointed out that positive emotions can enhance the likelihood of individuals exhibiting facilitative behaviours, whereas negative emotions can increase the likelihood of individuals showing harming behaviours. Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H3a: Positive emotions positively influence facilitating behavioural intentions.

H3b: Negative emotions negatively influence facilitating behavioural intentions.

H4a: Positive emotions negatively influence harming behavioural intentions.

H4b: Negative emotions positively influence harming behavioural intentions.

Extensive research supports the relationship between stereotypes and behavioural intentions. Stereotypes encapsulate socially shared beliefs about a particular group—in this case, tourists or residents from specific countries or cultural backgrounds or with specific behavioural patterns. Depending on the stereotypes held, people develop different behavioural intentions towards out-groups (Fan & Jia, 2023). When individuals have negative appraisals of a potential interaction group (i.e. negative stereotypes), they are less likely to interact with that group (Vorauer et al., 2000). Conversely, if people hold positive stereotypes towards a group, they are more likely to behave positively and in a friendly manner towards that group (Stathi et al., 2020). Gajić et al. (2023) stated that tourists' stereotypes of residents could influence their revisit intentions. Tse (2020) investigated how residents' stereotypes of tourists influence residents' behavioural responses. Tse and Tung (2022b) clarified that positive stereotypes encourage facilitating behaviours, whereas negative stereotypes lead to harming behaviours. Therefore, individuals are expected to respond positively to positive and negatively to negative stereotypes. Thus, H5 and H6 were proposed:

H5a: Positive stereotypes positively influence facilitating behavioural intentions.

H5b: Negative stereotypes negatively influence facilitating behavioural intentions.

H6a: Positive stereotypes negatively influence harming behavioural intentions.

H6b: Negative stereotypes positively influence harming behavioural intentions.

Moderating role of social identity in the relationship between emotions and behavioural intentions

People seek identification with reference to others, which serves as the highlight of similarities with some groups and differences from others (Palmer, Koenig-Lewis, & Jones, 2013). Social identity pertains to individuals' self-concept and is shaped by their awareness of and belonging to social group(s) as well as the value and emotional importance associated with this membership (Tajfel, 1978). According to the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), when two groups share common identities, instead of belonging to two completely distinct groups, they tend to exhibit more favourable attitudes towards out-group members (Ye et al., 2014). Individuals from diverse backgrounds interact across three stages: 'social categorisation—social identification—social comparison' (Chen, Li, & Ma, 2025). Social categorisation refers to individuals' tendency to classify themselves and others into distinct social groups based on various attributes. Regarding social identification, individuals adopt the identity of their respective groups and begin to embrace their norms, values, and behaviours. During social comparison, individuals compare their own group with other groups, potentially resulting in biased in-group favouritism. Additionally, people tend to exhibit greater empathy towards the suffering of in-group members than out-group members (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). When individuals perceive a smaller cultural distance between themselves and another group, they tend to display more favourable attitudes towards members of that group (Ye et al., 2013, 2014).

The role of social identity in general social interactions has also been examined. Studies have explored the interplay between identity, emotion, and behaviour in social interactions (Heise, 2007). They underscore how individuals use culturally shared linguistic categories to interpret the expectations of social groups and guide their emotional and behavioural responses (Rogers, Schröder, & Scholl, 2013). Individuals' behaviours are shaped by emotions, perceptions, and the identities and roles they occupy within specific social situations (MacKinnon & Heise, 2010). As Chien and Ritchie (2018) argued, incorporating the social identity theory into tourism studies offers a comprehensive framework for understanding tourist–resident dynamics and uncovering the causes and effects of their interactions. Tourism impact studies have shown that residents' social identity influences their advocacy of tourism development (Palmer et al., 2013). When the interacting parties share a more inclusive social identity, it can promote the mutual formation of positive attitudes (Gaertner et al., 1993). Chen, Hsu, and Li (2018) developed the 'social categorisation–social identification–social comparison' cyclic psychological mechanism from Hong Kong residents' perspective to explain the formation of resident attitudes and collective sentiments. Ye et al. (2014) posited that perceived similarities in social identity between tourists

and residents influence residents' attitudes and behaviours towards tourists and overall attitudes towards tourism development. However, only few studies have delved into the impact of social identity on tourists' perceptions and behaviours at destinations (Adam, Agyeiwaah, & Dayour, 2021; Agyeiwaah et al. 2023).

Tourism studies have primarily focused on the direct effects of social identity, with its moderating effects remaining underexplored. In sports, group identity has been shown to moderate the relationship between emotions and behavioural intentions by influencing game and service satisfaction (Yim & Byon, 2018). Furthermore, emotional exhaustion can positively influence teachers' turnover intention, with their professional identity significantly moderating this effect (Wang et al., 2024). In the field of organisational behaviour and leadership, followers' emotions towards their leaders can influence their collective actions towards them, with this relationship being moderated by the group's shared identity (Tee, Paulsen, & Ashkanasy, 2013). Therefore, stronger social identity between interacting groups could amplify the effect of emotions on behavioural intentions. Hence, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H7a: The positive effect of positive emotions on facilitating behavioural intentions is stronger when social identity is higher.

H7b: The negative effect of positive emotions on harming behavioural intentions is stronger when social identity is higher.

H7c: The positive effect of negative emotions on harming behavioural intentions is weaker when social identity is higher.

H7d: The negative effect of negative emotions on facilitating behavioural intentions is weaker when social identity is higher.

Based on these hypotheses, the following research framework was developed (Figure 1).

Insert Figure 1 Here

Methodology

Research context

The context of this study was Mainland Chinese tourists visiting Hong Kong. Mainland tourists have been the dominant source market for Hong Kong, representing over 70% of visitor arrivals since 2012 (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2024). Although these tourists provide considerable economic advantages to Hong Kong, the influx of visitors has led to challenges such as rising consumer goods and property prices (Chow, 2012) and the overuse of public resources (Ye, Zhang, & Yuen, 2013). Tourists have developed a negative image of Hong Kong residents as hostile and arrogant towards them because of several incidents reported in Hong Kong and amplified via social media (Luo & Zhai, 2017). There have been ongoing discussions surrounding tourist–resident tensions, along with continued efforts to foster positive tourist–host contact in Hong Kong, thereby

setting a suitable context for studying tourist–resident mutual stereotypes–emotions–behaviours. While research has extensively explored Hong Kong residents' stereotypes of Mainland Chinese tourists, few studies have investigated Mainland Chinese tourists' stereotypes of Hong Kong residents. Therefore, this study aimed to collect survey data and assess both groups' stereotypes, emotions, and behavioural intentions towards each other to quantitatively examine the proposed research framework. Two studies using two separate survey questionnaires were conducted.

Measurement development and questionnaire design

Survey for Hong Kong residents

Using repertory grid and narrative analyses, Chen and Hsu (2021) identified three general dimensions—civility, travel behaviour, and economic power—and seven sub-dimensions of Hong Kong residents' tourist stereotypes towards Mainland Chinese tourists. Specifically, Hong Kong residents assessed tourists' civility based on three key factors: (1) manners (exhibited through their attitude, speech, and behaviour); (2) public virtues (reflected in their adherence to local rules and customs and their consideration for others); and (3) educational level (demonstrated by their knowledge, experience, and essential skills for independent travel). Residents assessed travel behaviour from two perspectives: observable tourist behaviours and activities (e.g. travel mode, preferences, and interests in local culture) and tourists' impact on local livelihoods. The economic power dimension focused on tourists' consumption styles and wealth. The survey of Hong Kong residents aimed to verify Chen and Hsu's (2021) exploratory findings on tourist stereotype content and dimensions. Hence, this survey adopted their 7 stereotype sub-dimensions and 37 corresponding measurement items. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

The emotional consequences of Hong Kong residents' stereotypes towards Mainland tourists were measured using 19 items (6 positive, 12 negative, and 1 neutral) derived from Chen et al. (2018), Chen et al. (2022), and the Geneva Emotion Wheel 3.0 (Scherer et al., 2013). Participants were asked to rate the intensity of each emotion they felt towards Mainland tourists on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely). The participants also reported other emotions that were not provided in the list. Behavioural intention was measured using the items developed by Chen and Hsu (2021). Respondents were asked to indicate the likelihood of undertaking each of the 20 actions towards Mainland tourists in Hong Kong on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely). Respondents' social identity was captured using the question, 'How do you define yourself?' The answers were adopted from Ye et al. (2014) and included Hong Konger, Hong Konger as well as Chinese, Chinese as well as Hong Konger, and Chinese.

Survey for Mainland Chinese tourists

Validated measurement scales for Mainland Chinese tourists' stereotypes towards Hong Kong residents are lacking, and stereotypes are highly context dependent (Chen & Hsu, 2021; Fiske et al., 2002). Therefore, this study followed the scale development procedure recommended by

Churchill (1979), which was refined in later studies (e.g. Hung & Petrick, 2010), including item generation and purification, dimensionality exploration and confirmation, and cross-validation. To develop appropriate measurement items, online semi-structured interviews (n = 27) were conducted with past and potential Mainland tourists in March 2021 by two research team members. Purposive and snowball sampling was employed until theoretical saturation was reached. This enabled the identification of diverse perspectives on how Mainland tourists perceive Hong Kong residents and the underlying rationale. The interview protocol included three main aspects: (1) participants' travel experiences to Hong Kong, (2) their perceptions of Hong Kong residents, and (3) the underlying reasons for these perceptions. Each interview was concluded by asking the participants to characterise Hong Kong residents using three key phrases in their own words. Participants' demographic information, including sex, age, education level, and occupation, was also collected. All interviews lasted for a minimum of 20 minutes and were subsequently transcribed for content analysis.

The 27 interviewees had a balanced sex profile with an age range of 25–69 years. Approximately 70% of the respondents had visited Hong Kong in the past few years. Two researchers independently conducted the content analysis, achieving 89% agreement on the coded items. After resolving discrepancies through discussions, 37 items were extracted from the interview transcripts, representing stereotypes of Mainland Chinese towards Hong Kong residents. The items were labelled based on the relevant literature (e.g. Chen & Hsu, 2021, Tung et al., 2020) to ensure comprehensiveness and enable cross-perspective comparisons before the panel review. Following DeVellis (2017), five tourism academics examined all the items to assess content validity, completeness, and clarity. Based on expert opinions, six items were identified as having multiple meanings. These items were revised or split to improve clarity and capture their intended meanings, resulting in 43 items under three broad dimensions: positive, negative, and neutral.

Compared with Hong Kong residents' emotional responses towards Mainland Chinese tourists, which have been extensively examined (e.g. Chen et al., 2018), Mainland Chinese tourists' emotional responses have received far less empirical attention. However, robust and validated emotion scales have been developed across different cultures and contexts. To develop a comprehensive, context-appropriate measure for Mainland Chinese tourists, this survey integrated two widely acknowledged emotion scales validated in Chinese samples: the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (Huang et al., 2003; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) and Geneva Emotion Wheel 3.0 (Arana et al., 2024; Scherer et al., 2013). These were supplemented by insights from the 27 interviews. To ensure accuracy and clarity, all items were cross-checked by a panel of six Mainland Chinese people with relevant expertise: three scholars with PhDs in tourism or hospitality, one postdoctoral researcher from a related social science discipline, and two research assistants with master's degrees in relevant fields. Finally, a 24-item emotion scale (11 positive, 12 negative, and 1 neutral) was employed to assess Mainland tourists' emotional responses towards Hong Kong residents. Similarly, for behavioural intentions, items were informed by stereotyped inter-group behavioural tendencies suggested by the BIAS map (Cuddy et al., 2007) and verified through interviews and an expert panel review. Therefore, eight items were included in the analysis. The same 7-point rating scale was used in the survey for Hong Kong residents. Finally, Mainland tourists' perceived social identity with Hong Kong residents was measured by asking them to view Hong Kong residents as belonging to the same Chinese group and rate their agreement; this was

adapted from Gaertner et al. (1993). In the subsequent sections, Hong Kong residents are referred to as 'residents' and Mainland Chinese tourists as 'tourists'.

Pilot study and data collection

The two surveys were conducted sequentially to optimise methodological rigor. First, residents' data were collected in March 2021. Second, after completing and analysing the preliminary interviews with tourists, the tourist survey was administered in April 2021. This sequential approach allowed the tourist survey to (1) incorporate insights from the interview analysis and (2) maintain linguistic and conceptual consistency with the parallel measurement items used and confirmed in the resident survey. The resident survey was distributed to a small sample (n = 35) for pilot testing of the wording and formatting because many items had been preliminarily tested by Chen et al. (2022). Minor revisions were made after the pilot before a professional marketing research firm (Kantar) distributed the survey to 2,100 panel members who were permanent Hong Kong residents. Kantar's standard quality assurance procedures were followed. After removing incomplete and unreliable responses, 544 usable responses were obtained, representing an effective response rate of 25.9%. Males and females were evenly distributed, and most respondents fell into the age groups of 30–39 (22.8%), 40–49 (21.7%), and 50–59 (18.2%) years. Regarding their education levels, 25.2% had a high school diploma, and 46% had a bachelor's degree. Their monthly family income varied but was evenly distributed from 10,000–19,999 HKD to 60,000–69,999 HKD.

The tourist survey was distributed through a professional survey firm in Mainland China (Wenjuanwang), and a pilot test (n=100) was conducted to fine-tune the survey items and address formatting issues before launching the formal survey. Participants included past and potential visitors to Hong Kong, and efforts were made to include respondents with diverse demographic characteristics. Besides the screening questions, four attention checks were included to ensure high-quality responses. Excluding those with extremely short or long times for questionnaire completion and those who failed any of the screening or attention check questions, 500 usable responses were acquired. Approximately 56% of the respondents were female, and 58.4% were between 18 and 24 years of age. Regarding education, 57.8% had attended junior middle school or below, and 32.6% had graduated from high school. Their monthly family income was generally below 5,000 RMB (57.8%) or between 5,000 and 9,999 RMB (32.6%). Table 1 presents the demographic profiles of the respondents from both groups.

Insert Table 1 Here

Data analysis

For the resident and tourist groups, the respondents' demographic profiles were subjected to a descriptive analysis. As the survey items were adapted from various sources, an exploratory factor analysis was performed on a randomly split-half dataset using SPSS 25.0 (Hair et al., 2019a, 2019b)

to explore the constructs' dimensionality and assess item performance. The reliability was examined using Cronbach's alpha.

The suitability of the exploratory factor analysis was assessed using the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. For the resident and tourist samples, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin values ranged from 0.842 to 0.955, indicating adequacy. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < 0.000$), confirming the presence of sufficient correlations among the variables. All the retained items had satisfactory factor loadings (> 0.5) on their corresponding factors (Table 2). The Cronbach's alpha for each factor ranged from 0.622 to 0.974, indicating acceptable internal reliability (Tsai & Wang, 2017). In contrast to the literature (e.g. Tung et al., 2020), the construct of stereotype included three factors (i.e. positive, negative, and neutral) rather than simply the positive and negative aspects. Therefore, supplemental hypotheses were added to reflect the neutral aspect of stereotypes and its neutral role in influencing emotions and behavioural intentions.

H1c: Neutral stereotypes do not significantly influence positive emotions.

H2c: Neutral stereotypes do not significantly influence negative emotions.

H5c: Neutral stereotypes do not significantly influence facilitating behavioural intentions.

H6c: Neutral stereotypes do not significantly influence harming behavioural intentions.

Insert Table 2 Here

Additionally, the indicators and connotations for stereotypes and behavioural intentions differed between the resident and tourist groups. Therefore, the positive, negative, and neutral stereotypes as well as harmful and facilitating behavioural intentions were named differently across the two groups (Table 2).

A confirmatory composite analysis was then used to verify the measurement models using partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) and a composite-based method (Hair, Howard, & Nitzl, 2020) with the other half of the randomly split-half dataset. The internal reliability of the constructs was assessed using composite reliability and ρAs. Convergent and discriminant validity were evaluated for all the constructs. Following the validation of the measurement models, PLS-SEM was employed to test the hypotheses.

Findings

Measurement models

Before analysing the structural models, the impact of common method variance was assessed using Harman's single factor score to detect potential biases arising from the measurement method (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). The total variance explained by the single factor was

40.01% for the resident group and 29.34% for the tourist group. As both values were below the 50% threshold, common method variance did not influence the results (Min, Park, & Kim, 2016). To evaluate the measurement models, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were also examined (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009).

As shown in Table 3, the composite reliability and ρAs values for the resident group exceeded 0.7, demonstrating an acceptable level of reliability (Bagozzi & Kimmel, 1995). The measurement model's convergent validity was examined using factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE). The majority (59 items) of the factor loadings were above 0.7, with five between 0.507 and 0.682, at the 1% significance level, indicating that the model had acceptable convergent validity. In addition, all AVE values ranged from 0.631 to 0.718, exceeding the minimum threshold of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), which confirmed the strong convergent validity of the model. Discriminant validity, which assesses the distinctiveness of a construct (Hair et al., 2020), was evaluated using the heterotrait–monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) in PLS-SEM. As shown in Table 4, all HTMT values between the constructs were below 0.818, indicating acceptable validity (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015).

For the tourist group, the composite reliability and ρAs values were greater than 0.7, indicating satisfactory reliability (Bagozzi & Kimmel, 1995). Furthermore, 60 of the 66 items had factor loadings above 0.7, and 6 were between 0.450 and 0.700, with all items at the 1% significance level, indicating that the model had acceptable convergent validity. All AVEs were between 0.467 and 0.820, close to and above the threshold of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), indicating acceptable convergent validity. As shown in Table 5, all HTMTs between two constructs were below 0.726, denoting satisfactory discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015).

Insert Tables 3, 4, and 5 Here

Structural models

The proposed structural model was analysed for the resident and tourist groups. In the resident group, collinearity was evaluated using the variance inflation factor (VIF) before assessing the relationships. The VIF values should ideally be close to 3 or lower (Hair et al., 2019b). The results showed that the VIFs fit the recommended range, indicating that multicollinearity was not a concern in this study (Hair et al., 2011). Two items for 'incivility' had VIF values of 5.451 and 7.254, which were higher than the recommended threshold; nevertheless, the PLS regression could address this potential issue by generating a set of new, uncorrelated variables (Adnan, Ahmad, & Adnan, 2006). The R^2 values for all endogenous constructs ranged from 0.5 to 0.687, indicating that the model had satisfactory explanatory power (Shmueli & Koppius, 2011). The path coefficients (β) in the proposed model structure are reported in Figure 2. Furthermore, social identity had a negative moderating effect on the relationship between positive emotions and facilitating behavioural intentions ($\beta = -0.075$, $p < .05$) (Figure 3). Conversely, it had a positive

moderating effect on the relationship between positive emotions and harming behavioural intentions ($\beta = 0.097$, $p < .01$). In other words, a strong social identity may reduce the likelihood of positive emotions leading to facilitating behaviours while increasing the likelihood of the same emotions leading to harming behaviours. Table 6 presents these mediating effects of the constructs in the structural model.

For the tourist group, all VIF values were less than 3, suggesting that multicollinearity was not a concern (Hair et al., 2011). Regarding the endogenous constructs, the R^2 values fell within the range of 0.403–0.505, implying that the model had satisfactory explanatory power (Shmueli & Koppius, 2011). The path coefficients (β) in the proposed model structure are reported in Figure 4. Furthermore, social identity negatively moderated the relationships between positive emotions and approach intentions ($\beta = –0.076$, $p < .1$) and between positive emotions and avoidance intentions ($\beta = –0.139$, $p < .1$) (Figure 5). Table 7 presents the mediating effects of the constructs in the structural model.

Insert Figures 2, 3, 4, and 5 and Tables 6 and 7 Here

Discussion and Conclusion

Mutual stereotypes between residents and tourists

Residents' stereotypes about tourists have been well investigated across destinations. Residents may carry different stereotypes about a tourist group across different destinations owing to various cultural, historical, and social relationships (Tse & Tung, 2022a). Residents from foreign, long-haul destinations often hold assumptions of Chinese tourists by their travel motivations (e.g. shopping), behaviours (e.g. group tours and seeking familiar food), and demographics (e.g. young or middle aged and urban based) (Jørgensen, Law & King, 2018). According to this research, for Hong Kong residents, Mainland Chinese tourists were portrayed in three distinct ways: incivility, economic power, and sociable behaviour. This result reveals a nuanced description of tourists, stemming from the cultural, social, and economic understanding between tourists and residents, as well as the considerable market size of Mainland tourists. Simultaneously, it highlights the unique but often overlooked subcultural differences between the two regions. The dimensions verified in this study are consistent with the literature examining stereotypes from Hong Kong residents' perspectives on various tourist source markets (Chen & Hsu, 2021).

This study also examined resident stereotypes from the perspective of tourists, which has rarely been investigated. Similar to tourist stereotypes, resident stereotypes encompassed three dimensions: individualism and arrogance, stressfulness, and competence and civility. The dimension of individualism and arrogance reflects the inhospitable feelings that tourists may experience when visiting Hong Kong. These feelings are characterised by perceptions of unfriendliness, unwelcoming attitudes, selfishness, poor service, and impatience. Stressfulness captures observations of Hong Kong's socioeconomic environment, such as the substantial wealth gap, high living pressures, and a fast-paced lifestyle. This dimension is not directly related to

tourism but can be observed by tourists during their visits and is often highlighted in general media coverage. Finally, the positive stereotype of competence and civility includes attributes such as adherence to rules, high social responsibility, helpfulness, professionalism, and a high level of education.

Both tourists and residents held positive and negative stereotypes about each other, with notable similarities in the structure of the two perceptions. For example, residents perceived tourists as relatively uncivilised, whereas tourists perceived them as competent and civilised. Although residents perceived tourists as sociable, tourists often felt unwelcome because of the perceived arrogance of residents. The dimensions derived from both groups validate the stereotype content reported by Chen and Hsu (2021) and confirm the ambivalent nature of stereotypes, encompassing both favourable and unfavourable (i.e. positive and negative) dimensions (Tse & Tung, 2022b; Tung et al., 2020). Beyond the positive and negative dimensions, a neutral dimension (i.e. economic power and stressfulness) was observed in each group, capturing mutual perceptions based on socioeconomic features. The neutral dimension could play a crucial role in influencing tourist–resident interactions. Furthermore, the dimensions of competence and warmth from the general stereotype content model (Yzerbyt, 2016) were reflected in residents' stereotype content (i.e. competence and civility as well as individualism and arrogance).

Effects of stereotypes on emotions and interactive behavioural intentions

The effects of stereotypes on emotions were examined among tourists and residents. Generally, positive stereotypes evoked positive emotions and attenuated negative emotions, whereas negative stereotypes elicited negative emotions and suppressed positive emotions, which is consistent with the literature (Rast et al., 2018; Vaughn et al., 2017). An exception was noted among the residents, as the sociable behaviour stereotype of tourists did not significantly reduce residents' negative emotions. Tse and Tung (2022b) interpreted these results by identifying certain emotions, such as admiration, that dominate the mediating role between stereotypes and behaviours. Therefore, the mediating role of other emotions might have been weakened. Regarding the neutral stereotypes, tourists' economic power demonstrated good predictive power in enhancing residents' positive emotions and interactive intentions while reducing negative emotions and interactive intentions. This underscores the significance of tourists' economic benefits for destination communities. As Chen and Hsu (2021) reported, tourists' economic power can serve as a buffer against adverse resident reactions. Residents tended to exhibit some tolerance for tourists who contribute to the local economy, irrespective of their behaviours. However, among tourists, the perceived stressfulness of residents only reduced tourists' negative emotions and had no impact on other constructs. This result confirms that stereotypes concerning residents' individualism and arrogance as well as competence and civility are crucial in influencing tourists' emotions and interactive intentions. However, contrary to the predictions of the BIAS map, these two dimensions can elicit both positive and negative emotions, rather than being limited to one.

How stereotypes and emotions influence tourist–resident interactive behavioural intentions was also investigated. Among the residents, stereotypes about tourists directly and indirectly influenced

their intentions to harm or facilitate through emotions. While residents' positive emotions could enhance their facilitating behavioural intentions, they may also increase their harming behavioural intentions. This result contradicts the existing literature, which generally posits that positive emotions lead to positive behaviours (Ratnasari et al., 2021; Tse & Tung, 2022b). This negative outcome of positive emotions may result from the constant social comparison between individuals from Hong Kong and Mainland China. While residents may feel superior in terms of civilisation and morality, they also experience a sense of deprivation concerning resources, space, and economic status owing to the ever-increasing influx of tourists from Mainland China (Chen et al., 2018). This perceived deprivation can trigger psychological reactance (Brehm & Brehm, 2013) among residents as it threatens their comparative advantages, limits their alternative choices, and reinforces their sense of regional ethnocentrism (Neuliep, Chaudoir, & McCroskey, 2001). Therefore, even positive feelings among residents towards tourists may lead to protective or defensive behaviours.

Similarly, stereotypes about residents directly and indirectly influenced tourists' interactive behavioural intentions through emotions. Negative stereotypes and emotions did not directly influence approach intentions; however, negative stereotypes indirectly affected approach intentions through positive emotions. Conversely, positive stereotypes and emotions did not directly influence avoidance intentions; however, positive stereotypes indirectly affected avoidance intentions via negative emotions. These findings offer important refinements to the BIAS map by revealing that the pathways from stereotypes to emotions and then to interactive behavioural intentions are more complex than previously assumed. Specifically, negative stereotypes and emotions did not directly diminish positive behavioural intentions; however, negative stereotypes indirectly fostered positive behavioural intentions through positive emotions. Conversely, positive stereotypes and emotions did not directly reduce negative behavioural intentions; however, positive stereotypes indirectly increased negative behavioural intentions via negative emotions. These indirect cross-valence effects suggest that the relationship between stereotypes, emotions, and behavioural intentions is not strictly unidirectional or valence matched, as posited by the original BIAS map. Instead, emotional mediation operates in more nuanced ways, potentially shaped by contextual or psychological factors (e.g. social comparisons). Thus, this study extends the BIAS map by demonstrating the need to account for ambivalent or mixed emotional pathways and indirect effects when predicting inter-group behaviour.

Moderating role of social identity

In both models, social identity moderated only the relationship between positive emotions and behavioural intentions. In the resident group, social identity moderated the effects of positive emotions on behavioural intentions in distinct ways. Specifically, individuals with lower identity with Chinese tended to exhibit a stronger effect of positive emotions on facilitating intentions, suggesting that positive emotions are more likely to translate into facilitating behaviours when identity is low. Conversely, those with higher levels of identity demonstrated stronger positive effects of emotions on harmful intentions. In other words, residents with low identity with tourists were more responsive to positive emotions in fostering facilitating behavioural intentions, whereas

those with high identity with tourists responded more strongly to transforming positive emotions into harming behavioural intentions. These effects have not been identified previously; however, the black sheep effect, which describes the tendency of group members to judge deviant in-group members more negatively than comparable out-group members (Marques, Yzerbyt, & Leyens, 1988), may help explain this relationship. Residents with a strong Chinese identity may view tourists as in-group members. When they encounter situations, through media or personal experiences, in which tourists misbehave in Hong Kong, they become less tolerant than when they encounter out-group members (e.g. foreign tourists). This can lead to problematic behaviours and aggressive interactions (Otten, 2009). By contrast, greater social distance (indicating a weak social identity) may facilitate the transmission of residents' positive emotions into positive behavioural intentions. This is supported by studies on culture and the host gaze, which posited that the lower the cultural distance between hosts and guests, the lower the tolerance for perceived misbehaviour. Conversely, the greater the cultural distance, the lower the expectations, and thus, the higher the tolerance for perceived misbehaviour (Moufakkir, 2011).

In the tourist group, individuals with relatively low identity with residents tended to exhibit a stronger effect of positive emotions on their intention to engage in approaching interactions, a pattern consistent with the resident group. Although the overall effect of positive emotions on avoidance intentions was not significant, individuals with higher identity with residents demonstrated a significantly negative effect of positive emotions on their avoidance intentions. Therefore, among tourists, the impact of positive emotions on tourists' interactive behavioural intentions (both approaching and avoidance) depended on their identity with the residents. Consistent with the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978) and the concept of regional ethnocentrism (Fan, 2016), people tend to view their in-group members more positively, which can lead to more favourable behaviours towards the in-group. Conversely, they may perceive out-group members more negatively, resulting in negative and harmful inter-group behaviours.

Theoretical contributions

This study makes crucial contributions to the literature. First, it is among the first attempts to empirically investigate tourist–resident interactions from both residents' and tourists' perspectives. To understand tourist–resident interactions as dynamic and interrelated behaviours and fully capture the influencing mechanisms, both groups must be considered. Previous studies have largely focused on tourist–resident social contacts and interactions from either the residents' (Chen, Cottam, & Lin, 2020; Chen & Hsu, 2021; Kim, Duffy, & Moore, 2023; Tse & Tung, 2022a, 2022b) or tourists' (Fan et al., 2017a, 2017b; Lin, Gao, & Tian, 2022; Tu, Zhang, & Jiang, 2023) viewpoints but not both simultaneously. The tourist–resident relationship is a co-created outcome (Fan, 2023), and the perceptions and actions of one group can immediately influence the reactions of the other. Therefore, it is essential to simultaneously understand the factors that determine both parties' positive and negative behaviours and how to guide them towards the desired outcomes (Fan, 2023). This paired investigation sheds light on the literature on inter-group social interactions (Brown & Hewstone, 2005) and advances the exploration of destination social sustainability by identifying the antecedents of co-creation and co-destruction in tourist–resident interactions. The

results identified an incongruence between the ways tourists and residents form positive or negative behavioural intentions. This finding challenges the assumption that interacting groups undergo a uniform psychological process when producing different behaviours, highlighting the unique conditions for social contact within the tourism context.

Second, this study makes a theoretical contribution to the BIAS map by revealing greater complexity in the pathways linking stereotype content, emotions, and behavioural intentions. The findings demonstrated that certain dimensions of stereotype content can directly influence behavioural intentions, independent of emotional mediation, thereby challenging the BIAS map's assumption of a strictly mediated process. Furthermore, some stereotype dimensions elicit both positive and negative emotions, and stereotypes may influence behaviours of opposing valences through these cross-valence emotional pathways. The results indicated that emotional valence plays a distinct and nuanced role in shaping behavioural intentions, with positive and negative emotions exerting differential effects. Collectively, these insights suggest that the relationships between stereotypes, emotions, and behaviours are more complex and non-linear than previously conceptualised. This underscores the need to refine the BIAS map to account for direct effects, ambivalent emotional responses, and the differentiated impact of emotional valence on inter-group behaviour.

Finally, the moderating role of social identity was examined in the context of tourist–resident interactions. This study revealed that social identity moderates the relationship between emotions and behavioural intentions but only for positive emotions. Notably, this moderating effect differs between tourists and residents. Therefore, the impact of social identity on inter-group behaviour is contingent on emotional valence and group membership, thereby highlighting the boundary conditions in tourist–resident interactions for the social identity theory. This study demonstrated that the moderating role of social identity is not uniform but varies depending on the type of identity and nature of emotions. In doing so, it advances the social identity theory and underscores the complexity of identity in inter-group contexts, particularly with respect to positive inter-group emotions.

By combining the BIAS map and social identity theory, the study provides a more comprehensive framework for understanding tourist–resident interactions. The results revealed that stereotypes influence emotions, which shape behavioural intentions (as per the BIAS map), and this process is further conditioned by social identity (as per the social identity theory). The integration of these theories, supported by the empirical findings, advances theoretical understanding by illustrating how affective and identity-based processes jointly operate to shape inter-group behaviours in tourism.

Practical implications

Tourist–resident interactions are crucial for achieving social sustainability at a destination. By investigating the stereotype–emotion–behaviour tripartite model from tourists' and residents' perspectives, this study offers insightful implications for destination management organisations, tourism operators, and destination communities. First, as the results for both groups indicated that

positive or neutral emotions enhance facilitating behavioural intentions, destinations and source markets should develop corresponding positive resident or tourist images. Destination management organisations and local tourism operators should undertake initiatives to promote positive tourist stereotypes among residents and foster facilitating interactive behaviours. For example, when communicating the importance of tourism for Hong Kong, the sociable behaviour image of Mainland Chinese tourists (e.g. being open-minded, easy-going, curious about and respecting local culture, and willing to try new things) could be highlighted. Furthermore, as economic power is an influencing stereotype that leads to positive emotions and facilitating behavioural intentions, authorities should regularly emphasise the contributions of tourists to Hong Kong's economy. Furthermore, tourists' positive stereotypes about residents—in this case, competence and civility—could enhance tourists' approach intentions towards residents at the destination. Activities such as pre-travel social media engagement to familiarise oneself with Hong Kong's economic development, societal maturity, educational establishment, and professionalism could help cultivate a positive social atmosphere between tourists and residents.

Second, the results revealed that tourists and residents held different negative stereotypes towards each other, which harm tourist–resident interaction intentions. Tackling these negative stereotypes to promote facilitating interaction intentions is an urgent challenge faced by destination and regional governments, who advocate for social integration through tourism. As indicated by tourists, Hong Kong hosts are perceived as individualistic and arrogant. Such negative and unwelcoming stereotypes lead to low levels of interaction and drive tourists away. Both parties should make an effort to tackle this concern. For residents, civic education can be implemented at the school and society levels, conveying how to be responsible and welcoming hosts to collaboratively establish a positive image of Hong Kong as a hospitable destination. Furthermore, services and providers in Hong Kong were perceived as poor and impatient, respectively. Governments and trade associations should introduce more incentive policies and campaigns to raise service standards. For example, the existing Quality Tourism Services Scheme could be promoted and expanded to include more service providers, such as micro, small, and medium enterprises. Promotional campaigns for tourists can also reinforce the positive stereotypes of the host community, such as being professional, passionate, and socially responsible. Simultaneously, the tourism sector can utilise digital platforms and social media to cultivate a positive destination image by encouraging tourists to share their positive perceptions and experiences when interacting with residents.

Third, this study verified that emotions and social identity influence tourist–resident interactive behavioural intentions; however, these variables should be applied and designed with care because of the complexity of the reaction mechanism. Specifically, tourists' negative emotions towards residents should be reduced to decrease interaction avoidance, and their positive emotions should be cultivated to encourage proactive interaction. To achieve this, a supportive social environment and marketing strategies that evoke favourable emotions towards residents should be developed for tourists. Conversely, while reducing residents' negative emotions could decrease their harming behavioural intentions and enhancing their positive emotions could promote facilitating behavioural intentions, the risk of inadvertently increasing harming behaviours should be closely

monitored. Regularly monitoring residents' sentiments through social listening could offer insights into appropriate intervention timing to mitigate potentially harming behaviours.

Finally, social identity was confirmed to be an effective moderator in the relationship between positive emotions and behavioural intentions. However, the moderating mechanism differed between residents and tourists. For tourists with a strong identity with residents, positive emotions significantly decreased their intentions to avoid interactions. Therefore, destination agencies should promote historical ties between Hong Kong and Mainland China, such as the shared Cantonese or Chinese culture and history, to enhance the social identification between the two groups. Conversely, for residents, strong social identity triggered positive emotions that led to harmful behavioural intentions. Therefore, aggressively promoting social identity among residents without considering potential gains and losses may not be an effective strategy for fostering harmonious tourist–resident interactions. This underscores the need for a balanced and comprehensive approach.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study has some limitations that must be addressed. First, the findings were derived from Mainland Chinese tourists and Hong Kong residents. Although this paired inter-group interaction represents a typical tourist–resident interaction scenario, the role of cultural distance in influencing inter-group interaction outcomes should be noted. Interactions at other destinations or with different interacting parties may provide additional insights. Therefore, future studies should validate this model in other cultural and social contexts. Second, the content of stereotypes may be specific to groups rather than being broadly defined. Therefore, future research using measurement items for tourist and resident stereotypes should undergo a validation process before adoption. Third, although stereotypes tend to be relatively stable, the passage of time and societal changes can alter their prevalence, making it important to periodically re-examine and update our understanding of stereotypes. Fourth, as the results revealed that positive emotions can lead to harmful actions, future studies should consider using qualitative techniques, such as in-depth case analyses, to capture nuanced explanations that quantitative data may not detect. Finally, this study tested the effects of stereotypes and emotions on behavioural intentions using self-reported survey data. However, behavioural intentions may not fully represent individuals' actual behaviour. Therefore, future studies should employ alternative methods such as field experiments and participant observation to capture respondents' real actions in inter-group interactions.

References:

Abele, A. E., & Wojciszke, B. (2014). Communal and agentic content in social cognition: A dual perspective model. In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 50, pp. 195-255). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-800284-1.00004-7

Abele, A. E., Cuddy, A. J., Judd, C. M., & Yzerbyt, V. Y. (2008). Fundamental dimensions of social judgment. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *38*(7), 1063-1065. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.574

Adam, I., Agyeiwaah, E., & Dayour, F. (2021). Understanding the social identity, motivations, and sustainable behaviour among backpackers: a clustering approach. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *38*(2), 139-154. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2021.1887053

Adnan, N., Ahmad, M. H., & Adnan, R. (2006). A comparative study on some methods for handling multicollinearity problems. *Matematika, 22*(2), 109-119.

Afshardoost, M., & Eshaghi, M. S. (2020). Destination image and tourist behavioural intentions: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, *81*, 104154. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2020.104154

Agyeiwaah, E., Pratt, S., Iaquinto, B. L., & Suntikul, W. (2023). Social identity positively impacts sustainable behaviors of backpackers. *Tourism Geographies*, *25*(1), 1-22. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1819401

Ajzen, I. (1991). The Theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446249215.n22

Akgün, A. E., Senturk, H. A., Keskin, H., & Onal, I. (2020). The relationships among nostalgic emotion, destination images and tourist behaviors: An empirical study of Istanbul. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *16*, 100355. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2019.03.009

Allport, G. W. (1979). The nature of prejudice. Addison-Wesley Pub.

Ap, J. (1992). Residents' perceptions on tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *19*(4), 665-690. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(92)90060-3

Arana, L., Soriano, C., Hernández, J. C., & Spence, C. (2024). Color–emotion associations by speakers of Spanish and Mandarin in verbal and visual tasks: a comparison. *Language and Cognition*, 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1017/langcog.2024.52

Babin, B. J., Darden, W. R., & Babin, L. A. (1998). Negative emotions in marketing research: Affect or artifact? *Journal of Business Research, 42*(3), 271–285. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963(97)00124-0

Bagozzi, R. P., & Kimmel, S. K. (1995). A comparison of leading theories for the prediction of goal-directed behaviours. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *34*(4), 437-461. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8309.1995.tb01076.x

Bagozzi, R.P., Gopinath, M. & Nyer, P.U. (1999), The role of emotions in marketing, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(2), 184-206. https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070399272005

Bedyńska, S., & Żołnierczyk-Zreda, D. (2015). Stereotype threat as a determinant of burnout or work engagement. Mediating role of positive and negative emotions. *International Journal of Occupational Safety and Ergonomics*, *21*(1), 1-8. https://doi.org/10.1080/10803548.2015.1017939

Brehm, S. S., & Brehm, J. W. (2013). *Psychological reactance: A theory of freedom and control*. Academic Press.

Brewer, J. D. (1984). Tourism and ethnic stereotypes: Variations in a Mexican town. *Annals of Tourism Research, 11*(3), 487-501. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(84)90033-1

Brown, R., & Hewstone, M. (2005). An integrative theory of intergroup contact. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, *37*(37), 255-343.

Buxbaum, O. (2016). The SOR-model. *Key Insights into Basic Mechanisms of Mental Activity*, 7-9.

Chen, C. C., Lai, Y. H. R., Petrick, J. F., & Lin, Y. H. (2016). Tourism between divided nations: An examination of stereotyping on destination image. *Tourism Management*, *55*, 25-36. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.01.012

Chen, N., & Hsu, C. H. (2021). Tourist stereotype content: Dimensions and accessibility. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *89*, 103212. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2021.103212

Chen, N., Hsu, C. H. C., & L. Pearce, P. (2022). Developing Video Vignettes for Tourism Research: Protocol and Quality Indicators. *Journal of Travel Research*, *61*(8), 1828-1847. https://doi.org/10.1177/00472875211051413

Chen, N., Hsu, C. H. C., & Li, X. (2018). Feeling superior or deprived? Attitudes and underlying mentalities of residents towards Mainland Chinese tourists. *Tourism Management*, *66*, 94-107. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.11.007

Chen, N., Li, F. S., & Ma, J. (2025). Dual identity and ambivalent sentiment of border residents: Predicting border community support for tourism development. *Tourism Management*, *106*, 105000. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2024.105000

Chen, Y., Cottam, E., & Lin, Z. (2020). The effect of resident-tourist value co-creation on residents' well-being. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *44*, 30-37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.05.009

Choi, H. S. C., & Sirakaya, E. (2005). Measuring residents' attitude toward sustainable tourism: Development of sustainable tourism attitude scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, *43*(4), 380-394. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287505274651

Chow, V. (2012, February 1). Anger at Mainland visitors escalates with "locust" ad. South China Morning Post, City 1.

Chien, P. M., & Ritchie, B. W. (2018). Understanding intergroup conflicts in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*. *72*, 177-179. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2018.03.004

Churchill Jr, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research, 16*(1), 64-73. https://doi.org/10.2307/3150876

Cuddy, A. J. C., Fiske, S. T., & Glick, P. (2007). The BIAS map: Behaviors from intergroup affect and stereotypes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *92*(4), 631-648.

DePretis, R., Sonnentag, T. L., Wadian, T. W., & Saeed, Z. (2021). Effects of emotion-related stereotype messages on young women's experience and expression of emotion. *SN Social Sciences*, *1*, 1-13. https://doi.org/10.1007/s43545-021-00174-x

DeVellis, R. F. (2017). *Scale Development: Theory and applications*. Sage Publications.

Echeverri, P., & Skålén, P. (2011). Co-creation and co-destruction: A practice-theory based study of interactive value formation. *Marketing Theory*, *11*(3), 351-373. https://doi.org/10.1177/1470593111408181

Fan, D. X. (2023). Understanding the tourist-resident relationship through social contact: Progressing the development of social contact in tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *31*(2), 406-424. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1852409

Fan, D. X., & Jia, G. (2023). How do tourists respond to meta-stereotypes? Understanding their willingness to interact, self-presentation and the role of power. *Tourism Management*, *94*, 104652. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2022.104652

Fan, D. X., Zhang, H. Q., Jenkins, C. L., & Lin, P. M. (2017a). Does tourist–host social contact reduce perceived cultural distance?. *Journal of Travel Research*, *56*(8), 998-1010. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287517696979

Fan, D. X., Zhang, H. Q., Jenkins, C. L., & Tavitiyaman, P. (2017b). Tourist typology in social contact: An addition to existing theories. *Tourism Management*, *60*, 357-366. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.12.021

Fan, X. D. (2016). *The influence of ethnocentrism, tourist-host social contact and perceived cultural distance on tourists' travel attitude: evidence from Hong Kong tourists to Mainland China*. Doctoral dissertation, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

Fiske, S. T., & Tablante, C. B. (2015). Stereotyping: Processes and content. In M. Mikulincer, P. R. Shaver, E. Borgida, & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *APA Handbook of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 1. *Attitudes and Social Cognition*, 457-507. https://doi.org/10.1037/14341-015

Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J. C., Glick, P., & Xu, J. (2002). A model of (often mixed) stereotype content: Competence and warmth respectively follow from perceived status and competition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *82*(6), 878-902.

Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J., & Glick, P. (2007). Universal dimensions of social cognition: Warmth and competence. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *11*(2), 77-83. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2006.11.005

Fiske, S.T., & Taylor, S. E. (1991). *Social cognition* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(1), 39-50. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378101800104

Gaertner, S. L., Dovidio, J. F., Anastasio, P. A., Bachman, B. A., & Rust, M. C. (1993). The common ingroup identity model: Recategorization and the reduction of intergroup bias. *European Review of Social Psychology*, *4*(1), 1-26. https://doi.org/10.1080/14792779343000004

Gajić, T., Blešić, I., Petrović, M. D., Radovanović, M. M., Đoković, F., Demirović Bajrami, D., ... & Syromiatnikova, J. A. (2023). Stereotypes and prejudices as (non) attractors for willingness to revisit tourist-spatial hotspots in Serbia. *Sustainability*, *15*(6), 5130. https://doi.org/10.3390/su15065130

Guan, J. (2009). The application and development of Stereotype Content Model and System Model. *Advances in Psychological Science, 17*(4), 845-851.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Balin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2019a). *Multivariate data analysis (8th ed.)*. Maxwell Macmillan International Editions.

Hair, J. F., Howard, M. C., & Nitzl, C. (2020). Assessing measurement model quality in PLS-SEM using confirmatory composite analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, *109*, 101-110. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.11.069

Hair, J. F., LDS Gabriel, M., Silva, D. D., & Braga, S. (2019b). Development and validation of attitudes measurement scales: fundamental and practical aspects. *RAUSP Management Journal*, *54*, 490-507. https://doi.org/10.1108/RAUSP-05-2019-0098

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). The use of partial least squares (PLS) to address marketing management topics. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *19*(2), 135-138. https://ssrn.com/abstract=2228902

Heise, D. R. (2007). *Expressive order: Confirming Sentiments in Social Actions*. Springer Science & Business Media.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *43*, 115-135. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sinkovics, R. R. (2009). The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. In *New Challenges to International Marketing* (pp. 277-319). Emerald Group Publishing Limited. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1474-7979(2009)0000020014

Hong Kong Tourism Board (2024). *Tourism Statistics*. Derived from: https://www.discoverhongkong.com/eng/hktb/newsroom/tourism-statistics.html

Hsu, C. H., & Chen, N. (2019). Resident attribution and tourist stereotypes. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *43*(4), 489-516. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348018823903

Hu, H. H., & Sung, Y. K. (2022). Critical influences on responsible tourism behavior and the mediating role of ambivalent emotions. *Sustainability*, *14*(2), 886. https://doi.org/10.3390/su14020886

Huang, L., Yang, T. Z., & Ji, Z. M. (2003). Applicability of the Positive Affect and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) in Chinese. *Chinese Mental Health Journal, 17*(1), 54–56.

Hung, K., & Petrick, J. F. (2010). Developing a measurement scale for constraints to cruising. *Annals of Tourism Research, 37*(1), 206-228. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2009.09.002

Jørgensen, M. T., Law, R., & King, B. E. (2018). Beyond the stereotypes: Opportunities in China inbound tourism for second-tier European destinations. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *20*(4), 488-497. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2198

Kanahara, S. (2006). A Review of the Definitions of Stereotype and a Proposal for a Progressional Model. *Individual Differences Research, 4*(5), 306-321.

Kim, G., Duffy, L. N., & Moore, D. (2023). Importance of residents' perception of tourists in establishing a reciprocal resident-tourist relationship: An application of tourist attractiveness. *Tourism Management*, *94*, 104632. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2022.104632

Larsen, J. T., & McGraw, A. P. (2011). Further evidence for mixed emotions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 100*(6), 1095–1110. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021846

Leri, I., & Theodoridis, P. (2019). The effects of the winery visitor experience on emotions, satisfaction and on post-visit behaviour intentions. *Tourism Review*, *74*(3), 480-502. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-07-2018-0092

Lin, H., Gao, J., & Tian, J. (2022). Impact of tourist-to-tourist interaction on responsible tourist behaviour: Evidence from China. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *24*, 100709. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2022.100709

Liu, J., & Teng, J. L. (2021). The driving mechanism of awe and pride to tourists' civilized behavioral intention in the development of red tourism resources. *Journal of Natural Resources*, *36*(7), 1760-1776. https://doi.org/10.31497/zrzyxb.20210710

Liu, R. J., Huang, Z. F., Yu, R. Z., Bao, J. Q., & Mo, Y. T. (2021). The impact of red tourism on national identity of tourists. *Journal of Natural Resources*, *36*(7), 1673-1683. https://doi.org/10.31497/zrzyxb.20210704

Luo, Q., & Zhai, X. (2017). "I will never go to Hong Kong again!" How the secondary crisis communication of "Occupy Central" on Weibo shifted to a tourism boycott. *Tourism Management*, *62*, 159-172. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.04.007

MacKinnon, N. J., & Heise, D. R. (2010). Theories of identities and selves. In *Self, Identity, and Social Institutions* (pp. 163-197). New York: Palgrave Macmillan US. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230108493_7

Marques, J. M., Yzerbyt, V. Y., & Leyens, J. P. (1988). The "black sheep effect": Extremity of judgments towards ingroup members as a function of group identification. *European journal of social psychology*, *18*(1), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2420180102

Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). A verbal measure of information rate for studies in environmental psychology. *Environment and Behavior*, *6*(2), 233. https://doi.org/10.1177/001391657400600205

Micevski, M., Diamantopoulos, A., & Erdbrügger, J. (2021). From country stereotypes to country emotions to intentions to visit a country: implications for a country as a destination brand. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *30*(1), 118-131. https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-09-2019-2563

Milner, D. (1983) *Children Titid Nice: Ten Years On*. London: Ward Lock Educational.

Min, H., Park, J., & Kim, H. J. (2016). Common method bias in hospitality research: A critical review of literature and an empirical study. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *56*, 126-135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2016.04.010

Monterrubio, C. (2018). Tourist stereotypes and servers' attitudes: a combined theoretical approach. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *16*(1), 57-74. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2016.1237518

Moufakkir, O. (2011). The role of cultural distance in mediating the host gaze. *Tourist Studies*, *11*(1), 73-89. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468797611412065

Nawijn, J., & Biran, A. (2019). Negative emotions in tourism: A meaningful analysis. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *22*(19), 2386-2398. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2018.1451495

Neuliep, J. W., Chaudoir, M., & McCroskey, J. C. (2001). A cross-cultural comparison of ethnocentrism among Japanese and United States college students. *Communication Research Reports*, *18*(2), 137-146. https://doi.org/10.1080/08824090109384791

Otten, S. (2009). Social categorization, intergroup emotions, and aggressive interactions. In *Intergroup Relations* (pp. 180-199). Psychology Press.

Palmer, A., Koenig-Lewis, N., & Jones, L. E. M. (2013). The effects of residents' social identity and involvement on their advocacy of incoming tourism. *Tourism Management*, *38*, 142-151. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.02.019

Pi-Sunyer, O. (1977). Political humor in a dictatorial state: The case of Spain. *Ethnohistory*, 179-190. https://www.jstor.org/stable/481742

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control it. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *63*, 539-569. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-120710-100452

Rast III, D. E., Gaffney, A. M., & Yang, F. (2018). The effect of stereotype content on intergroup uncertainty and interactions. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *158*(6), 711-720. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.2017.1407285

Ratnasari, R. T., Gunawan, S., Mawardi, I., & Kirana, K. C. (2021). Emotional experience on behavioral intention for halal tourism. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, *12*(4), 864-881. https://doi.org/10.1108/JIMA-12-2019-0256

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (2003). *Cross-Cultural Tourism Behaviour: Concepts and Analysis*.

Ritchie, B. W., & Inkari, M. (2006). Host community attitudes toward tourism and cultural tourism development: the case of the Lewes District, Southern England. *International journal of tourism research, 8*(1), 27-44. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.545

Rogers, K. B., Schröder, T., & Scholl, W. (2013). The affective structure of stereotype content: Behavior and emotion in intergroup context. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *76*(2), 125-150. https://doi.org/10.1177/0190272513480191

Russell, J. A. (1980). A circumplex model of affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *39*(6), 1161. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0077714

Sander, D.E. & Scherer, K.R. (2009). *The Oxford Companion to Emotion and the Affective Sciences*, Oxford University Press.

Scherer, K. R. (2000). Psychological models of emotion. *The Neuropsychology of Emotion*, *137*(3), 137-162.

Scherer, K., Shuman, V., Fontaine, J., & Soriano, C. (2013). The GRID meets the Wheel: Assessing emotional feeling via self-report. In *Components of emotional meaning: A sourcebook* (pp. 281-298). Oxford University Press. 10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199592746.003.0019

Seyfi, S., Gorji, A. S., Kuhzady, S., Hall, C. M., & Senbeto, D. L. (2024). Dissecting destination boycotts: Unpacking ethical dilemmas in politicized tourism. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 34*, 100950. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2024.100950

Sharpley, R. (2014). Host perceptions of tourism: A review of the research. *Tourism Management, 42*, 37–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.10.007

Shen, X., Lv, X., Lin, S., & Li, C. (2019). Application of the stereotype content model to destination image: Evidence from residents of mainland China. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *14*, 100375. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2019.100375

Shmueli, G., & Koppius, O. R. (2011). Predictive analytics in information systems research. *MIS Quarterly*, 553-572. https://doi.org/10.2307/23042796

Sinclair, S., Lowery, B. S., Hardin, C. D., & Colangelo, A. (2005). Social tuning of automatic racial attitudes: the role of affiliative motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *89*(4), 583.

Stathi, S., Di Bernardo, G. A., Vezzali, L., Pendleton, S., & Tropp, L. R. (2020). Do they want contact with us? The role of intergroup contact meta-perceptions on positive contact and attitudes. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, *30*(5), 461-479. https://doi.org/10.1002/casp.2452

Stephan, W. G., & Stephan, C. W. (1996). Predicting prejudice. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 20*(3-4), 409-426. https://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767(96)00026-0

Su, L., Jia, B., & Huang, Y. (2022). How do destination negative events trigger tourists' perceived betrayal and boycott? The moderating role of relationship quality. *Tourism Management, 92*, 104536. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2022.104536

Sun, W., Chien, P. M., Ritchie, B. W., & Pappu, R. (2022). When compatriot tourists behave badly: The impact of misbehavior appraisal and outgroup criticism construal. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *23*, 100695. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2022.100695

Tajfel, H. (1978). Differentiation between social groups: Studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations. Academic Press.

Tajfel, H. (1984). Intergroup relations, social myths and social justice in social psychology. In H. Tajfel (Ed.), *The social dimension*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tajfel, H. and Turner, J.C. (1979), "An integrative theory of intergroup conflict", in Austin, W.G. and Worchel, S. (Eds), *The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations*, Brooks-Cole, Monterey, CA.

Tee, E. Y., Paulsen, N., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2013). Revisiting followership through a social identity perspective: The role of collective follower emotion and action. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *24*(6), 902-918. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.10.002

Tsai, C. T. S., & Wang, Y. C. (2017). Experiential value in branding food tourism. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *6*(1), 56-65. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2016.02.003

Tse, W. T. (2020). *Tourist stereotypes from the resident perspective: implicit and explicit assessments, emotional reactions and behavioural responses*. PhD thesis. https://theses.lib.polyu.edu.hk/handle/200/10649

Tse, S., & Tung, V. W. S. (2022a). Measuring the valence and intensity of residents' behaviors in host–tourist interactions: Implications for destination image and destination competitiveness. *Journal of Travel Research*, *61*(3), 565-580. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287521997576

Tse, S., & Tung, V. W. S. (2022b). Understanding residents' attitudes towards tourists: Connecting stereotypes, emotions and behaviours. *Tourism Management*, *89*, 104435. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2021.104435

Tu, H., Zhang, Z., & Jiang, Z. (2023). When and How tourists engage in citizenship behavior: The interactive effect of trait gratitude and positive resident–tourist contact. *Journal of Travel Research*, *62*(8), 1832-1847. https://doi.org/10.1177/00472875221140904

Tuerlan, T., Li, S., & Scott, N. (2021). Customer emotion research in hospitality and tourism: conceptualization, measurements, antecedents and consequences. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *33*(8), 2741-2772. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-11-2020-1257

Tung, V. W. S., King, B. E. M., & Tse, S. (2020). The tourist stereotype model: Positive and negative dimensions. *Journal of Travel Research*, *59*(1), 37-51. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287518821739

Vaughn, A. A., Teeters, S. A., Sadler, M. S., & Cronan, S. B. (2017). Stereotypes, emotions, and behaviors toward lesbians, gay men, bisexual women, and bisexual men. *Journal of Homosexuality*, *64*(13), 1890-1911. https://doi.org/10.1080/00918369.2016.1273718

Vorauer, J. D., Hunter, A. J., Main, K. J., & Roy, S. A. (2000). Meta-stereotype activation: Evidence from indirect measures for specific evaluative concerns experienced by members of dominant groups in intergroup interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *78*(4), 690. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.78.4.690

Wang, M., & Yang, F. (2017). The malleability of stereotype effects on spontaneous trait inferences. *Social Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1027/1864-9335/a000288

Wang, Y., Xia, Q., Yue, H., & Teng, W. (2024). Chinese Rural Kindergarten Teachers' Work–Family Conflict and Their Turnover Intention: The Role of Emotional Exhaustion and Professional Identity. *Behavioral Sciences*, *14*(7), 597. https://doi.org/10.3390/bs14070597

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: the PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*(6), 1063. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.54.6.1063

Yang, J., Gu, Y., & Cen, J. (2011). Festival tourists' emotion, perceived value, and behavioral intentions: A test of the moderating effect of festivalscape. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism*,12,(1), 25-44. Taylor & Francis Group. https://doi.org/10.1080/15470148.2010.551292

Ye, B. H., Zhang, H. Q., & Yuen, P. P. (2013). Cultural conflicts or cultural cushion? *Annals of Tourism Research*, *43*, 321-349. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2013.07.003

Ye, H.B., Qiu Zhang, H., Huawen Shen, J., & Goh, C. (2014). Does social identity affect residents' attitude toward tourism development? An evidence from the relaxation of the Individual

Visit Scheme. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *26*(6), 907-929. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-01-2013-0041

Yim, B. H., & Byon, K. K. (2018). The influence of emotions on game and service satisfaction and behavioral intention in winning and losing situations: Moderating effect of indentification with the team. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *27*(2). https://doi.org/10.32731/smq.272.062018.03

Yzerbyt, V. (2016). Intergroup stereotyping. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, *11*, 90-95. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2016.06.009

Zhang, D., Chen, H., Zhang, Z., & Cheng, W. (2025). The impact of resident value co-creation behavior on tourist citizenship behavior–a moderated mediation model. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1-29. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2025.2512039

Zhang, H., Fan, D. X., Tse, T. S., & King, B. (2017). Creating a scale for assessing socially sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 25*(1), 61–78. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1852409

Table 1. Demographic Information

Demographics	Hong Kong residents (n=544)		Demographics	Mainland Chinese tourists (n=500)	
	n	%		n	%
Gender			**Gender**		
Male	273	50.2	Male	220	44
Female	271	49.8	Female	280	56
Age			**Age**		
18-24	67	12.3	18-24	292	58.4
25-29	83	15.3	25-29	98	19.6
30-39	124	22.8	30-39	77	15.4
40-49	118	21.7	40-49	25	5.0
50-59	99	18.2	50-59	7	1.4
60 or above	53	9.7	60 or above	1	0.2
Education			**Education**		
Junior middle school or below	20	3.7	Junior middle school or below	289	57.8
High school	137	25.2	High school	163	32.6
Associate degree	66	12.1	Associate degree	27	5.4
Bachelor degree	250	46	Bachelor degree	14	2.8
Master and above	71	13.1	Master and above	4	0.8
Family monthly income (HKD)			**Individual monthly income after tax (RMB)**		
Below 10,000	18	3.3	Below 5,000	289	57.8
10,000-19,999	58	10.7	5,000-9,999	163	32.6
20,000-29,999	72	13.2	10,000-14,999	27	5.4
30,000-39,999	93	17.1	15,000-19,999	14	2.8
40,000-49,999	66	12.1	20,000-29,999	4	0.8
50,000-59,999	67	12.3	30,000 and above	3	0.6
60,000-69,999	82	15.1			
70,000-79,999	26	4.8			
80,000 and above	62	11.4			

Table 2. Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis

Hong Kong residents (HKR) (n=272)		Mainland Chinese tourists (MCT) (n=250)	
Factors/Items	Factor loading	Factors/Items	Factor loading
Negative Stereotype (Incivility)	Cronbach's α=0.974; Variance explained=38.44%	Negative Stereotype (Individualism and Arrogance)	Cronbach's α=0.929; Variance explained=22.21%
Violating local rules/custom	0.884	Worship foreign culture	0.780
No sense of public morality	0.870	Arrogant	0.752
Rude	0.860	Unfriendly to tourists	0.713
Uneducated	0.853	Restless and discontent	0.713
Noisy/Loud	0.834	Selfish	0.706
Jumping queues	0.840	Self-centred	0.700
Inconsiderate	0.821	Unpatriotic	0.693
Destroying environmental sanitation	0.828	Interest-oriented/Snobbish	0.687
Self-centred	0.827	Impatient	0.683
Impolite	0.822	Cold	0.682
Frowzy	0.815	Poor service attitude	0.668
Disturbing local life	0.799	Stubborn	0.658
Blocking streets	0.781	Unwelcoming Mainland Chinese tourists	0.655
Discourteous	0.766	Having a sense of superiority	0.616
Conflicting with locals	0.750	Short-sighted	0.579
Intrusive	0.757		
Parvenu	0.730		
Mandarin speaking only	0.537		
Positive Stereotype (Sociable Behaviour)	Cronbach's α=0.884; Variance explained=22.88%	Positive Stereotype (Competence and Civility)	Cronbach's α=0.929; Variance explained=23.40%
Easy to communicate	0.831	Hard working	0.757
Like interacting with locals	0.820	Polite	0.724
Like exploring local culture	0.808	Sporty	0.723
Respecting local culture	0.791	Smart and capable	0.708
Value experiencing local life	0.795	Professional	0.703
Friendly	0.758	High quality	0.698
Warm	0.762	Clean and tidy	0.697
Obeying rules/custom	0.746	Well-educated	0.696
Respecting others	0.679	Helpful	0.695
Like exploring new things	0.649	Courteous	0.687
Energetic	0.596	Warm	0.670
		Enjoying life	0.670
		Friendly	0.652
		Enjoying outdoor activities	0.630
		Socially responsible	0.606
		Affluent	0.549
		Following rules	0.532
Neutral Stereotype (Economic Power)	Cronbach's α=0.836; Variance explained=7.37%	Neutral Stereotype (Stressfulness)	Cronbach's α=0.622; Variance explained=5.44%
High consumption power	0.865	Huge gap between rich and poor	0.727

Love shopping	0.813	Stressful life	0.612
Rich	0.788	Hurry	0.404
Negative Emotion	Cronbach's α=0.949; Variance explained=43.613%	Negative Emotion	Cronbach's α=0.923; Variance explained=28.96%
Sadness	0.862	Disgust	0.806
Anger	0.860	Antipathy	0.804
Disappointment	0.856	Disappointment	0.797
Contempt	0.841	Anger	0.790
Shame	0.826	Embarrassed	0.782
Disgust	0.829	Sadness	0.779
Worry	0.832	Contempt	0.748
Regret	0.807	Fear	0.734
Displeasure	0.814	Shame	0.721
Fear	0.712	Regret	0.652
Amusement	0.678	Worry	0.625
Embarrassed	0.651	Compassion	0.556
Positive Emotion	Cronbach's α=0.899; Variance explained=23.835%	Positive Emotion	Cronbach's α=0.932; Variance explained=29.59%
Appreciation	0.878	Admiration	0.832
Admiration	0.840	Pleasure	0.824
Hope	0.847	Happiness	0.819
Relief	0.849	Appreciation	0.808
Envy	0.814	Relief	0.775
Sympathy	0.639	Satisfaction	0.773
		Like	0.767
		Pride	0.759
		Interest	0.738
		Envy	0.669
		Hope	0.654
Facilitating Intention	Cronbach's α=0.943; Variance explained=40.90%	Facilitating Intention (Approach Intention)	Cronbach's α=0.914; Variance explained=40.55%
Actively help MCT in need.	0.879	Interact more with HKR.	0.925
Associate with MCT.	0.866	Actively understand HKR.	0.897
Actively interact with MCT.	0.866	Strengthen communication with HKR.	0.859
Interact more with MCT.	0.819	Actively seek for help from HKR (e.g., asking for directions).	0.839
Satisfy their request.	0.819		
Welcome MCT.	0.780		
Tolerate MCT.	0.736		
Help MCT when they seek help.	0.649		
Harming Intention	Cronbach's α=0. 904; Variance explained=31.22%	Harming Intention (Avoidance Intention)	Cronbach's α=0.897; Variance explained=38.77%

Refuse their ask for help.	0.890	Avoid seeking for help from HKR.	0.898
Exclude MCT.	0.854	Avoid communication with HKR.	0.891
Demean MCT.	0.858	Refuse interaction with HKR.	0.862
Reject their request.	0.807	Avoid contact with HKR.	0.813
Avoid communication with MCT.	0.690		
Ignore MCT.	0.596		

Table 3. Results of the Confirmatory Composite Analysis

Hong Kong residents (HKR) (n=272)		Mainland Chinese tourists (MCT) (n=250)	
Factors/Items	Factor loading	Factors/Items	Factor loading
Negative Stereotype (Incivility)	(AVE=0.686, Composite Reliability=0.975, ρ*As*=0.975)	Negative Stereotype (Individualism and Arrogance)	(AVE=0.472, Composite Reliability=0.930, ρ*As*=0.924)
Violating local rules/custom	0.884	Arrogant	0.761
Rude	0.871	Interest-oriented/Snobbish	0.688
No sense of public morality	0.856	Self-centred	0.653
Uneducated	0.866	Cold	0.734
Self-centred	0.871	Restless and discontent	0.710
Inconsiderate	0.859	Worship foreign culture	0.732
Destroying environmental sanitation	0.876	Selfish	0.739
Jumping queues	0.844	Stubborn	0.609
Frowzy	0.868	Unfriendly to tourists	0.691
Impolite	0.834	Unwelcoming Mainland Chinese tourists	0.724
Disturbing local life	0.826	Impatient	0.686
Blocking streets	0.864	Unpatriotic	0.692
Noisy/Loud	0.811	Short-sighted	0.646
Discourteous	0.817	Poor service attitude	0.667
Conflicting with locals	0.801	Having a sense of superiority	0.543
Intrusive	0.785		
Parvenu	0.700		
Mandarin speaking only	0.632		
Positive Stereotype (Sociable Behaviour)	(AVE=0.662, Composite Reliability=0.955, ρ*As*=0.952)	Positive Stereotype (Competence and Civility)	(AVE=0.467, Composite Reliability=0.937, ρ*As*=0.932)
Like interacting with locals	0.865	Hard working	0.751
Like exploring local culture	0.879	Enjoying life	0.719
Easy to communicate	0.831	Helpful	0.756
Value experiencing local life	0.829	Well-educated	0.714
Respecting local culture	0.862	Polite	0.730
Friendly	0.855	Smart and capable	0.705
Obeying rules/custom	0.796	Clean and tidy	0.693
Warm	0.775	High quality	0.727
Respecting others	0.790	Professional	0.720
Like exploring new things	0.741	Courteous	0.697
Energetic	0.707	Sporty	0.638
		Friendly	0.687
		Warm	0.671
		Socially responsible	0.678
		Enjoying outdoor activities	0.585
		Following rules	0.601
		Affluent	0.500
Neutral Stereotype (Economic Power)	(AVE=0.631, Composite	Neutral Stereotype (Stressfulness)	(AVE=0.548, Composite

	Reliability=0.831, ρ*As*=0.975)		Reliability=0.777, ρ*As*=0.98)
High consumption power	0.825	Huge gap between rich and poor	0.929
Love shopping	0.564	Stressful life	0.695
Rich	0.946	Hurry	0.547
Negative Emotion	(AVE=0.665, Composite Reliability=0.959, ρ*As*=0.961)	Negative Emotion	(AVE=0.553, Composite Reliability=0.936, ρ*As*=0.939)
Sadness	0.875	Antipathy	0.838
Disappointment	0.878	Anger	0.819
Shame	0.845	Disappointment	0.827
Contempt	0.873	Embarrassed	0.778
Disgust	0.883	Disgust	0.806
Anger	0.832	Shame	0.788
Worry	0.807	Sadness	0.760
Regret	0.843	Contempt	0.790
Displeasure	0.864	Fear	0.696
Fear	0.682	Regret	0.662
Amusement	0.660	Worry	0.613
Embarrassed	0.700	Compassion	0.454
Positive Emotion	(AVE=0.666, Composite Reliability=0.921, ρ*As*=0.930)	Positive Emotion	(AVE=0.590, Composite Reliability=0.940, ρ*As*=0.933)
Appreciation	0.901	Pleasure	0.834
Admiration	0.880	Happiness	0.829
Relief	0.875	Admiration	0.793
Hope	0.867	Appreciation	0.813
Envy	0.798	Satisfaction	0.808
Sympathy	0.507	Like	0.785
		Interest	0.779
		Relief	0.755
		Pride	0.754
		Envy	0.639
		Hope	0.626
Facilitating Intention	(AVE=0.718, Composite Reliability=0.953, ρ*As*=0.948)	Facilitating Intention (Approach Intention)	(AVE=0.820, Composite Reliability=0.948, ρ*As*=0.929)
Actively help MCT in need.	0.904	Interact more with HKR.	0.937
Interact more with MCT.	0.891	Actively understand HKR.	0.92
Actively interact with MCT.	0.865	Strengthen communication with HKR.	0.639
Associate with MCT.	0.814	Actively seek for help from HKR (e.g., asking for directions).	0.454
Satisfy their request.	0.890		
Welcome MCT.	0.867		
Tolerate MCT.	0.745		

Help MCT when they seek help.	0.787		
Harming Intention	(AVE=0.696, Composite Reliability=0.932, ρ*As*=0.915)	Harming Intention (Avoidance Intention)	(AVE=0.763, Composite Reliability=0.928, ρ*As*=0.911)
Refuse their ask for help.	0.849	Avoid seeking help from HKR.	0.917
Demean MCT.	0.854	Avoid communication with HKR.	0.924
Exclude MCT.	0.863	Refuse interaction with HKR.	0.871
Reject their request.	0.860	Avoid contact with HKR.	0.773
Avoid communication with MCT.	0.853		
Ignore MCT.	0.718		

Table 4. Discriminant validity results-Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) for Hong Kong Resident Group

	Incivility	Economic Power	Sociable Behaviour	Negative Emotion	Positive Emotion	Harming Intention	Facilitating Intention
Incivility							
Economic Power	0.278						
Sociable Behaviour	0.405	0.23					
Negative Emotion	0.784	0.115	0.329				
Positive Emotion	0.36	0.178	0.764	0.258			
Harming Intention	0.693	0.147	0.275	0.809	0.177		
Facilitating Intention	0.459	0.19	0.818	0.38	0.794	0.402	

Table 5. Discriminant validity results-Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) for Mainland Chinese Tourist Group

	Individualism and Arrogance	Stressfulness	Competence and Civility	Negative Emotion	Positive Emotion	Avoidance Intention	Approach Intention
Individualism and Arrogance							
Stressfulness	0.525						
Competence and Civility	0.435	0.206					
Negative Emotion	0.651	0.174	0.387				
Positive Emotion	0.494	0.132	0.726	0.344			
Avoidance Intention	0.494	0.067	0.367	0.623	0.314		
Approach Intention	0.362	0.093	0.522	0.334	0.613	0.385	

Table 6. Specific indirect effects in the structural model for Hong Kong Resident Group

Path	Coefficient	P Values
Sociable Behaviour -> Negative Emotion -> Facilitating Behaviour	0.006	0.497
Economic Power -> Positive Emotion -> Facilitating Behaviour	0.033	0.038
Incivility -> Negative Emotion -> Facilitating Behaviour	-0.166	0
Economic Power -> Negative Emotion -> Facilitating Behaviour	0.015	0.074
Economic Power -> Positive Emotion -> Harming Behaviour	0.008	0.105
Incivility -> Positive Emotion -> Harming Behaviour	-0.01	0.157
Sociable Behaviour -> Negative Emotion -> Harming Behaviour	-0.015	0.482
Economic Power -> Negative Emotion -> Harming Behaviour	-0.039	0.034
Incivility -> Positive Emotion -> Facilitating Behaviour	-0.04	0.046
Sociable Behaviour -> Positive Emotion -> Harming Behaviour	0.073	0.019
Incivility -> Negative Emotion -> Harming Behaviour	0.444	0
Sociable Behaviour -> Positive Emotion -> Facilitating Behaviour	0.292	0

Table 7. Specific indirect effects in the structural model for Mainland Chinese Tourist Group

Path	Coefficient	P Values
Competence and Civility -> Positive Emotion -> Avoidance Intention	0.005	0.885
Individualism and Arrogance -> Negative Emotion -> Avoidance Intention	0.234	0
Stressfulness -> Positive Emotion -> Approach Intention	-0.024	0.182
Competence and Civility -> Negative Emotion -> Approach Intention	0.009	0.262
Individualism and Arrogance -> Negative Emotion -> Approach Intention	-0.043	0.142
Stressfulness -> Negative Emotion -> Avoidance Intention	-0.031	0.114
Stressfulness -> Negative Emotion -> Approach Intention	0.006	0.253
Stressfulness -> Positive Emotion -> Avoidance Intention	-0.001	0.905
Individualism and Arrogance -> Positive Emotion -> Approach Intention	-0.08	0
Individualism and Arrogance -> Positive Emotion -> Avoidance Intention	-0.002	0.892
Competence and Civility -> Positive Emotion -> Approach Intention	0.245	0
Competence and Civility -> Negative Emotion -> Avoidance Intention	-0.047	0.019

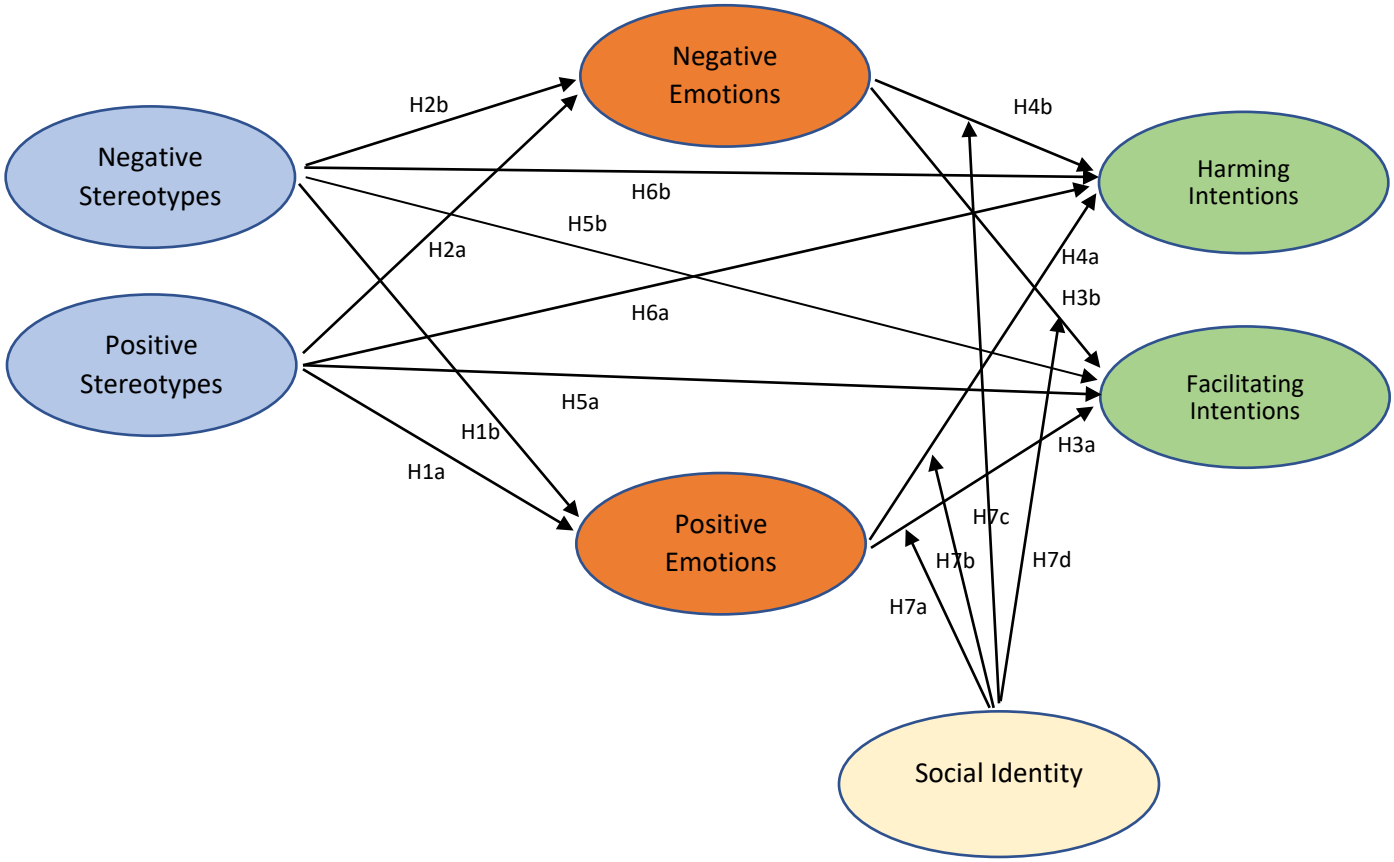


Figure 1. Research Framework

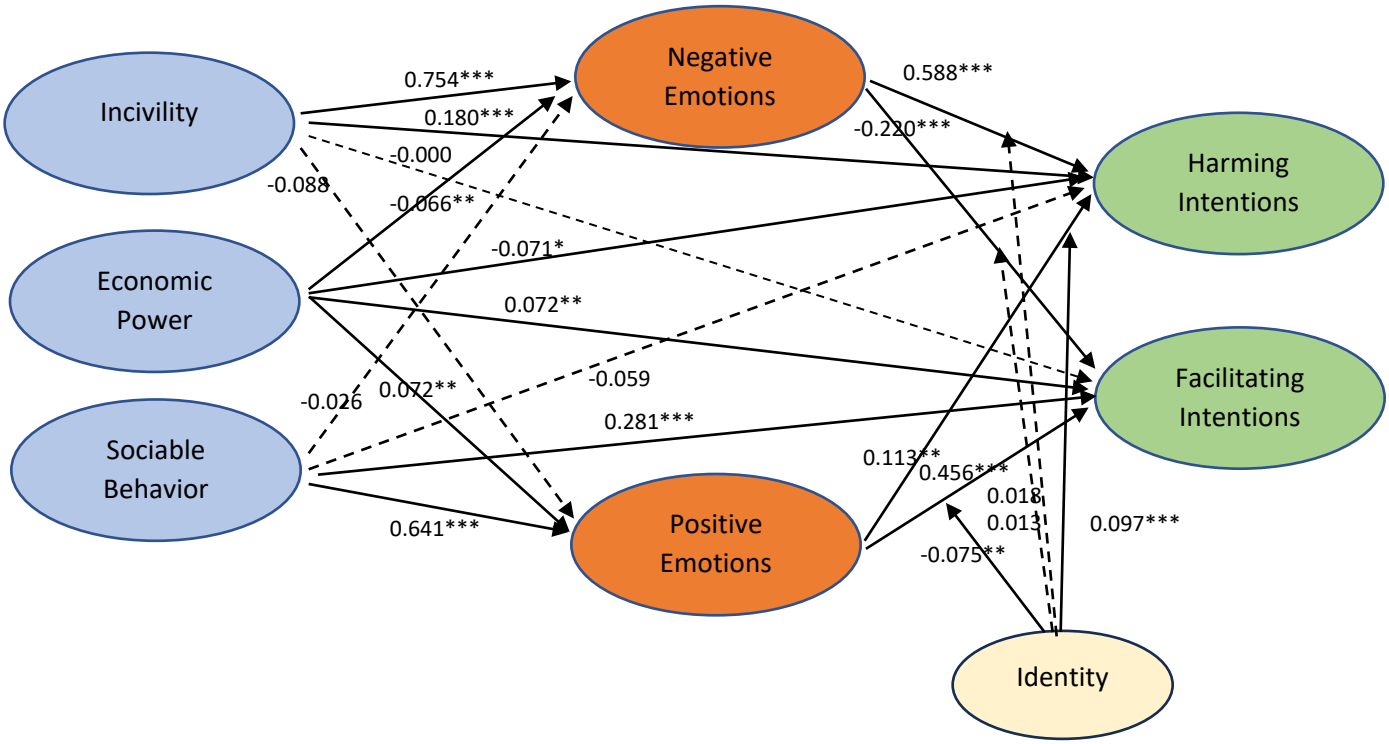
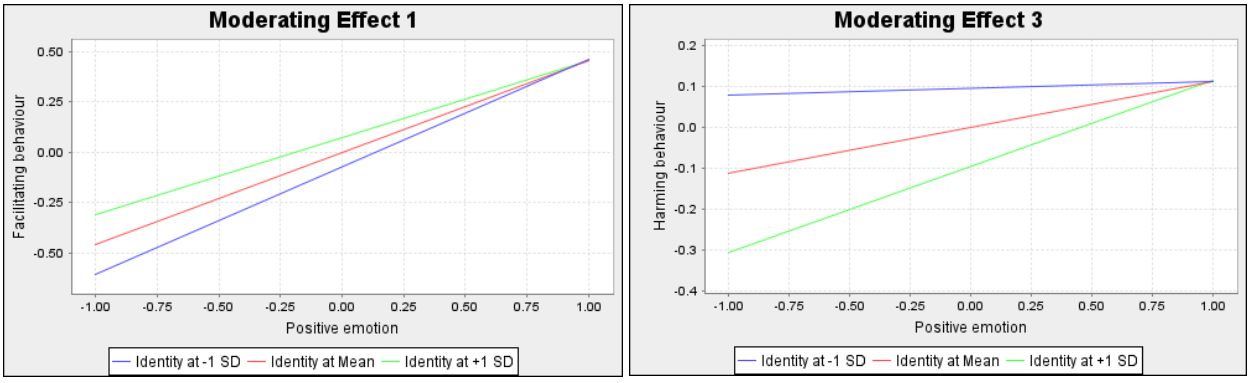


Figure 2. Structural Model in Hong Kong Resident Group



Social identity→ positive emotions and facilitating intentions

Social identity→ positive emotions and harming intentions

Figure 3. The Moderating Effect of Social Identity in Hong Kong Resident Group

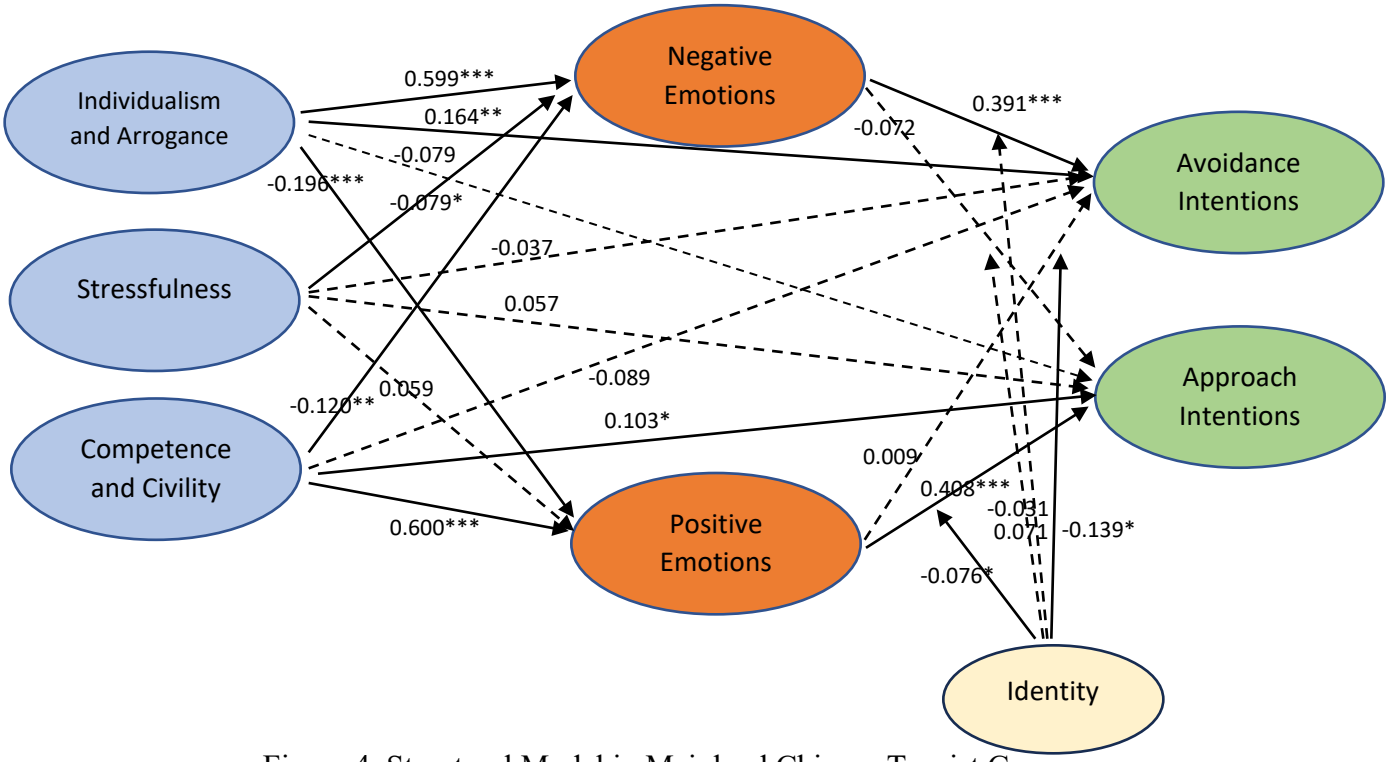
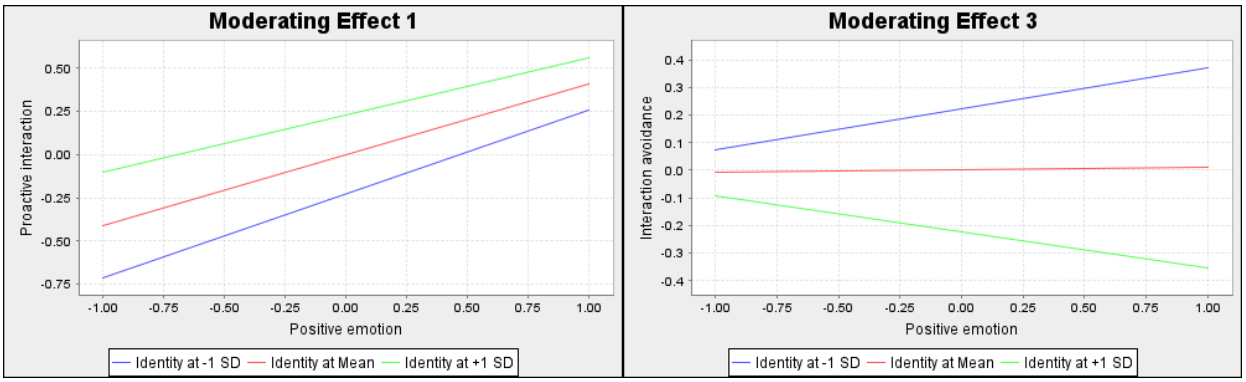


Figure 4. Structural Model in Mainland Chinese Tourist Group



Social identity→ positive emotions and approach intentions

Social identity→ positive emotions and avoidance intentions

Figure 5. The Moderating Effect of Social Identity in Mainland Chinese Tourist Group

Appendix 1: Measurements and sources

Hong Kong resident survey measurement items

Factors/Items	Sources
Positive Stereotype (Sociable Behaviour)	
Easy to communicate	Chen and Hsu (2021)
Like interacting with locals	
Like exploring local culture	
Respecting local culture	
Value experiencing local life	
Friendly	
Warm	
Obeying rules/custom	
Respecting others	
Like exploring new things	
Energetic	
Well-mannered*	
Like exploring local attractions*	
Negative Stereotype (Incivility)	
Violating local rules/custom	Chen and Hsu (2021)
No sense of public morality	
Rude	
Uneducated	
Noisy/Loud	
Jumping queues	
Inconsiderate	
Destroying environmental sanitation	
Self-centred	
Impolite	
Frowzy	
Disturbing local life	
Blocking streets	
Discourteous	
Conflicting with locals	
Intrusive	
Parvenu	
Mandarin speaking only	
Superficial sightseeing*	
In large groups*	
Neutral Stereotype (Economic Power)	
High consumption power	Chen and Hsu (2021)
Love shopping	
Rich	
Like photo-taking*	
Positive Emotion	
Appreciation	Chen et al. (2018)

Admiration	Chen et al. (2022)
Hope	Scherer et al. (2013)
Relief	
Envy	
Sympathy	
Negative Emotion	
Sadness	Chen et al. (2018)
Anger	Chen et al. (2022)
Disappointment	Scherer et al. (2013)
Contempt	
Shame	
Disgust	
Worry	
Regret	
Displeasure	
Fear	
Amusement	
Embarrassed	
Neutral Emotion	
Surprise*	Chen et al. (2022)
Facilitating Intention	
Actively help MCT** in need	Chen and Hsu (2021)
Associate with MCT	
Actively interact with MCT	
Interact more with MCT	
Satisfy their request	
Welcome MCT	
Tolerate MCT	
Help MCT when they seek help	
Reminder their misbehaviour*	
Harming Intention	
Refuse their ask for help	Chen and Hsu (2021)
Exclude MCT	
Demean MCT	
Reject their request	
Avoid communication with MCT	
Ignore MCT	
Try not to talk to MCTs*	
Do nothing*	
Stop MCTs' inappropriate behaviors (e.g., stop queue-jumping) *	
Warn MCTs who behave inappropriately (e.g., call the police, record their misconduct and post it online) *	
Deliberately avoid MCTs*	
Social Identity	
How do you define yourself?	Ye et al. (2014)

Answers include: Hong Konger, Hong Konger as well as Chinese, Chinese as well as Hong Konger, and Chinese.

* Items deleted after EFA due to low factor loadings.

**MCT refers to Mainland Chinese tourists.

Mainland Chinese tourist survey measurement items

Factors/Items	Sources
Positive Stereotype (Competence and Civility)	
Hard working	Interviews
Polite	Panel review
Sporty	
Smart and capable	
Professional	
High quality	
Clean and tidy	
Well-educated	
Helpful	
Courteous	
Warm	
Enjoying life	
Friendly	
Enjoying outdoor activities	
Socially responsible	
Affluent	
Following rules	
Polished and trendy*	
Simple-living*	
Care about the Mainland's development*	
Value freedom*	
Negative Stereotype (Individualism and Arrogance)	
Worship foreign culture	Interviews
Arrogant	Panel review
Unfriendly to tourists	
Restless and discontent	
Selfish	
Self-centred	
Unpatriotic	
Interest-oriented/Snobbish	
Impatient	
Cold	
Poor service attitude	
Stubborn	
Unwelcoming Mainland Chinese tourists	
Having a sense of superiority	
Short-sighted	
A polarization of attitudes toward the Mainland China*	
Conservative*	
Neutral Stereotype (Stressfulness)	
Huge gap between rich and poor	Interviews

Stressful life	Panel review
Hurry	
Fast-paced work/life*	
Solitary*	
Positive Emotion	
Admiration	Watson, Clark, and
Pleasure	Tellegen (1988)
Happiness	Scherer et al. (2013)
Appreciation	Interviews
Relief	Panel review
Satisfaction	
Like	
Pride	
Interest	
Envy	
Hope	
Negative Emotion	
Disgust	Watson, Clark, and
Antipathy	Tellegen (1988)
Disappointment	Scherer et al. (2013)
Anger	Interviews
Embarrassed	Panel review
Sadness	
Contempt	
Fear	
Shame	
Regret	
Worry	
Compassion	
Neutral Emotion	
Surprise*	Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) Scherer et al. (2013) Interviews Panel review
Facilitating Intention (Approach Intention)	
Interact more with HKR**	Cuddy et al. (2007)
Actively understand HKR	Interviews
Strengthen communication with HKR	Panel review
Actively seek for help from HKR (e.g., asking for directions)	
Harming Intention (Avoidance Intention)	
Avoid seeking for help from HKR	Cuddy et al. (2007)
Avoid communication with HKR	Interviews
Refuse interaction with HKR	Panel review
Avoid contact with HKR	
Social Identity	

Agreement of viewing HKRs as being in the same Chinese group	Adapted from Gaertner et al. (1993)

* Items deleted after EFA due to low factor loadings.

**HKR refers to Hong Kong residents.