

**The perceived role of social interaction in the co-creation
of tourism experiences:
A study of Chinese visitors to Japan**

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Abstract

Tourism scholars and practitioners have increasingly started acknowledging the tourist's role as a co-creator of tourism experiences. Based on the service-dominant logic and customer-dominant logic, a growing body of literature on tourist experiences has addressed the importance of tourists' social interactions with various types of social actors in shaping the co-creation of tourism experiences. However, previous studies have largely focused on the service organizations and service personnel as the counterparts of tourists in interactions that co-create the tourist experiences, leaving tourists' social interactions with residents and other tourists largely unexplored. In addition, there is a relative lack of research on East-Asian tourists' experiences in East-Asian contexts. Addressing these plural research gaps, this study investigates Chinese tourists' social interactions with various types of social actors, including service providers, residents, and other tourists, during their visit to Japan. In the current study, special attention was paid to the tourist-tourist interaction, as Chinese outbound tourists show more diversified perceptions towards social interactions with other tourists.

This study applied a two-stage research approach. The first phase consisted of 29 semi-structured in-depth exploratory interviews with 42 Chinese outbound tourists in Japan to gain an initial insight into the social aspects of Chinese tourists' experiences. The investigation covered both direct and indirect (or 'inward') social interactions between Chinese tourists and three types of social actors: service providers, residents, and other tourists. The findings revealed three types of tourists' direct social interactions with other social actors based on the factors influencing the occurrence of the interactions. The three types of interactions are labeled protocol-oriented interaction, help-related interaction and sociable interaction. Protocol-oriented interaction is the most frequently reported type of interaction in this study; it is mechanical in nature and occurs when a tourist feels obliged to be polite by initiating or

responding to the other individual's courtesy because they must share time or space with one another. Tourist encounters with service providers when purchasing or receiving a product or service also fall into this category. The second most frequently reported type of interaction is related to the tourists' need to get help from other people (including other tourists, residents, and service providers), or the tourists' response to help requests from other people (mainly other tourists). Sociable interaction occurs out of the interactants' intrinsic motivation to socialize. Besides the direct interactions, interviewees also reported a substantial number of indirect or inward interactions with other people, especially with other tourists. It suggests that other people may influence the tourist experience without direct interaction taking place, which further confirms the important impact of the social aspect of the tourist experience.

By covering tourists' perceptions of social interactions with all three types of social actors, the first stage of qualitative study was able to compare Chinese tourists' social interactions with different types of social actors and the relative impacts of each of these types of interaction on their travel experiences. The result indicates that compared with service providers and residents, Chinese outbound tourists held a wider range of views towards other tourists and these in turn reflect various attitudes towards the co-creation of the tourism experience with other tourists.

The second stage of quantitative study investigated the factors influencing tourist participation in tourist-tourist (T2T) interaction, as well as the impact of the interactions on tourist satisfaction. Specifically, the study differentiates tourists' interactions with other Chinese tourists and with non-Chinese tourists. Tourist motivation, tourist possession of physical operant resources and cultural operant resources were proposed as the antecedents of T2T Interaction. Tourist extraversion was proposed as the overarching factor influencing the three antecedents. Furthermore, a positive relationship between tourist-tourist interaction and tourist satisfaction was proposed. Data were collected among 300 Chinese outbound tourists and

analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling as well as other techniques. The results support all the hypotheses except for the relationship between tourist extraversion and possession of cultural operant resources, and the relationship between tourist possession of cultural operant resources and T2T Interaction. The unique role of cultural operant resources in Chinese tourists' interactions with other tourists is thus emphasized in this study. Data analysis also uncovered that Chinese tourists distinguish in T2T Interaction between whether the counterparts are other Chinese tourists or non-Chinese tourists. In addition, this study demonstrated that tourists with different demographic characteristics and travel styles exhibit different patterns regarding the social aspects of their tourism experiences.

This research provides a theoretical foundation to understand Chinese outbound tourists' perceptions of social interactions, directly or indirectly, with not only the host people (including service providers and residents), but also other tourists (including in-group and out-group tourists). The quantitative study on tourist-tourist interactions addresses the emerging role of other tourists as important participants in co-creating tourist experiences and presents the first endeavor to develop a model to investigate this phenomenon. On a practical level, the study offers tourism practitioners a better understanding of Chinese outbound tourists' complicated perceptions and expectations towards the role of different types of social actors in their tourism experiences. It is proposed that these insights may assist tourism practitioners and destinations to better develop strategies to facilitate positive social interactions and at the same time avoid or alleviate negative interactions, so they can better co-create valuable experiences with tourists.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Theoretical background

The core function of tourism is the creation (Sternberg, 1997) and consumption (de Jager, 2009) of experiences. Recent developments in the tourism industry suggest that tourists -and especially the so-called Free Independent Traveler (FIT) type- are increasingly looking for travel experiences that allow them to actively participate in the experience creation process (Campos et al., 2015), and that tourists are becoming less likely to passively accept the what has been described as the “commercial, artificial and superficial” (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009) experience staged at the destination. Empowered by the advancement of information technology, tourist experiences increasingly occur beyond the conventional service context (e.g., transportation, accommodation, dining, and places of entertainment), and involve tourist active involvement in the entire process of traveling. Accordingly, both scholars and practitioners have increasingly started acknowledging the tourist’s role as a co-creator, or even the sole creator, of the tourism experience (Campos et al., 2015; Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Rihova et al., 2013).

Tourist experiences typically take place in the presence of or in collaboration/co-creation with other people, and as a result usually involve some level of social interaction. The study of Maunier and Camelis (2013) revealed that human factors (including interactions with inhabitants and other visitors) account for more than 20% of the critical incidents that tourists report influence their satisfaction with the travel experience. Academic studies on the social aspect of the tourism experience and its impact on experience co-creation mostly focus on tourists’ interactions with service providers (e.g., Minkiewicz, Evans & Bridson, 2013; Salvado, 2011), the local community (e.g., Azevedo, 2009; Richards, 2010), and other tourists (e.g., Reichenberger, 2017; Rihova et al., 2013). Intentionally or not, these three groups of social

actors become participants in value co-creation, or sometimes even value ‘co-destruction’ (Plé & Cáceres, 2010) in the tourism experience.

The role of social interactions in the co-created tourism experience is receiving increasing research attention. Yet little is known about how tourist social interactions with various types of social actors manifest themselves, and in which ways they may impact the tourist experience. Specifically, we know very little about how individual tourists attach personal meanings to social interactions and how they perceive the social aspect of their tourism experiences.

Moreover, previous studies on tourist social interaction and co-creation have been largely conducted in western destinations and usually involve western tourists. Given the growing importance of East Asia in the global tourism industry as a destination and source market, academic studies focusing on East-Asian destinations and involving East-Asian tourists are urgently needed. More specifically, while Chinese tourists constitute an important and ever-growing source market for outbound¹ tourists in global tourism (Li et al., 2013; WTO, 2018), research on Chinese tourists is still relatively rare.

In order to address the plural research gaps revealed above, this research is concerned with Chinese tourist social interactions with various types of social actors including service providers, residents and previously unacquainted other tourists during their visit in Japan. Japan is now the second largest tourism destination in Asia and mainland China is its largest source market of inbound tourists (Kennedy & Lotus 2015; Tan, 2018). The research reported in this thesis aims to generate a broad picture of how Chinese tourists perceive the social aspects of their travel experience, in what ways they engage in social interactions and how they evaluate

¹ The term ‘outbound’ tourists to describe Chinese tourists traveling from China to other countries and ‘inbound’ to describe Chinese tourists traveling to Japan are used interchangeably throughout this dissertation. From a Chinese perspective the tourists traveling to Japan are ‘outbound’ tourists, whereas the same tourists are ‘inbound’ tourists from the perspective of Japan.

the value and impact of social interactions.

Due to a relative lack of previous research on this topic and on the Eastern-Asian tourism market, this study first employs an exploratory qualitative research, followed by a larger scale quantitative study. The first stage of qualitative research employs in-depth interviews to investigate tourist social interaction from the tourist perspectives, as opposed to the destination/service provider's perspective, to account for the subjective nature of tourist experience and to allow individual meanings and perceptions to emerge from the tourist narrative. The research design of quantitative study is both based on the findings of the first stage of qualitative research as well as on extant research on related topics, and aims to further investigate and numerically validate the issues that emerged from the in-depth interviews of the qualitative study.

1.2 Research context

1.2.1 Tourism development in Japan and the impact of Chinese tourists

The setting for this research is Japan as an international tourist destination. The tourism industry in Japan has undergone tremendous development during recent years. Specifically, the past decade has witnessed a striking increase in international tourist arrivals to Japan. The number of international visitors to Japan has nearly quadrupled from 5.2 million in 2003 when Japan initiated the “Visit Japan Campaign” to 28.69 million in 2017 (JNTO, 2018a). International visitors spent about 4.5 trillion yen (about \$41.7 billion) in Japan in 2017, up 17.8% from the previous year. The tourism industry has been “one of the few bright spots in Japan's economy” (Spitzer, 2015), and pundits and governmental publications often highlight the tourism industry’s contribution to national and regional economic regeneration. With the initial target of increasing inbound tourists to 20 million by 2020 having already been achieved in 2016 (JNTO, 2016), the Japanese government has doubled the goal to 40 million by 2020, and aims at 60 million foreign tourists by 2030. The goal of tourist spending is set at 8 trillion yen and 15 trillion yen by 2020 and 2030 respectively (MLIT, 2018).

Among the source markets of the Japanese tourism industry, China is a particularly lucrative segment because of its constant growth in both the number of tourists and its contribution to the economy. Japan has emerged as the most preferred travel destination for Chinese tourists since 2014 (Wei, 2015). Mainland China has been the largest source market since 2015, with 4.99 million Mainland Chinese tourists visiting Japan that year (JNTO, 2018a). In 2017, this number jumped to 7.36 million, and Mainland Chinese now comprise 25.6% of the inbound visitors to Japan (JNTO, 2018b).

What is perhaps even more important is the spending power of Chinese tourists. Almost 40 percent of inbound tourist consumption in 2016 was contributed by Chinese tourists. This

market spent 783.2 billion yen in 2016, which is roughly the same as the value of Japan's annual auto parts exports (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2016). To be specific, the travel expenditure of Chinese tourists was 228,337 yen per capita, with on average 122,859 yen being spent on shopping. In comparison, tourists from Source Korea spent 66,358 yen per person, and only 19,563 yen was spent on shopping (JNTO, 2018b). China is thus regarded as an all-important market for Japan's tourism industry (Tan, 2018).

Besides the phenomenal development of Chinese tourists visiting Japan, the striking growth of the Chinese outbound market also draws worldwide attention. China has been the world's top source market since 2012 and keeps the fastest-growing pace (WTO, 2013, 2018). In 2017, Chinese tourists made a total of 143 million outbound trips, a 6% increase over the previous year. The spending on international tourism of Chinese tourist rose 5% in 2017, with US\$ 258 billion spent overseas. China has been the world's top tourism source market in terms of spending for six years in a row for since it surpassed the former top spender Germany and second largest spender United States in 2012 (WTO, 2018). There has been a call to better understand the Chinese market given the sheer size of the country's outbound tourist population and spending power (Li et al., 2013). Along with the Japanese government's commitment to further develop tourism industry, the investigation of Chinese tourist social interactions in Japan will help both academic scholars and tourism practitioners to design better tourist experience and thus improve tourist satisfaction.

1.2.2 Travel attractiveness and constraints of Chinese tourists to Japan

China and Japan had a close and complicated relationship in history and may result in unique travel attractiveness and constraints among Chinese tourists to Japan. The attractions and constraints may not only impact on the contexts within which tourists are coming into contact with various types of social actors, but may also influence the antecedents and contents of the

social interactions, and may consequently affect how Chinese tourists hold personal meanings to the social interactions. It is thus necessary to introduce the attractiveness and constraints perceived or experienced by Chinese tourists to Japan.

It is suggested that the development of Chinese outbound tourism to its neighboring countries, such as Japan might be closely related and restricted by the historical, cultural, political relationships between the two parties (Lin et al., 2017). Researchers investigated the impact of Sino-Japanese history on Chinese tourists' emotional encounters when visiting Japan and found that it seldomly constitute constraints for Chinese tourists visiting Japan (Ji, Li & Hsu, 2016). Moreover, they (Ji, Li & Hsu, 2016) found that direct interactions with local Japanese people facilitate Chinese tourists to have a closer look at the Japanese society and to appreciate the hospitality of the Japanese people. Lin et al.'s study (2017) also reveal the historical factor are the most important constraints for Chinese people who have not visited Japan, whereas for the ones who have visited Japan previously, the impact of historical factor drops significantly. Cultural aspects also constitute a major constraint for Chinese tourists, which are demonstrated in Chinese tourists perceived cultural and psychological distance with Japan people and language barriers when visiting Japan.

Regarding the attractions of Japan, Lin et al.'s study (2017) find that for Chinese people who have not visited Japan, Japanese cartoons, films and television play the most important role stimulating their travel motivation. Visiting family or friends who are studying or living in Japan is also an important reason for some Chinese tourists (Lin et al., 2017). Whereas for the ones who have visited Japan, they are most attracted by the cultural environment, and Japanese product and services. Chinese tourists frequently patronize cultural and historical sites in Japan, as they are attracted by the similarity between Chinese culture and Japanese culture and are at the same time trying to discover something new and unique in Japan. Chinese tourists have a

great trust in Japanese products, visiting Japan is thus seen as a great shopping opportunity to them (Lin et al., 2017).

Moreover, the hospitality and profession of Japanese service personnel, as well as the highly civilized and polite local Japanese people, are highly appreciated by Chinese tourists, which are found both in previous literature (Ji, Li & Hsu, 2016; Lin et al., 2017), but also repeatedly mentioned by participants in this current study.

1.3 Chapter outline

This thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter 1 explains the role of the tourist as the co-creator of the tourism experience. It also introduces tourist social interaction with various groups of social actors as a major vehicle for tourist experience co-creation to take place. This chapter also presents the rationale for choosing Japan as the research context. This rationale includes the rapid increase of tourist numbers visiting Japan, and the important economic and cultural impact of Chinese tourists on Japanese tourism development. Finally, the chapter discusses the attractiveness and constraints for Chinese tourists when choosing Japan as a destination, and outlines the context within which Chinese tourists may encounter various groups of social actors.

Chapter 2 contains a review of the literature pertinent to the topics of this dissertation. It begins with a review of the development of perspectives on value co-creation starting with the so-called Service-Dominant (S-D) logic and discusses a recent shift among some researchers to the so-called Customer-Dominant (C-D) logic. The chapter also reviews the previous literature on the tourism experience with a special focus on the topics of tourist social interaction and experience co-creation. Finally, the chapter presents findings of a systematic analysis of the literature on tourism experience co-creation, and outlines plural research gaps in the extant literature which will be addressed in the remaining chapters of this dissertation.

Chapter 3 outlines the scope and research objectives of this study and introduces the overall research plan.

Chapter 4 describes the qualitative part of this research. It first introduces the research method used in the qualitative study, including the design of the research instrument, the interview procedure, and the techniques utilized in data analysis. It then reports the research findings, including different types of tourist social interactions and Chinese tourist perceptions of

different types of social actors. The last part discusses the research findings, reflects on the limitations of the qualitative study and sets the stage for the following quantitative study.

Chapter 5 concentrates on the quantitative part of this research. Based on the findings and insights from the qualitative study described in chapter 4, the research hypotheses and construct measurement are developed and explained. Then it reports the procedure and methods adopted in data collection and analysis. The results of a measurement model test and structural model test are illustrated subsequently. It also analyzes the effect of the respondent demographic characteristics and travel features on the research constructs and reports the results. The last section summarizes the findings of the quantitative study and discusses the limitations and avenues for future study.

Chapter 6 revisits the research objective of this study and discusses the role of social interaction in the tourism experience. This chapter also includes the theoretical contributions and managerial implications of this research, followed by a discussion on limitations and future research directions.

Chapter 2 Literature review

2.1 Value co-creation

2.1.1 Value co-creation under the perspective of the Service-Dominant logic

‘Value’ is regarded as the central concept in marketing and consumer research (Woodruff, 1997). Traditionally, ‘value’ is viewed as embedded in the output of the producer, and is evaluated by consumers’ trade-off between the benefit they get and the cost they pay (Zeithaml, 1988). With this perspective, the role of the firm and the consumer is clearly distinguished, seeing the firm as the sole creator of the value, and the consumer as the sometimes-passive recipient of the offering of the firm. However, recent consumer research points out the increasingly active role of consumers and criticizes the outcome-oriented perspective of value creation (Tronvoll et al., 2011) for being too static and lacking a more dynamic and process-oriented perspective of value creation (Korkman, 2006 ; Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Subsequently, Vargo and Lusch (2004) introduce the concept of the Service-Dominant logic (hereafter: S-D logic). This perspective has been widely adopted by other scholars (e.g., Grönroos, 2008; FitzPatrick et al., 2013; Prebensen, Vittersø & Dahl, 2013).

The S-D logic brings up a fundamental shift of the focus on resources. Compared to the traditional marketing notion focusing mostly on ‘operand resources’ (tangible resources on which the operation or act is performed; e.g., natural resources such as water and land) as the unit of exchange, the focus of the S-D logic shifts to the ‘operant resources’ (the invisible and intangible resources which can be employed to act on operand resources or other resources; e.g., consumers’² skills and knowledge) (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). These operant resources of

² Similar to Vargo and Lusch (2004) and other authors writing on the topics of Service-Dominant and Customer-Dominant logic, this dissertation uses the terms ‘customer’ and ‘consumer’ interchangeably; the term ‘customer’ is thus used in the limited sense of ‘consumer’ as in Business to Consumer (B-to-C) marketing.

consumers now assume the central role, as they enable consumers to co-create value through using, experiencing, or by getting involved in the process of the firm's value propositions to better meet their individual needs (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Vargo and Lusch also introduced the related concepts of 'value-in-use' (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) and 'value-in-context' (Vargo & Lusch, 2008), suggesting that value is obtained by the consumer when s/he uses the firm's resources (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). In the S-D logic, the roles of firms and consumers are not distinct, as value is always co-created through the active and dynamic firm-consumer interaction and integration of resources of both sides (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2008).

Because of the shift towards the S-D logic perspective, the related notion of 'co-creation' has received considerable attention in service marketing studies. Ostrom and colleagues (2010) report that the investigation on how co-creation contributes to service experiences is one of the top ten research priorities in the service marketing field. In the context of tourism studies, Li and Petrick (2008) also suggest the S-D logic as one of the three alternative marketing perspectives worthy of further exploration. Similarly, the notion of co-creation is widely employed in tourism studies (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Campos et al., 2015; de Jager, 2009). Scholars point out that as tourists have become increasingly mature, they look for participatory types of tourism which allow them to actively create unique and memorable experiences (Morgan, Elbe & de Esteban Curiel, 2009). In line with the shift in marketing perspectives on the provider-customer relationship, tourism studies also embrace the idea that the relationship between producers and tourists is increasingly blurred and that this necessitates a fresh perspective (Azevedo, 2009). Scholars now view the tourist experience as being co-created by the visitors and now even regard the involvement of the tourist into the experience generation as an important source of innovation (de Jager, 2009; Park & Vargo, 2012).

However, as the resource-integrating activities are often regarded as work-like tasks for

consumers, some scholars have questioned how this approach can explain the process of actual consumer value generation by assuming that consumers merely perform resource-integrating tasks (Korkman, 2006; Heinonen et al., 2010). Several scholars argue that although the S-D logic has extended the understanding of the active role of consumers, it is too provider-oriented as it views consumers as “partial employees” (Grönroos & Voima, 2013; Heinonen et al., 2010; Korkman, 2006). The S-D logic is thus criticized as being merely an update of the previous goods-dominant logics with a more advanced provider-dominant view, and that it is insufficient for providing important implications for management (Heinonen et al., 2010). In accordance with the S-D logic’s assertion that the operant resources play the crucial role in the value creation (Vargo & Lusch, 2004), some scholars argue that since the operant resources belong to the consumers, it should be the consumers who control the creation of the value. (Heinonen et al., 2010; Grönroos & Voima, 2013).

2.1.2 Value co-creation under the perspective of the Customer-Dominant logic

Based on the view that consumers control value creation, Heinonen and colleagues (2010) propose the Customer-Dominant logic (hereafter: C-D logic). Heinonen et al. (2010) claim that the C-D logic is not merely an upgrade of the S-D logic, but rather a different approach that is truly shifting the focus to consumers and their role as the co-creators of value. The C-D logic emphasizes the importance of a holistic understanding how consumers use, experience, and judge services to create their own value, rather than focusing on how to better create tailored value to fulfill consumers’ needs from the perspective of the firm (Heinonen et al., 2010; Grönroos & Voima, 2013). The traditional research on customer perception towards the offerings under the provider-dominant perspective is regarded as trying to answer the question of how consumers use and experience offerings in their context (Heinonen et al., 2010). In contrast, the C-D logic claims that it is more crucial for firms to develop an in-depth insight into consumers’ activities, practices, experiences, and context so that firms may better support

their customers' lives (Heinonen et al., 2010).

While narrowing the focus on consumers, the C-D logic at the same time calls for a broader view on the customer's time frame. In contrast to 'value-in-use' under the S-D logic, which assumes that value emerges when customers use a service, the C-D logic introduces the notion of 'value-in-experience' and suggests that value can be experienced before purchase, during use/consumption, and/or after use/consumption (Heinonen et al., 2010). Thus, this C-D logic seamlessly applies to the tourism industry where experiences play an essential role. Following this same logic, a study by Quinlan Cutler and Carmichael (2010) postulates the idea that tourism is a multi-phased experience involving anticipation, travel to site, on-site activity, return travel, and recollection.

The C-D logic further suggests that the focus should not be only on the value creation interactions between the firm and its customers, but that it should also take other actors who also participate in the process of value creation into account (Heinonen et al., 2010; McColl-Kennedy & Tombs, 2011). Campos et al.'s (2015) study echoes this notion, claiming that tourist co-creation behaviors and processes nowadays develop beyond the firm's scope. Tourists today not only frequently interact with the service providers, but also encounter the local community and other tourists during the multi-phased tourism experiences. Rihova et al. (2013, 2015) advocate that Vargo and Lusch's (2004) S-D logic should be extended to incorporate these intense social interactions beyond the traditional consumption contexts. It thus appears that the C-D logic may offer a more comprehensive and up-to-date approach to understanding the tourism experience.

2.2 The tourist experience³

Experience is the core of tourism, as scholars state tourism's central productive activity is the creation of the touristic experience (Sternberg, 1997), and "tourists are in fact and by definition looking for experiences" (de Jager, 2009, p.2). Tourism has been called an industry that sells experience (Ihamäki, 2012; Kim, 2010; Volo, 2009). Numerous scholars have investigated the tourism experience, yet studies have been very diverse in the perspectives used to approach tourism experience (Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). Tourism experience studies range from the satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors (Hasegawa, 2010; Maunier & Camelis, 2013) to the memorable nature of the tourism experience (Kim, 2010, 2014; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). However, there is no universal definition of what exactly constitutes the tourism experience.

Quan and Wang (2004) interpret the tourist experience from the social science perspective and point out that the tourist experience is "in sharp contrast" to the daily experience (e.g. opposition to ordinary, routine, familiar). In the conceptual model of the tourist experience introduced by Quan and Wang (2004), the tourist experience is constituted of two dimensions: peak touristic experience and supporting consumer experience, which are the contrast, intensification, or extension of daily routine experiences. The peak experience is regarded as constituting the major motivations for tourism, whereas the supporting experience is driven by basic consumer needs on the journey, such as eating, sleeping and transport, which do not constitute the major motivations for tourism. The boundary between the peak experience and the supporting experience is not fixed, as empirical study on tourist food consumption find that food consumption can be either the peak touristic experience or the supporting consumer experience, dependent upon specific circumstances (Quan & Wang, 2004).

³ In this dissertation the terms 'tourist experience' and 'tourism experience' are used interchangeably.

Quinlan Cutler and Carmichael (2010) address the complexity of the tourism experience and introduce a tourist experience conceptual model which includes not only the actual tourist experience, but also the influential realm, and the personal realm (see Figure 2-1). In Quinlan Cutler and Carmichael (2010)'s model, the tourist experience is a multi-phased process consisting of anticipation, travel to site, on-site activity, return travel, and recollection. The tourist experience is influenced by the influential realm and the personal realm. The influential realm refers to the aspects that are outside the individual yet impact on the tourist experience, whereas the factors of the personal realm are within the individual. The influential realm encompasses physical aspects, social aspects and product/service aspects. Specifically, social aspects include social settings, personal relationships, and interactions with hosts, personnel, and other tourists. Tourist experiences commonly take place in the presence of other social actors, who may influence a tourist's evaluation of the quality of the experience and consequently may have an impact on the level of satisfaction with the experience. From this stance, other tourists are co-producers of experiences as they are also necessary elements in tourism activities or events. The personal realm encompasses factors such as knowledge, memory, and perception, which influence the motivations and expectations towards the tourism experience as well as shape the final evaluation of satisfactions of the tourist experience (Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010)

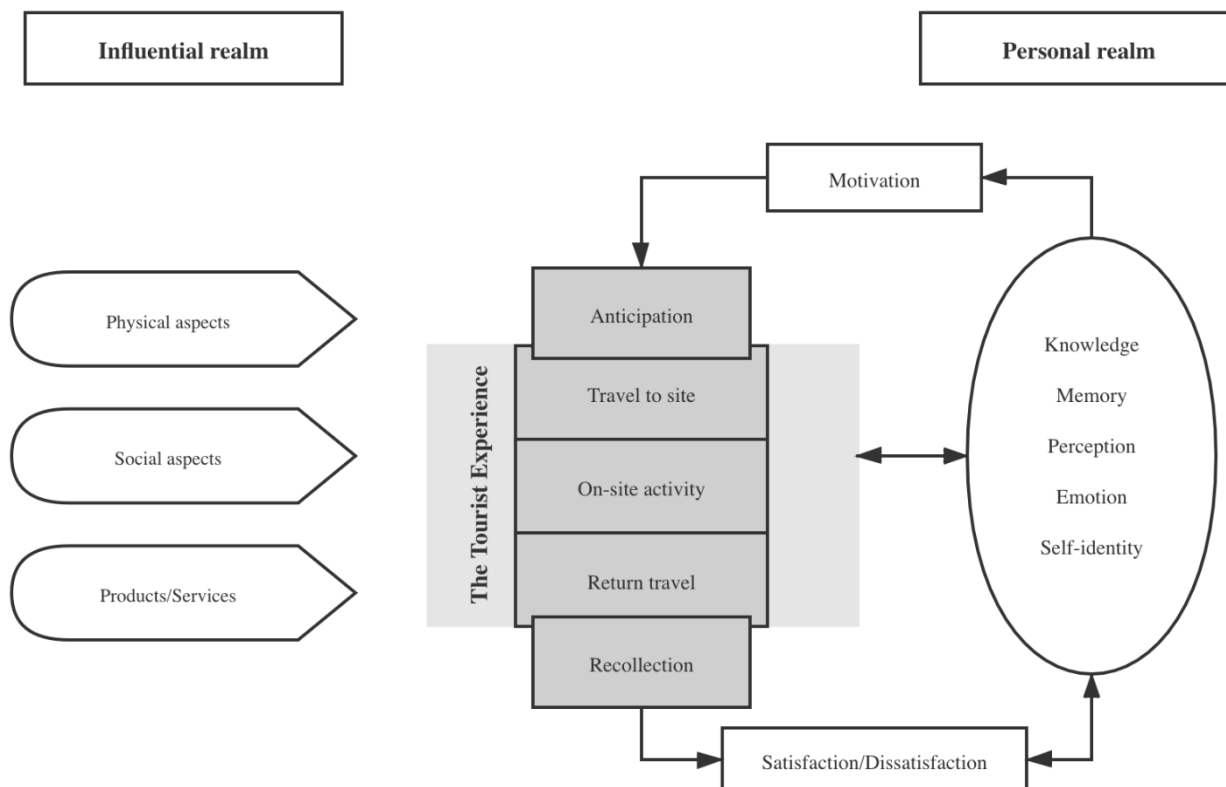


Figure 2-1 The tourist experience conceptual model of influences and outcomes

(Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010, p.8)

Several other scholars (e.g., Campos et al., 2015; Reichenberger, 2017; Rihova et al., 2013; Scott, Laws & Boksberger, 2009) share the same view on the holistic nature of the tourism experience, and acknowledge the social aspect as an important factor contributing to the tourist experience. Tourist social interaction, interchangeably referred as social contact (i.e., Fan et al., 2017; Reisinger & Turner, 2003), is explored from various perspectives to understand the role it plays in the tourist experience (e.g., Campos et al, 2016; Pearce, 2005a; Reichenberger, 2017; White & White, 2008). It is suggested that tourist interactions occur out of the desire to exchange information (Murphy, 2001), to seek for companionship, security, and belonging (Cary, 2004; Pearce, 2005b; Rihova et al., 2013), or to cope with anxieties as ‘temporary strangers’ in unfamiliar environments (Greenblat & Gagnon, 1983). For example, tourists may

search for destination information by reading reviews by other tourists online and even communicate with other tourists to gather more detailed information about the destination. Tourist word-of-mouth after they return from a trip and sharing of travel stories and pictures further promote interactions with other (potential) tourists. In addition, while traveling on site, tourists will inevitably encounter various types of service personnel. Moreover, the local community also plays an important role in the tourist experience. The observation of residents' daily lives without directly interacting with them, in addition to participation in the daily lives of locals through direct social contact, may provide a unique cultural reward or become a source of a memorable experience for many tourists.

Scholars suggest that the social interaction of tourists contribute to additional enjoyment (Moore, Moore & Capella, 2005), social development (Tung & Ritchie, 2011), engagement in the experience (Minkiewicz, Evans & Bridson, 2013) stimulation of thoughts, feelings, and creativity (Ballantyne, Packer & Falk, 2011), and thus generate positive appraisals and memorable experiences (Campos et al, 2016; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Specifically, scholars point out that Chinese customers tend to prefer personal attention and customization over efficiency and time savings, which appear to be highly valued in the West (Schmitt & Pan, 1994). This leads to scholars advocating that destination marketers need to investigate the entire tourism experience from the perspective of the tourist, instead of focusing only on the core service suppliers (Zouni & Kouremenos, 2008).

White and White (2008) suggest that the tourism experience can be viewed as produced by tourists through the interactions with the environment and to a larger extent, with other people, including the local people and fellow tourists. Their study also revealed that even the mere presence of other people might influence the tourist experience, which is consistent with the findings of Yagi's (2001) and Praet et al.'s (2015) study. Social interaction has emerged as a

vital element which shapes tourist experiences, as scholars increasingly recognize the emotional, aspirational and participative aspects of customer experience over the functional and rational dimensions (Morgan, Elbe & de Esteban Curiel, 2009). As mentioned earlier in Chapter 1 (p.1), Maunier and Camelis' study (2013) revealed that the "human factors" (including the host population, other tourists, personal social network, and personal health) amount for more than 20% of the critical incidents reported by tourists that influence their satisfaction with the travel experience. Scholars call for a more comprehensive investigation of the role of social interactions in the tourism experience (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Campos et al., 2015; Li & Petrick, 2008; Maunier & Camelis, 2013). Lugosi and Walls (2013) suggest that more careful design, integration and management of the social interactions are needed, to ensure an emotional connection, loyalty and satisfaction with brands and destinations.

2.3 Tourist social interaction and experience co-creation

Acknowledging tourist social interaction as an essential factor of the tourist experience, scholars suggest a fresh perspective of the relationship between destination and tourist. Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2003, p. 12) argue that “a new point of view is required; one that allows individual customers to actively construct their own consumption experiences through personalized interaction, thereby co-creating unique value for themselves”. From this perspective, scholars stress that destinations should be viewed as a context in which tourists create their own experiences, rather than that destinations simply provide staged experiences to tourists (Scott, Laws & Boksberger, 2009). Instead of distinguishing between supply and demand, company and customer, tourist and host, tourism should be viewed as a “holistic network of stakeholders all connected in experience environments in which everyone operates from different time and spatial contexts” (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009, p. 318).

Under the perspective of blurred relationships between destination and tourists, scholars describe tourists as co-creators of their experience (Scott, Laws & Boksberger, 2009; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a; Reichenberger, 2017). Scholars (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Boswijk, Thijssen & Peelen 2007; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a, 2004b) argue that it is the experience of the co-creation itself that each individual consumer desires and attaches value to. In contrast, other scholars also suggest that consumers’ behaviors to co-create value for themselves may “intentionally or inadvertently diminish value for other customers” (McColl-Kennedy & Tombs, 2011, p.5). Co-creation experience is thus regarded as the “next practice” or “second generation” of the experience economy (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a). This necessitates destinations to carefully examine tourist social interactions with the aim to facilitate the co-creation of experiences and to avoid the diminishment (McColl-Kennedy & Tombs, 2011) or even ‘co-destruction’ of tourism value (Plé & Cáceres, 2010).

Previous studies reveal three major types of social actors who participate in tourist social interaction and thus co-create tourist experiences: service providers (e.g., Minkiewicz, Evans & Bridson, 2013; Salvado, 2011), the local community (e.g., Azevedo, 2009; Richards, 2010), and other tourists (e.g., Reichenberger, 2017; Rihova et al., 2013). To better understand the tourist experience, it is necessary to know what kind of role these three groups of social actors play in tourism experiences.

2.3.1 The role of service providers

Placing tourists at the center of their tourism experiences highlights a fresh look at the role of service providers in co-creating unique and memorable tourist experiences. Arnould and Price (1993) argue that the interaction and relationship between the tourist and the service personnel directly influence the tourist's emotional reactions regarding extraordinary experiences. From this stance, the service provider, especially the frontline employee, is regarded as an important operant resource to co-create customer experiences, and eventually contributes to improving the organization's competitive advantage (Lusch, Vargo & O'Brien, 2007).

Scholars have studied various types of tourism service providers in diverse tourism contexts. For example, the tour guide is regarded as one of the key front-line players to transform the tourists' visit from a tour into an experience (Ap & Wong, 2001). Arnould and Price's study (1993) on river rafting suggests that the tour guide plays a subtle yet important role in delivering an extraordinary experience. Mossberg (1995) also indicates that tourist satisfaction with the tourism experience is largely influenced by the performance of the tour guide. Besides the tour guide, the front-line personnel in hospitality contexts also play an essential role in creating the tourist experience. Lashley (2008) states that hospitality is essentially a relationship based on hosts and guests. Hemmington (2007) further stresses that the main distinctive characteristic of hospitality lies in the host-guest relationship.

In the context of an emerging experience economy, to create unique customized hospitality and tourism experiences, a better understanding of the capabilities required by frontline personnel to better capture the nuances of tourists' social behavior and to positively and effectively engage with customers is urgently needed (Morgan, 2006). Bharwani and Jauhari (2013) introduce emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, and hospitality experiential intelligence as three key dimensions of Hospitality Intelligence (HI) for frontline personnel to guarantee effective customer engagement and positive co-creation of memorable customer experiences.

2.3.2 The role of residents

Residents are an indispensable part of the tourism destination and thus play an important role in the social aspects of tourist experiences. The local community is even seen as an appealing 'tourism attraction' for the tourist. Morgan and Xu (2009) suggest that the tourist's interaction with the local culture and people contribute to a unique and memorable tourism experience. Kim's study (2010) confirms this perspective, indicating that the local culture of a destination (e.g., the local people were friendly and the area made a good impression on tourists) is one of the determinants of the memorable nature of travel experiences. Brown's study (2005) on participants in volunteer tourism reveals that they are strongly motivated by the desire to physically and emotionally immerse oneself in the local culture and community.

The notion that the hospitality of residents is of vital importance for the tourism industry and the tourist is widely accepted (e.g., Lin, Chen & Filieri, 2017; Bimonte & Punzo, 2016; Gursoy, Jurovski & Uysal, 2002). Support and the goodwill of the local population lead to the success of tourism development, and are equally vital for positive and memorable experiences of tourists. In contrast, negative or hostile attitudes towards tourists may destroy a destination's tourism value and are likely to discourage the willingness to interact with the local community

on the part of tourists. Huang and Hsu (2005) find that mainland Chinese tourists to Hong Kong sensed the negative feelings regarding Hong Kong people's self-superiority attitude over them. They suggest that such negative feeling may discourage the revisit intention of mainland Chinese tourists. Also, Li et al. (2011) point out that Chinese people perceived discrimination from the local people as one of the constraints influencing their travel motivation to Australia. In contrast, studies suggest that Chinese tourists feel the friendliness and hospitality of Japanese people, which reduces their concern and anxiety when traveling in Japan (Ji, Li & Hsu, 2016; Lin et al., 2017).

Acknowledgement of the important role of residents in the tourism experience has led researchers to investigate residents' perception of the impacts of tourism and attitudes towards co-creating tourist experiences (Bimonte & Punzo, 2016; Lin, Chen & Filieri, 2017; Gursoy, Jurowski & Uysal, 2002). This topic is widely explored from the perspective of social exchange theory, which suggests that people are likely to engage in an exchange if they believe that they can gain benefits without incurring unacceptable costs (Gursoy, Jurowski & Uysal, 2002; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). According to this perspective, residents' decision to participate in exchange depends on their belief that the benefits of doing so will outweigh the costs. Gursoy, Jurowski and Uysal (2002) break down the benefits and costs into five dimensions: economic benefits, social benefits, social costs, cultural benefits, and cultural costs and confirm the impacts of benefits and costs by an empirical study among 414 residents of the United States. Lin, Chen and Filieri's study (2017) also view residents as important participants in co-creating tourist experiences. Their study on urban residents in China reveals that the resident's attitude toward co-creating value with the tourist is positively influenced by perceived economic and social-cultural benefits of tourism development, while perceived costs have a negative influence.

Bimonte and Punzo (2016) find that the tourist-host interaction may influence host people's attitudes, perceptions, and lifestyles as well as tourists' perceptions and satisfactions. Fan et al. (2016) also report that tourist-host interaction has a negative influence on tourist perceived cultural distance (i.e., perceived cultural distance can be lessened due to tourist-host interaction). As international tourism generally involves social interactions between residents and tourists from different cultural backgrounds, the positive impact of the tourist-host interaction on eliminating the perceived cultural distance offers valuable implications for destination management. Fan et al., (2016) recommend destination management to involve residents into the local tourism industry by encouraging them to actively interact with tourists.

2.3.3 The role of other tourists

Tourism experiences often take place in the presence of and/or in collaboration with other tourists. The social interactions (both direct and indirect) and shared experiences with other tourists constitute an important part of the tourism experience. The increasing number of global tourists is likely to intensify the impact of tourist-tourist interaction on the tourism experience.

Studies in services marketing suggest the importance and positive impact of customer-customer interaction. Moore, Moore and Capella's study (2005) on the interactions between hair salon customers finds that customer-customer interaction is a strong predictor of loyalty to the firm and positive word-of-mouth. Several studies on customer-customer interaction are conducted in dining contexts and view guests as a part of the servicescape. Andersson and Mossberg (2004) examine the impacts of various aspects including cuisine, restaurant interior, service, dining company, and other consumers on guests' dining experience and find that both dining company and other consumers in a restaurant are important factors contributing to guest satisfaction. Gustafsson et al. (2006) find that social interactions between guests have a positive influence on the atmosphere and satisfaction in various dining contexts. Besides the positive

role of other customers, the other customer may intensify crowding and thus exert a negative effect on customers' experiences (Hui & Bateson, 1991).

In tourism contexts, Grove and Fisk's (1997) study on tourist experiences at theme parks found that the behavior of other tourists, both good and bad, influences tourists' overall evaluation of the tourism experience. Tourists' experiences may be influenced by the protocol incidents when tourists must share time and space with each other and thus follow expected rules of conduct (Grove & Fisk, 1997). Tourists may also establish temporary friendships with each other through sociable incidents (Arnould & Price, 1993; Grove & Fisk, 1997). Huang and Hsu (2010) studied interaction between tourists on cruise vacations and confirmed the positive effect of tourist-tourist interaction on cruise experience and vacation satisfaction. Moreover, several studies point out that sometimes even the mere presence of others may exert an impact on the tourist experience (Grove & Fisk, 1997; Praet et al., 2015; Yagi, 2001).

Scholars have increasingly acknowledged the important role of other tourists and addressed tourist-tourist interaction from the perspective of co-creation (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a; Reichenberger, 2017; Scott, Laws & Boksberger, 2009). Tourist-tourist co-created experience involves tourists' active involvement and thus results in higher levels of satisfaction, word-of-mouth, perceived value, and loyalty (Campos et al., 2015; Mathis et al., 2016; Reichenberger, 2017). At the same time, several studies suggest that tourist behaviors to create value for themselves may intentionally or inadvertently come at the expense of the experience/perceived value of other customers and thus lead to a diminishment of value created for these other customers (McColl-Kennedy & Tombs, 2011). Plé and Cáceres' (2010) research on the negative interaction of service providers with customers labels the adverse consequences of interactions 'value co-destruction'. Value co-destruction is defined as "an interactional process between service systems that results in a decline in at least one of the systems' well-being" (Plé

& Cáceres, 2010, p.431). In a similar vein, McColl-Kennedy and Tombs (2011) point out that customer behaviors to co-create value for themselves may “intentionally or inadvertently diminish value for other customers” (p.5). In a tourism context, an example of deliberate or unintentional behaviors that diminish value for other tourists might be when a group of tourists disturbs other tourists by talking loudly or by throwing a noisy party in their hotel room late at night.

The ever-increasing number of tourists results in frequent interactions with other tourists, and increases the need for both tourism practitioners and researchers to look at not only the positive tourist-tourist interaction (co-creation), but also the potential downsides of tourist-tourist interaction (co-destruction). This makes it necessary to carefully monitor and understand tourist-tourist social interaction and its influence on value creation so they can facilitate positive co-creation of experiences and at the same time avoid or alleviate the potential diminishment and co-destruction of tourist experience value.

2.4 Analysis of previous literature

To establish a solid scientific foundation for this research, a systematic analysis of the literature on tourism experience co-creation was conducted. The aim of this analysis was to uncover how the concept of ‘co-creation’ is employed in tourism studies, and how tourist social interaction is addressed in these studies. The analysis of the literature also serves as the base for formulating more detailed and specific research objectives and research questions in the study.

For the literature collection first, a Google Scholar search was conducted on titles of publications with the keyword ‘co-creation’ and similar words (‘co-create’, ‘co-creator’, ‘co-created’) in conjunction with tourism-related terms such as ‘tourism’, ‘tourist’, ‘visitor’, ‘travel’, ‘traveler’, ‘hospitality’, ‘vacation’, and ‘leisure’. This search initially generated more than 100 publications that met these criteria. Since the S-D logic was first introduced in 2004, publication dates of papers which apply this logic to tourism ranged from 2006 to 2018. The abstracts of each of the paper’s abstracts were then further scrutinized for relevance and a total of 58 publications, including journals, book chapters, and conference proceedings were selected for inclusion in the final analysis. For each publication the theoretical underpinning, the author’s conceptualization of co-creation, the research setting, and whether the study was empirical or conceptual was analyzed. The analysis also paid special attention to how authors addressed or described the role of tourist social interaction in co-creating the tourism experience. The summary results of the literature review are demonstrated in Appendix 1 and Appendix 2.

The literature review reveals a growing body of studies on tourist experience co-creation. It suggests that scholars are increasingly acknowledging the role of social interactions in the co-creation of tourist experiences. Review of the literature also reveals the following limitations.

First, the literature review suggests that the investigation of the tourist experience co-creation

has been predominantly conducted in western destinations focusing mainly on western tourists. There is a lack of studies in destinations in East-Asian involving East-Asian tourists. More specifically, while Chinese tourists constitute an important and ever-growing source market for outbound tourists in global tourism (Li et al., 2013; WTO, 2018), academic study of Chinese tourists is still relatively rare. Especially to Japan, currently the second-largest East-Asian destination in global tourism, inbound tourism has become one of the main strategic pillars for economic growth at both the national level and regional level (Henderson, 2016). Mainland China is the largest source market and making the largest economic contribution to Japanese inbound tourism (Kennedy & Lotus, 2015; Tan, 2018).

Second, previous studies on tourist experiences, especially the ones focusing on the strategies to facilitate tourist social interactions with the aim of improving the tourist experience, were largely based on the preconceived assumption that social interactions play an important role in tourist experiences. However, the fundamental investigation of the perception towards the social aspect of tourism experiences from the tourist standpoint is still somewhat lacking. As the C-D logic suggested, it is the customers who control the process and evaluation of value co-creation (Heinonen et al., 2010; Grönroos & Voima, 2013). The attempt to improve the co-created tourism experience by facilitating the social interactions of tourists is only meaningful after the examination of the tourists' awareness and perception of the influence other social agents exert on the tourism experience. Such examination is especially necessary when looking at the tourism experiences of Chinese outbound tourists. As the preceding literature review suggests that neither the co-creation studies nor the studies on the tourist social interaction have sufficiently focused on Chinese outbound tourists.

Third, the extant studies have focused largely on social interactions between tourists and service providers within the service sphere, i.e., direct interactions between tourists and service

organizations (e.g., Neuhofer, Buhalis & Ladkin, 2013b; Wang, Hsieh & Yen, 2011), and between tourists and service personnel (e.g. Andrades & Dimanche 2014; Chathoth et al., 2013; Shaw, Bailey & Williams, 2011). A scarcity of research related to the tourist interaction occurring beyond the service sphere is revealed. Specifically, the interactions between tourists and residents, and the interactions among tourists are relatively neglected. Moreover, the impact of tourist indirect interaction with other social actors is still empirically underexplored, although some scholars have suggested that the mere presence of others may exert an impact on the tourist experience (Praet et al., 2015; Yagi, 2003; Yagi & Pearce, 2007). This research gap may be related to the prevalent adoption of the S-D logic as the theoretical underpinning. As stated above, under the S-D logic, customers are viewed as the co-creators with the firm to generate value, which may result in the dominance of tourist-service provider interaction in the tourist experience co-creation literature.

Addressing the plural gaps of previous literature as stated above, the research objective of this study is developed. The following chapter will report the research objective and research design in detail.

Chapter 3 Research objective and research design

Echoing Quinlan Cutler and Carmichael (2010)'s tourist experience model, this research focuses on the social aspects of the tourist experience. Specifically, the social aspect of the tourist experience in this study refers to tourist direct and indirect interactions with other social actors who they have not met before, i.e., service personnel, residents, and previously unacquainted other tourists. The social settings, tourist intrapersonal elements and relationships with travel companions are beyond the scope of this study. Moreover, as tourist on-site activity is the most prominent part of the tourism experience, this study concentrates on the tourist social interaction during the on-site travel experience. Addressing the lack of previous research on the East Asian market, this study focuses on Chinese mainland tourists experience in Japan. Figure 3-1 shows the scope and positioning of this research inside an adapted version of Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael's (2010) conceptual model of the tourist experience.

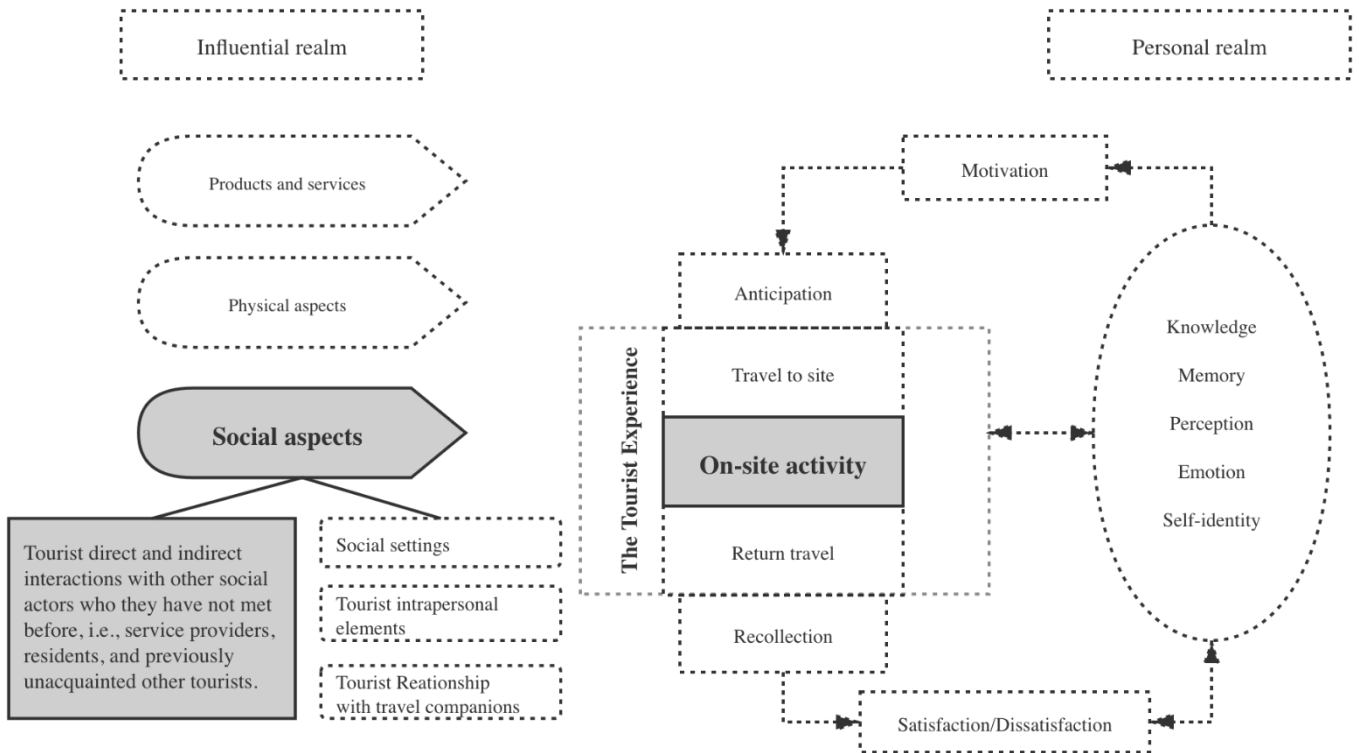


Figure 3-1 The current research’s scope and positioning (adapted from *The Tourist Experience Model* of Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010)

The core research objective of this research is to explore the role of social interaction in the tourist experience and encompasses the following research questions.

(a) How do tourist social interactions manifest themselves?

As introduced in the previous section, tourist social interactions include both direct and indirect interactions with three types of social actors. This question aims at exploring the following aspects: how tourist social interactions occur, the motives and barriers influencing the occurrence of tourist social interactions, in what ways tourists interact with other people, and whether there is any pattern of tourist social interactions under specific scenarios.

(b) How do tourists perceive and evaluate social interactions?

This general question addresses the impact of tourist social interactions. It involves sub-questions including: how tourist attach personal meanings to the interactions with other people, how tourist experiences are influenced by the social interactions, what determines the impact of tourist social interactions as being perceived either positive or negative, and what are the perceived benefits and barriers of social interactions with other people.

(c) How do different groups of social actors (i.e., service providers, residents, other tourists) co-create tourism experience with tourists from the perspective of tourists?

This question concerns the perceived role of different types of social actors in tourist experiences. The following aspects will be investigated: how different groups of social actors participate in social interactions with tourists and how tourists perceive and evaluate the interactions with different types of social actors.

Given that few studies have focused on tourist social interactions, especially those of Chinese tourists, this study adopts a two-step research design. Qualitative exploratory interviews will constitute the first step, to generate a primary understanding of the social aspects of Chinese tourists and to discover the issues and problems that concern the tourist. The findings and insights provided by the qualitative study will guide the design of the second step of the research: a larger scale quantitative survey. Details of the research design of the qualitative study and quantitative study are discussed in Section 4.1 and Section 5.1, respectively.

Chapter 4 Qualitative Study

4.1 Introduction

The first stage of qualitative interviews has the following aims: 1) to gain a more detailed insight into the social aspects of and interactions with previously unknown people in the Chinese tourist experience and; 2) to establish the foundation for the design of the following stage of quantitative study.

To reflect the complexity of tourist social interaction addressed in the literature review, the investigation will involve the tourist's social interactions with various social actors, i.e., the social interactions with service personnel, local people and previously unknown other fellow tourists. Both direct and indirect interactions will be explored to gain a broad picture of the social aspects of Chinese tourist experiences. Direct social interaction occurs when social actors acknowledge each other by communicating verbally or non-verbally with each other. Indirect social interaction occurs when social actors notice and acknowledge the presence of other social actors without direct communication taking place. Chinese tourists will be invited to talk about their perceptions and attitudes towards social interactions or towards simply being co-present with previously unacquainted other people, about the situations when they engaged in social interactions with other people and how they see the impact of the interactions on their tourism experiences. The qualitative data will be processed and analyzed with the grounded theory approach to generate theoretical interpretations of the data.

4.2 Research Method

As revealed in the literature, the tourism experience of Chinese tourists, especially the social aspect of Chinese tourist experience remains largely underexplored. Previous studies have documented the existence of a distinct influence of Chinese culture on various aspects of tourism behavior: willingness to travel and destination image (Tigre Moura, Gnoth & Deans, 2015); preferences and expectations (Mok & DeFranco, 1999); and behaviors at the destination (Kwek & Lee, 2010). Therefore, it cannot be simply assumed that the research findings of previous studies involving western tourists would be applicable to Chinese tourist experiences. The grounded theory method approach is adopted to allow the researcher to go back to the starting line in generating insights on how social interaction occurs and is perceived by Chinese tourists visiting Japan.

Grounded theory method (hereafter, GTM) is designed to develop theory through a series of inductive and comparative approaches, instead of testing a theory with the conventional hypothetic-deductive approach. This method requires the researcher to allow the theory to emerge through the iterative process of interplay with the data. Therefore, the researcher can address the key research interests as well as enable the interviewees to freely express their concerns or issues regarding the social aspects of the tourism experience. It thus enables the researcher to discover the previously unknown yet important aspects emerging from the interviews instead of solely concentrating on the preconceived assumptions.

GTM was originally designed to generate theory that is grounded in the empirical data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In contrast, Strauss and Corbin's approach (1990) acknowledges the fact that theory building is not the goal of every research project and develops the GTM to a method that can be embraced by a wider range of qualitative research purposes including not only building theory but also "high-level description" (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p. X). As the

purpose of the study at this stage is not to build a theory about Chinese outbound tourist social interactions, Strauss and Corbin's approach is deemed to be more suitable for this study, especially when compared with Glaser and Strauss's (1967) conventional approach, which emphasizes the generation of formal theories (Sonali & Kevin, 2006), and with Charmaz's contrastive approach (2000).

4.2.1 Research instrument

A preliminary list of interview questions was developed based on a review of the academic literature, media coverage, tourism industry statistics reports, and tourist-generated online content on travel experiences. Modifications were made based on five pilot interviews, and the interview questions were then formally determined. The interview questions were first developed in English and then translated into Chinese. Another Chinese native speaker researcher who is also fluent in English checked and confirmed the accuracy of the Chinese translation. Appendix 3 and Appendix 4 list the interview questions in English and in Chinese respectively.

The interview questions were used to guide the interviewees to talk about their memorable direct or indirect encounters with other people, including their social interactions during their visit in Japan in general, and specific interactions that had influenced their travel experience either positively or negatively. Interviewees were also invited to express their thoughts or feelings on how they perceive the role of other people in creating or influencing their travel experience.

4.2.2 Research locations

Interviews were undertaken in situ. Previous research (Campos et al., 2015; Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003) suggest that any investigation of tourist interaction should be conducted during the actual tourism experience to allow strong emotions,

and meaningful memories to occur. In addition, the locations of the interviews were chosen with the aim to obtain sufficient variety of visitors in terms of age, gender, and travel style (i.e., FIT travelers and group-travelers). The location accessibility to both the tourists and the researchers was also taken into consideration.

Two locations were selected based on the above concerns. One was the Sapporo tourist information center in Hokkaido, the northern part of Japan. The Sapporo tourist information center is located inside the Sapporo railway station, which has direct access to the railway and metro stations and main shopping malls and restaurants catering to various kinds of visitors. Convenient accessibility to the tourists was guaranteed, and the researchers also got the consent of the information center's management to conduct interviews there. The indoor environment of the information center made sure that poor weather conditions would not negatively interfere or disrupt interviews. The other interview location was the Asakusa Shrine grounds in Tokyo. Asakusa Shrine is a free attraction and is regarded as a must-see tourism spot for inbound tourists. Therefore, it is visited by a wide variety of tourists and is less dependent on travel styles than the tourism information center or themed specific tourism spots such as Tokyo Disneyland. Due to the nature of organized package tours, tour members may have much less need and intention to visit a tourism information center and it would be unlikely that they could be interviewed there. On the other hand, the Asakusa Shrine is favored by package tour organizers (possibly because it is a highly reputed attraction, and free of charge) and thus offered the opportunity to approach group tour tourists. A total of 29 interviews was conducted, during June to July in 2018. Nineteen interviews took place in the Sapporo tourist information center, and ten interviews were conducted in Asakusa Shrine grounds in Tokyo.

4.2.3 The sampling method

GTM calls for theoretical sampling, which means that it is concepts that are sampled, instead

of drawing samples of specific groups (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Therefore, the sampling should be conducted based on emerging concepts along the data collection by “asking of effective questions” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p.73). Based on this approach, the researcher did not specifically focus on so-called ‘critical incidents’ in tourist interactions. Instead, the focus was on understanding the social aspect of Chinese outbound tourist experience in general terms. Therefore, not only tourists who had frequent and critical interactions with other people were invited for the interviews, but also those who initially reported that their social interactions were merely mundane or insignificant, and even tourists who claimed that social interactions rarely occurred during their trip were all invited to participate in the interviews. The interviewers not only asked about the interviewees’ personal experiences of interactions with others during the current visit to Japan, but also encouraged them to freely talk about any social interactions from their own experiences in addition to various experiences related to social interactions with other people during traveling that they had heard other people talk about, if they regarded these experiences as salient, relevant, or memorable.

4.2.4 The interview procedure

The interviews were conducted by the researcher and a second Chinese researcher independently. The two researchers discussed and reached a consensus about the interview protocol before conducting the formal interviews, to ensure the reliability of the research.

Forty-two interviewees took part in the 29 interviews. Most of the interviewees (n = 38) were recruited in situ. Chinese mainland tourists aged 18 and over in the two research locations were personally approached by the interviewers with the questions “are you from mainland China” and “are you a tourist/visitor here” followed by initial greetings. Tourists who gave positive answers to the two questions were invited to take part in the interview after the researchers explained the purpose of the study and the interview procedure. The researcher also used the

social network software (WeChat⁴) to recruit Chinese tourists who were scheduled to visit Sapporo or Tokyo during June to July in 2018 to take the interview. Four interviewees (formerly unacquainted to the researcher⁵) were recruited in this way, two interviewees took the interview in Sapporo and the other two interviewees took the interview in Tokyo.

This study aims to gain a broad understanding of the roles of various social actors in the co-created tourist experience and the personal meanings the tourist attaches to these social interactions. The researchers followed the principle of not allowing preconceived ideas or assumptions to lead the data collection (Shah & Corley, 2006). During the interviews, the interviewers operationalized ‘social interaction’ as communication, contact, encounter, or interaction without attaching any specific definitions to allow interviewees to illustrate their personal perception towards the presence and impact of the other social actors. Open-ended questions were employed to facilitate the emerging of interviewees’ subjective thoughts and views.

4.2.5 Research participants

Table 4-1 lists the profile of the 42 interviewees.

⁴ For more information about WeChat, see <https://www.wechat.com/en/>

⁵ The four interviewees were invited to join the interview by snowballing-type referrals.

Table 4-1 Interviewee characteristics (N = 42)

		Count (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	30	71
	Female	12	29
Age group	18-30	17	40
	31-40	14	33
	41-50	9	21
	51-60	2	5
Previous experience(s) visiting Japan	0	18	43
	1	12	29
	2 to 4	8	19
	5 or more	4	10
Travel type	FIT with companion(s)	37	88
	Package tour with companion(s)	5	12

There were 30 and 12 males and females participating in the interviews. The participants were aged between 18 and 60, among which 17 interviewees were in the age group of 18-30, whereas 14, 9 and 2 interviewees were aged between 31-40, 41-50, and 51-60 respectively. About half of the interviewees (n = 18) were traveling in Japan for the first time. Among the other 24 repeat travelers, 12 were visiting Japan for the second time, and the remaining 12 participants had two or more experiences traveling in Japan. Most of the participants (n = 37) were FIT travelers and the other five interviewees were traveling in Japan on a package tour. In addition, all interviewees were traveling with companion(s) regardless of whether they were traveling independently or in a group tour.

4.2.6 Data analysis

Twenty-eight of the interviews were digitally recorded with the consent of the interviewees. The responses of the one interview without recording were recorded with handwritten notes right after the interview and were then word-processed into digital text. All interviews were

conducted in Chinese. The researcher transcribed all the interview recordings into verbatim text omitting the paralanguage. This approach is termed as *denaturalized transcription* by Oliver and colleagues (2005), which is regarded as specifically appropriate for the grounded theory methodology (Charmaz, 2000; Davidson, 2009; Oliver, Serovich & Mason, 2005). Another Chinese researcher was invited to randomly check 20 percent of the transcripts to confirm the accuracy of the transcriptions and consistency of the researcher's judgment. The lead researcher and second researcher reached 100 percent agreement, confirming the validity and reliability of the lead researcher's transcriptions.

After the confirmation of the transcriptions, the transcripts were first read repeatedly to gain a thorough understanding of the data before the formal coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Two major parts of information emerged from the repeated review of the transcripts - one part being the specific incidents of social interactions with other social agents, and the other part elaborating the interviewees' perceptions towards the role of various other social actors from the social aspects in more general terms. The former part of information is more descriptive in nature and more suitable to be analyzed under a structuralized coding framework. The latter part of information, in contrast, contains abundant complexity of the subjects' personal thoughts and feelings, and thus requires more systematic interpretation.

Data analysis was conducted with a combination of manual coding technique and software-aided coding. Following Strauss and Corbin's (1990) approach to coding, which includes open coding, axial coding, and selective coding, the manual coding technique was adopted as the first step in the coding of the data. However, the three procedures of coding are "neither as clearly distinguishable procedures nor as temporally separated phases in the process" (Flick, 2014, p.307). Instead, they are three different ways a researcher employs to analyze the qualitative data in a back and forth process during which constant comparison of phenomena

and concepts is conducted (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

In the open coding process, the transcriptions were analyzed line-by-line to identify substantive categories and generate initial conceptual categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The researcher tried to catch the meaning of the interviewee response and to attach annotations or ‘concept’ to each section of the data that have substantive meanings. Combined with axial coding and selective coding, the annotations in the open coding process were formulized in the final coding framework as codes, or were abandoned as being less suitable (Flick, 2014). In axial coding, the researcher tried to differentiate the categories generated from open coding and to determine the relationships among them. Connections between subcategories and categories were made in this process, and the relationships were repeatedly verified against the data by constant comparison (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Based on the work above, in selective coding, the most significant categories were determined, which enabled the coding work to focus on the potential core concepts. Figure 4-1 illustrates the researcher’s working process of coding.

Memo-taking is an integral component to GTM research (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). During the whole process of data collection and analysis, the coder continued to take memos regarding (a) queries and ideas about the research process and data being collected, (b) the progress and directions of the research, and (c) reflections on the research techniques and procedures. The continuous memo-taking supports researchers to reconstruct the details of the study and to keep the study grounded (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

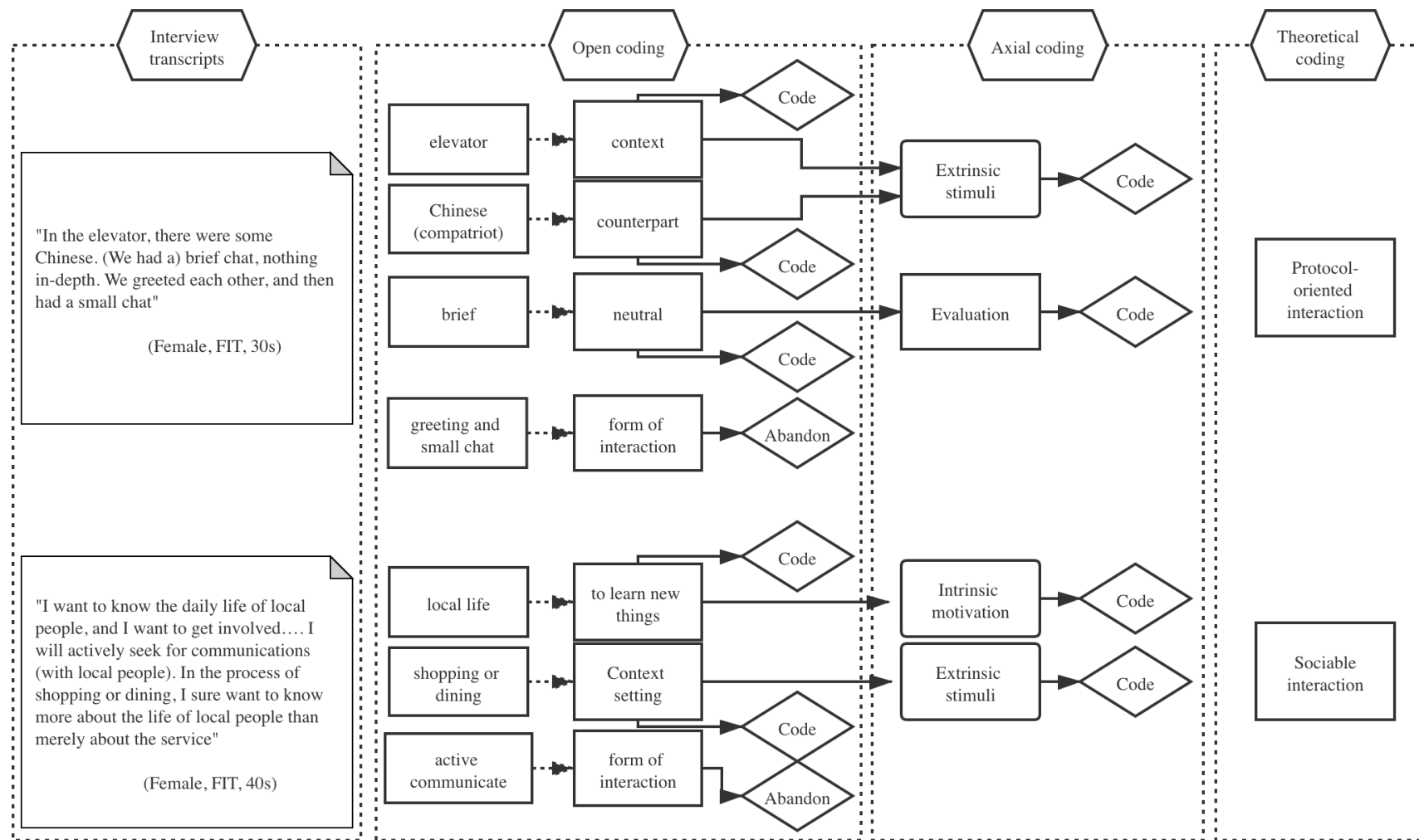


Figure 4-1 An example of the coding process

4.3 Research Findings

4.3.1 Overview

Confirming previous studies on the topic of social actors in tourism value creation, analysis of the interview transcripts uncovered 162 cases of interviewees reporting interaction with three types of social actors: service providers, residents, and other tourists. The reported cases include what the researcher has labeled ‘direct’ and ‘indirect’ social interaction. The naming and basic conceptualization of ‘direct’ versus ‘indirect’ interaction follows prior studies on tourist-to-tourist interaction in tourism (e.g., Huang & Hsu, 2009; Huang & Hsu, 2010; Kim & Lee, 2012; Yang, 2015). While previous studies have not elaborated on how ‘direct’ and ‘indirect’ social interaction differ, the current study conceptualizes and expands these two types of social interaction to include all social actors participating in the tourism experience, i.e., service personnel, residents, and other tourists, as follows. Direct social interaction occurs when social actors acknowledge each other’s presence by means of verbal or non-verbal ‘overt’ communication. In contrast, indirect social interaction occurs when social actors notice and acknowledge the presence of other social actors without any direct or ‘overt’ communication taking place between the tourist and the other social actors. Indirect, or ‘inward’ interaction may thus occur only inside the mind of the social actors and does not require any overt or outward forms of communication to occur. It is noteworthy that about 20% of the interactions reported are indirect or ‘inward’ interactions, which implies that other people may influence the tourist experience without any direct interaction taking place.

Further analysis of the data revealed three types of tourist direct interaction with other social actors, i.e., protocol-oriented interaction, help-related interaction and sociable interaction. The data also suggest that tourist social interactions with different groups of social actors manifest themselves in different ways. Moreover, tourists held different attitudes towards the

interactions depending on the type of social actors involved.

Table 4-2 summarizes the relative number of the interviewees' interactions with different types of social actors and their attitudes towards these interactions, from positive to negative.

Table 4-2 Overview of tourist interaction with other social actors

Type of interaction		Impact	With tourists	With residents	With service providers	Subtotal
Direct interaction	Protocol-oriented interaction	Positive	1	3	19	23
		Neutral	13	1	3	17
		Negative	0	0	12	12
		Subtotal	14	4	34	52
	Help-related interaction	Positive	3	18	2	23
		Neutral	21	3	1	25
		Negative	0	1	0	1
		Subtotal	24	22	3	49
	Sociable interaction	Positive	6	8	0	14
		Neutral	13	1	0	15
		Negative	1	0	0	1
		Subtotal	20	9	0	29
Indirect interaction		Positive	3	0	3	6
		Neutral	10	2	0	12
		Negative	12	0	2	14
		Subtotal	25	2	5	32
Total			83	37	42	162

4.3.2 Direct interaction

4.3.2.1 Protocol-oriented interaction

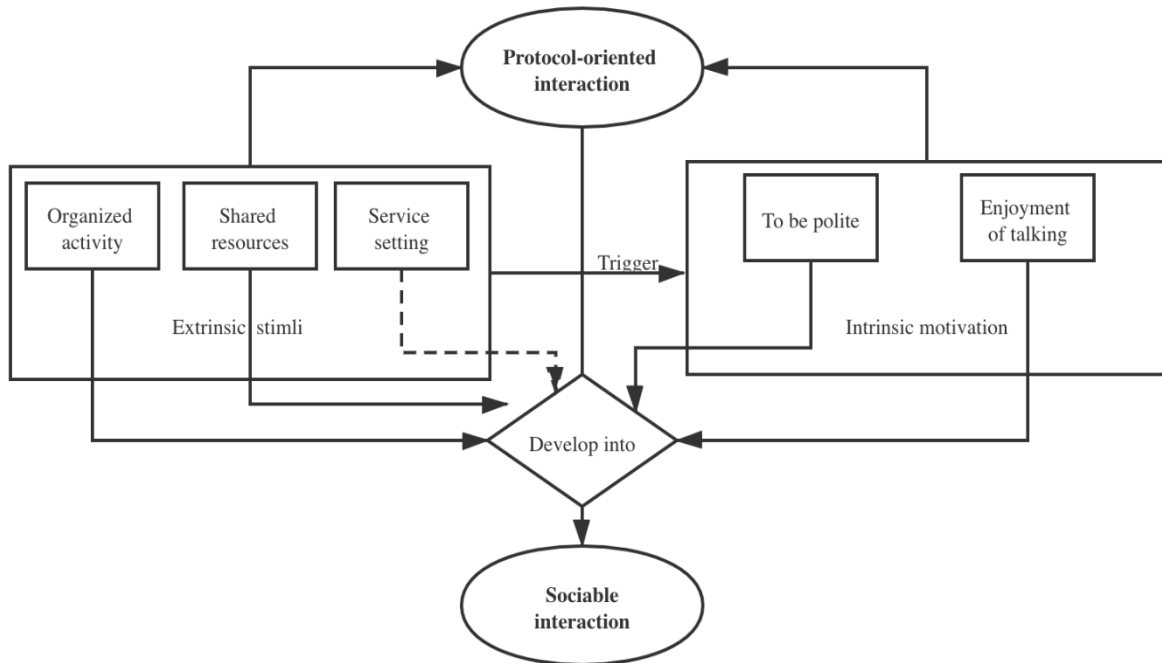


Figure 4-2 Protocol-oriented interaction

Protocol-oriented interaction is the most frequently reported interactions in this study (n = 52). Protocol-oriented interaction is mechanical in nature: this type of interaction occurs when a tourist feels obliged to be polite by initiating or responding to the other individual's courtesy because they must share time or space with one another (e.g. the tourists may greet each other out of courtesy, or a tourist accidentally bumps into the other person physically and apologizes). Tourist encounters with the service providers when processing a purchase or receiving a product or service also falls into this category.

The occurrence of protocol-oriented interaction, in most cases, depends largely on the context situation. The protocol-oriented interaction usually takes place in a restricted context situation, which intensifies the physical proximity between the social actors involved in an interaction.

Quiroga (1990) points out that physical proximity is a key factor that facilitates social interactions. This study adopts the same view that the restricted context situation plays the role of extrinsic stimulus by intensifying the physical proximity, and consequently encourages the tourists' intrinsic desire to initiate or respond to a protocol-oriented interaction. The extrinsic stimuli of protocol-oriented interaction include the following three scenarios.

Organized activity: the interactants must spend time together when taking part in an organized activity such as a package tour in the destination, or when queuing.

Shared resources: the interactants are restricted to share tourism resources (e.g., railway terminal, dining place, tourism attractions) or take turns to create one's experience (e.g., both parties of the interaction want to take photos in front of the same view) with each other.

Service setting: tourists' encounter with service providers when processing a purchase or receiving a service.

One type of scenario of protocol-oriented interaction shared by one of the interviewees was the apologetic behavior when s/he accidentally stepped on the other person. In this kind of situation when one individual is making effort to compensate for his/her lapse, the interactant's intrinsic motivation to be polite plays a bigger role, whereas the contextual situation has little impact.

The protocol-oriented interaction is highly context-dependent, and the duration of such interaction is consequently largely depended on the restricted context setting. The interaction can be very brief and non-repetitive when the situation allows for just a very short contact between the interactants. Such interactions mostly fall in the category of 'shared resources.'

The followings quote is a good illustration:

"It's just offering seats or saying hi in places such as restaurants or so." (Male, FIT, 40s)

In other situations where the interactants must spend a relatively longer time together, the brief and superficial protocol-oriented interactions may occur repeatedly. The repeated protocol-oriented interactions may encourage the tourist's intrinsic motivation for further interaction and may potentially lead the social actors to engage in sociable interactions. The 'organized activity' type of interactions may have more potential for this kind of development, as the activity itself provides a common topic or may stimulate further and deeper interaction among social actors. Reichenberger (2017) holds the similar view that such "forced" togetherness" may lead to longer interaction. One interviewee's experience of interactions with the other tourists in an organized tour can serve as a good illustration:

"At first actually we didn't know much about each other and it was awkward. We were too shy to approach the others at first. But after two days being together in the same group and sharing the same dining table, we would have a little chat sometimes and gradually became familiar with each other." (Female, FIT, 20s)

Counterparts of protocol-oriented interaction

The data reveal that the most frequently reported protocol-oriented interaction is the tourist's procedural service encounter with the service provider (n = 34). Some interviewees stated that compared with the social contact with other tourists and residents, they had more chances to interact with service providers, as the various tourism services constitute an indispensable part of the tourism experience.

"You need to communicate with the taxi driver if you take a taxi, you need to interact with the front desk lady when you check in at your hotel room. For us, we have booked ferry tickets and we need to go to the service staff to get the tickets." (Male, FIT, 30s)

The protocol-oriented interactions with other tourists are the second most frequently (n = 13) mentioned type of direct interaction. Six tourist-tourist protocol-oriented interactions occurred

due to the tourists taking part in the same organized activity. Seven tourist-tourist protocol-oriented interactions occurred in shared resource contexts. Another incident of tourist-tourist protocol-oriented interactions occurred when one tourist accidentally stepped on the other tourist and apologized.

Only four interactions with the residents fall into the category of protocol-oriented interaction. Such interactions usually took place when the tourists and residents were sharing the same service environment such as a railway terminal, restaurant, or tourism attraction.

Table 4-3 Breakdown of counterparts of protocol-oriented interaction

Sub-type	Tourist	Resident	Service provider	Total
Organized activity	6	0	0	6
Shared resource	7	4	0	11
Accidental offence	1	0	0	1
Service encounter	0	0	34	34
Total	14	4	34	52

Impacts of protocol-oriented interaction

Interviewees considered the protocol-oriented interaction, due to its nature of being protocol-driven and mechanical, as having a negligible impact on the tourist experience. Especially the tourist-tourist protocol-oriented interactions, which mostly occurred due to the forced sharing of the same environment with other tourists, were mainly described as having little impact on the tourist experience. Among the 14 tourist-tourist protocol-oriented interactions, 13 interactions were evaluated as neutral by the respondents.

“In the elevator, there were some Chinese. (We had a) brief chat, nothing in-depth. We greeted each other, and then had a small chat.” (Female, FIT, 30s)

In contrast, while the protocol-oriented interactions with the local Japanese residents were also reported as superficial and brief, the interviewees expressed more positive feelings towards such interactions. A plausible explanation for this disparity is that the tourist may place higher importance on the contact with local hosts who are more exotic and an intrinsic part of the destination and an important reason for visiting the country, whereas fellow tourists are not.

“(When seeing the local people), we nod at each other. To me it doesn't count as an in-depth interaction but I think it's good enough” (Male, FIT, 40s)

Regarding the relatively higher number of protocol-oriented interactions with service providers, interviewees' attitudes are divergent. Tourists expressed their admiration for the perceived good qualities of the service providers such as hospitality, patience, great passion and devotion to their work. Nevertheless, there were also episodes of interviewees being dissatisfied with service encounters and they gave these as negative examples of interaction. The following two quotes illustrate the perceived positive and negative interaction respectively.

“The salesgirl very gently and patiently introduced the clothes to me when I was trying the clothes on. She kept telling me how good the clothes were regardless of whether I could understand Japanese or not. She was so devoted to her work and so polite, which deeply moved me. I wish I could become (as devoted an employee) just like her.” (Female, FIT, 20s)

(An interviewee's encounter with a taxi driver) *“Maybe because it was raining, I felt that he was not so happy. Or perhaps he was not happy in the first place. He dragged my luggage in a rude way.” (Male, FIT, 40s)*

Table 4-4 Breakdown and impact of protocol-oriented interaction

Impact	Tourist	Resident	Service provider	Total
Positive	1	3	19	23
Neutral	13	1	3	17
Negative	0	0	12	12
Total	14	4	34	52

4.3.2.2 Help-related interaction

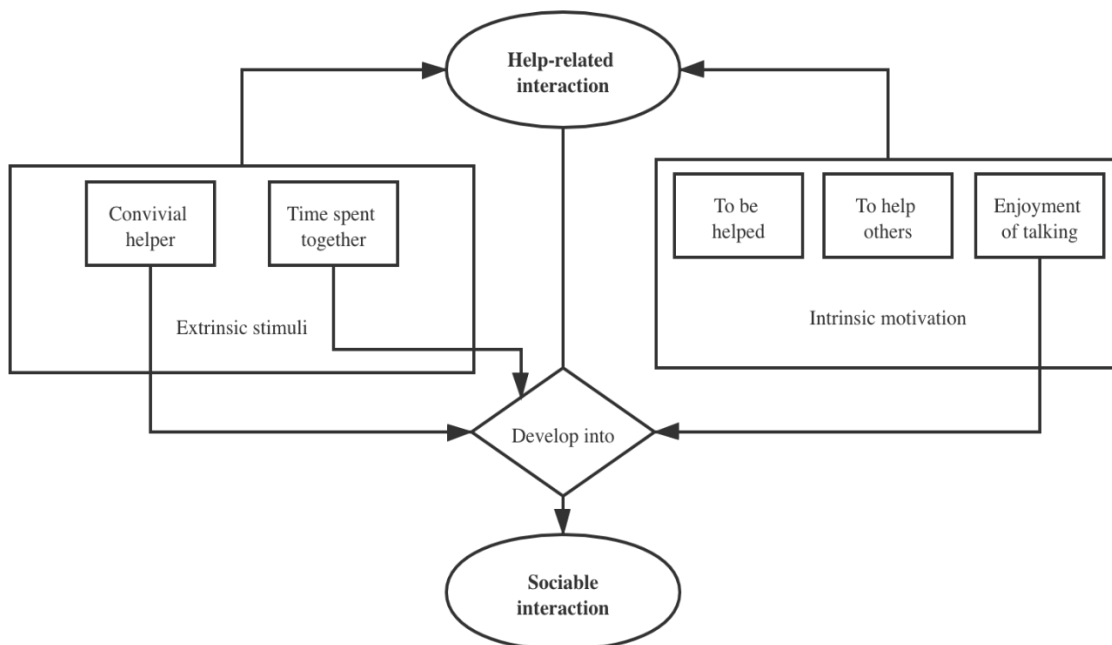


Figure 4-3 Help-related interaction

The second most frequently reported type of interaction is related to tourists' need to get help from other people (including other tourists, residents and service providers), or tourists' response to the help request from other people (mostly other tourists) (n = 49). In this category, a tourist's intrinsic motivation to get help or to help others plays a primary role.

Five major types of help-related interactions are summarized based on the interview responses

(see Table 4-5). Tourists not only frequently ask for help from the other tourists, residents, and service providers, but sometimes also actively offer help to other tourists. Help-related interactions range from asking for directions, to borrowing money from formerly unacquainted people. It suggests that the tourist's entire journey is accompanied by frequent asking for and providing help to other people.

Table 4-5 Breakdown of help-related interaction

	Tourist	Resident	Service provider	Total
Guiding directions	12	15	2	29
Sharing information	3	2	1	6
Borrowing/lending	4	0	0	4
Providing know-how				
Filling out an immigration form	2	0	0	2
Buying tickets	0	2	0	2
Ordering food	0	1	0	1
Lending a hand				
Photographing	2	1	0	3
Babysitting	1	0	0	1
Not specified	0	1	0	1
Total	24	22	3	49

The most frequently mentioned help-related interaction is related to guiding directions. Interviewees reported their experience of asking other tourists, residents and service providers for directions. Interviewees also reported being asked or actively offering directions to other tourists. Several respondents also mentioned that local people actively offered to give directions to them. For some interviewees, asking or being asked for directions were the only

direct interaction they had with other people outside the service encounter setting.

“I don't have too many interactions (with other people), and (those that I have) are only limited to asking or being asked for directions. We are just pedestrians in the street and the chance that (direct) interaction occurs between us is very rare.” (Male, FIT, 20s)

Other help-related interactions include sharing information about the destination; borrowing or lending money, borrowing someone's passport (e.g., borrowing the passport from another Chinese tourist to enjoy tax refund) or asking someone to offer their place in a queue (e.g., asking permission to cut in line when running out of time); providing know-how about buying tickets or filling out an immigration form; and lending a hand to take photos or babysit.

Like protocol-oriented interaction, help-related interaction also has the potential to develop into sociable interaction. The data revealed two instances of help-related interactions with other tourists and three instances of help-related interactions with residents that developed into sociable interactions.

“Sometimes other tourists mistook me for a Japanese and asked me for help in a bus or tram. I could tell that they were from China when they spoke Chinese or English with a Chinese accent. I would then have (further) communication with them such as talking about the places worth visiting. I would also share my experience visiting other places with them.” (Female, FIT, 30s)

“They (the local Japanese) told us how to buy tickets and showed us the way to the service center where we can get (further) help. They then actively talked with us, tricked our kid, although we could not understand their Japanese and they could neither understand our Chinese.” (Male, FIT, 30s)

Further analysis suggested that the development of help-related interaction into sociable

interaction might be facilitated by: (a) the contextual situation that allows the interactants to spend more time together; and (b) the interactants' intrinsic motivation to have further communication.

Counterparts of help-related interaction

The previously unacquainted fellow tourists and residents have almost the same share ($n = 24$ and $n = 22$, respectively) as the counterparts of tourists in help-related interactions. It is worth noticing that tourist-tourist help-related interactions include both the situations when interviewees asked or got help from other tourists, and the cases when interviewees were requested or actively offered help to other tourists. Further analysis revealed that 15 out of the 24 help-related interactions were with Chinese or Chinese-speaking tourists.

Interviewees also reported incidents of help-related interaction with service providers ($n = 3$), e.g., interviewees asked for help from the cashiers in a supermarket or a convenience store. It suggests that tourists not only see the front-line staff as professionals providing service to customers, but also view them as a source of help. In this study, interviewees reported the situations when they asked for directions from the front-line staff, as well as asking the service personnel to recommend local places to visit.

Impacts of help-related interaction

Whereas help-related interactions with other tourists were frequently reported ($n = 24$), only three cases were rated as positive. Most incidents ($n = 21$) of tourist-tourist help-related interactions, among which two then developed into sociable interactions, were regarded as insignificant and as having little impact by interviewees. It suggests that tourists are quite accustomed to asking for help or offering help to other tourists and do not give much attention to such interactions. Another plausible reason might be that help-related interactions between tourists mostly involve little effort or time from the interactants, and thus interviewees tended

to take such interactions for granted.

Regarding the positive help-related interactions with other tourists, one interviewee showed appreciation towards another tourist who offered elaborate information on renting a car in Japan. In another case, the interviewee was touched by two mainland Chinese tourists lending money to their compatriot who lost her bag while traveling in Japan. Another interviewee regarded help-related interaction between tourists as positive, because of the belief that tourists share the same goal visiting Japan and can be a reliable source of help to each other whenever needed.

“You are less cautious (towards strangers) when abroad. You just remove your suspicion. You know that whatever problem you meet, you will always get helped if there are other tourists beside you. ...People come here for the same purpose and would like to treat each other as in-group members.” (Female, FIT, 20s)

Regarding help-related interactions with residents, the majority (n = 17) were evaluated as positive, only three cases as neutral, and one as negative. Besides the gratitude of getting the problem solved due to help-related interactions with residents, interviewees repeatedly reported their deep appreciation towards the host people who generously took time and effort to help them. Interviewees also expressed gratitude for the hospitality and kindness of local people who had helped them.

“Most Japanese I met did their utmost best to help me. We met a girl who appeared to find it too difficult to communicate orally, (so instead) she just took us all the way to our destination.” (Female, FIT, 30s)

“It must be a very nice person whoever is willing to stop and listen to me asking for help, he or she must be very patient, even more patient than me.” (Female, FIT, 20s)

Two out of the three incidents that interviewees were helped by service providers were rated as positive. Interviewees unanimously expressed that they were grateful and deeply touched by the efforts the service providers made to help them. The other one incident was counted as neutral because the interviewee did not comment on how s/he evaluated it.

“I asked for directions from a cashier in the supermarket. The cashier was so hospitable, which was beyond my expectation. S/He took the working time guiding us a long way just to show the direction clearly, which really touched me. We did not buy anything from the supermarket, s/he did not have to help us.” (Female, FIT, 30s)

Table 4-6 Breakdown and impact of help-related interaction

Impact	Tourist	Resident	Service provider
Positive	3	18	2
Negative	0	1	0
Neutral	21	3	1
Total	24	22	3

4.3.2.3 Sociable interaction

Sociable interaction occurs out of a tourist’s intrinsic motivation to socialize, whereas the extrinsic stimuli play a secondary role. The data suggest that such intrinsic motivation can be the individual’s desire to learn new things, to express personal comments, to exchange comments, or to enjoy talking. Tourists’ intrinsic desire of sociable interaction is influenced by the perceived sociability and amiability of the counterpart. The context setting also influences the duration and content of sociable interactions.

Compared with the protocol-oriented interaction and the help-related interaction, the sociable interaction is the least reported category (n = 29), among which four incidents were developed

from protocol-oriented interactions and five were developed from help-related interactions.

The interrelation between the extrinsic stimuli and the tourist's intrinsic motivation is illustrated in the following diagram (Figure 4-4).

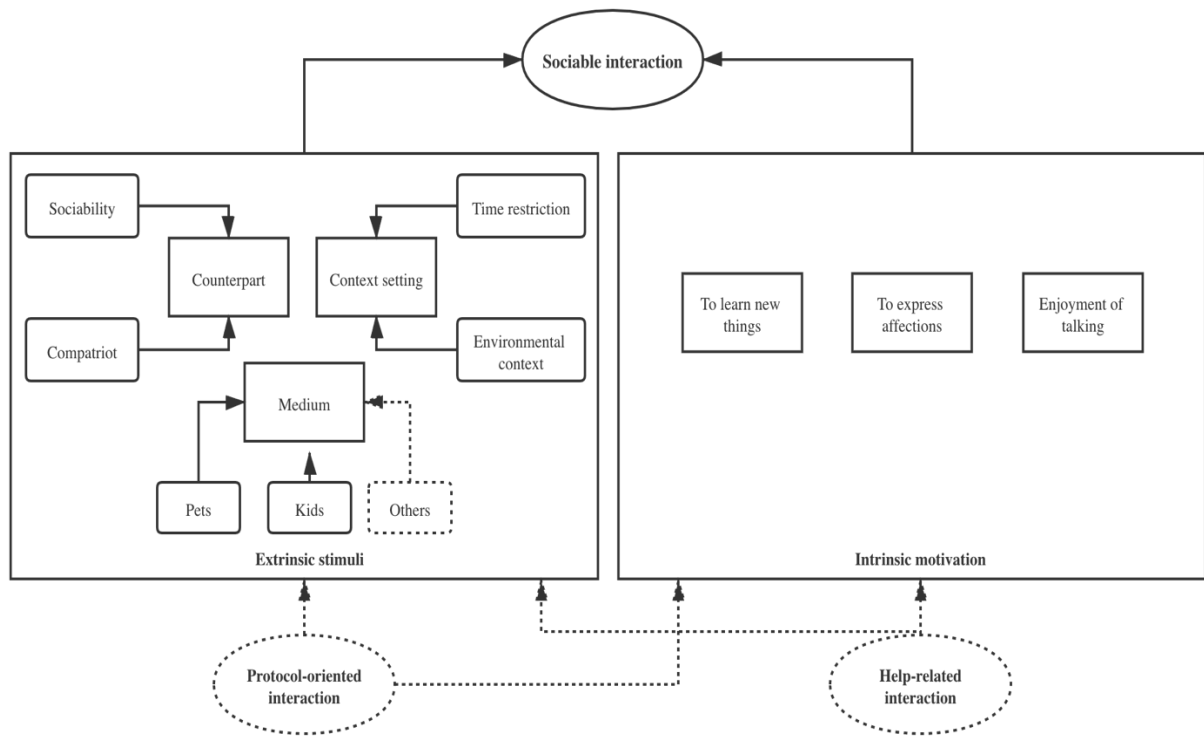


Figure 4-4 Sociable interaction

Counterparts of sociable interaction

The data revealed 18 sociable interactions between tourists, and nine sociable interactions between tourists and residents. No sociable interaction with service providers was reported by Chinese mainland interviewees⁶.

The highest number of sociable interactions reported by the interviewees involved those with

⁶ A Chinese-American tourist reported the experience of sociable interaction with a cashier in a mini market when visiting Japan, but was not included in the final sample, which consisted of only mainland Chinese.

other tourists. This may be due to perceived mutual likeability and a sense of perceived commonality or similarity among tourists. Indeed, previous studies have revealed the positive link between tourist perceived similarity/homophily and engagement in social interactions (McPherson, Smith-Lovin & Cook, 2001, Reichenberger, 2017; Rihova et al., 2018)

“You are less alert (to other tourists) when abroad.... For instance, in a restaurant, if you know the other person is a tourist just like you, you will talk about tourism information (with the other tourist). You have more common interest (with other tourists). People (Tourists) come here for the same purpose and would like to treat each other as in-group members.” (Female, FIT, 20s)

A notable finding is that interviewees tended to have more sociable interactions with their compatriots, as 12 out of 18 sociable interactions between tourists were with Chinese or Chinese-speaking tourists. For some interviewees, the fact that the counterpart was their compatriot was the main antecedent of their engagement in the sociable interaction. This further confirms the positive impact of perceived national homogeneity on tourists' engagement in social interactions.

“In some small stations with few passengers, we talked about our previous stops and the places we already visited. Because we are all Chinese after all. Interactions with foreign tourists were rare.” (Female, FIT, 20s)

Specifically, interviewees indicated that they tended to have more sociable interaction with other Chinese tourists mainly due to the convenience of communicating in their native language. For some interviewees, they would actively seek for interactions with the other tourists who speak the familiar Chinese language. In three sociable interactions, interviewees indicated that they initiated the conversation because they noticed the other tourists were

speaking Chinese. It is consistent with Reichenberger’s (2017) finding, that tourist language competency contributes to the occurrence of more in-depth social interactions.

Regarding the sociable interactions with residents, the interviewees’ proactive attempt to communicate was rare. Only one interviewee stated that she would proactively communicate with the local people to know more about their daily lives. The other eight sociable interactions were all reported as being initiated by local people.

“I want to know the daily life of local people, and I want to get involved.... I will actively seek for communications (with local people). In the process of shopping or dining, I sure want to know more about the life of local people than merely about the service.” (Female, FIT, 40s)

Table 4-7 Breakdown and impact of sociable interaction

Impact	Tourist	Resident	Service provider
Positive	6	8	0
Neutral	13	1	0
Negative	1	0	0
Total	20	9	0

Table 4-7 lists a breakdown of the frequencies of sociable interaction with each of the social actors and the impact (evaluation) of these interactions. Most sociable interactions with tourists (n = 13) are categorized as neutral, as interviewees did not mention the impact on their travel experiences or viewed the interactions as having little impact. Only six sociable interactions were rated as positive. Interviewees stated that the interactions were enjoyable and delightful, or that they learnt new things from the interactions. One negative interaction was reported: the interviewee took a group tour with formerly unacquainted people, and some of the tour

members made inappropriate jokes which made him quite uncomfortable.

Regarding sociable interactions with residents, most cases (n = 8) were reported as being positive. While all eight interactions were initiated by the residents, interviewees indicated that they enjoyed the interactions and had a positive impression of the local people as being convivial.

“When he (the resident) sees you bought a bunch of things, he will greet you and say something like ‘you’ve bought so many things’.... Wow he noticed me and chatted with me, he is so kind!” (Female, FIT, 20s)

Three sociable interactions with local people were developed from help-related interactions. In all three cases, the local people not only offered help, but also actively added sociability to the interactions. The amiability of the host people also stimulated the tourist’s intention to reciprocate, and increased the tourist’s expectation to have more personal interactions with the local community. One interviewee described her feeling about two Japanese ladies who walked with her to show her the way and tried to communicate with her despite the language barrier:

“They (two Japanese ladies) held my hand and kept talking with me. It felt so nice.... They told me that they liked Chinese tea.... Next time I will bring more tea with me when going out. If I meet nice people again, I will give them tea as a little gift. It might also facilitate our communication.” (Female, FIT, 20s)

4.3.3 Indirect interaction

To further address how tourist experiences are influenced by various social agents without interacting directly, interviewees were also asked about their indirect interactions with other people. As discussed above, indirect interaction is the ‘inward’ interaction that occur only inside the mind of the social actors and does not require any overt or outward forms of

communication to occur. Accordingly, interviewees were asked about the occasions when they did not have direct interaction with the other people (including other tourists, residents, and service providers), but noticed and acknowledged the presence of other people, either because they were influenced by the others, or merely found the other people memorable.

This study collected 32 incidents of tourist indirect or ‘inward’ interactions with other people, accounting for nearly 20% of all the social interactions reported by interviewees (See Table 4-8). This finding implies that other people may influence tourist experience without direct interaction taking place. It also corresponds with the finding of previous studies that even the mere presence of other people may exert an impact on the tourist experience (e.g., Yagi, 2001; Praet et al., 2015).

Table 4-8 Impact and counterpart of indirect interaction

Impact	With tourist	With resident	With service provider	Total
Positive	3	0	3	6
Neutral	10	2	0	12
Negative	12	0	2	14
Total	25	2	5	32

4.3.3.1 Indirect interaction with other tourists

Interviewees reported most responses of indirect interactions with other tourist (n = 25). The types of indirect interactions with other tourists and sample responses are summarized in Table 4-9.

Table 4-9 Indirect interactions with other tourists

Type		Sample response
Physical behavior	Reference of own behavior	<i>"When shopping, I would like to see what the others are buying and I would wonder if that is a good product and I also want to try the same product."</i>
	Disturbing behavior	<i>"I was waiting in line after a Japanese couple. They were so unbelievable, so unbelievable! We waited in line for almost an hour and they just kept hugging and kissing.... I had to turn around and try not to see them."</i>
Auditory incident	Source of noise	<i>"The impact is usually auditory. For example, Chinese tourists, they are too noisy.... In drug stores, guests usually come in a big group and keep shouting about the products they are buying."</i>
	Overheard conversation	<i>"When we were having dinner yesterday, I heard an adult sitting at the next table telling the child not to drop rice, not even a grain of rice.... I was touched."</i>
	Familiar language	<i>"When you are abroad, you can easily recognize Chinese (mandarin) or the dialect of your hometown. Because you are relatively sensitive to the language that you are familiar with."</i>
Object of comparison	Travel style	<i>"Mainland Chinese are mostly taking group tours, whereas the Hong Kongese or Taiwanese mostly travel by themselves. We are different in the end."</i>
	Nationality	<i>"You can see a lot of foreign tourists outside, and it is very easy to tell whether they are from mainland China, Taiwan, Japan, Korea or Thailand. It is quite obvious.... I realize that there are subtle differences (among tourists from various countries), and I find it quite interesting."</i>
	Intensifying loneliness	<i>"The other tourists were all with companions and could exchange comments on the food with each other. It made me feel extremely lonely."</i>
Source of security	<i>"We were trying to go to the Hokkaido shrine and there was nobody else on the way. When we got there and saw other tourists, we were finally ensured that we found the right place."</i>	
Part of scenery	<i>"I was taking photographs and saw some other tourists wearing Kimono (Japanese traditional costume) or Japanese style school uniform. It was easy to remember them."</i>	
The sheer number of tourists	<i>"I was taking photos of the Statue of Liberty in Odaiba. Many tour groups also came and took pictures. It spoiled my mood. I felt that this place was occupied by other people."</i>	

The impact of other tourists on tourist experience is manifested through not only direct interactions but also various types of indirect interactions. Not only do tourists care about the physical and verbal behaviors of other tourists but they also are attentive to the trifling aspects such as the nationality and travel style of other tourists. Moreover, tourists may relate the behaviors of other tourists to their own. Such ‘relating practice’ contributes to a sense of connection in shared moments or circumstances with other tourists (Rihova et al., 2018). Even the overheard conversation of other tourists, or the observed (either good or bad) manners of other tourists may constitute memorable experiences for some tourists.

The impacts of the indirect interaction are also complex and subtle. The interviewees in this study mostly regarded big tour groups as disturbing, which is consistent with Turley and Milliman’s (2000) finding that the presence of other people has a negative impact on customers’ atmospheric perception. Hui and Bateson’s (1991) study confirmed that customer density and perceived crowding exert a significant impact on the individual’s choice of service. However, sometimes the presence of other tourists can be positive. One interviewee reported that seeing other tourists made her finally relieved as she could hardly see other people on the way finding the tourism spot. Some interviewees were sensitive to their familiar Chinese language when traveling in a foreign country, whereas at the same time suggested that seeing too many Chinese tourists may dilute the exotic atmosphere in Japan. Moreover, in some occasions, seeing other tourists traveling with companions intensified the solo traveler’s loneliness.

It is worth noticing that the most indirect interactions with other tourists were rated as negative ($n = 12$) or neutral ($n = 10$), only three tourist-tourist indirect interactions were rated as positive. One interviewee reported that seeing other tourists made her relieved and ensured that she found the right tourism attraction. This confirms that the presence of anonymous others may have the function of providing a “sense of physical and psychological security” (White &

White, 2008, p.47). Other positive comments on tourist-tourist indirect interactions include observed admirable behavior of other tourists, and the friendly atmosphere among tourists from various cultural backgrounds.

4.3.3.2 Indirect interaction with residents

Only one interviewee mentioned indirect interactions with local people. She reported her observation of Japanese middle-aged men's passion when watching the performance of a girl idol group. The interviewee found the Japanese middle-aged male audiences' behavior interesting because it went beyond her previous knowledge about Japanese culture:

“(From the outside) Japanese seem to be relatively polite and modest. But there is something different inside. We saw the girls group doing a performance today. The sun was really shining at noon, whereas the middle-aged uncles (men) were so obsessed watching and interacting with the girls. They were very happy, just like the enthusiastic fans. Over 90% of the audiences were the uncles. Is it normal in Japan? Do the uncles really like the girls that much? The girls were so young, mostly are senior high school students. Do they (the uncles) sincerely like the girls' group? I would say the Japanese uncles do like Lori like that. The girls were on the stage with the sun shining, and a whole bunch of uncles were, oh my, so devoted.” (Female, FIT, 30S)

4.3.3.3 Indirect interaction with service providers

Only five indirect interactions with service providers were reported. The responses generally refer to two types of situations: the interviewees were amazed by the good performance of the service provider, and interviewees observed how service providers were dealing with other tourists.

In cases (n = 3) where interviewees noticed the good performance of the service provider,

interviewees reported their feelings of amazement, admiration, and being touched. Such amazement also evoked one interviewee's comparison with the situation back in China:

“There was a performance near the Sapporo tower, and the performers were very passionate. In contrast, the performances in China seem to be less passionate than in Japan in comparison. In Japan, no matter if the performers were skilled or not, they managed to establish a good cultural atmosphere. Also, they kept the tradition very well. In contrast, there is not much traditional culture left in China. I think we should be cautious about that.” (Female, FIT, 30S)

Another type of scenario of tourist indirect interaction with service providers is when the tourist observed how the service provider was dealing with other tourists. While both the service provider and other tourists were involved in the observed interaction, interviewees largely focused their attention to how the service provider behaved or performed. The following is a typical response:

“I was waiting in line after two Chinese tourists (for the hotel check in). I really wanted to help them, as they barely knew what to do. The reception staff also ignored them. They asked why they could not check in since they had already booked a room. The staff told them that they jumped the queue, their luggage was too big, and they did not consider about other guests. The Japanese staff just occupied him/herself doing other things, which was full of slackness if you could see his/her face. I have been waiting for around 20 minutes. Another staff came out and served me in the next counter, leaving the two Chinese tourists standing there being ignored. Probably the staff needed their passports, but they could not take out the passports or so. When my check-in was done, I was feeling ... I really wanted to help them. My check-in was done in five minutes, while they were waiting there for more than 20 minutes and still....” (Female, FIT, 30s)

This interview response suggests in the service encounter when the tourists are together in the same service environment with other tourists, tourists may not only focus on their own interaction with the service provider, but also pay attention to the interaction between the service provider and other tourists. The observation on interaction between service providers and other tourists may also exert an impact on the tourist. Tourists may sympathize with other tourists, and consequently alter their perception and evaluation of the service provider based on how other tourists -instead of themselves- are treated by the service provider. The impact may go as far as further influencing tourist perception towards the tourism destination.

“I found that the local service personnel discriminated tourists according to their behaviors and nationalities the first time I came to Japan. I find the situation is even worse now.” (Female, FIT, 30s)

The responses of interviewees suggest that direct tourist-service provider interaction not only influences the tourism experience of the tourist who is directly involved in the interaction, but also may exert an impact on the other tourists who are witnessing the interaction. Specifically, unpleasant interaction between service providers and tourists may draw more attention from other tourists and thus has a negative impact on the experiences of a wider range of tourists. This implies that service providers should cautiously cope with the service encounter with tourists regardless of whether they are having a direct interaction or not.

4.3.4 Perceived role of interaction with different social actors

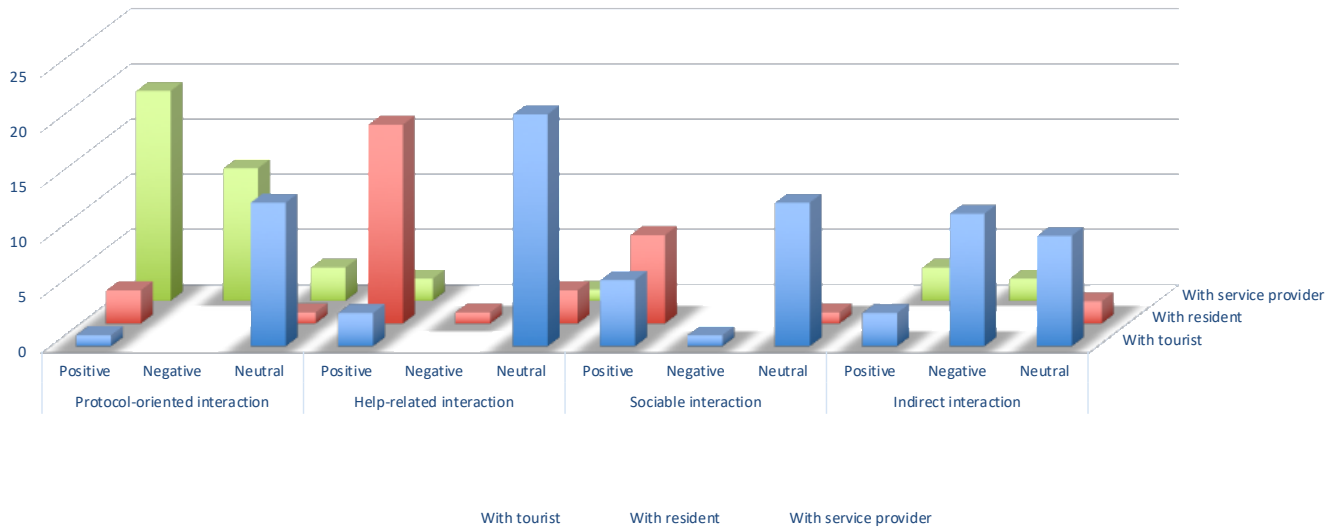


Figure 4-5 Interviewees' evaluation of interactions with different groups of social actors

This study also explored Chinese outbound tourists' perceptions and attitudes towards social interactions with different groups, i.e., the other tourist, the resident, and the service provider. Specifically, for social interactions with other tourists the researcher distinguishes among (a) tourists of the same nationality (i.e., mainland Chinese), and (b) tourists of other nationalities (i.e., non-Chinese).

The data suggest that Chinese out-bound tourists hold quite different attitudes towards social interactions with different groups of social actors. As shown in Figure 4-5, interactions with other tourists were most frequently reported. Most direct tourist-tourist interactions were rated as neutral, whereas most indirect tourist-tourist interactions were perceived as negative. It suggests that while interviewees were largely indifferent to direct interactions with other tourists, other tourists still exerted an impact (mostly negative) on tourist experiences via indirect interactions. Specifically, Interviewees barely placed importance on interactions with

tourists from other countries, whereas they held mixed attitudes towards their compatriot Chinese tourists. In terms of interactions with residents, most interactions were help-related. Interviewees' feelings towards residents were positive in general, as most tourist-host interactions were evaluated as positive. Interactions with service providers mostly occurred in protocol-oriented scenarios. Interviewees have stronger emotional involvement with interactions with service providers, as both positive and negative interactions account for a considerable portion.

4.3.4.1 Perceived role of interaction with other tourists

Several previous studies (e.g., Reichenberger, 2014, 2017; Rihova et al., 2013, 2015, 2018; Wu, 2007) have revealed the impact of the tourist-tourist interaction on the tourist experience. In this study on Chinese inbound tourists to Japan, interviewees also reported a range of both positive and negative incidents in their interactions with other tourists. In addition, among all social interactions (including tourist interactions with service providers, residents, and other tourists) reported by the interviewees in this study, interactions with other tourists were mentioned most frequently. It suggests that other tourists are the most salient type of social actor that influences the tourism experience.

Interviewees reported a range of perceived roles of other tourists, which are labelled as follows: temporary companion; helper/helped; familiar stranger; total stranger; competitor; and disturber. The following section discusses in more detail how interviewees perceived each of these types of other tourists.

Temporary companion

Interviewees reported that they engage in casual talk with other tourists. The topics usually involved the nationalities of the tourists and their respective lives back home, previous travel stories, and comments on the current tourism experience. Such interactions usually took place

because of tourists' intention to socialize as they were accompanying each other temporarily in the destination, which appears to be similar to what Pearce (2005a) has termed 'travel companion'. As the interviewees in this study mostly describe their socializing with other tourists as brief, superficial, mundane and insignificant, in this study the term 'temporary companion' is used instead.

"I went on a one-day tour in Okinawa We (I and other tourists) had lunch and went to the aquarium together (in a group) We talked to each other occasionally, but [all of these conversations] were very brief." (Female, FIT, 30s)

Helper/Helped

Among the direct interactions with other tourists reported by interviewees, most interactions were help-related, which include the incidents of both asking for help and providing help to other tourists. Types of tourist-tourist help-related interactions range from guiding/showing directions, sharing travel information, taking a photograph on behalf of the other, filling out an immigration form, to borrowing/lending money, and babysitting. Accordingly, adapted from Pearce (2005a), the role of other tourists is labeled as 'helper/helped'. One interviewee showed appreciation towards tourist-tourist help-related interaction, and regarded other tourists as a reliable source of help whenever needed.

"You know that whatever problem you meet, you will always get helped if there are other tourists beside you. ...People (Tourists) come here for the same purpose and would like to treat each other as in-group members." (Female, FIT, 20s)

Familiar stranger

Some interviewees suggested that they would be delighted to see other Chinese tourists, especially when they were traveling in an unfamiliar country (such as in this case, Japan). One of the reasons is tourists' feeling of deep-rooted bonding with their compatriots. This

perspective was especially prominent among senior interviewees.

“I feel that Chinese are everywhere. Whenever I am shopping or doing something else, I always have the urge to go over and say hi to the Chinese tourists I see. I just have an amiable feeling towards them.” (Female, group tour, 40s)

Another reason is the convenience of communication in one’s native language, which made the interviewees feel more comfortable to ask for help or express personal feelings with their compatriots. One interviewee reported her frustration of having trouble understanding the Japanese staff’s instruction while waiting in line in Tokyo Disneyland and commented:

“It’s good to see Chinese after all.” (Female, group tour, 40s)

Other interviewees held a positive attitude towards fellow Chinese tourists, due to the absence of cultural differences. Expressing the notion that being with Chinese tourists may avoid potential friction or even conflict in contrast to being with tourists from other cultural backgrounds, one interviewee suggested that he would prefer to join an organized tour exclusive for Chinese rather than joining a mixed-nationality tour.

“If we were all Chinese, conflict is much less likely to occur as far as I know.... However, if you were with tourists from other countries, some of them may have their own opinion towards Chinese and may express their reluctance to be with you. Then it may influence your mood when traveling.... The securest way is to join an organized tour that is dedicated to Chinese, and you will see no unexpected incidents. Because when you join the English tour, the members are from all parts of the world and you may probably meet some tourists who may have hostile attitudes towards Chinese.” (Male, FIT, 20s)

Pearce (2005a) distinguishes three main categories of social players that travelers interact with in the tourism experience: 1) the ‘self’; 2) other travelers; and 3) hosts. The ‘other travelers’

category is subdivided into strangers, family, and friends. ‘Strangers’ are then subdivided into two types: 1) strangers, familiar like the travelers themselves and 2) unknown strangers.

Pearce (2005a) applies the concept of ‘in-group’ versus ‘out-group’ to distinguish between people that belong to the tourist’s in-group and those that belong to the out-group. In addition, the notion of the ‘familiar stranger’ refers to fellow unknown travelers whose faces tend to become familiar because of temporary physical proximity during travel (Pearce, 2005a). Yagi (2001) has extended this ‘familiar stranger’ concept and applies it in a cross-national tourism context as referring to unknown travelers of the same nationality as that of the traveler, i.e., the in-group, whereas ‘total strangers’ refers to people from different countries, i.e., the out-group. This study adopts Yagi’s (2001) labelling of ‘familiar stranger’ as referring to unknown travelers of the same nationality as that of the traveler.

Total stranger

Some interviewees viewed the tourist-tourist interaction as having little impact and rated it as having least impact on the tourism experience, as compared to the interactions with the resident and with service providers. These interviewees reported that they did not take any potential interaction with other tourists into consideration when planning their trips, nor did they believe that a random interaction with the other tourist might have a substantial influence on their trip. The following quote is a good illustration:

“Actually, other tourists have not much weight, because you cannot even expect which kind of tourists you will meet. They are not part of the destination, but only temporary visitors here, just like you (us).” (Female, FIT, 20s)

In this study, this type of perceived role is labeled ‘total stranger’ as in the original use by Pearce (2005a). As described above, Yagi (2001) has extended this ‘familiar stranger’ concept in a cross-national tourism context and conceptualizes ‘total strangers’ as people from different

countries, i.e., the tourist's out-group. Thus, the use of the term 'total stranger' in this study includes both the original meaning of the term as used by Pearce (2005a) i.e., people that the tourist doesn't know, as well as Yagi's (2001) extension of the term as meaning people from other countries than one's own country.

Despite the interviewees' denial of any impact from other tourists on their experience, in-depth analysis of the qualitative data revealed that they were still influenced by other tourists, even though they themselves were not aware of such impact. More often, the impact of other tourists is not caused by direct interaction, but merely arises due to the presence of other tourists, or because of the tourist's stereotype towards other tourists. In this case, the influence of other tourists is so subtle that the tourists themselves are usually unaware of it.

Competitor

Interestingly, interviewees reported more incidents of their experience being diminished by other tourists than incidents of co-creating desirable experience with other tourists. Some interviewees complained that the large number of tourists slowed down the tourism services. This perspective towards the other tourist is similar to what Pearce (2005a) has labeled 'competitor'. It is noteworthy that the 'competitor' tourists often exert impact on the tourism experience without direct interaction taking place.

"You just need to avoid the high season. When you go to the tax refund or somewhere else, it will be full of tourists and you need to wait for an hour to get it done." (Female, FIT, 20s)

Disturber

Other interviewees suggested that they did not like places with too many tourists, as they believed that the touristic places are too commercialized and lack authenticity, or they simply just did not like to see a big number of tourists. Pearce (2005a) has labeled this type of

perceived role of other tourists ‘disturber’.

“If I am going to a tourism attraction, and if there are too many tourists there, no matter which country they are from, I would be less willing to go. Having to queue is one reason, the other reason is that I would just be irritated when seeing a lot of people for no reason.”

(Female, group tour, 40s)

Unlike previous studies probing the presence of large numbers of tourists from the perspective of perceived crowding, this study suggests that tourists may perceive other tourists as ‘diluting’ the authenticity of the destination. Such perception is especially prominent towards other tourists of the same nationality.

“I come to Japan to relax but it turns out that this place has been occupied by Chinese.... (If there were many tourists, but mostly from other countries than China), I would still have such feeling, but maybe not that strongly. If I were surrounded by Japanese tourists, and I was the only Chinese tourist, I would feel much better. Because I come to Japan to escape my familiar environment and to relax.... If there are too many tourists, even if they were from other countries than China, I would feel that this place is not pure any more.... I would think that the place is too commercialized, and that it lacks authentic beauty.”

(Female, FIT, 20s)

Like the impact of ‘competitor’ fellow tourists, the above-mentioned ‘disturber’ fellow tourists also influence the tourism experience merely because of their presence. In other cases, interviewees perceived other tourists as disturbing because of their unpleasant interaction with them.

“I have once taken a group tour with other tourists I hadn’t met before.... Some of them made rude jokes, which made me very uncomfortable.... I think traveling with people you

don't know is quite risky.” (Male, FIT, 40s)

Figure 4-6 illustrates the relationship between tourists’ perceived role of other tourists in co-creating tourism experience through indirect and direct interaction.

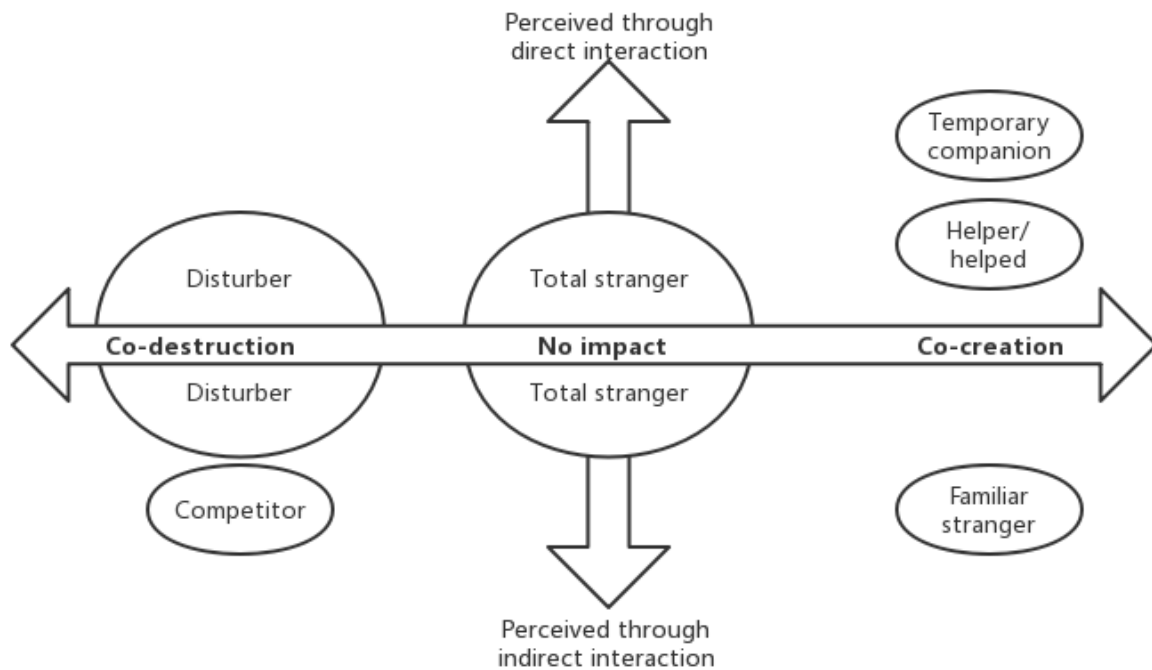


Figure 4-6 Tourist perceived role of other tourists

4.3.4.2 Perceived role of interaction with residents

Consistent with previous studies suggesting that tourist-host interaction is an important part of tourism experience (Brown, 2005; Fan et al., 2016), interviewees in this study also demonstrate positive attitudes towards social interactions with host people. Residents, as well as the personnel providing service for tourists, constitute the authentic part of the social environment of the destination and they consequently influence the tourist experience. Greenblat and Gagnon (1983) suggest that tourist social interaction with host people helps to reconcile the

tourist' anxiety as a 'temporary stranger' in the unfamiliar environment. Interviewees in this study also expressed similar opinions.

"It is the local people who have a bigger influence after all, including both the common resident and the service provider. After setting foot on the land of the destination, if the service you receive and the people you encounter could treat you welcomingly, it will make the surroundings less unfamiliar and help you better fit in the local atmosphere. You will like the place more." (Female, group tour, 30s)

Specifically, interviewees value the genuine human touch through interactions with local people. Interviewees compared their interactions with residents to the interactions they had with service providers, and showed their preference of interactions with residents because they viewed the interactions with service providers as mechanical and obligatory.

"The service staff serve one wave of tourists after another and their service is kind of emotionless. However, in terms of the local folks, you can have a much sincerer interaction (with them)." (Female, group tour, 20)

Tourists are appealed to social interactions with residents mainly due to the desire of getting closer to the authentic living scenes of local people. Just as Urry and Larsen (2011) suggest, tourists especially show fascination with the "real lives" of others (p. 10). The following are two representative quotes:

"We probably will choose to patronize the place with more local people. Because we believe that the locals would know better, for example, about the dining places. Also, we want to experience the local life more." (Male, FIT, 30s)

"(To have) contact with the local people is the reason why we traveling. Tourism is all about the local environmental conditions and customs, which means except for the

scenery, the customs of local people is equally important. The most important is the human context.” (Female, FIT, 40s)

While the seeking for authenticity of the destination might be a universal motive for traveling among tourists, only few interviewees expressed the desire to interact with host people directly. For most interviewees, the language barrier and the lack of opportunity hindered them to directly interact with local people.

“Speaking of residents, we don’t have any chance to interact with them even if we want to.” (Female, group tour, 30s)

“Traveling is more about experiencing the local environmental conditions and customs. However, it’s not that easy to open up and communicate frankly with local people because of the language barrier. Therefore, when it comes to the local life, it’s more about the environmental conditions, whereas the experience of local customs is very much limited. Because I feel that there are quite significant cultural differences, wherever you go. It’s always difficult to sit down and have a conversation, unless you are really excellent at the local language.” (Female, FIT, 40s)

While being fascinated with authentic social interactions with local people, interviewees at the same time were aware of the difficulties and barriers to having such interaction. One interviewee (Female, FIT, 20s) stated that having a genuine direct interaction with local people is a ‘bonus’ to the journey. Interviewees compromised on the above-mentioned difficulties and instead opted to mutely watch the life of local people and to try to get involved in the living scenes without having to interact verbally with the host community. Urry (1990) has termed this phenomenon (tourist observing local people from a distance) the *tourist gaze*.

4.3.4.3 Perceived role of interaction with service providers

The previous section reported that the interviewed tourists were mostly involved in interactions with service providers in protocol-oriented scenarios (n = 34), whereas another small number of tourist-service provider interactions were help-related (n = 4). While interviewees commented that protocol-oriented interaction with service providers were mechanical and lacked the personalized human contact, most interviewees (of 15 interviews) suggested that interactions with service providers were most important to their travel experience.

One reason for this is that for the tourist as a consumer tourist-service provider interaction is inevitable. In contrast, it is easier for tourists to avoid interactions with other tourists. The following is a typical quote:

“I value the interaction with service providers most, because you always have to interact with them. Regarding the tourists, if you don’t like them you can just walk away and it’s totally OK.” (Female, FIT, 20s)

Other interviewees attached importance to interactions with service providers because they believed that the interactions are closely connected to their personal interest.

“You are just an outsider for other tourists when interacting with them. Whereas it is your own tangible benefit that is connected to interactions with the service provider.”
(Female, FIT, 30s)

Besides the protocol-oriented interactions with service providers, tourists also engage in help-related interactions with service providers. Interviewees viewed service providers as not only professional personnel to provide service in a service encounter, but also a reliable source of help.

“If I did not prepare for the trip well enough, I would choose to ask the service staff for help. ... The common residents here may not be able to help us, unless they are also interested in traveling like us.” (Female, FIT, 30s)

One interviewee called the service providers the ‘window’ of the destination.

“The service provider is just like the window (of the destination). Our first choice is always the service provider (when we need help). They are our first impression of the destination.” (Female, FIT, 20s)

“Window” is a representative metaphor for the role of the service provider to interviewees. For most interviewees, service providers are the ones they most frequently interact with, either passively or actively. Moreover, interviewees attach their trust and personal interest to the interactions with the service staff. How tourists appreciate the destination therefor is closely related to performance, passion and attitude of service providers. The response of one interviewee is a good illustration:

“The most social interactions we have are with service providers and that’s why we care about them. Because we must interact with them constantly, one negative interaction out of ten is significant enough to change our impression on the service (of the destination). Regarding residents here, we have too few interactions to care about that. Also, we cannot request local people to cater to our needs.” (Male, FIT, 30s)

4.3.5 Factors influencing Chinese tourists’ social interaction

Personality

Analysis of the interview responses revealed that personality appears to be the primary intrinsic factor that influences interviewees’ participation in social interaction with unacquainted people while traveling. Some interviewees believed that it requires an extraverted personality to smoothly interact with previously unacquainted people, especially when traveling in a foreign

country. However, they felt that they were too introverted or lacked the sociability to actively interact with the other people. The following are two typical interviewee responses on this aspect:

“It (interaction with other people) depends on one’s personality. We are relatively introverted and hardly actively seek interactions with other people.” (Female, FIT, 50s)

“Normally I do not reach out to interact with other people.... It firstly depends on whether there is anyone else in a group who is sociable and takes the lead to communicate with others.” (Male, group tour, 20s)

Tourist personality appears to play an overarching role in influencing tourist motivation to engage in social interaction as well as in intensifying the perceived ability to participate in social interactions with previously unacquainted people. Interviewees who perceived themselves as shy and introverted often demonstrated an intention to avoid social interaction rather than to seek direct communication with other people. Also, these interviewees largely viewed themselves as lacking time, energy, or sociability to engage in social interactions.

Motivation

Interviewees often related their participation in social interactions with previously unacquainted people to their motivation or goal for traveling. Besides the protocol-oriented interactions that tourists are obliged to engage in, tourist motivation for social interaction as an important aspect of travel played an important role in participating in other types of social interactions besides protocol-oriented interactions, especially the sociable interaction. As a result, tourists who do not intentionally regard social interaction as an essential part of their travel experience may not be enthusiastic to seek social interactions when traveling. In contrast, tourists who are motivated by making new friends or knowing more about the local culture may allocate more time and energy to actively communicate with other tourists and local

people during their travel. The following is a typical response:

“We do not care much about the contact with other people. ...We are interest in the places with good food and (which provide) opportunities for us to have fun. That is our most important concern.” (Female, FIT, 50s)

Physical operant resources

Several interviewees indicated that engaging in social interactions when traveling abroad was too energy consuming. Interviewees reported they need to devote both physical strength and mental energy to interact with other people. One interviewee said that he always found it too tiring to cope with social interactions with strangers. Some interviewees also claimed that they did not have enough time to communicate with other people because of their busy schedule.

Time is regarded as an important resource for tourists, especially for those taking a group tour. Under the co-creation perspective, the intangible resources that can be employed by customers to act on other types of resources are called *operant resources*. Typical operant resources refer to customers' knowledge, skills and experience. Indeed, Arnould, Price and Malshe (2006) indicate that tourist physical energy, strength, and emotion are also important resources for customers to co-create value for themselves. They call this type of operant resource *physical operant resource* (Arnould, Price and Malshe, 2006). The interview responses confirmed this aspect, as there were many interviewees reporting that their limited time and energy restricted their social interactions with other people when traveling. The following response of one interviewee offers a typical illustration:

“I have very little communication with other people, as I am too tired when going back (to the hotel) We are traveling with our parents and we need to take care of them. Therefore, we may not have so much time to interact with other tourists.” (Female, FIT, 40s)

Cultural operant resources

Another type of ability that is regarded as important for tourists to engage in a social interaction include sociability (i.e., the ability to socialize), linguistic ability, and the ability to cope with cultural differences. As opposed to *physical operant resource*, this type of ability is termed *cultural operant resource* (Arnould, Price & Malshe, 2006). Cultural operant resource is especially crucial for the interactions with residents and other tourists from different countries. Tourists generally are interested to know more about local culture and customs, whereas the interest does not always develop into a direct contact with local people due to the language barrier. One interviewee stated that he would prefer watching the daily life of the local community to fulfill his desire to know more about the local culture, rather than actively seeking direct interaction with the local people. Another interviewee felt that frank cross-cultural communication might not be possible because of the language barrier.

“Traveling is more about experiencing the local environmental conditions and customs. However, it’s not that easy to open up and communicate frankly with the local people because of the language barrier. Therefore, when it comes to the local life, it’s more about the environmental aspect, whereas the experience of local customs is very much limited. Because I feel that there are significant differences between (our) two cultures, wherever you go. It’s always difficult to sit down and have a (proper) conversation, unless you are really excellent at the local language.” (Female, FIT, 40s)

In the few cases where interviewees actively communicated with other tourists in a sociable context, the counterparts were all Chinese or Chinese-speaking tourists. It further confirms that the lack of cultural operant resources constitutes the main factor discouraging Chinese outbound tourists to socialize with foreign tourists and local people.

4.4 Conclusion and discussion

The primary goal of the qualitative study was to gain a fuller picture of how Chinese outbound tourists perceive the social aspect of their tourism experiences, and specifically, how their interactions with three types of social actors (i.e., service providers, residents, and other tourists) influence the co-created tourist experience. Whereas most of the interviewees suggested their lack of intrinsic motivation to interact with others, they reported a reasonably substantial number of incidents of social interactions with previously unacquainted people when traveling. Although interviewees reported a considerable portion of the interactions as mundane or insignificant, a closer reading of these reported interactions reveals that these still appeared to exerted an impact on tourist experiences often without the tourists themselves being consciously aware of these impacts. These seemingly insignificant yet subtly influential interactions are inevitably neglected in studies using other research methods (e.g., the critical incidents technique). The employment of the grounded theory method reconciles this limitation by encouraging the respondents to report any thoughts about the social aspect of their travel experience as they see fit, without guiding them to address the researcher's pre-conceived assumptions. Therefore, some previously unaddressed or unknown phenomena relating to tourist social interaction were unearthed in this study, which enabled the researcher to gain a broader picture of Chinese outbound tourist experiences.

One of the major contributions of the first stage of qualitative study is the categorization of three types of tourist direct interactions (i.e., protocol-oriented interaction, help-related interaction, and sociable interaction), as well as revealing that other social factors, especially other tourists, may exert impacts on tourism experiences through indirect interactions. The first stage of qualitative study also uncovered factors that influence Chinese tourists' participation in direct social interactions with other people: personality, travel motivation, and perceived possession of physical and cultural operant resources. Besides direct interactions, this study

also reveals that Chinese tourists often involve in indirect interactions with other people. Further exploration finds that compared with the direct interactions which are largely perceived as insignificant or mundane, Chinese tourists have more emotional involvement in indirect interactions with other people, especially other tourists. Figure 4-7 demonstrates the summary of findings of the first stage of qualitative study.

The previous analysis of the interview responses in this chapter outlines the role of social interaction perceived by Chinese outbound tourists. The following section will discuss this issue in more detail. Another issue emerging from the interviewees' narrative is the complexity of the role of 'other tourists' as perceived by Chinese tourists, which will be discussed in Section 4.4.2. The discussion on the limitations and insights of the qualitative study for the following quantitative study forms the final part of this chapter.

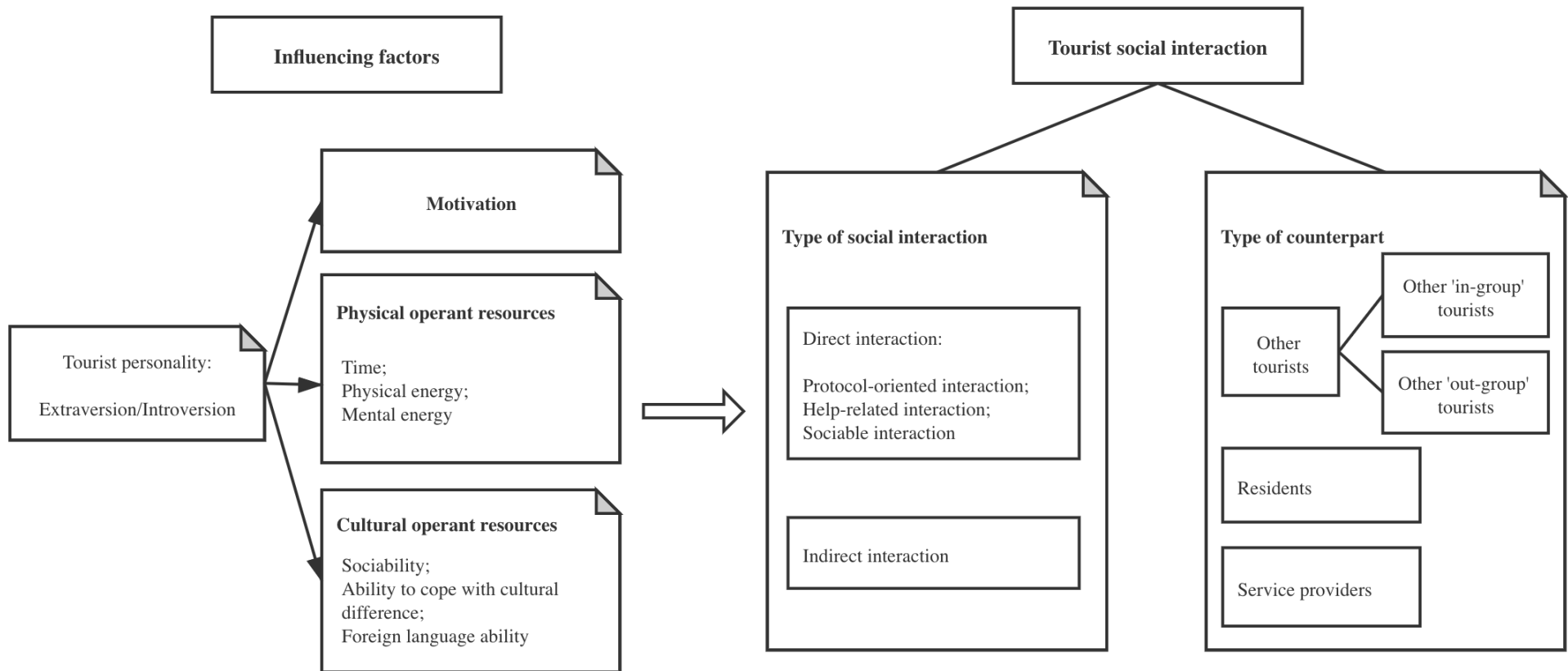


Figure 4-7 Overview of findings of the qualitative study

4.4.1 The role of social interaction

As outlined in the previous sections, interviewees demonstrated a lack of intrinsic motivation to proactively engage in social interactions with unacquainted people when traveling. It echoes the previous finding that the interviewees seldom actively initiate sociable interactions. Instead, they were more often involved in the interactions by reactively responding to the amiability of other people. Moreover, this finding also reveals that tourists are at times unwillingly involved in the interactions and do not specifically perceive social interaction (especially tourist-tourist interaction) as particularly important for their travel experience.

At the same time, interviewees reported a reasonably big number of cases of social interaction. This finding confirms results of previous studies suggesting that the tourist experience typically takes place along with frequent and inevitable social interactions (Campos et al., 2015; Reichenberger, 2014). Further analysis of interview responses suggests that external factors play a more decisive role in the occurrence of social interactions involving Chinese tourists. The largest portion (52 out of 130) of direct interactions reported by interviewees occurred in protocol-oriented scenarios, which represent situations when a tourist feels obliged to be polite by initiating interaction or by responding to the courtesy of the other person. Contact theory (Allport, 1979) suggests that contacts can positively influence individuals' perceptions of the other participant if the contact involves personal and informal interactions. However, due to the transitory nature of tourist social interaction, especially the protocol-oriented type of interaction, the opportunities that Chinese tourists have for engaging in in-depth and personal interactions with other people are limited. This probably explains why the Chinese tourist interviewed tended to perceive protocol-oriented interactions with other tourists as superficial and insignificant, and consequently why they do not embrace specific positive attitudes towards interactions with other tourists. In contrast, the protocol-oriented interaction with

residents is also perceived as brief and superficial, though interviewees mostly rated them as positive, mainly because Chinese tourists expected to interact with the local people to get a closer look and feel of the local life, regardless of how brief the contact is. Moreover, Chinese tourists interviewed tended to have stronger emotional involvement in protocol-oriented interactions with service providers, mainly because the interactions took place in a service context and directly influenced the service delivered to the tourist.

Regarding help-related interactions and sociable interactions, very few of them were initiated by interviewees. Instead, the conviviality of the counterparts played a decisive role in the occurrence of such interactions. Help-related interactions with residents or service providers are generally superficial and standardized, such as asking for directions. Whereas tourist-tourist help-related interactions are more diverse and more personal, especially between Chinese tourists. For example, a Chinese tourist may help another Chinese tourist to fill in an immigration form, or borrow/lend their passport or money to or from another Chinese tourist, whereas such interactions would rarely take place between Chinese tourists and non-Chinese tourists.

The above findings, especially those regarding tourist-tourist interaction partly contradict and challenge the findings of previous studies suggesting the mostly positive impact of tourist-tourist interaction on co-creating tourism experiences. This study uncovered a more complex and ambivalent picture regarding the role of and relationship of tourists with ‘other tourists’.

Compared to interactions with other tourists, interactions with service providers and with residents appear to be more appealing to Chinese tourists. Chinese outbound tourists generally regard the experience of the local environmental and cultural aspects as an important part of the travel experience. A term which is repeatedly mentioned by interviewees is *feng tu ren qing* (风土人情 in Chinese), which implies the physical environment, people and customs of a

certain region. Interviewees commonly held a positive attitude towards the host people including service providers and residents. They were interested in communications and social interactions with local people. However, the interaction with local people is merely seen as a bonus to the tourism experience by Chinese tourists due to the lack of opportunity and sociability on the part of the tourists themselves to initiate interactions with residents. This study shows that Chinese inbound tourists to Japan seldomly attempt to interact directly with host people.

The slogan- “to interact with the local and live like a local” is popular among Chinese tourists. It appears that compared to the difficulties and barriers to “interact with the local”, “living like a local” is more feasible for Chinese tourists when traveling abroad. Chinese tourists actualize the desire to “live like a local” vicariously by observing the daily life of local people; patronizing the places, such as restaurants, favored by local people, or by trying traditional customs of the destination. Fu, Cai and Lehto’s (2015) study also indicates that Chinese tourists tend to draw a distinctive boundary between themselves and the local people, which explains the fact that Chinese tourists are more sightseeing-oriented rather than that they actively create experiences of direct social interactions with local people. Previous literature suggests that the feeling of meeting and communicating with others, including fellow tourists, is an important and appealing component for tourists to take part in tourism activities (Brown, 2005; Murphy, 2001; Pearce, 2005b; White & White, 2008). This notion partially holds true in this study, as Chinese tourists may choose to engage in certain tourism activities due to the desire to get closer to the host community. While only a limited number of direct interactions with residents were reported, interviewees mostly expressed their desire for such interactions, which is consistent with previous studies in the western context that used student samples in the UK (Morgan & Xu, 2009) and Canada (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Scholars addressed the importance of tourist social interaction with local people as constituting a memorable experience (Morgan

& Xu, 2009; Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

To conclude, the role of the host people as the co-creator of the tourist experience is confirmed in this study. In addition, this study finds that Chinese outbound tourists largely have a positive attitude towards co-creating their experiences with local people through not only direct interactions but also indirect social interactions.

4.4.2 The complexity of the role of ‘other tourists’

This study identifies a previously unknown or unconfirmed phenomena that tourists do not always see other tourists as merely positive in co-creating tourism experiences. Interviewees held mixed views of the roles other tourists play in influencing tourism experiences, from positive roles such as temporary companion, helper/helped, to negative roles such as total stranger, competitor, and disturber.

For some tourists, the appealing factor for them to patronize a tourism attraction is the absence of other tourists, as opposite to meeting them. Some interviewees tended to view other tourists as a ‘competitor’ for tourism resources and tourism services, or as a ‘disturber’ of the authentic beauty of the destination. Even towards the help-related interaction with other tourists, some interviewees did not hold specifically positive attitudes. The above findings suggest that Chinese outbound tourists are more inclined to create their own experiences without the involvement of the other tourists. From this stance, the role of other tourists in co-creating the tourist experience is perceived as negative. However, it is impossible for the tourist to simply ignore the presence of the other tourist, as interviewees reported a reasonably large number of interactions (direct or indirect) with other tourists, which outnumbered the interactions with service providers and residents.

Addressing the ever-increasing the number of tourists worldwide, previous studies (Lazarevski

& Dolnicar, 2008; Praet et al., 2015) suggest that balancing the market with a variety of tourists from different countries can facilitate consumer compatibility. However, this study reveals an alternative insight. Chinese outbound tourists view dealing with social interactions with other tourists from unfamiliar cultural backgrounds as so challenging that they choose to avoid such social interactions. It is normally beyond the control of destination management to manipulate the geographical origin of tourists. It is even more difficult for the destination to achieve the balance of cultural backgrounds of inbound tourists. Therefore, how to establish a better social environment for tourists to feel more comfortable in the co-presence of other tourists raises an important question.

The data also discover a special segment of ‘the other tourist’, i.e., the other Chinese tourist. Chinese outbound tourists hold mixed feelings towards their compatriots when traveling. When many tourists from the same country visit the same destination, this diminishes the exotic atmosphere, whereas meeting compatriots and communicating with them in the familiar mother language reconciles the anxiety of coping with the unfamiliar environment. It is worth to further investigate how the mixed views on other tourist manifest themselves in the social interactions between tourists.

4.4.3 Limitations and insights for the following quantitative study

This study uncovers some seemingly insignificant yet influential interactions by inviting interviewees to talk about anything relating to social interaction that they perceive as important and memorable, as guided by the grounded theory approach. However, the use of grounded theory method also comes with some limitations. Researchers argue that the quality of the interpretation of the data is heavily subject to the researcher's limitations such as cultural perspective, skills and experience (Green et al., 2007). During this research, the researcher has been devoted to improving her self-awareness, knowledge, skills, and sensitivity to

counterbalance this limitation. Moreover, constant discussions with other researchers from different cultural backgrounds were conducted during this research, to avoid the interpretation of the data being overly influenced by the researcher's Chinese cultural perspective. The following stage of quantitative study is also designed to provide more objective insights into this research topic.

Another limitation originates from the sample of this research, as the interviewees only include tourists on organized package tours and FITs traveling with companions, who are expected to be more inclined to socialize with their companions on a tour than that they would pursue direct interactions with local people (Fu, Cai & Lehto, 2015) or other tourists whom they do not know. The finding that Chinese tourists mostly lack the intrinsic motivation to initiate social interactions with other people and do not attach specific positive value to social interactions with other tourists, may thus only apply to package tourists and FITS who travel with companions. In contrast, other important segments of tourists such as backpackers, and solo travelers, may have different perceptions and behaviors in terms of social interaction at the destination and while traveling. Previous research has revealed that social interactions and meeting others is regarded as an essential part of traveling for backpacker tourists (Murphy, 2001). Reichenberg's study (2014) on international tourists in New Zealand also confirmed that in-depth sociable interactions frequently take place between backpackers, especially the single backpacker travelers. However, the backpackers, and solo travelers were not included in this study. To address this limitation, the following stage of quantitative study is designed to sample a wider variety of the respondents in terms of their travel style.

Another limitation arises from the definition of 'indirect interaction'. This study tentatively uses *indirect interaction* to refer to the 'inward' interaction may thus occur only inside the mind of the social actors and does not require any overt or outward forms of communication to

occur. This definition follows previous studies on tourist-to-tourist interaction, which have used the term ‘indirect interaction’ as opposed to ‘direct interaction’, to refer to the presence of other tourist, the customer density, crowding and public behaviors of other tourists and other indirect effect of other tourists on the tourism experience (e.g., Huang & Hsu, 2009; Huang & Hsu, 2010; Kim & Lee, 2012; Yang, 2015). Given that about 20% of the interactions reported are indirect or ‘inward’ interactions, the important role indirect or ‘inward’ interactions play in the overall experience of tourists, should not be neglected. Theoretically, scholars from the field of sociology differentiate between two levels of social interaction: co-presence and focused interaction (Gahagan, 1984; Goffman, 1964). The minimum level of social interaction is encompassed in the notion of ‘co-presence’, which occurs when two or more individuals “signal through bodily and facial demeanor, and the use of space or any other means, their awareness of one another’s presence and their accessibility to one another” (Gahagan, 1984, p.19). It suggests that even the minimum level of social interaction conveys the mutual awareness of both parties of the participants in the interaction. In this study, however the conceptualization and distinction between ‘direct’ and ‘indirect’ interaction from previous tourism studies is adopted. Different from the conceptualization of Gahagan (1984) there may not be any outward action on the part of the social actors and the action may remain limited to ‘inward’ action. Thus, whether ‘indirect’ interaction as defined in tourism studies should be considered as involving inter-action, or needs to be conceptualized differently remains an avenue for future study.

Chapter 5 Quantitative study

The findings of the qualitative study described in Chapter 4 revealed the complexity of the social aspects of tourist experiences and can be used as the basis for further exploration of tourist social interactions with different groups of social actors.

The findings of the first stage of qualitative study suggest that compared with service providers and residents, Chinese inbound tourists held more diversified views towards other tourists and consequently exhibited a wider variety of attitudes towards co-creating tourism experience with this type of social actor. The ways in which Chinese tourists perceived the roles of service providers and residents and their attitudes to social interactions with the two groups are relatively constant. Tourists mostly involve in interactions with services providers in protocol-oriented situations (such as processing a purchase or receiving service) and such tourist-service provider interactions are largely perceived as ritualized and manualized. In terms of the interactions with residents, Chinese tourists are commonly interested and curious in the culture daily life of the locals, but at the same time lack the motivation or ability to interact with them. Moreover, previous research has been largely concerned with the co-created experiences between tourists and service providers/organizations (Campos et al., 2016; Rihova et al., 2015), leaving the social interactions between tourists largely unexplored.

Moreover, the incidents of interactions with other tourists reported by interviewees outnumbered the reported incidents of interactions with service providers and residents. Specifically, Chinese interviewees spontaneously differentiated ‘familiar strangers’, i.e., other Chinese tourists from the ‘in-group’ (Chinese tourists) and ‘total strangers’, i.e., ‘out-group’ members (non-Chinese tourists) and held different attitudes towards the two sub-groups of ‘other tourists’. It indicates that the tourist-tourist interaction is inherently dynamic and

warrants further exploration.

While ideally one should explore the relationships among the constructs uncovered in the qualitative study with a focus on social interaction with all three groups of social actors in a quantitative study, time and financial constraints and considerations regarding the burden on respondents to fill out long questionnaires and the related drop in quality of answers made the researcher decide to narrow the focus of the quantitative study to social interaction of Chinese visitors to Japan with one single type of social actor: other tourists.

As explained above, the second stage of quantitative study follows the research findings of first stage of qualitative study and narrows the focus down to the tourist-tourist interaction. The following figure illustrate the relationship between the qualitative study and the quantitative study.

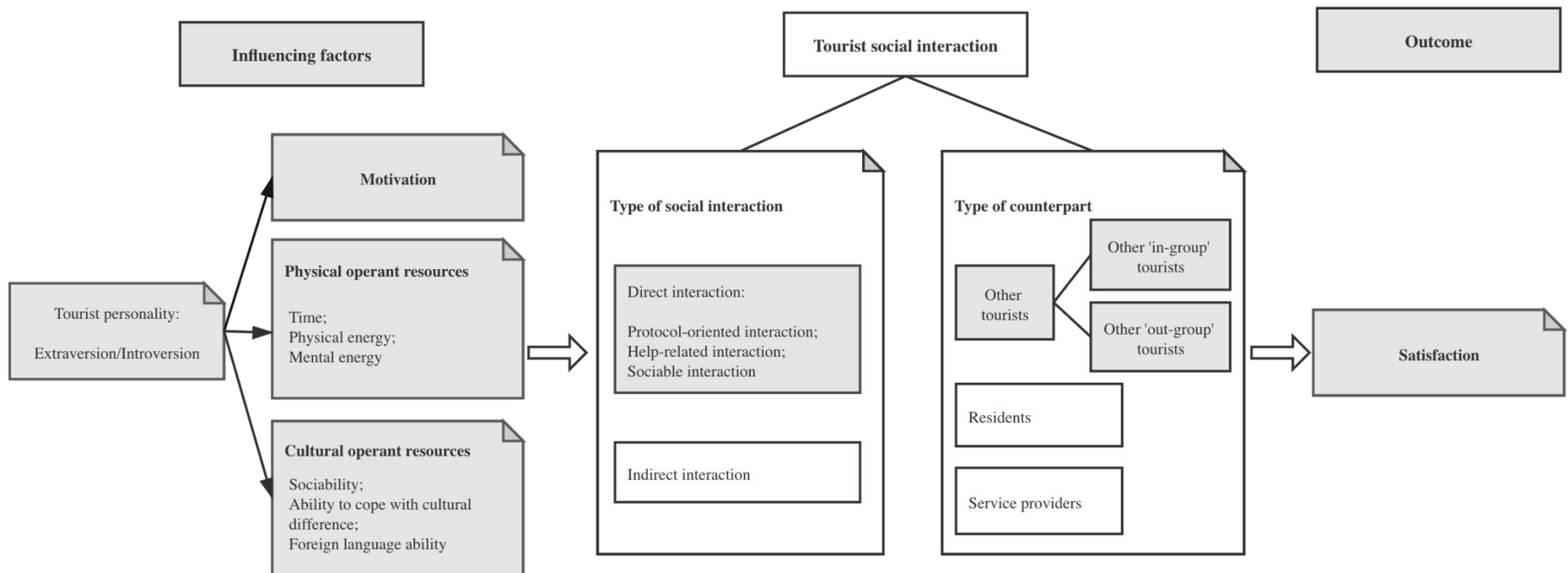


Figure 5-1 The relationship between the qualitative and quantitative studies

Note: This figure shows the main findings of the qualitative study. The research focus of the second stage of quantitative study is derived from these research findings and is illustrated through grey fills of the relevant textboxes.

5.1 Research questions and hypotheses development

As explained above, the quantitative study focuses on tourist-tourist interaction (hereafter: T2T Interaction). Moreover, in this study, T2T Interaction is restricted to the direct interaction between previously unacquainted tourists that occurs during the onsite travel experience. Specifically, this study concentrates on the Chinese outbound tourists' T2T Interactions with both other 'in-group' tourist (i.e., other Chinese tourists) and other 'out-group' tourists (i.e., non-Chinese tourists) during their travel in Japan.

The quantitative study addresses the following research questions:

- (1) To what extent do the influencing factors, i.e., personality, travel motivation, and physical and cultural operant resources impact Chinese tourists' direct social interactions with other tourists?
- (2) How do Chinese tourists engage in social interactions with other tourists?
- (3) How and to what extent do Chinese tourists' social interactions with other tourists impact the evaluation of the travel experience.
- (4) How and to what extent do interactions with other Chinese versus non-Chinese tourists differ in their impact on the overall evaluation of the travel experience?

Regarding the influencing factors, three antecedents of T2T Interaction are proposed, i.e., tourist motivation to interact with other tourists (hereafter: Motivation), tourist perceived possession of physical operant resources for them to involve in social interactions with other tourists (hereafter: Physical Operant Resource), and tourist perceived possession of cultural operant resources for them to involve in social interactions with other tourists (hereafter: Cultural Operant Resource). The three antecedents are presumed to be influenced by tourist

extraversion (hereafter: Extraversion). Tourist satisfaction (hereafter: Satisfaction) was adopted as the outcome variable, and centers on tourist satisfaction with their social interactions with other tourists. The investigation on Chinese tourists' participation in T2T Interaction will focus on how tourists engage in social interactions with different counterparts (i.e., other Chinese tourists and non-Chinese tourists), and in different scenarios (i.e., protocol-oriented interactions, help-related interactions, and sociable interactions).

5.1.1 The overarching role of extraversion

The qualitative data discovered that most interviewees claimed that their personality trait, especially extraversion, was the dominant factor influencing their desire to interact with other tourists whom they had not met before. Specifically, the interviewees who indicated their unwillingness towards social interaction with formerly unacquainted others, attributed their reluctance of social interaction to their introverted personality.

Psychological studies view personality traits as relatively stable internal characteristics of individuals that influence human behavior in a consistent manner (Argyle, 2013). In a tourism context, the link between personality traits and tourist travel decisions and behaviors has also been addressed in previous studies (e.g., Frew & Shaw, 1999; Kvasova, 2015; Moore, Moore & Capella, 2005). Personality traits are usually examined under the five-factor model (FFM), which describes personality variation along five dimensions: Extraversion, Openness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Agreeableness (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Extraversion represents the extent to which an individual is social, talkative, assertive, energetic, and outgoing; this construct is widely accepted as closely related to individuals' social interaction (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Previous studies have confirmed the positive relationship between extraversion and reactions to interactions (Nezlek et al., 2011). In tourism studies, scholars have also revealed tourists' extraversion as an antecedent of eco-friendly behavior (Kvasova,

2015), and of the perceived crowding and satisfaction (Hollway, 2011; Weaver, 2010). Moore, Moore and Capella (2005) suggest that extravert customers and introvert customers may have completely different perceptions towards social interactions with other customers. Moreover, Reichenberger's (2014, 2017) study on tourists-tourist interaction suggested that tourists' extraversion has an overarching influence on the length, level of formality and conversation topic, and is especially closely related to overall motivation to interact with other tourists.

Therefore, this study proposed tourist extraversion (hereafter: Extraversion) as the overarching factor influencing the proposed antecedents of T2T Interaction (i.e., Motivation, Physical Operant Resource, and Cultural Operant Resource). Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: A tourist's level of self-perceived extraversion has a positive impact on his/her motivation for social interaction with other tourists

H2: A tourist's level of self-perceived extraversion has a positive impact on his/her perceived possession of physical operant resources

H3: A tourist's level of self-perceived extraversion has a positive impact on his/her perceived possession of cultural operant resources

5.1.2 The antecedents of T2T Interaction

5.1.2.1 Motivation

The qualitative study revealed a relatively low level of tourists' motivation towards social interaction with other people, which is closely related to their reluctance of engaging in interaction with other tourists. Some interviewees declared that they had other travel

motivation (e.g., to rest and to relax, to see a different culture, to accompany family on a trip) than seeking social interaction and consequently did not involve too much in social interactions with other tourists.

Travel motivation is regarded as the ultimate driving force that explains tourists' on-site behaviors (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). Scholars have developed various theories on travel motivation such as Dann's (1977) push-pull theory, Iso-Ahola's (1982) social psychological model, and the travel career patterns (TCP) by Pearce and Lee (2005). In contrast, empirical studies on travel motivation have mostly focused on either identifying motivational factors during the on-site travel experience (e.g., Fu, Cai & Lehto, 2007; Hsu, Cai & Wong, 2004), or on the segmentation of tourists by motivational differences (e.g., Cheng, Bao & Huang, 2014; Lazarevski & Dolnicar, 2008; Uzama, 2012). In terms of the social aspect of the tourist experience, previous studies have tended to take social interactions between tourists for granted and have largely neglected the exploration of (a) tourist motivation for social interaction through the travel experience, and (b) the impact of such motivation on tourist actual social behaviors when traveling abroad. Hence, the exploration of the relationship between tourist motivation for social interaction (hereafter: Motivation) and their engagement in social interaction is warranted. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 4: A tourist's motivation to travel has a positive impact on T2T Interaction

5.1.2.2 Perceived possession of physical and cultural operant resources

Previous co-creation studies (e.g., Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2008; Rihova et al., 2013, 2015) conceptualized consumers as resource integrators. The resource integration process is largely determined by consumers operant resources as they can act upon operand resources (and even other operant resources) to create value and consequently influence how consumers make use of the other operant and operand resources (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). Thus, it is well accepted

that consumers' operant resources play a crucial role in value co-creation.

Consumers' competence, knowledge and skills are the most salient operant resources being utilized in value co-creation (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). In a tourism context, tourist operant resources such as social skills and linguistic ability are regarded as even more vital for social interactions to take place. These operant resources are confirmed as playing an essential role in determining the willingness to engage in social interactions with other people (Heimton, 2011; Levy & Getz, 2012; Reichenberger, 2017), and in influencing the ways in which tourists co-create value with each other (Reichenberger, 2017; Rihova et al., 2018). Scholars (e.g., Prebensen & Xie, 2017; Rihova et al., 2018) also report that tourist perceived possession of the competence and skills (denoted as "self-perceived mastering" by Prebensen and Xie, 2017) influence their perception towards the value co-created through social interactions.

Correspondingly, the first stage of qualitative study revealed that interviewees regarded the perceived lack of operant resources as the main reason that hindered them to engage in social interactions, especially the sociable interactions with other people. Besides the operant resources such as sociability, and foreign language ability, the respondents also indicated time, physical energy and mental energy as crucial operant resources for them to involve in tourist-tourist social interactions. However, the previous literature on tourist social interaction has mostly focused on tourist social ability and language skills, leaving the physical resources such as time, physical energy and mental energy largely neglected (Arnould, Price & Malshe, 2006).

The stock of physical resources (i.e., time, physical energy and mental energy) may influence how a tourist utilizes the other operant resources during social interactions with other tourists. For example, a tourist who is physically exhausted from having engaged in tourism activities may be reluctant to employ his/her language ability to engage in social interactions with tourists from different language backgrounds. Whereas a tourist who possesses enough time and energy

may be more willing to initiate social interactions with other tourists.

Therefore, this study follows Arnould and colleagues' (2006) study in differentiating tourist operant resources as physical operant resources (including time, physical energy, mental energy) and cultural operant resources (including sociability and foreign language ability). To further investigate the relationship between tourist self-perceived possession of operant resources and tourist participation in social interaction, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H5: A tourist's self-perceived possession of physical operant resources has a positive impact on T2T Interaction

H6: A tourist's self-perceived possession of cultural operant resources has a positive impact on T2T Interaction

5.1.3 The outcome of T2T Interaction

It is well acknowledged that tourist involvement in social interactions with other tourists may generate additional positive outcomes, which were mostly investigated from the perspective of tourist satisfaction/dissatisfaction in previous studies (e.g., Baron & Warnaby, 2011; Huang & Hsu, 2010; Mathis et al., 2016; Wu, 2007). A study on rail travel tourists revealed that T2T Interaction can alleviate tourist dissatisfaction towards service provision through anxiety reduction, the enactment of the partial employee role, and the supply of social interaction (Baron & Warnaby, 2011). Scholars also uncovered T2T Interaction's positive impact on tourist satisfaction with the co-created experience, subjective well-being, and loyalty to the service provider (Mathis et al., 2016). Huang and Hsu (2010) studied cruise tour tourist social interaction with other tourists and suggested that tourists vacation satisfaction is positively related to the quality of tourist-tourist interaction. Wu's (2007) study on Taiwanese outbound tourists also revealed that tourists' perception of T2T Interaction incidents has a significant

impact upon their evaluation of the tourism experience. The positive relationship between tourist-tourist interaction and satisfaction is also confirmed in managerially facilitated scenarios (Levy, Getz & Hudson, 2011). Accordingly, this study also adopts the view that T2T Interaction is closely related to tourist satisfaction. The following hypothesis is proposed:

H7: T2T Interaction has a positive impact on the tourist’s satisfaction with the travel experience

Figure 5-2 shows a summary of the hypotheses.

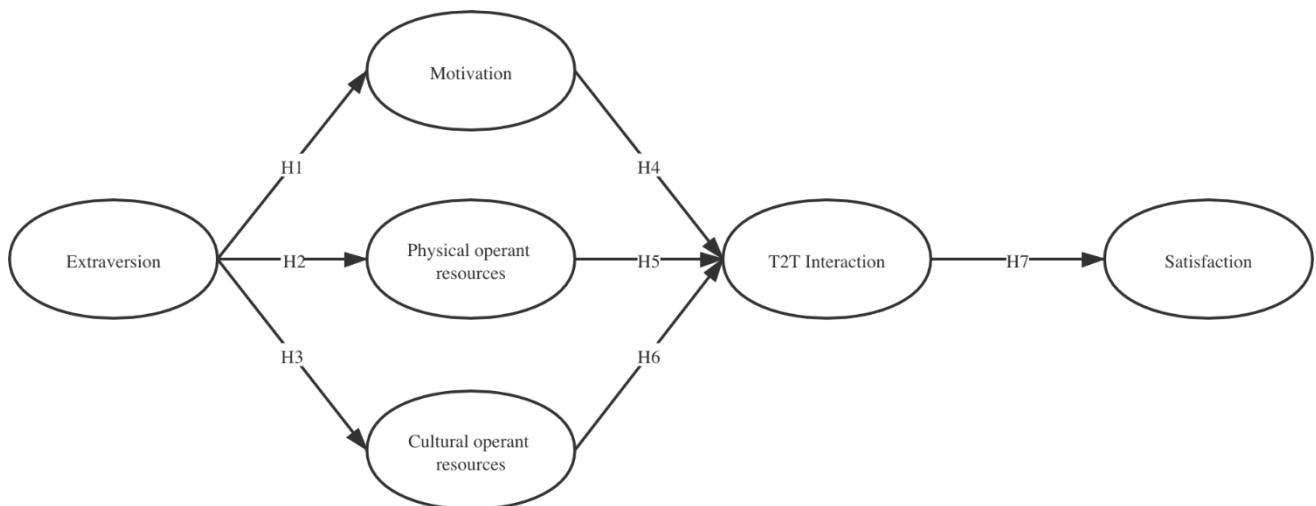


Figure 5-2 Illustration of the hypotheses

5.2 Construct measurement

5.2.1 T2T Interaction

Previous empirical studies on social interaction have adopted several measures, such as the frequency of interactions and time spent in interactions (e.g., Nezelek et al., 2011), levels of intensity (Huang & Hsu, 2010), interpersonal bonds and enjoyment (Moore, Moore & Capella, 2005), and customers' evaluation of customer-customer interaction incidents (Wu, 2007).

Accordingly, this study measures the frequency of T2T Interactions, and introduces a more subjective measurement of the role the tourist occupied in T2T Interactions. Reichenberger (2014) drew from Darley and Fazio's (1980) theory on social interaction sequence and differentiated the participants of social interaction as 'the initiator' and 'the target'. The initiator is the one who carries out the first specific act towards the target, and the target then responds to the initiator based on the interpretation of the initiator's action (Reichenberger, 2014). The initiators initiate social interactions with expectations of rewards such as obtaining directions to places of interest or having a pleasant conversation with other tourists. It is thus assumed that the initiators of social interactions would rate their interactions more favorably than their respective targets, as social exchange theory (Andereck et al., 2006) suggests that individuals with expectation of a positive outcome would perceive the interactions as more positive (Reichenberger, 2014). Baron and Warnaby (2001) also differentiated tourists' involvement in value co-creation as passive and active involvement and suggested that active involvement contributes to tourists' immersion in the experience, which may result in a higher level of satisfaction.

The previous stage of qualitative study revealed three categories of T2T Interaction: protocol-oriented interaction, help-related interaction, and sociable interaction. The frequency and the role the tourist occupied are investigated through respective statements illustrating the three

types of T2T Interaction. The measurements also differentiate between Chinese tourists' interactions with other tourists from their 'in-group' (i.e., other Chinese tourists), and 'out-group' (i.e., non-Chinese tourists).

Protocol-oriented interaction is operationalized through the following statement: Greet other Chinese/foreign tourists out of courtesy. Help-related interaction is operationalized as: Ask other Chinese/foreign tourists for help or help other Chinese/foreign tourists. Regarding the sociable interactions, three statements were used to capture tourists' different degrees of involvement in sociable interactions. These statements are: 1) have a brief casual chat with other Chinese/foreign tourists; 2) have a relatively in-depth conversation with other Chinese/foreign tourists; and 3) get to know and become friends with other Chinese/foreign tourists.

Each type of T2T Interaction was investigated in terms of frequency and of the role of the tourist in the interaction with 7-point Likert-type scales. The frequency is anchored by 1 (*never*), 4 (*sometimes*), and 7 (*almost always*). The role the tourist occupied is anchored by 1 (*passively respond*), 4 (*depends*), and 7 (*actively initiate*).

5.2.2 Extraversion

The Big Five Inventory (BFI) is a widely adopted scheme for measuring an individual's personality. The BFI consists of 44 items, among which eight items are used for examining an individual's extraversion. In this study, to control the length of the survey instrument so as to ensure the response rate and reliability (Deutskens et al., 2004), a brief measure of extraversion was needed. Gosling, Rentfrow and Swann (2003) claimed that extraversion is a widely understood trait and it is more straightforward to simply ask a person how extraverted he/she is than to use a multi-item extraversion scale. Therefore, this study adopted a two-item measure of extraversion based on Donnellan et al.'s (2006) brief version of International Personality

Item Pool and Wang and colleagues' (2011) Chinese Big Five Personality Inventory to ensure measurement validity for the Chinese respondents. Adaptations were made to better reflect the tourism context. The two items were "I have an outgoing and open personality", and "When traveling, I often talk to people whom I had not met before." They were measured on 7-point Likert-type scales anchored by 1 (*completely disagree*), 4 (*neither*) and 7 (*completely agree*).

5.2.3 Motivation

Development of the measurement on travel motivation is based a thorough review of the literature. Both conceptual literature on the theories of travel motivation, and empirical studies conducted in Asian context or focusing on Chinese outbound tourists were reviewed. Special attention was paid to how the motivational scales were developed in Asian context, especially the intrinsic motivator/push factors (in push-pull studies). Overall, six motivational factors/constructs were summarized as they have been well applied and validated in studies on travel motivation of Chinese outbound tourists, which are: self-actualization, knowledge-seeking, reward maximization, punishment avoidance, value-expression, social- adjustive, and others (see Table 5-1).

Table 5-1 A summary of extant studies on travel motivation factors

Authors	Motivational factors						
	Self-actualization	Knowledge-seeking	Reward maximization	Punishment avoidance	Value-expression	Social-adjustive	Others
Conceptual studies on travel motivation							
Mayo & Jarvis (1981)		Cultural motivators	Physical motivators		Status and prestige motivators	Interpersonal motivators	
Iso-Ahola (1982)	Personal seeking			Personal escape		Interpersonal seeking/escape	
Beard & Ragheb (1983) ⁷	Competence-Mastery	Intellectual		Stimulus-Avoidance		Social	
Fodness (1994)	Ego-defensive	Knowledge	Utilitarian function: reward maximization	Utilitarian function: punishment avoidance	Value-expression	Social adjustive	Other: professional and business
Ryan & Glendon (1998) ⁸	Mastery	Intellectual		Relaxation		Social	
Baloglu & McCleary (1999)		Knowledge	Excitement/Adventure	Relaxation/Escape	Prestige	Social	

⁷ Adopted by Uzama (2012): Yokoso! Japan Classifying Foreign Tourists to Japan for Market Segmentation.

⁸ Tasting Beard & Ragheb's (1983) theory.

Authors	Motivational factors						
	Self-actualization	Knowledge-seeking	Reward maximization	Punishment avoidance	Value-expression	Social-adjustive	Others
Empirical studies on Chinese outbound tourists							
Hanqin & Lam (1999) (HK)		Knowledge		Relaxation	Prestige	Enhancement of human relationship	Novelty
Kau & Lim (2005) (Singapore)		Exploration	Pleasure Seeking/Sightseeing	Escape/Relax	Prestige/Knowledge	Enhance Family/Social Relationships	Adventure/Excitement
Hsu, Cai & Wong (2007) (Chinese senior tourists)	Personal reward	Seeking knowledge	Improving wellbeing	Escaping routines	Pride and patriotism	Social	Nostalgia
Li, Wen & Leung (2011) (Chinese female tourists visiting HK)		Knowledge		Rest and relaxation	prestige	Enhancement of social relationships	Adventure and excitement
Lu (2011) (Canada)		Exploration		Escape/leisure	Prestige	Family ties	
Chen, Bao & Huang (2014) (Chinese backpackers)	Self-actualization	Destination experience;		Escape and relaxation		Social interaction	
Jiang, Scott & Ding (2014) (Chinese outbound tourists)	An experienced person; self-improvement;		Hedonic; a world of beauty				Shopping

Authors	Motivational factors						
	Self-actualization	Knowledge-seeking	Reward maximization	Punishment avoidance	Value-expression	Social-adjustive	Others
Song, Liu & Huang (2016) (Chinese tourists visiting Taiwan)	self-realization Fulfil the dream	Experience local lifestyle/culture/customs/political system/economy	Taste Taiwanese-style snacks; sightseeing			Interact with local people; accompany family members/friends	

Based on the literature review, the abovementioned seven factors were used to measure travel motivation in this study and, given the focus on social interaction in the current research, a more detailed measurement of the social-adjustive factor was included. The following table lists the measurements of each construct of travel motivation. The respondents were asked to rate on 7-point Likert-type scales on how important each motivational factor in tourist decision to travel to Japan in the most recent visit from 1 (*not at all important*), 4 (*moderately important*) and 7 (*extremely important*).

Table 5-2 Measurement of travel motivation

Factor	Measurement	Authors
Self-actualization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To become a 'better me' 	Chen, Bao & Huang (2014)
Knowledge-seeking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To know more about Japan • To see how local (Japanese) people live 	Hsu, Cai & Wong (2007)
Reward maximization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To rest and to relax • To enjoy gourmet food and drink • To view beautiful scenery and nature 	Hsu, Cai & Wong (2007)
Punishment avoidance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To enjoy being alone 	Beard & Ragheb (1983)
Value-expression	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To be able to talk about my travel experience after returning home 	Fondness (1994)
Social- adjustive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To communicate and interact with local (Japanese) people • (For respondents who traveled with companions) To spend time with family or friend(s) who is/were traveling with me • To visit relatives or friends living in Japan • To meet new people • To make new friends • To look for a new romantic encounter 	Chen, Bao & Huang (2014); Li, Wen & Leung (2011)
Others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shopping • To attend events as a spectator (sports, festival, music) 	Li, Wen & Leung (2011); Jiang, Scott & Ding (2015)

As illustrated in Table 5-2, 16 items covering seven factors of tourist motivation were generated based on the literature review. The author attempted to gain a general picture of how Chinese are influenced by each motivational factor by including all the measurement items in the survey questionnaire. Whereas in the proposed structural model, only the 'social-adjustive' factor was included. Moreover, as the research focus was on tourist-tourist interaction, the examination of

tourist motivation was centered on tourist motivation to involve social interaction with other tourists. I used three items of the ‘social-adjustive’ construct: “To meet new people”, “To make new friends”, and “To look for a new romantic encounter”.

5.2.4 Physical Operant Resources

The measurement of physical operant resources is derived from the findings of the qualitative study, described in Chapter 4. Physical operant resources comprise time, physical energy, and mental energy. The respondents were asked to rate their perceived possession of each type of physical operant resources on 7-point Likert-type scales anchored by 1 (*not at all*), 4 (*some*) and 7 (*a lot*).

5.2.5 Cultural Operant Resources

Similar to the measurement of physical operant resources, the measurement of cultural operant resources is also derived from the findings of the qualitative study. Cultural operant resources include sociability (i.e., the ability to socialize with other people), foreign language skill (in cases of interacting with non-Chinese tourists), and capability in coping with cultural differences (in cases of interacting with non-Chinese tourists). The respondents were asked to rate their perceived possession of each type of cultural operant resource on 7-point Likert-type scales anchored by 1 (*not at all*), 4 (*some*) and 7 (*a lot*).

5.2.6 Satisfaction

Satisfaction is measured by asking tourists’ evaluation of two issues: satisfaction with the T2T Interaction and satisfaction with the overall travel experience in Japan. Tourist satisfaction with the T2T Interaction consists of tourist satisfaction with the interactions with other ‘in-group’ tourists and tourist satisfaction with other ‘out-group’ tourists. Accordingly, two questions were asked to the respondents: “How satisfied are you overall with your interactions with other

Chinese tourists when visiting Japan during your most recent visit?”, and “How satisfied are you overall with your interactions with non-Chinese tourists when visiting Japan during your most recent visit?” Tourist satisfaction with the overall tourism experience was measured with the question “How satisfied are you with your overall experience visiting Japan during your most recent trip?”. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction on 7-point Likert-type scales anchored by 1(*completely dissatisfied*), 4 (*neither*) and 7 (*completely satisfied*).

5.3 Survey instrument and data collection

5.3.1 Survey instrument

Three rounds of pilot studies were conducted in Otaru during May and June in 2019 to test and further modify the survey instrument. Each pilot study involved 10 to 16 Chinese tourists. The author collected respondents' feedbacks on the clarity of the questionnaire, satisfaction with the time spent on completing the questionnaire, and respondents' suggestions on the arrangement of the sequence of the questions and additional questions to be included in the questionnaire. Modifications were made based on these feedbacks and the final questionnaire was decided on after the third pilot study.

The initial questionnaire was designed in Chinese first and then translated into English for discussion with supervision team members. Along with the back-and-forth modifications of the questionnaire, English became the primary language used when revising the questionnaire. The final questionnaire was designed in English and translated into Chinese by the researcher. Another Chinese native speaker researcher who is also fluent in English checked and confirmed the accuracy of the Chinese translation. A third Chinese bilingual researcher was invited to back translate the Chinese questionnaire into English following Brislin's (1970) back-translation approach. Please see Appendix 5 and Appendix 6 for the English version and the Chinese version of the questionnaire, respectively.

The final questionnaire includes three sections. The first section is a brief introduction of the study to the respondents. The second section includes the measurements of the six constructs as elaborated in Section 5.2. The last section includes questions about respondents' personal background such as demographic information and travel characteristics.

5.3.2 Data collection

The formal data collection was conducted in July of 2019. The sample size was set at 300, and is restricted to mainland Chinese who had visited Japan in the three months prior to answering the questionnaire (i.e., during April to June of 2019). Quota sampling based on age and gender was adopted. To reach a wider range of respondents and to insure the survey's reliability and efficiency, the data were collected through a Chinese local professional online survey research firm: wenjuan.com (hereafter: Wenjuan). The data collection was completed within one week.

Wenjuan is one of three main online survey service providers that have been widely employed by academic researcher in China (the other two service providers are *Sojump* and *Diaoyanbao*) (Mei & Brown, 2017). The advantages of Wenjuan, such as flexible pricing options and practical functionality through combining online survey with local Web 2.0 services, are well demonstrated in Mei and Brown's (2017) study. Wenjuan a sample base of 6.87 million Chinese internet users by the end of December 2018, among which 2.51 million were active users (those who had interacted with the company in the past 3 months such as registration, logging in, replying to e-mails or messages, and using the APP service). The sample base covers all the 1st-tier, 2nd-tier provincial capitals, 3rd-tier cities, and some 4th-6th cities in China. Wenjuan supports distributing questionnaires through various channels, for example e-mail, website, smartphone applications, and WeChat ([https://www. wechat.com/en/](https://www.wechat.com/en/)).

Wenjuan sends questionnaires directly to the panelists matching the sampling requirement. Each respondent has a dedicated access to the questionnaire, and Wenjuan monitors the respondent's IP address and restricts refilling the questionnaire or forwarding the questionnaire to other people. Wenjuan also identifies respondents' inconsistency in answering the questionnaires and exclude questionable responses. Moreover, if a respondent selects the same answer continuously, the respondent will be notified with a pop-up notification.

One of the conveniences of using an online survey service such as Wenjuan's is that it provides an automatically generated data set based on respondents' original responses to the questionnaires. The data set can be directly utilized in statistics software such as Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS).

5.4 Data analysis

The data were analyzed using the SPSS 26.0 and AMOS 26.0 statistical packages. SPSS 26.0 was adopted to conduct descriptive analysis, to further arrange the data and test the assumptions for structural equation modeling (SEM) (i.e., outliers, missing data, nonnormality and multicollinearity of the data), and to check the reliability of measurement items. AMOS was employed with the Maximize Likelihood (ML) parameter estimation method to analysis the validation of the measurement items and of the structural model.

5.4.1 Data parceling

Prior to data analysis, a parceling procedure was conducted on the measurement items for T2T Interaction. In contrast to other constructs which were measured by two to four items, T2T Interaction was measured by 20 items. A detailed measurement of T2T Interaction helps generate a comprehensive understanding of tourist interaction behavior and thus facilitates more in-depth exploration of tourist social interaction for future study. However, a bigger number of items is inevitably linked with an increase of the absolute amount of measurement error and thus may adversely affect the model fit (Rushton, Brainerd & Pressley, 1983). By adopting the parceling strategy, items are aggregated into one or more 'parcels', and the 'parcels' are used instead of items, as the indicator(s) of the target latent variable/construct, and this reduces the random error (Cattell & Burdsal, 1975). Parcels are regarded as superior compared with item-level data also because of the psychometric advantage such as improving scale communality and common-to-unique ratio for each indicator, reconstructing and

normalizing the construct distribution, remedying violations of normalized distribution, and improving modeling efficiency (Little et al., 2002; Matsunaga, 2008). In addition, a structural model that is based on parceled items requires fewer parameters and consequently has a better estimation stability and fits the data better (Bandalos, 2002).

Addressing the critique that parceling may obscure the qualities of individual items, scholars suggest that parceling is especially suitable for studies aiming at investigating the relationships between the constructs rather than at examining the function of individual items (Labouvie & Ruetsch, 1995; Rocha & Chelladurai, 2012). Given that the focus of this study is to test the hypothesized relationships between the constructs, the use of parceling the measurement items of T2T Interaction is justified.

Parceling can be conducted by aggregating two or more items randomly or nonrandomly (i.e., a subset-item-parcel approach), or combining all the items into one composite score (i.e., an all-item-parcel approach) (Little et al., 2002). In this study, the subset-item-parcel approach was adopted. For the 20 measurement items of T2T Interaction, four parcels were generated by making mean score variables based on the four different focuses (i.e., frequency of interaction with other Chinese tourists, frequency of interaction with non-Chinese tourists, role occupied in interaction with other Chinese tourist, and role occupied in interaction with non-Chinese tourists) of the 20 measurement items. The details of the parceling for T2T Interaction are illustrated in Table 5-3.

Table 5-3 Parceling for T2T Interaction

Item	Parcel
How often did this type of interaction occur? “Greet other Chinese tourists out of courtesy” “Ask other Chinese tourists for help or help other Chinese tourists” “Have a brief casual chat with other Chinese tourists” “Have a relatively in-depth conversation with other Chinese tourists” “Get to know and become friends with other Chinese tourists”	Parcel 1: Frequency of interaction with other Chinese tourists
How often did this type of interaction occur? “Greet non-Chinese tourists out of courtesy” “Ask non-Chinese tourists for help or help other Chinese tourists” “Have a brief casual chat with non-Chinese tourists” “Have a relatively in-depth conversation with non-Chinese tourists” “Get to know and become friends with non-Chinese tourists”	Parcel 2: Frequency of interaction with non-Chinese tourists
How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? “Greet other Chinese tourists out of courtesy” “Ask other Chinese tourists for help or help other Chinese tourists” “Have a brief casual chat with other Chinese tourists” “Have a relatively in-depth conversation with other Chinese tourists” “Get to know and become friends with other Chinese tourists”	Parcel 3: Role occupied in interaction with other Chinese tourists
How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? “Greet non-Chinese tourists out of courtesy” “Ask non-Chinese tourists for help or help other Chinese tourists” “Have a brief casual chat with non-Chinese tourists” “Have a relatively in-depth conversation with non-Chinese tourists” “Get to know and become friends with non-Chinese tourists”	Parcel 4: Role occupied in interaction with non-Chinese tourists

5.4.2 Data screening

After determining the indicators of the constructs, a data screening process was conducted. Since the data were collected using a professional online survey, no missing data was found. In addition, no extreme outliers were detected based on the check of stem-and-leaf plots and normal Q-Q plots of all variables. Further data screening was conducted to examine the multivariate normality and multicollinearity to ensure that the data met the assumptions of multivariate analysis. The most common way to detect the multivariate normality/nonnormality is through the examination of skewness and kurtosis. There is no clear consensus about the cut-off points of skewness and kurtosis to define normality/nonnormality. Hair et al. (2014) suggest a skewness $< |1|$ as the indicator of normality. Other scholars loosen the threshold to skewness $< |2|$ and kurtosis $< |7|$ (West, Finch & Curran, 1995) or even skewness $< |3|$ and kurtosis $< |10|$ (Kline, 2011) to indicate substantial departure from normality. Among the present data, the skewness of all the items ranged from -1.36 to 0.35 and the kurtosis ranged from -0.94 to 3.12 (see Table 5-4), suggesting that the data meet the threshold of multivariate normality. Also, this study adopted the Maximize Likelihood (ML) parameter estimation for confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation analysis. Maximize Likelihood (ML) parameter estimation has been reported as fairly robust to violations of the normality assumption, especially when the sample size is greater than 200 (Savalei & Bentler, 2006, p. 16; Awang, 2012, p. 81).

Multicollinearity was checked using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). The VIFs of the data in this study ($VIFs \leq 4.05$) are within the threshold value of 10 as suggested by Kline (2011, p. 54), which indicates that the variables are free of multicollinearity.

Based on the abovementioned analysis, the data were deemed to meet all criteria for further analysis.

Table 5-4 The skewness and kurtosis of the measurement items

Construct	Item	Skewness	Kurtosis
Extraversion	1	-0.72	1.15
	2	-0.90	2.88
Motivation	1	-0.79	0.39
	2	-0.40	-0.36
	3	-0.52	-0.94
Physical operant resources	1	-0.66	0.87
	2	-1.03	1.55
	3	-0.77	1.40
Cultural operant resources	1	0.35	-0.56
	2	0.06	-0.27
Interaction	1	-0.95	0.97
	2	-0.78	0.40
	3	-1.36	3.12
	4	-0.65	0.64
Satisfaction	1	-0.74	0.71
	2	-0.18	-0.51
	3	0.01	0.05

5.5 Research findings

5.5.1 Demographic characteristics of respondents

Demographic information and travel characteristics of respondents are presented in Table 5-5.

This survey adopted quota sampling by age and gender, resulting in a gender composition of 50% female and 50% male, and an even share of (16.7%) respondents of six age groups (i.e., 20 years old or below, 21-30 years old, 31-40 years old, 41-50 years old, 51-60 years old, 61 years old and above).

In terms of the educational level, the majority (75.7%) of the respondents were college graduates. Among the others, 13.7% graduated from high school or below, 9.3% and 1.3% of the respondents had a Master's degree or Doctoral degree, respectively.

Concerning respondents' past experiences traveling in Japan, approximately half (51.7%) of them had visited Japan for the first time when they answered the questionnaire, the other half of the respondents had traveled to Japan repeatedly (21.3% twice, 16.3% three times, 9.7% four times, and 1% five to ten times). No respondent had traveled to Japan for more than ten times.

In this study, the respondents were invited to answer the questionnaire based on their most recent (within three months before answering the survey) travel experience in Japan. Regarding the length of travel, 46.3% traveled for seven days or less, and 49.7% traveled for 8-14 days. Only 3.3% of the respondents traveled for 15-30 days. One respondent had traveled for 31-60 days, and one other respondent had traveled in Japan for more than 60 days.

With respect to the travel style, besides 1.7% of the respondents traveling with family and/or friends who live in Japan, there was a relatively even distribution of travel style adopted by the other respondents: 24.7% were solo and independent travelers, 21.7% were solo travelers who

traveled as part of an organized tour, 29.7% were independent and traveled with companion(s), and 22.3% traveled in an organized tour with companions.

Table 5-5 Demographic information and travel characteristics of respondents

(N = 300, quota sampling by age and gender)

Feature	Variable	n	%	Feature	Variable	n	%	
Gender	Male	150	50.0	Age	20 or below	50	16.7	
	Female	150	50.0		21-30	50	16.7	
Education	High school or below	41	13.7		31-40	50	16.7	
	College graduate	227	75.7		41-50	50	16.7	
	Master degree	28	9.3		51-60	50	16.7	
	Doctoral degree	4	1.3		61 or above	50	16.7	
Length of travel	7 days or less	139	46.3		Number of times traveling to Japan	1	155	51.7
	8-14 days	149	49.7			2	64	21.3
	15-30 days	10	3.3			3	49	16.3
	31-60 days	1	0.3			4	29	9.7
	61 days or more	1	0.3	5-10		3	1.0	
Travel style	Solo, independent travel	74	24.7	11 or more		0	0	
	Solo, travel in an organized tour	65	21.7					
	Independent travel with family and/or friends	89	29.7					
	Organized tour with family and/or friends	67	22.3					
	Travel with family and/or friends who live in Japan	5	1.7					

5.5.2 Measurement model test

5.5.2.1 Introduction

Prior to the structural analysis of the research model, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) adopting AMOS Graphics 26.0 was first conducted to verify links between the latent variables and the respective observed measures. The Maximize Likelihood (ML) parameter estimation technique was used in this process.

The measurement's reliability was checked by Cronbach's alpha (α)/ Spearman-Brown (S-B) coefficient, average variance extracted (AVE), and composite reliability (CR). Specifically, internal consistency of the constructs consisting of three or more items was measured with Cronbach's alpha (α). Regarding the reliability test of the two-item construct (i.e., Extraversion), the Spearman-Brown approach was taken. Whereas Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used measure of reliability, it is based on restrictive assumptions which cannot be tested with a two-item scale (Eisinga, Te Grotenhuis & Pelze, 2013). Eisinga and colleagues (2013) indicate that Spearman-Brown (S-B) coefficient is a more appropriate coefficient to examine the reliability of two-item measures compared to Cronbach's alpha. The S-B coefficient higher than .50 is considered as the acceptable level for evaluating the internal consistency of two-item scales (Clark & Watson, 1995).

All constructs, excepting for 'Cultural Operant resources', show significant factor loadings of observed variables on all latent factors/constructs, and satisfactory level of measurement reliability. Both Cronbach's alpha (for measures consist of three or more items) and S-B coefficient (for two-item measures) exceeded the recommended reliability score of .60 (Hair et al., 2014) and .50 (Clark & Watson, 1995), respectively. The average variance extracted from these constructs exceeded the minimum criterion of .50 (Hair et al., 2014), and the composite reliability ranged from .70 to .80, higher than the cut-off line of .70 (Hair et al., 2014).

A closer look at the measurement test results of ‘Cultural Operant Resources’ finds that the factor loading of “Ability to cope with cultural differences” for Cultural Operant Resources is insignificant ($p = .30$). Moreover, other indicators of measurement reliability are all below the recommended cut-off values. After deleting the problematic item “Ability to cope with cultural differences”, reliability test using Spearman-Brown approach indicated an acceptable internal consistency (S-B coefficient = .51) of the remaining two measurement items of Cultural Operant Resources, i.e., “sociability” and “foreign language ability”. The average variance extracted (AVE = .55) and composite reliability (CR = .70) of the modified measurement also suggest satisfactory measurement reliability.

The measurement model was revised based on the above analysis. Only “sociability” and “foreign language ability” were used to measure Cultural Operant Resources. The measurement items for other constructs remained the same as in the initial measurement model. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted again for the modified measurement model. The results show significant factor loadings of observed variables on all latent factors/constructs, thus indicating convergent validity. Also, both Cronbach’s alpha (for measures consist of three or more items) and S-B coefficient (for two-item measures) passed the threshold of .60 (Hair et al., 2014) and .50, respectively (Clark & Watson, 1995). The average variance extracted from these constructs and the composite reliability all exceeded the cut-off line of .50 and .70, respectively (Hair et al., 2014). The results of the test of the initial measurement model and modified measurement model are illustrated in Table 5-6 and Table 5-7.

As this study recruited single respondents to collect data with self-report questionnaires, the common method bias becomes a concern (Podsakoff et al., 2003). When designing the survey instrument, the techniques recommended by Mackenzie and Podsakoff (2012) were adopted to avoid this issue. The procedures include using simple, specific and concise wording of the

questionnaire, and providing clear examples to describe different saturations of interactions. After the data collection, Harman's single factor test was adopted to statistically evaluate the impact of common method bias on the data by checking if most of the variance can be explained by a single factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The result indicates that the single factor loads 30.52% of the variance, which is less than the cut-off line of 50%. It thus suggests that the common method bias does not affect the data (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Table 5-6 Test of the initial measurement model (N = 300)

Construct and item	Factor loading	P	α	S-B	AVE	CR
Extraversion						
I have an out-going and open personality	.84		--	.55	.54	.70
When I travel, I talk to a lot of people whom I have not met before	.61	***				
Motivation						
To meet new people	.88		.77	--	.56	.79
To make new friends	.79	***				
To look for a new romantic encounter	.55	***				
Physical Operant resources						
Time	.67		.71	--	.50	.75
Physical energy	.71	***				
Mental energy	.73	***				
Cultural Operant resources						
Sociability	.75		.30	--	.28	.34
Ability to cope with cultural differences	-.18	.30				
Foreign language ability	.48	**				
T2T Interaction						
Frequency of interaction with other Chinese tourists	.73		.86	--	.50	.80
Frequency of interaction with non-Chinese tourists	.74	***				
Role occupied in interaction with other Chinese tourists	.69	***				
Role occupied in interaction with non-Chinese tourists	.68	***				
Satisfaction						
Satisfaction with interaction with other Chinese tourists	.84		.66	--	.53	.76
Satisfaction with interaction with non-Chinese tourists	.76	***				
Satisfaction with overall tourism experiences	.55	***				

*** statistically significant at $p < .001$.

** statistically significant at $p < .05$.

Table 5-7 Test of the modified measurement model (N = 300)

Construct and item	Factor loading	P	α	S-B	AVE	CR
Extraversion						
I have an out-going and open personality	.84		--	.55	0.54	0.70
When I travel, I talk to a lot of people whom I have not met before	.61	***				
Motivation						
To meet new people	.88		.77	--	0.56	0.79
To make new friends	.79	***				
To look for a new romantic encounter	.55	***				
Physical Operant Resources						
Time	.67		.71	--	0.50	0.75
Physical energy	.71	***				
Mental energy	.73	***				
Cultural Operant Resources						
Sociability	.87		--	51	0.55	0.70
Foreign language ability	.58	**				
T2T Interaction						
Frequency of interaction with other Chinese tourists	.73		.86	--	0.50	0.80
Frequency of interaction with non-Chinese tourists	.74	***				
Role occupied in interaction with other Chinese tourists	.69	***				
Role occupied in interaction with non-Chinese tourists	.68	***				
Satisfaction						
Satisfaction with interaction with other Chinese tourists	.84		.66	--	0.53	0.76
Satisfaction with interaction with non-Chinese tourists	.76	***				
Satisfaction with overall tourism experiences	.55	***				

*** statistically significant at $p < .001$.

** statistically significant at $p < .05$.

5.5.2.2 Measurement model fit

The overall model fit for the modified measurement model was examined by the Chi-square statistic and several key goodness-of-fit indices. Results suggest satisfactory model fit of the modified measurement model. While the p value of the χ^2 statistic is below the recommended .05 level, it is not unusual given that the sample size is 300 (Hair et al., 2014). Scholars (Hair et al., 2014) suggest χ^2/df as a better index to reflect model fit with the value of χ^2/df being less than 3 as the threshold. Among the goodness-of-fit indices, CFI and RMSEA are suggested as specifically important to indicate the model fit for CFA. Both the CFI and RMSEA appear satisfactory (CFI = .94, RMSEA = .06) as well as other goodness-of-fit indices, thus indicating that the estimated model reproduces the sample covariance matrix reasonably well.

Table 5-8 shows the comparison of the model fit test results between initial measurement model and modified measurement model. The comparison indicates that the modified measurement model has a better model fit than the initial one. Therefore, the modified measurement items were used in the following structural model test.

Table 5-8 Measurement model fit (N = 300)

Model fit index	Acceptable value	Initial measurement model	Modified measurement model
χ^2		317.52	218.73
p value	.05 < p < 1.00 (Hoyle, 1995)	.00	.00
df		114	98
χ^2/df	< 3 (Hair et al., 2014)	2.79	2.23
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	< .08(Hair et al., 2014)	.08	.06
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	Lower RMR indicates better fit (Hair et al., 2014)	.10	.06
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	$\geq .90$ (Hair et al., 2014)	.90	.92
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	$\geq .80$ (Marsh, Balla & McDonald, 1988)	.85	.88
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	$\geq .90$ (Hair et al., 2014)	.90	.94
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	$\geq .90$ (Bollen, 1989)	.90	.94
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	$\geq .90$ (Hair et al., 2014)	.86	.91

5.5.2.3 Characteristics of measurement items

A descriptive analysis of the 17 measurement items was conducted after the measurement model was decided. It generates a basic picture of the data (see Table 5-9). All the six constructs have mean scores greater than 4.0, among which four (i.e., Motivation, Physical Operant Resources, Satisfaction) have mean scores greater than 5.0, and one (i.e., Extraversion) has a mean score greater than 6.0. In contrast, Cultural Operant Resources has the lowest mean value ($\bar{x} = 4.36$).

Table 5-9 Descriptive statistics of measurement items (N = 300)

Construct and item	Mean	SD
Extraversion ($\bar{x} = 6.06$)		
I have an out-going and open personality	6.24	0.69
When I travel, I talk to a lot of people whom I have not met before	5.87	0.86
Motivation ($\bar{x} = 5.16$)		
To meet new people	5.41	1.29
To make new friends	5.56	1.13
To look for a new romantic encounter	4.51	1.88
Physical Operant Resources ($\bar{x} = 5.71$)		
Time	5.69	0.86
Physical energy	5.60	1.16
Mental energy	5.83	0.91
Cultural Operant Resources ($\bar{x} = 4.35$)		
Sociability	4.44	1.32
Foreign language ability	4.27	1.07
T2T Interaction ($\bar{x} = 4.68$)		
Parcel 1: Frequency of interaction with other Chinese tourists	5.30	0.84
Parcel 2: Frequency of interaction with non-Chinese tourists	4.08	0.90
Parcel 3: Role occupied in interaction with other Chinese tourists	5.38	0.91
Parcel 4: Role occupied in interaction with non-Chinese tourists	3.99	1.05
Satisfaction ($\bar{x} = 5.97$)		
Satisfaction with interaction with other Chinese tourists	6.16	0.73
Satisfaction with interaction with non-Chinese tourists	5.69	0.87
Satisfaction with overall tourism experiences	6.06	0.57

5.5.3 Structural model test

5.5.3.1 Introduction

Structural equation model analysis using AMOS Graphics 26.0 was conducted to test the hypothesized relationships among the constructs in the proposed model. Hypotheses 1-3 address the influence of Extraversion on Motivation (H1), Physical Operant Resources (H2), and Cultural Operant resources (H3). Hypotheses 4-5 aims at investigating the role of Motivation (H4), Physical Operant Resources (H5), and Cultural Operant resources (H6) as antecedents of T2T Interaction. Hypothesis 7 explores the impact of T2T Interaction on Satisfaction.

The structural model fit with the data was at a satisfactory level: $\chi^2 = 243.87$, $df = 106$, $\chi^2/df = 2.301$, $CFI = .93$, $RMSEA = .07$ and $IFI = .93$. Table 5-10 and Figure 5-3 illustrate the hypothesis testing results of the relationships between the constructs.

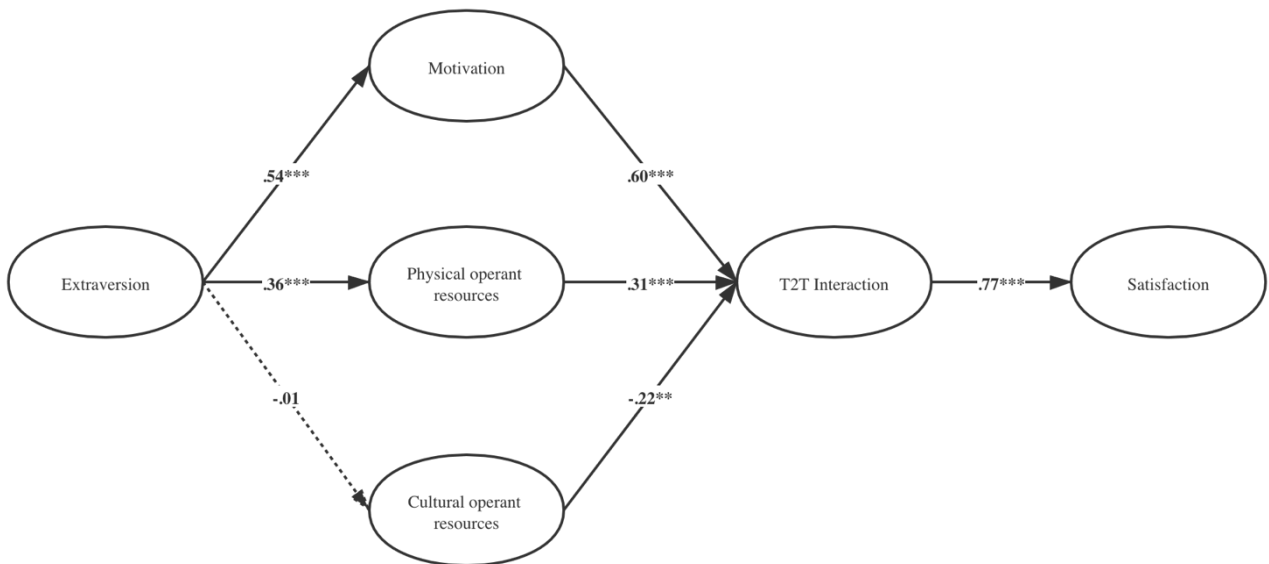


Figure 5-3 Structural model test result

Table 5-10 Results on the hypothesized relationships between the constructs

Hypothesized path	Standard estimate	p-value	Result
H1. Extraversion → Motivation	.54	***	Supported
H2. Extraversion → Physical operant resources	.36	***	Supported
H3. Extraversion → Cultural operant resources	-.01	.882	Not supported
H4. Motivation → T2T Interaction	.60	***	Supported
H5. Physical operant resources → T2T Interaction	.31	***	Supported
H6. Cultural operant resources → T2T Interaction	-.22	**	Not supported
H7. T2T Interaction → Satisfaction	.77	***	Supported

*** statistically significant at $p < .001$

** statistically significant at $p < .05$

5.5.3.2 Impacts of extraversion on the antecedents of T2T Interaction

Hypotheses 1-3 proposed a positive relationship between Extraversion and three proposed antecedents of T2T Interaction (i.e., Motivation, Physical Operant Resources, Cultural Operant Resources). The hypothesized significant positive relationship between Extraversion and Motivation (H1) is supported ($\gamma = .54, p < .001$), as well as the relationship between Extraversion and Physical Operant Resources (H2) ($\gamma = .36, p < .001$). The result also shows that Extraversion has a stronger positive influence on Motivation than on Physical Operant Resources. However, the impact of Extraversion on Cultural Operant Resources was insignificant ($\gamma = -.01, p = .882$), thus rejecting H3.

5.5.3.3 Impacts of the antecedents on T2T Interaction

This study proposed three antecedents of tourist participation on interaction with other tourist they had not met before: motivation for interaction (H4), perceived possession of physical operant resources (H5) and perceived possession of cultural operant resources (H6). The results

show a significant positive relationship between Motivation and T2T Interaction (H4) ($\gamma = .60$, $p < .001$), as well as a significant and positive relationship between Physical Operant Resources and T2T Interaction (H5) ($\gamma = .31$, $p < .001$). Therefore, H4 and H5 are supported. The results also indicate a stronger impact of Motivation on T2T Interaction than the impact of Physical Operant Resources on T2T Interaction. However, H6 was not supported, as the impact of Cultural Operant Resources on T2T Interaction had a significant ($\gamma = -.22$, $p < .001$), but negative impact on T2T Interaction, which is opposite to the original hypothesis that Cultural Operant Resources have a positive impact on T2T Interaction.

5.5.3.4 The impact of T2T Interaction on Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7 proposed that T2T Interaction has a positive impact on Satisfaction. The structural model supported this hypothesis ($\gamma = .77$, $p < .001$).

Overall, most of the hypotheses in this study are supported, except for the hypotheses regarding Cultural Operant Resources (H3 and H6). In addition, data analysis reveals an insignificant relationship between Extraversion and Cultural Operant Resources. The proposed positive relationship between T2T Interaction and Cultural Operant Resources was found to be negative. Section 5.6.1 will address the findings of the hypotheses test and discuss the issues related to Cultural Operant Resources.

5.5.4 Effect of respondent individual characteristics on research constructs

5.5.4.1 Introduction

After the structural model was validated, further analysis was conducted to explore if there is any significant difference among sub-groups regarding the respondents' demographic characteristics and travel features for each construct of the structural model. The composite means of the six constructs (i.e., Extraversion, Motivation, Physical Operant Resources, Cultural Operant Resources, T2T Interaction, and Satisfaction) were computed and used as dependent variables.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was adopted, because correlation analysis revealed significant correlations among the six dependent variables (Hair et al., 2014) (see Table 5-11). Compared to analysis of variance (ANOVA), MANOVA enables the impact of independent variables on the dependent variables to be assessed collectively and simultaneously, thus providing more accurate results (Hair et al., 2014). The Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) of the dependent variables in current MANOVA ($VIFs \leq 3.53$) are within the threshold value of 10 (Kline, 2011), indicating that the variables are free of multicollinearity.

Table 5-11 Correlations among the constructs

	EXTR	MOT	POR	COR	T2TI	SAT
EXTR	1	--	--	--	--	--
MOT	.32**	1	--	--	--	--
POR	.23**	.12*	1	--	--	--
COR	.04	-.13*	.13*	1	--	--
T2TI	.30**	.48**	.22**	-.16**	1	--
SAT	.26**	.39**	.28**	-.14*	.60**	1

** : Correlation is significant at the .001 level (2-tailed).

* : Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

EXTR = Extraversion, MOT = Motivation, POR = Physical Operant Resources, COR = Cultural Operant Resources, T2TI = T2T Interaction, SAT = Satisfaction

To mitigate the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices assumption, the categorization of respondents' individual characteristics (except for Gender and Age) was reorganized to (a) generate relatively equal sample sizes among the sub-groups (i.e., Largest group size/Smallest group size < 1.5) (Hair et al., 2014), or (b) to generate group sizes over 30 (Allen & Bennett, 2008) (see Table 5-12).

Therefore, regarding respondent education level, the respondents with a master's degree and the ones with a doctor's degree are merged as one group to generate a group size over 30 (n = 32). In terms of tourist travel style, all respondents were recategorized based on (a) whether respondents traveled in Japan solo or with companion(s), or (b) whether respondents were FITs or package group travelers. It means that two different ways of categorization were employed independently. For example, the 139 respondents who were in the 'solo' traveler group include both independent travelers and package group travelers, as long as they were traveling in Japan without being accompanied by other people. Similarly, the respondents who were in the 'independent' traveler group refer to tourists who traveled in Japan independently, regardless

of whether they were traveling solo or with companion(s). Tourist length of travel was reorganized into two groups to differentiate between tourists traveling in Japan within one week (n = 139), and tourists traveling in Japan for more than one week (n = 161). Also, tourist experience traveling in Japan was re-anchored as first-time travel (n= 155) and repeated travel (n = 145). The reorganization of respondent demographic characteristics and travel features yielded satisfactory sample sizes of each reorganized groups, thus generating qualified data for MANOVA (See Table 5-12).

Table 5-12 Recategorization of respondent individual characteristics for MANOVA

Feature	Original category		Reorganized category	
	Variable	n	Variable	n
Gender	Male	150	Kept the original categorization	
	Female	150		
Age	20 or below	50	Kept the original categorization	
	21-30	50		
	31-40	50		
	41-50	50		
	51-60	50		
	61 or above	50		
Education	High school or below	41	High school or below	41
	College graduate	227	College graduate	227
	Master degree	28	Master degree or above	32
	Doctoral degree	4	--	--
Travel style	Solo, independent travel	74	Solo	139
	Solo, travel in an organized tour	65	With companion	161
	Independent travel with family and/or friends	89	Independent	163
	Organized tour with family and/or friends	67	Organized tour	137
	Travel with family and/or friends who live in Japan	5	--	--
Length of travel	7 days or less	139	Within one week	139
	8-14 days	149	More than one week	161
	15-30 days	10	--	--
	31-60 days	1	--	--
	61 days or more	1	--	--
How many times traveling in Japan	1	155	First-time travel	
	2	64	Repeated travel	145
	3	49	--	--
	4	29	--	--
	5-10	3	--	--
	11 or more	0	--	--

5.5.4.2 Data analysis result

The results of MANOVA for the six constructs are illustrated in Table 5-13. The results suggest that gender has no significant impact on respondents' responses on any of the six constructs (i.e., Extraversion, Motivation, Physical Operant Resources, Cultural Operant Resources, Interaction, Satisfaction).

In terms of respondent age group, there were significant differences in Extraversion, $F(5, 294) = 1.38$; $p = .004$; partial $\eta^2 = .06$; Cultural Operant Resources, $F(5, 294) = 3.83$; $p = .002$; partial $\eta^2 = .061$; Interaction, $F(5, 294) = 3.70$; $p = .003$; partial $\eta^2 = .06$; and Satisfaction, $F(5, 294) = 4.01$; $p = .002$; partial $\eta^2 = .06$. Post hoc analysis with Tukey's HSD indicates that mean scores for Extraversion are significantly different between the respondents aged 20 or below and 51-60 years old ($p = .041$), and respondents aged 51-60 years old and 61 or above ($p = .016$). Regarding Cultural Operant Resources, the mean scores are significantly different between the respondents aged 20 or below and 21-30 years old ($p = .044$), respondents aged 20 or below and 41-50 years old ($p = .012$), respondents aged 20 or below ($p = .044$), and 61 or above ($p = .006$). It suggests that the respondents aged 20 or below have significantly more self-rated cultural operant resources than those in the higher age groups of 21-30, 41-50, and 61 or above do. Regarding T2T Interaction, the mean scores are significantly different between the respondents aged 20 or below and 61 or above ($p = .009$), respondents aged 31-40 years old and 61 or above ($p = .016$). It indicates that the respondents aged 61 years old or above are significantly more active in participating in the T2T Interactions compared with the respondents in the age groups of under 20 and 31-40. Regarding Satisfaction, the mean scores are significantly different between the respondents aged 20 or below and 61 or above ($p = .003$), respondents aged 21-30 years old and 61 or above ($p = .006$), and respondents aged 31-40 years old and 61 or above ($p = .045$). It indicates that the respondents aged 61 years old or above are significantly more satisfied with the T2T Interactions compared with the respondents in the age

groups of under 20, 21-30 and 31-40.

Respondents' educational level has significant effect on Extraversion $F(3, 296) = 3.27$; $p = .039$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$; Motivation, $F(3, 296) = 5.43$; $p = .005$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$; Physical Operant Resources, $F(3, 296) = 48.54$; $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .05$; T2T Interaction, $F(3, 296) = 7.44$; $p = .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .05$; and Satisfaction $F(3,296) = 4.51$; $p = .012$; partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Post hoc test with Tukey's HSD suggests that respondents with college degrees have significantly more positive responses on Extraversion ($p = .030$), and Physical Operant Resources ($p < .001$) than the respondents with high school degrees or lower do. In terms of Motivation and Satisfaction, respondents with master's degree or above have significantly more positive responses than the respondents who have graduated from college ($p = .038$, $p = .041$, respectively), and the ones who graduated from high school or lower ($p = .003$, $p = .009$, respectively). Regarding T2T Interaction, respondents with high school degrees or lower have significantly more negative responses than the respondents who have graduated from college ($p = .004$), and those with a master's degree or above ($p = .001$).

Travel length also has a significant effect on respondent responses on Extraversion, $F(1, 298) = 5.95$; $p = .015$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$; Physical Operant Resources, $F(1, 298) = 4.67$; $p = .031$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$ Cultural Operant Resources, $F(1, 298) = 6.92$; $p = .009$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$; Satisfaction, $F(1, 298) = 13.12$; $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$. Respondents with a longer travel length (8 days or more) significantly responded more positively in terms of Extraversion ($p = .015$), Physical Operant Resources ($p = .031$), Cultural Operant Resources ($p = .009$), and Satisfaction ($p < .001$) compared with the respondents with a shorter travel length (7 days or less). However, the mean scores of Motivation and T2T Interaction do not differ significantly between the two groups.

In terms of travel type (i.e., respondents traveling independently or taking a group tour) there

is no significant difference in the mean scores of any of the six constructs. However, significant differences in the mean scores for those who were traveling solo or with companion(s) were found for Cultural Operant Resources $F(1, 298) = 6.92$; $p = .009$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$; T2T Interaction, $F(1, 298) = 30.21$; $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .09$; and Satisfaction, $F(1, 298) = 7.27$; $p = .007$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$. Whereas respondents traveling solo had significantly lower level of cultural operant resources, they had a significantly higher level of T2T Interaction and higher level of satisfaction compared with the respondents traveling with companion(s).

Respondents' previous experience traveling in Japan had a significant effect on Extraversion, $F(1, 298) = 8.80$; $p = .003$; partial $\eta^2 = .03$; Motivation, $F(1, 298) = 9.21$; $p = .003$; partial $\eta^2 = .03$; Cultural Operant Resource, $F(1, 298) = 5.18$; $p = .024$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$; T2T Interaction, $F(1, 298) = 31.88$; $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .10$; and Satisfaction, $F(1, 298) = 10.41$; $p = .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Repeat travelers had significantly more positive responses on Extraversion ($p = .003$), Motivation ($p = .003$), T2T Interaction ($p < .001$) and Satisfaction ($p = .001$) than first-time travelers did. However, the first-time travelers had significantly more positive responses on Cultural Operant Resources than the repeat travelers did ($p = .024$).

Table 5-13 MANOVA result for the constructs

Variables	Mean						
	EXTR	MOT	POR	COR	T2TI	SAT	
Gender							
Male	6.10	5.29	5.66	4.35	4.68	5.94	
Female	6.00	5.03	5.76	4.36	4.69	6.00	
Age							
20 or below	6.24*	5.27	5.83	4.78*	4.43*	5.82*	
21-30	5.97	5.22	5.68	4.22*	4.71	5.84*	
31-40	5.96	4.95	5.52	4.32	4.46*	5.91*	
41-50	6.00	5.42	5.73	4.14*	4.85	6.07	
51-60	5.87*	5.13	5.62	4.56	4.71	5.95	
61 or above	6.28*	4.96	5.86	4.10*	4.95*	6.23*	
	$F(5, 294) = 1.38;$ $p = .004;$ partial $\eta^2 = .06$			$F(5, 294) = 3.83;$ $p = .002;$ partial $\eta^2 = .06$		$F(5, 294) = 3.70;$ $p = .003;$ partial $\eta^2 = .06$	
Education							
High school or below	5.82*	4.78*	6.12**	4.61	4.30*	5.83*	
College graduate	6.09*	5.15*	5.61**	4.32	4.72*	5.96*	
Master degree or above	6.08	5.71*	5.87	4.25	4.95*	6.22*	
	$F(2, 297) = 3.27;$ $p = .039;$ partial $\eta^2 = .02$	$F(2, 297) = 5.43;$ $p = .005;$ partial $\eta^2 = .04$	$F(2, 297) = 8.54;$ $p < .001;$ partial $\eta^2 = .05$		$F(2, 297) = 7.44;$ $p = .001;$ partial $\eta^2 = .05$	$F(2, 297) = 4.51;$ $p = .012;$ partial $\eta^2 = .03$	
Travel length							
7 days or less	5.96*	5.02	5.60*	4.19*	4.60	5.85**	
8 days or more	6.14*	5.28	5.80*	4.49*	4.76	6.08**	
	$F(1, 298) = 5.95;$ $p = .015;$ partial $\eta^2 = .02$		$F(1, 298) = 4.67;$ $p = .031;$ partial $\eta^2 = .02$	$F(1, 298) = 6.92;$ $p = .009;$ partial $\eta^2 = .02$		$F(1, 298) = 13.12;$ $p < .001;$ partial $\eta^2 = .04$	

Variables	Mean					
	EXTR	MOT	POR	COR	T2TI	SAT
Travel style						
Solo	6.13	5.29	5.62	4.19*	4.94*	6.07*
With companion	5.99	5.05	5.78	4.49*	4.47*	5.89*
				$F(1, 298) = 6.92;$ $p = .009;$ partial $\eta^2 = .02$	$F(1, 298) = 30.21;$ $p < .001;$ partial $\eta^2 = .09$	$F(1, 298) = 7.27;$ $p = .007;$ partial $\eta^2 = .02$
Independent	6.05	5.14	5.71	4.37	4.61	5.96
Group tour	6.06	5.19	5.71	4.34	4.78	5.99
Travel experience						
First time travel	5.95*	4.96*	5.75	4.48*	4.45**	5.87*
Repeated travel	6.17*	5.38*	5.66	4.22*	4.93**	6.08*
	$F(1, 298) = 8.80;$ $p = .003;$ partial $\eta^2 = .03$	$F(1, 298) = 9.21;$ $p = .003;$ partial $\eta^2 = .03$		$F(1, 298) = 5.18;$ $p = .024;$ partial $\eta^2 = .02$	$F(1, 298) = 31.88;$ $p < .001;$ partial $\eta^2 = .10$	$F(1, 298) = 10.41;$ $p = .001;$ partial $\eta^2 = .03$

*: The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

** : The mean difference is significant at the .001 level

EXTR = Extraversion, MOT = Motivation, POR = Physical Operant Resources, COR = Cultural Operant Resources, T2TI = T2T Interaction, SAT = Satisfaction

5.5.5 Effect of respondent individual characteristics on T2T Interaction

5.5.5.1 Introduction

MANOVA was also adopted to further investigate if respondents' demographic characteristics and travel style have any impact on their participation in social interaction with other tourists. Similar to the MANOVA for the research constructs, the recategorized respondents' individual characteristics were adopted as independent variables to mitigate the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices assumption (see Table 5-12). Four measurement items of T2T Interaction, i.e., frequency of interaction with other Chinese tourists (hereafter: FIC), frequency of interaction with non-Chinese tourists (hereafter: FINC), role occupied in interaction with other Chinese tourists (hereafter: RIC), and role occupied in interaction with non-Chinese tourists (hereafter: RINC), were used as dependent variables.

The assumption regarding multicollinearity of the dependent variables was met, as the Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) of the dependent variables ($VIFs \leq 2.91$) are within the threshold value of 10 (Kline, 2011). Correlation analysis also revealed significant correlations among the four dependent variables (see Table 5-14), indicating that the dependent variables met the assumption of correlation.

Table 5-14 Correlations among the measurement items of T2T Interaction

	FIC	FINC	RIC	RINC
FIC	1	--	--	--
FINC	.58**	1	--	--
RIC	.74**	.43**	1	--
RINC	.51**	.74**	.61**	1

** : Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

FIC = Frequency of interaction with other Chinese tourists;

FINC = Frequency of interaction with non-Chinese tourists;

RIC = Role occupied in interaction with other Chinese tourists;

RINC = Role occupied in interaction with non-Chinese tourists.

5.5.5.2 Data analysis result

Table 5-15 displays the results of MANOVA for the four measurement items of T2T Interaction. The results suggest that gender has no significant impact on respondents' responses on any of the four items.

Age has significant effects on all the four items, i.e., FIC, $F(5, 294) = 5.68, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .09$; FINC, $F(5, 294) = 3.02, p = .011$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$; RIC, $F(5, 294) = 2.43, p = .035$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$; and RINC, $F(5, 294) = 2.44, p = .034$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. Post hoc analysis with Tukey's HSD indicates that mean scores for FIC of the respondents aged 61 or above are significantly different (higher) than the respondents aged 20 or below ($p < .001$), 21-30 ($p = .011$), and 31-40 ($p < .001$). It indicates that the respondents aged 61 years old or above had significantly more interactions with other Chinese tourists compared with the respondents in the age groups of under 20 and 31-40. Regarding FINC, the mean scores of the respondents aged 41-50 years old are significantly different (higher) than the respondents aged 20 or below ($p = .010$) and 31-40 years old ($p = .031$). It suggests that the respondents aged 41-50 years old had significantly more interactions with non-Chinese tourists compared with the respondents in the age groups of under 20 and 31-40. The mean scores for RIC of the respondents aged 61 or above are significantly different (higher) than the respondents aged 20 or below ($p = .029$), suggesting that respondents aged 61 years old or above played significantly more active role in social interactions with other Chinese tourists compared with the respondents in the age groups of under 20 years old. It further confirms the finding of qualitative study that the elder tourists tend to perceive other Chinese tourists as amiable compatriots and are more willing to interact with them compared with the younger tourists. Post hoc analysis with Tukey's HSD did not detect any significant difference of RINC regarding different age groups of the respondents. Tukey's HSD test is conservative in and has higher possibility to reject significant differences (Abdi & Williams, 2010). Post hoc analysis with LSD was used instead, to compare

the means of RINC regarding different age groups. Result suggests significant differences of the mean scores of RINC between respondents aged 20 or below and 41-50 ($p = .026$), respondents aged 20 or below and 61 or above ($p = .046$), respondents aged 21-30 and 31-40 ($p = .033$), respondents aged 31-40 and 61 or above ($p = .019$).

Respondents' educational level also has significant effect on all the four measurement items of T2T Interaction, i.e., FIC, $F(2, 298) = 3.68, p = .026$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$; FINC, $F(2, 298) = 5.84, p = .003$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$; RIC, $F(2, 298) = 5.72, p = .004$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$; and RINC, $F(2, 298) = 9.99, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .06$. Post hoc test with Tukey's HSD suggests that respondents who have graduated from high school or below were significantly less frequently involved in interactions with other Chinese tourists (i.e., FIC) than the respondents graduated college were ($p = .020$). Also, respondents who had graduated from high school or below were significantly less frequently involved in interactions with non-Chinese tourists (i.e., FINC) than the respondents with master's degree were ($p = .002$). In terms of RIC, respondents who had graduated from high school or below were significantly less actively involved in interactions with other Chinese tourists (i.e., RIC), than the respondents who had graduated from college ($p = .003$) and the respondents with master's degree ($p = .034$) were. Regarding RINC, significant differences of the mean scores between each pair of the sub-groups of respondents were found, i.e., high school or lower and college graduate ($p = .007$), high school or lower and master's degree or above ($p < .001$), college graduate and master's degree or above ($p = .014$). The results suggest that the respondents with a higher degree were generally more active in participating in the interactions with other tourists.

Travel length only has an impact on respondents' role occupied in interaction with other Chinese tourists, i.e., RIC, $F(1, 298) = 8.92, p = .003$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Respondents who traveled longer (i.e., 8 days or more) played a more active role in interaction with other Chinese

tourists than the ones who traveled shorter (i.e., 7 days or less) did. The mean scores of FIC, FINC, and RINC do not differ significantly regarding the respondents' travel length.

Travel type has a significant effect on all the four measurement items of T2T Interaction, i.e., FIC, $F(1, 298) = 8.38, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .08$; FINC, $F(1, 298) = 10.08, p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$; RIC, $F(1, 298) = 34.96, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .11$; and RINC, $F(1, 298) = 19.16, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$.

In terms of travel type, there is no significant difference of the mean scores of any of the four items of T2T Interaction based on if the respondents were traveling independently or taking a group tour. However, whether the respondents were traveling solo or with companion(s) has significant effects on all the four items of T2T Interactions, i.e., FIC, $F(1, 298) = 20.12, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .06$; FINC, $F(1, 298) = 16.51, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$; RIC, $F(1, 298) = 20.44, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .06$; and RINC, $F(1, 298) = 25.14, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .08$. Respondents traveling solo had significantly more frequent interactions with both Chinese and non-Chinese tourists compared with the respondents traveling with companion(s). Also, the solo traveling respondents played a significantly more active role in interactions with both Chinese and non-Chinese tourists compared to the respondents traveling with companion(s).

Respondents' previous experience traveling in Japan also has a significant effect on all four measurement items of T2T Interaction, i.e., FIC, $F(1, 298) = 28.51, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .09$; FINC, $F(1, 298) = 10.08, p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$; RIC, $F(1, 298) = 34.96, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .11$; and RINC, $F(1, 298) = 19.159, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. Repeat travelers had significantly more frequent interactions with other Chinese tourists as well as with non-Chinese tourists than the first-time travelers did. Also, repeat travelers played a significantly more active role in interactions with other Chinese and non-Chinese tourists than the first-time travelers.

Table 5-15 MANOVA result for T2T Interaction items

Variable	Mean			
	FIC	FINC	RIC	RINC
Gender				
Male	5.4	4.0	5.4	3.9
Female	5.2	4.1	5.4	4.0
Age				
20 or below	4.99**	3.80*	5.16*	3.77
21-30	5.21*	4.15	5.35	4.14
31-40	5.08**	3.86*	5.20	3.70
41-50	5.34	4.40*	5.41	4.23
51-60	5.39	4.10	5.45	3.90
61 or above	5.76**	4.14	5.71*	4.18
	$F(5, 294) = 5.68$; $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .09$	$F(5, 294) = 3.02$; $p = .011$; partial $\eta^2 = .05$	$F(5, 294) = 2.43$; $p = .035$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$	$F(5, 294) = 2.44$; $p = .034$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$
Educational level				
High school or below	4.98*	3.80*	4.94*	3.47*
College graduate	5.36*	4.07	5.44*	4.00*
Master degree or above	5.26	4.51*	5.47*	4.54*
	$F(2, 297) = 3.68$; $p = .026$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$	$F(2, 297) = 5.84$; $p = .003$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$	$F(2, 297) = 5.72$; $p = .004$; partial $\eta^2 = .04$	$F(2, 297) = 9.99$; $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .06$
Travel length				
7 days or less	5.25	4.05	5.21*	3.87
8 days or more	5.34	4.10	5.52*	4.09
			$F(1, 298) = 8.92$; $p = .003$; partial $\eta^2 = .03$	
Travel type				
Solo	5.52**	4.30**	5.63**	4.30**
With companion(s)	5.10**	3.89**	5.16**	3.71**
	$F(1, 298) = 20.12$; $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .06$	$F(1, 298) = 16.51$; $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .05$	$F(1, 298) = 20.44$; $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .06$	$F(1, 298) = 25.14$; $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .08$
Independent	5.21	4.01	5.30	3.91

Variable	Mean			
	FIC	FINC	RIC	RINC
Organized tour	5.40	4.16	5.47	4.08
Travel experience				
First time travel	5.06**	3.92*	5.09**	3.74**
Repeated travel	5.55**	4.25*	5.68**	4.25**
	$F(1, 298) = 28.51;$ $p < .001;$ partial $\eta^2 = .09$	$F(1, 298) = 10.08;$ $p = .002;$ partial $\eta^2 = .03$	$F(1, 298) = 34.96;$ $p < .001;$ partial $\eta^2 = .11$	$F(1, 298) = 19.16;$ $p < .001;$ partial $\eta^2 = .01$

* = The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

** = The mean difference is significant at the .001 level

FIC = Frequency of interaction with other Chinese tourists; FINC = Frequency of interaction

with non-Chinese tourists; RIC = Role occupied in interaction with other Chinese tourists;

RINC = Role occupied in interaction with non-Chinese tourists

5.5.6 Tourist participation in T2T Interaction

As T2T Interaction is the core topic of the quantitative study, further detailed analysis was conducted to have a fuller understanding of how Chinese tourists participate in social interactions with other tourists. A series of paired-samples t-tests and constant comparison of test results were conducted. Specifically, paired-samples t-tests were conducted between Chinese tourists' interactions with other Chinese tourists and with non-Chinese tourists, and among different types of tourist interactions. The analysis differentiated five types of social interactions, i.e., protocol-oriented interaction (PI), help-related interaction (HI), and three levels of sociable interaction including brief sociable interaction (BSI), in-depth sociable interaction (ISI), and sociable interaction that grows into friendship (SIF). Paired-samples t-tests between Chinese tourists' interactions with other Chinese tourists and with non-Chinese tourists aims to see if there is any difference in the frequency and the role tourists occupy in terms of interactions with these two types of social actors. Paired-samples t-tests among different types of tourist interactions were conducted to examine how Chinese behave differently in different types of social interaction. Also, to further explore if tourist interactions with Chinese tourists and non-Chinese tourists lead to different satisfaction levels, paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores for satisfaction with interaction with Chinese tourists and non-Chinese tourists.

Results of the t-tests are shown in Table 5-16. Comparison of the frequency and tourist role in all five types of interactions indicates that respondents had significantly more frequent interactions with Chinese tourists than with non-Chinese tourists. Also, they played a significantly more active role in interactions with Chinese tourists than in interactions with non-Chinese tourists. It is consistent with the findings of the qualitative study that Chinese tourists are more inclined to communicate with fellow Chinese tourists as they believe that the social interaction would be smoother without the language and cultural barriers.

Comparison of the frequency of interactions with Chinese tourists based on five types of interactions suggests that protocol-oriented interaction is the most frequent interaction taking place between Chinese tourists, followed by brief sociable interaction, help-related interaction, in-depth sociable interaction, and sociable interaction that grows into friendship. In contrast, the sequence of the frequencies of five types of interactions with non-Chinese is slightly different: $PI > HI > BSI > ISI > SIF$. It suggests that Chinese tourists have more brief sociable interactions than help-related interactions with other Chinese tourists, whereas they are more often engaged in help-related interactions than in sociable interactions with non-Chinese tourists. Comparison of tourist role in five types of interactions with both Chinese and non-Chinese tourists reveals similar results, i.e., Chinese tourists are most active in participating in protocol-oriented interactions, and less active in sociable interactions.

In terms of tourist satisfaction with social interactions with different counterparts, the paired-samples t-test suggests that respondents were significantly more satisfied with social interactions with other Chinese tourists ($M = 6.16, SD = 0.73$) than with non-Chinese tourists ($M = 5.69, SD = 0.87$); $t(299) = 8.93, p < .000$.

It becomes clear that Chinese tourists generally are more active in social interactions with other Chinese tourists than with non-Chinese tourists both in a quantitative (frequency) and qualitative (role) sense. Moreover, as the level of involvement and complexity of the social interaction increases, Chinese tourists' activeness in social interactions decreases. Chinese tourists tend to engage more frequently and also play a more active role in protocol-oriented interactions, which require less emotional and physical involvement, than in help-related interactions and sociable interactions, which necessitate more effort and engagement from tourists. Specifically, among three types of sociable interactions, along with the increase in complexity from brief sociable interaction, to in-depth sociable interaction, and to sociable

interaction that grows into friendship, Chinese tourists' activeness in participation significantly decreases.

Overviewing the results of paired-samples t-tests of various pairs in terms of different counterparts (Chinese tourists or non-Chinese tourists), and in terms of different types of social interactions (PI, HI, BSI, ISI, or SIF), significant differences were revealed between most of the pairs. Also, Chinese tourists' different levels of satisfaction in terms of interactions with counterparts (Chinese tourists or non-Chinese tourists) are also revealed by the paired-samples t-tests. The results further confirm the complexity of tourist social interactions as unearthed in the qualitative study during the first stage of the research.

Table 5-16 Paired-samples t-test result of tourist participation in T2T Interaction

Pair		Paired differences				Result
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	
Frequency of PI with	Chinese tourists & non-Chinese tourists	1.10	1.15	16.46	.000	Chinese > non-Chinese
Frequency of HI with		1.00	1.19	14.65	.000	
Frequency of BSI with		1.33	1.17	19.76	.000	
Frequency of ISI with		1.13	1.29	15.23	.000	
Frequency of SIF with		1.54	1.78	14.94	.000	
Tourist role in PI with	Chinese tourists & non-Chinese tourists	0.59	1.08	9.49	.000	Chinese > non-Chinese
Tourist role in HI with		0.56	1.13	8.61	.000	
Tourist role in BSI with		0.77	1.23	10.94	.000	
Tourist role in ISI with		0.94	1.67	9.80	.000	
Tourist role in SIF with		4.09	2.31	30.64	.000	
Frequency of different types of interaction with Chinese tourists	PI & BSI	0.17	0.96	3.13	.002	PI > BSI > HI > ISI > SIF
	BSI & HI	0.18	0.99	3.15	.000	
	HI & ISI	0.53	1.15	8.06	.000	
	ISI & SIF	0.19	0.90	3.61	.000	
Tourist role in different types of interaction with Chinese tourists	PI & BSI	0.07	1.02	1.14	.257	PI > HI > ISI > SIF; BSI > ISI > SIF
	BSI & HI	0.10	1.00	1.67	.096	
	PI & HI	0.16	0.98	2.89	.004	
	HI & ISI	0.59	1.12	9.11	.000	
	BSI & ISI	0.69	1.11	10.71	.000	
	ISI & SIF	0.16	1.05	2.64	.009	
Frequency of different types of interaction with non-Chinese tourists	PI & HI	0.26	1.21	3.71	.000	PI > HI > BSI > ISI > SIF
	HI & BSI	0.15	1.19	2.13	.034	
	BSI & ISI	0.51	1.36	6.55	.000	
	ISI & SIF	0.59	1.57	6.56	.000	
Tourist role in different types of interaction with non-Chinese tourists	PI & HI	0.14	1.00	2.36	.019	PI > HI > ISI > SIF; BSI > ISI > SIF
	HI & BSI	0.11	1.04	1.89	.060	
	BSI & ISI	0.86	1.50	9.91	.000	
	ISI & SIF	3.30	2.50	22.91	.000	
	HI & ISI	0.97	1.66	10.13	.000	
Satisfaction with interaction with	Chinese & non-Chinese	0.47	0.91	8.93	.000	Chinese > non-Chinese

PI = Protocol-oriented interaction, HI = Help-related interaction, BSI = Brief sociable interaction, ISI = In-depth sociable interaction, SIF = sociable interaction grows into friendship

5.6 Overview of quantitative study

The qualitative study at the previous stage unearthed the diversities and complexity of tourist social interaction with other tourists, which motivated the researcher to focus solely on tourist-tourist interaction (T2T Interaction) in the present quantitative study. The quantitative study aims at investigating the factors influencing tourist participation in T2T Interaction as well as the impact of T2T Interaction on travel satisfaction.

Based on the findings of the qualitative study at the previous stage and a review of the previous literature, the present quantitative study proposes that tourist extraversion, motivation to interact, perceived possession of physical operant resources, and perceived possession of cultural operant resources are factors influencing tourist participation in T2T Interaction, among which tourist extraversion plays an overarching role in influencing the other three factors. Subsequently, it was also hypothesized that T2T Interaction exerts a significant impact on tourist satisfaction. Additional analysis was conducted to further explore the diversities of T2T Interaction with the following questions: whether there is any difference of tourist participation in T2T Interaction regarding different counterparts (i.e., Chinese tourists, and non-Chinese tourists), and how tourist demographic characteristics and travel features influence the participation in T2T Interaction. Figure 5-4 illustrates the overview of the quantitative study.

The final empirical study involving 300 mainland Chinese who had visited Japan in the past three months prior to answering the questionnaire (i.e., during April to June of 2019) was conducted after three rounds of pilot study. Data analysis methods such as SEM, t-test, MANOVA were conducted using SPSS 26.0 and AMOS 26.0 to investigate the research objective.

Based on the findings of the quantitative study, the T2T Interaction model of influences and

outcome is generated (see Table 5-4). The following sections (Section 5.6.1 and Section 5.6.2) will discuss the model in more details.

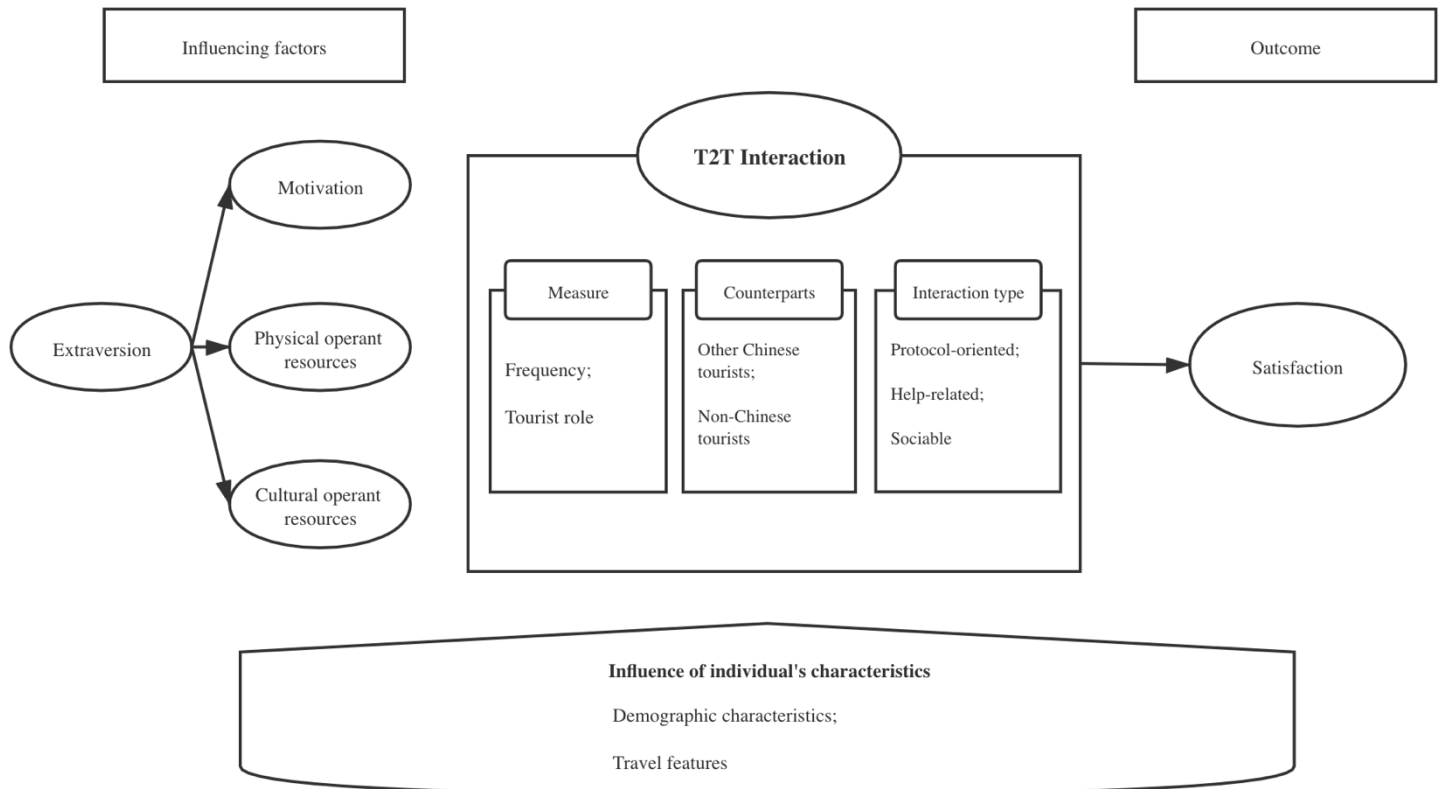


Figure 5-4 The T2T Interaction model of influences and outcome

5.6.1 The influence factors and outcome of T2T Interaction

The result of SEM supported the hypotheses that tourist extraversion (Extraversion) has a significant impact on motivation to socially interact with other tourists (Motivation) and on perceived possession of physical operant resources (Physical Operant Resources). It suggests that tourists with a more extraverted personality are more motivated to have social interactions with previously unacquainted tourists. Also, these tourists perceive themselves as possessing more physical operant resources (i.e., time, physical energy, and mental energy) to be utilized in social interactions with other tourists. It suggests that the more extraverted a tourist is, the more the tourist perceives him/herself as available to engage in social interactions.

However, the data analysis result did not support the hypothesis that tourist extraversion has a significant impact on perceived possession of cultural operant resources (Cultural Operant Resources), i.e., sociability and language ability. Cultural operant resources relate to the skills, knowledge, and ability that an individual acquires through education and personal experiences and are thus relative stable and inherent to this person. Therefore, extraversion as such may not predict an individual's perception and evaluation of one's cultural ability. In contrast, the tourist's perceived physical operant resources are more fluctuant, which may be more easily influenced by the tourist's extraversion.

Data analysis results also supported the hypotheses that Motivation and Physical Operant Resources have a significant impact on tourist participation in social interactions with other tourists (T2T Interaction). Specifically, the path coefficients of Motivation and Physical Operant Resources to T2T Interaction are .60 and .31, respectively. It indicates that Motivation has a stronger impact on T2T Interaction than Physical Operant Resources do. However, the hypothesis that Cultural Operant Resources have a significant impact on tourist participation in T2T Interaction was not supported. While tourist skills, knowledge and experiences are widely regarded as important factors influencing tourist participation in social interactions (e.g., Heimtun, 2011; Levy & Getz, 2012; Reisinger & Turner, 2003), this relationship is not supported in the present study. The paired-samples t-test on Cultural Operant Resources and Physical Operant Resources revealed that the mean score of Cultural Operant Resources ($M = 4.35$, $SD = 0.98$) is significantly lower than that of Physical Operant Resources ($M = 5.71$, $SD = 0.78$), $t(299) = 19.90$, $p < .001$. Moreover, the mean score of Cultural Operant Resources is the lowest among all the six constructs, including T2T Interaction ($M = 4.68$, $SD = 0.78$), $t(299) = -4.25$, $p < .001$ in the structural model. It provides a plausible interpretation of the unsupported relation between Cultural Operant Resources and T2T Interaction. Respondents in this study commonly perceive themselves as lacking cultural operant resources such as

sociability and foreign language ability, thus their participation in T2T Interaction is mainly driven by other factors such as motivation and physical operant resources. In addition, further analysis on tourists' participation in T2T Interaction reveals that Chinese outbound tourists have significantly more frequent interactions with other Chinese tourists than with non-Chinese tourists, which suggests that tourists' foreign language ability may not be an important antecedent for such interactions to take place. Also, Chinese outbound tourists are more frequently engaged in brief and low-involvement types of social interactions such as protocol-oriented interactions, than in interactions that require higher level involvement and sociability. Relating to the finding that tourists' cultural operant resources are negatively related to their participation in social interactions with other tourists, it suggests that tourists who have more cultural operant resources tend to choose to avoid such interactions with other tourists instead of actively taking part in such interactions. A plausible explanation may be that tourists who are more equipped with other cultural operant resources are more empowered to travel more independently without needing to engage in the interactions they do not favor.

5.6.2 Tourist individual characteristics and participation in T2T Interaction

A closer look at Chinese tourist participation in social interactions with other tourists revealed that Chinese tourists are more active in social interactions with other Chinese tourists than with non-Chinese tourists in both a quantitative and qualitative sense. It echoes with the findings of the qualitative study, that Chinese tourists see other Chinese tourists as their in-group members and tend to have more frequent and in-depth interactions with them. It also confirms what Reisinger and Turner (2003) have pointed out, that people in high-context cultures (such as China) tend to make a clear distinction between those who belong to a group (in-groups, insiders) and those who do not (out-groups, outsiders). Individuals in high-context cultures emphasize more on in-groups and have stronger bonds with in-group members (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). On the other hand, this finding also indicates that, along with the increase in

complexity from protocol-oriented interaction, to help-related interaction, and to sociable interactions, Chinese tourists' activeness in participation significantly decreases.

MANOVA was conducted to explore the effect of respondent demographic characteristics and travel features on research constructs and T2T Interaction. Results suggest that tourist gender does not have a significant effect on any of research constructs, including T2T Interaction. However, regarding age, it is found that senior tourists (i.e., aged 61 or above) were more actively participating in T2T Interaction, and had a more positive evaluation in terms of satisfaction with social interaction. In contrast, younger tourists (i.e., aged 20 or below) perceived themselves as having more cultural operant resources than tourists who were older (i.e., tourists aged 21-30, 41-50, and 61 or above). It is not surprising, as the younger generation in China may have more access to foreign language education than the older generation. It also suggests that compared with the older generation, young tourists tend to perceive themselves as more sociable, but that they at the same time and somewhat paradoxically are less active in using their sociable resources.

Regarding the effect of tourist education level, tourists with a lower level of education (i.e., high school or below) had lower levels of Extraversion and T2T Interaction than tourists with a higher level of education, but at the same time perceived themselves as having more physical operant resources to involve in social interaction. Meanwhile, tourists with a master degree or above were more motivated to participate in T2T Interaction, and were more satisfied with the interactions.

Travel length was found to have a significant effect on Extraversion, Physical Operant Resources, Cultural Operant Resources, and Satisfaction. Tourists traveling in Japan for more than one week were more extraverted, had more physical and cultural operant resources and were more satisfied with T2T Interaction than tourists traveling in Japan for less than a week.

Whereas travel length does not have a significant effect on tourist overall participation in T2T Interaction, further analysis reveals that tourists traveling in Japan for more than one week were more active in interactions with other Chinese tourists than with non-Chinese tourists.

In terms of travel type, it was found that independent tourists were not significantly different from package tourists. In contrast, there were significant differences between solo tourists and tourists traveling with companion(s) on Cultural Operant Resources, T2T Interaction, and Satisfaction. Specifically, while solo tourists perceived themselves as having fewer cultural operant resources, they were more active in social interactions with both Chinese and non-Chinese tourists, in both a quantitative and qualitative sense. Also, solo tourists had a more positive evaluation in terms of satisfaction with their travel than package tourists.

The amount of experience with traveling in Japan also influenced Extraversion, Motivation, Cultural Operant Resources, T2T Interaction, and Satisfaction. Repeat travelers were more extraverted, had more motivation to interact with other tourists, perceived themselves as having more cultural operant resources, and were more active in social interactions with both Chinese and non-Chinese tourists, in both a quantitative and qualitative sense. Repeat travelers were also more satisfied with their social interactions with other tourists than first time travelers.

Based on above findings, tourism practitioners can develop better segmentation strategies in terms of tourists' motivation and behavioral intention of tourist-tourists social interaction to create suitable social contexts that cater to different types of tourists. For senior tourists, tourists who are traveling in Japan for a longer time, solo travelers, or repeat travelers in Japan, providing social platforms for them to better interact with other tourists may facilitate tourists to co-create memorable experiences. For other tourists who are less interested or active in social interactions with other tourists, such as tourists who are on shorter trips, tourists traveling with companion(s), or first-time travelers in Japan, tourism practitioners should focus more on how

to create a pleasant social environment that allows these tourists to feel comfortable with being co-presence with other tourists instead of hastily encouraging them to socialize with other previously unacquainted tourists.

5.6.3 Limitations and directions for future research

The present quantitative study attempts to explore the factors influencing Chinese tourist participation in T2T Interactions and in what ways T2T Interaction impacts tourist satisfaction. When looking at influencing factors of T2T Interaction, this study focuses on intrinsic factors related to tourists, or as termed by Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael (2010), the *personal realm* that influences the tourist experience. In contrast, the extrinsic factors such as the physical surroundings, context setting, social environment and atmosphere at the destination were not included in the present study. Nevertheless, the qualitative study revealed that tourist social interaction is a subtle and complex phenomenon that is influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Previous studies indicate that tourist experiences are largely influenced by the physical surroundings (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996) as well as social atmosphere (Heide & Grønhaug, 2006). Specifically, Mossberg (2007) stresses the importance of the physical environment in facilitating social interactions between tourists as well as between tourists and service providers, and that the physical environment influences tourists' holistic perceptions of the tourism experience. Mossberg (2007) argues that a fuller understanding of how the physical environment contributes to better tourist experiences is needed. Therefore, when looking at tourists' social interactions at the destination, it is also necessary to involve the impact of the extrinsic factors at the destination. In addition, future research can be expanded to take a closer look at the interplay between the intrinsic and extrinsic factors and how the two kinds of factors contribute to tourist experiences collectively.

Another limitation arises from the sample size of this study. This study has found that tourists

with different demographic characteristics such as gender and education level, and travel features such as travel length, travel style, and previous travel experience may have different patterns in terms of the participation in T2T Interaction, and that they may embrace different perceptions of the antecedents and impacts of T2T Interaction. It would be a promising research direction to empirically test the model proposed in this study on different tourist groups in terms of their demographic characteristics or travel features and to compare how this model applies to different tourist groups. However, due to the time and financial restraints that accompany a Ph.D. study, this present research only collected 300 samples, which yielded relatively small sample sizes of each separate groups in terms of tourist demographic characteristics and travel features. The current data thus cannot be used for testing the model with different tourist groups. Future research can be conducted with a larger sample size covering a greater richness regarding respondents' characteristics to further test and validate the effects of tourist demographic characteristics and travel features on tourist social interactions.

Chapter 6 Discussion and conclusion

6.1 Discussion

A major insight revealed by this research is the complexity of tourist social interaction. To start with, there are relatively mixed attitudes towards different types of social actors and social interactions with these social actors among Chinese inbound tourists to Japan. Positive attitudes include tourists' strong desire to interact with local people and gain a closer look at the local culture, their admiration of the hospitality of both service personnel and residents, and amiable feelings when meeting other tourists from the same country. At the same time, Chinese outbound tourists are concerned about potential discrimination by the host people, the inconvenience of communicating with other people in a foreign language, being disturbed by the misbehavior or even the mere presence of other tourists, and about trying to avoid potential conflicts with tourists from other cultural backgrounds.

Moreover, tourists' social interactions are manifested in various ways and are evaluated by tourists differently. The tourist, being a consumer at the destination, commonly engages in protocol-oriented interactions with service providers. Mechanical in nature as these interactions may be, the tourist experience is often influenced by them as the interaction with service personnel is closely linked with the perceived quality of the services that tourists receive and co-create. At the same time, the protocol-oriented interactions with other tourists are largely perceived as insignificant due to their transitory nature. Tourists often engage in help-related interaction, either asking for help from other people, or responding to the help request from others (mostly other tourists). In addition, help-related interactions provide a good platform for Chinese tourists to meet residents. Therefore, they largely have positive evaluations of help-related interactions. Moreover, they often take asking for help or providing help to other tourists for granted and seldom attach specific importance to such interactions.

Compared with protocol-oriented and help-related interactions, sociable interactions are motivated by tourists' intrinsic desire to communicate and are perceived as more pleasant and enjoyable. However, due to having an introverted personality or restricted by the travel arrangement, Chinese tourists often feel that they do not have the leeway to have a 'proper' sociable interaction with other people during travel.

Specifically, regarding T2T Interaction, Chinese outbound tourists exhibit different patterns of participation in this type of interaction. Chinese tourists tend to have more interactions with their in-group members (i.e., other Chinese tourists) than with out-group members (i.e., non-Chinese tourists), which suggests that they have different perceptions and behavioral intentions regarding interactions with Chinese tourists vs. those with non-Chinese tourists. In addition, this study reveals various perceived roles of other tourists, from a positive role such as *temporary companion*, a neutral role such as *familiar stranger*, to a negative role such as *disturber*. This suggests that tourist-tourist interaction may not only have the positive function of co-creation, but may also have a more negative role of diminishing or even destroying the tourist experience. Social interactions with previously unacquainted other tourists can be an eye-opening and memorable experience for some tourists, yet other tourists may see such interactions as a hassle for which they have to utilize their limited physical and cultural operant resources.

Even more complicated (or paradoxical) is the finding that Chinese tourists with more cultural operant resources tend to be less active in interactions with other tourists. If we combine this finding with the finding that Chinese outbound tourists are more frequently and actively involved in interactions with other Chinese tourists than with non-Chinese tourists, and in the interactions that require less sociability and foreign language skills, such as protocol-oriented interactions and that brief help-related interactions to ask for directions contribute to a major

part of tourist-tourist interaction, we could draw the conclusion that –at least for Chinese tourists– cultural operant resources do not necessarily function as a facilitator of tourist-tourist interaction. Instead, it provides an alternative perspective to look at tourists’ cultural operant resources. Chinese tourists’ interactions with other tourists remains on a brief and superficial level that does not necessarily require tourists to utilize their cultural operant resources. In contrast, tourists who have more cultural operant resources tend to choose to *avoid* such interactions instead of actively taking part in them, possibly because they are more equipped with other cultural operant resources which allow them to travel more independently without needing to engage in interactions they do not favor.

Therefore, when looking at the core research objective of this study, i.e., the role of tourist social interaction in the tourist experience, we cannot simply conclude the role is positive or negative. This study reveals various factors that may influence the role of tourist social interaction: tourist demographic characteristics, travel features, tourist extraversion, motivation, possession of operant resources (both physical operant resources and cultural operant resources), the counterpart of the interaction (i.e., whether the counterpart is the service provider, the resident, the other tourist from the same country, or the other tourist from different countries), the type of interaction, the context setting, and so on. These factors interplay with one another, and all in combination contribute to different ways in which tourists engage in, or avoid social interaction.

In addition, it is possible to frame the findings of this study within Quan and Wang (2004)’s model of tourist experience, which differentiates the tourist experience between peak touristic experience and supporting consumer experience. The peak experience is regarded as constituting the major motivations to travel as tourists, whereas the supporting experience is driven by basic consumer needs on the journey, which do not constitute the major motivations

for tourism. Applying this model, it becomes clear that for the average Chinese outbound tourist, social interactions with previously unacquainted people are largely playing the role of a *supporting experience*, rather than that of a *peak experience*. More specifically, this study finds that Chinese outbound tourists mostly initiate or respond to social interactions with other people when they feel obliged to do so (e.g., tourists waiting in line may greet each other to show courtesy, or tourists interacting with service providers to purchase a product or receive a service), or when they need a little help, e.g., when asking for directions. Such supporting experiences constitute a major part of Chinese tourists' social interactions with other people, with only a minor part of social interactions becoming peak experiences. Nevertheless, as Quan and Wang (2004) suggest, the boundary between the peak experience and the supporting experience is not fixed. This study also finds that some interactions may be perceived as superficial and insignificant by some tourists, but for other tourists, these may be an important part of their travel experience. For example, for some tourists who have a strong desire to know Japanese culture, a pleasant and friendly communication with Japanese local people may constitute a peak experience for them. In addition, this study also finds that tourist social interaction can be developed from a supporting experience into a peak experience. For example, tourists who had no specific expectation of the hospitality of host people before traveling in Japan, but who are warmly welcomed by local people and have enjoyable interactions with residents, may expect and actively attempt to meet and interact with local people during their following travel experience. Finally, these findings lead to the conclusion that tourist social interaction is a complex phenomenon, which deserves further investigation that takes into consideration a wide range of influencing factors and potential outcomes.

6.2 Implications

6.2.1 Theoretical contribution and implications

Previous studies on tourist social interaction are largely conducted in social interaction-rich contexts (e.g., festival attendance, cruise tours, or event tourism) or focused on social interaction-pursuing tourist groups (e.g., backpackers, solo tourists, or FITs) (e.g., Huang & Hsu, 2010; Wei, 2015; Reichenberger, 2014, 2017; Rihova et al., 2018). The findings of these studies are thus highly depended on specific circumstances, which can hardly be generalized to other tourist groups or other tourism contexts. In contrast, this study uncovers previously unknown or unconsidered phenomena regarding tourist social interaction by expanding the research focus to the general Chinese outbound tourist and to a more general tourism context. Therefore, the findings of this study offer a fuller picture of how Chinese outbound tourists perceive and engage in social interactions, directly or indirectly, with not only the host people (including service providers and residents), but also other tourists (including in-group and out-group tourists). It constructs a theoretical foundation for future research to investigate tourist social interaction in a specific tourism context or with a specific type of social actor.

This study, in the qualitative stage, categorized tourist social interactions into three types (i.e., protocol-oriented interaction, help-related interaction, and sociable interaction), and systematically examined how different groups of social actors (i.e., service providers, residents, and other tourists) participate in each type of social interaction with tourists, and explored the respective impacts of the interactions on the tourist experience. The theoretical contribution of the qualitative study is twofold. First, the categorization of tourist social interactions can facilitate future empirical studies on tourists from other cultural backgrounds to explore how each type of social interaction constitutes tourist social interaction, and consequently makes it possible to compare social interactions of tourists from different cultural backgrounds in cross-

cultural studies. It also lays a theoretical foundation for future research to focus on a specific type of tourist social interaction for further in-depth investigation. Second, to the best of the author's knowledge, there has not been much empirical work taking a holistic approach to incorporating tourist social interactions with all three types of social actors. This study makes the attempt to compare Chinese tourists' views on different types of social actors in various interaction scenarios, as well as compare the patterns of their participation in different types of social interactions. This leads to the generation of a broader picture of the social aspects of Chinese tourists' tourism experiences. Future research on Chinese outbound tourists may benefit from the insights offered in this study and may lead to a fuller understanding of this important source market in global tourism. In addition, the same conceptualization can be used to investigate tourist social interactions of different cultural backgrounds.

In the quantitative study, the author proposed a model on tourist social interaction with other tourists by including both the influencing factors and the outcome of tourist-tourist interactions. Both the measurement model and the structural model exhibited a good model fit. This model can be used as the basis for replication and validation in future studies on tourists from different cultural backgrounds or in different destinations. The model may also be used as the basis for cross-cultural studies on social interaction in tourism. Finally, while the current model focused on tourist-tourist interaction, future research can follow this conceptualization and further examine, modify, and validate this model on tourist interactions with service providers and residents.

Focusing on tourist-tourist interaction, the quantitative data show that Chinese outbound tourists' participation in T2T Interaction is a function of age, education level, travel length, travel type, and travel experience. This may add extra knowledge on understanding Chinese tourists' behaviors regarding social interactions with other people. The quantitative study also

finds that Chinese outbound tourists exhibit different behavioral patterns when participating in T2T Interactions and that these differ according to the counterparts, i.e., whether they are interacting with other Chinese tourists, or with non-Chinese tourists. This echoes the notion that tourist perception on the difference between ‘in-group’ and ‘out-group’ members may influence their travel behaviors. This study finds that Chinese tourists are more active in interactions with their ‘in-group’ members than with ‘out-group’ members. For future study focusing on ‘other tourists’, more careful interpretation concerning whether the ‘other tourist’ is ‘in-group’ or ‘out-group’ is suggested, as the two groups may be perceived differently by the tourist, and may thus exert different impacts on the tourist experience.

Moreover, this study shows the important role of tourists’ physical operant resources on tourist-tourist interaction. Previous studies have largely focused on tourists’ skills, experiences, and knowledge as essential operant resources that impact tourist experience co-creation, and they have mostly neglected the physical operant resources. In contrast, this study finds that for Chinese outbound tourists compared to cultural operant resources such as sociability and foreign language ability, physical operant resources (i.e., time, physical energy, and mental energy) play a more significant role in tourist-tourist interaction. This is mainly because Chinese outbound tourists are more often engaged in brief and superficial interactions such as protocol-oriented interactions, which tend to require more physical involvement rather than cultural skills. Future research should explore whether Chinese tourists are perhaps more attracted to, have a more positive perception of, or are more satisfied with social interactions that involve their cultural operant resources as compared to interactions that involve physical operant resources. Thus, future study should adopt a fuller perspective of tourist operant resources, to better understand tourist social interactions and experience co-creation.

6.2.2 Managerial implications

Regarding the social aspect of the tourist experience, what matters most to tourism practitioners might be how to facilitate positive interactions and eliminate negative interactions so that the tourist can have a better tourism experience. To answer this question, it is necessary to understand how tourists perceive social interactions and what determines the evaluation of a social interaction as being either positive or negative.

This study finds that among three types of social actors, Chinese outbound tourists are most attracted by social interactions with residents, as they tend to evaluate their interactions with local Japanese people as positive regardless of how brief the interaction might be. Several previous studies have addressed the effect of tourist-host interaction in shortening cultural distance, fostering cross-cultural exchange, and improving tourism experiences (Bimonte & Punzo, 2016; Fan et al., 2016). Residents are thus important participants in co-creating the tourism experience. Accordingly, it is recommended that tourism destinations in Japan involve local people in the tourist experience and foster a welcoming attitude toward international tourists among local people. As this study reveals that Chinese outbound tourists mostly engage in interactions with residents in help-related scenarios (especially in situations when tourists ask residents about directions), tourism destination can organize local people who are interested in cross-cultural exchange to provide simple direction-guiding services for international tourists. Respondents in this study repeatedly reported cases when local people actively offered to provide help to them despite the local people's lack of Chinese language ability. Respondents showed great appreciation for the kindness of residents and regarded such interactions as memorable experiences. It suggests that neither Chinese tourists nor local Japanese residents see the language barrier as a hindrance to establish positive interactions between them. Therefore, when organizing host-tourist interaction activities, the hospitality and welcoming attitude of the local people, and tourists' positive attitude towards the local culture and local

people should be valued, instead of solely focusing on the foreign language ability of both parties.

On the other hand, due to the limited opportunities for tourists to come into direct contact with residents, Chinese tourists' interactions with service providers become the most intensive and representative interaction with the host population. In addition, Chinese tourists have a stronger emotional involvement in interactions with service personnel, as they directly connect the interactions with service providers to the perceived quality of service. Therefore, how tourists perceive the human aspects of the destination is closely connected to what kind of interactions they have with the front-line service personnel. This study also reveals situations when the tourist-service provider interactions are observed by other tourists and consequently influence the tourism experiences of both the tourists who are directly involved in the interaction and the other tourists who are observing the interaction. Thus, tourism destinations should highlight the *process* of service providers' interactions with tourists, instead of solely focusing on the *outcome* of the interactions. Chinese tourists are especially amazed by the Japanese services personnel's smiling faces, polite attitude, and great passion when serving the guests. It is thus recommended for service providers to value and continue demonstrating these good qualities during the process of interactions with tourists. Moreover, Japanese service has a high reputation in terms of its hospitably and efficiency, which is confirmed by the respondents' repeated expressions of their admiration for Japanese service personnel in this study. At the same time, some respondents pointed out that the service they received in Japan is routinized and lacks personal affection. As Japanese service encounters tend to be highly ritualized and manualized, it is important for the service providers to be more sensitive to capture whether the tourist would prefer more ritualized, or more personalized service encounters and cater to these preferences.

Regarding Chinese tourists' interactions with other tourists, this study finds that tourists tend to differentiate between interactions with other Chinese tourist and those with non-Chinese tourists and that they behave differently depending on whether they are dealing with fellow Chinese or non-Chinese. It is thus necessary for tourist practitioners to have a careful understanding on how tourists from various cultural backgrounds see each other when designing sociable tourism activities, such as festivals, themed events, and group activities. Tourism marketers can address the concerns of tourists by cultivating a positive expectation among tourists towards the tourism service which they will share with other tourists from various cultural backgrounds. Also, tourism practitioners should consider balancing their customer mix in terms of segment compatibility and by avoiding having too many customers from the same country.

This study also reveals that tourists perceive the roles of other tourists as ranging from positive roles such as that of temporary friends to negative roles such as that of competitors for services or tourism resources. The study suggests that tourists nowadays are so mature and experienced that they consider both the possibility of co-creation and the avoidance of value-diminishment when choosing travel destinations and tourism activities in the destination. Therefore, it is important for tourism marketers to develop the marketing communication strategies and to design service environments so that tourists will have positive expectations regarding the co-presence of other tourists.

Finally, this study reveals different roles of tourists' physical and cultural operant resources in influencing tourists' interactions with other tourists. It is thus suggested that tourism activities that require tourists to devote less physical operant resources (such as time, physical and mental energy) may better facilitate positive tourist-tourist interaction, whereas tourism activities that require tourists to devote more cultural operant resources (such as sociability, and foreign

language ability) may be more exciting and thus favored with tourists who possess this type of resources.

6.3 Limitations and avenues for future research

Section 4.4.4 and Section 5.6.3 discussed the limitations of this research regarding the qualitative study and the quantitative study respectively. Putting the reflections on both studies together, the limitations of this research are summarized as follows.

One limitation is related to the respondents of the interviews in the qualitative study which the author conducted as the first stage of the overall study. The relatively small sample size (29 interviews involving 42 interviewees) is one drawback, which suggests that a larger scale study is needed to generalize the research findings. Another weakness of the study is the relatively limited range in traveler types among the interviewees, which only included group tour tourists and FITs traveling with companions. However, other important segments of tourists, such as backpackers, and solo travelers, who are expected to hold different attitudes and perceptions towards social interaction when traveling, were not included in the interviews. This limitation is partially reconciled in the following quantitative study in which the author included a wider variety of tourists in terms of traveler type. However, since the quantitative study focuses solely on tourist-tourist interactions, it remains unknown how Chinese backpackers and solo travelers engage in and perceive social interactions with service providers and residents and in what ways the social interactions may influence their travel experience.

The definition of 'indirect interaction' needs more careful discussion. This study tentatively used the term *indirect interaction* to refer to the 'inward' interaction that occurs only inside the mind of the social actors and does not require any overt or outward forms of communication to occur. Considering that there is no act of the target person following the initiator's 'inward' interaction as defined in this study, it warrants more discussion on whether 'indirect' interaction

should be considered as involving inter-action, or needs to be conceptualized differently.

The quantitative study focused on intrinsic factors such as tourist personality, motivation, and perceived possession of operant resources when looking at the influencing factors of T2T Interaction, without involving extrinsic factors such as the physical surroundings, context setting, social environment, or atmosphere at the destination. Previous research suggests that tourist social interaction is a subtle and complex phenomenon which is influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Therefore, future research focusing on the interplay between the intrinsic and extrinsic factors and how the two kinds of factors contribute to tourist experiences collectively, is needed.

The quantitative study finds that tourists with different demographic characteristics and travel features have different patterns in terms of the participation in T2T Interaction, and that they also have different perceptions of the antecedents and impacts of T2T Interaction. Although the author was interested in testing the model proposed in the present study on tourist groups with different demographic characteristics or travel features, and wanted to compare how this model applies to different tourist groups, the current sample yielded relatively small sample sizes of sub-groups and thus could not be used to compare the model among different tourist groups. Future research should be conducted with a larger sample size and greater variation in terms of respondent characteristics to further test and validate the effect of tourist demographic characteristics and travel features on tourist social interactions.

The qualitative part of this research uncovered the complexity of cooperative creation and destruction of tourist experiences through direct and indirect tourist-tourist interactions. Other tourists, sometimes through their mere presence, may exert a meaningful impact (positive or negative) on behavioral intentions and on the travel experience. Tourists share travel tourism information with each other, exchange personal stories, accompany each other temporarily, and

thus co-create an experience. At the same time, the tourism experience may be destroyed/diminished by undesirable behaviors of other tourists, unpleasant interaction with other tourists, because of the sheer number of tourists in the destination, or because of an imbalance in the nationalities of the other tourists with one national group dominating the others. This suggests that the impact of tourist social interaction not only manifests itself in the form of co-creation, but may also take the shape of co-destruction. However, the co-destruction side of the tourist social interaction has been largely neglected in previous studies. Due to the time restriction of a Ph.D. study, the author was not able to further explore the negative aspects of social interactions in tourism. However, along with the dramatic growth of global tourists in recent years, the problems regarding the social aspects of tourist experiences, for example, the conflicts between residents and tourists due to overtourism, and the co-destruction (instead of co-creation) of experience value arising from negative social interaction, have been attracting attention from scholars and tourism practitioners. It is thus necessary to investigate the negative aspects of tourist social interactions to provide more insights on how to prevent the co-destruction of tourist experience value. Future study focusing on both the co-creation and co-destruction impacts of tourist social interaction will generate richer understandings on the social aspects of the tourist experience.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Summary of literature review on conceptual research

Appendix 2 Summary of literature review on empirical research

Appendix 3 English interview questions

Appendix 4 Chinese interview questions

Appendix 5 English survey questionnaire

Appendix 6 Chinese survey questionnaire

Appendix 1 Summary of literature review on conceptual research

Table A-1 Summary of literature review on conceptual research

Author(s)	Setting	Focus	Destination country	Theoretical underpinnings	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction addressed	Implications
Mossberg (2007)	--	Two frameworks about tourist experiences	--	Experiencescape	Tourist can co-create the environment when experiencing (p.63)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-tourist	Co-producing the products add value to the tourists; Co-production of tourism products across industries
Park & Vargo (2012)	--	Tourism marketing strategy under the S-D logic	--	The S-D logic	Value is co-created among social/economic actors, and value is actualized (co-created) and determined by the customer (p.231)	Tourist-employees, other tourists, locals	The S-D logic offers a more integrated and collaborative way of thinking tourism marketing strategy.
Rihova et al. (2013)	--	Social layers of tourist-tourist value co-creation	--	The S-D logic; the C-D logic	Customer-customer co-creation is a dynamic, multi-layered process that is embedded in customers' social contexts (p.553)	Tourist-tourist	Four layers of C2C co-creation: "detached customers", "social bubble", "temporary communities" and "ongoing neo-tribes"
Rihova et al. (2015)	--	Conceptual framework of tourist-tourist value co-creation	--	The C-D logic	Customer-customer co-creation is dynamic, multidimensional and contextual (p.360)	Tourist-tourist	The limitation of S-D logic in acknowledging the complexities of tourist-tourist interaction; value is socially constructed and embedded in tourists' interaction with other tourists

Author(s)	Setting	Focus	Destination country	Theoretical underpinnings	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction addressed	Implications
Scott et al. (2009)	--	Experience economy	--	Co-creation theory of Buckhurst & Den Dekker (2009); the S-D logic	Co-invention of tourism experiences (p.104); consumer is an active participant rather than a passive observer; staff/customer interaction is important (p.105)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-tourist	Destinations serve as a space in which the tourists create their own experiences (p.105); The interaction between consumer and producer is highlighted (p.106)
Neuhofer, Buhalis & Ladkin (2012)	--	Technology as a source of innovation	--	Experience economy; co-creation theory	Instead of consuming staged experiences, consumers now strive for more authenticity and expect a balance between the experience stager and the freedom to co-create their own experiences (p.38)	Tourist-organization; tourist-tourist	Technology enhances co-creation space in the pre/during/post phases of travel
Neuhofer, Buhalis & Ladkin (2013a)	--	Co-creation and technology	--	Experience economy; co-creation theory	Experiences are not only passively staged but rather actively shaped and created by the tourist consumer in conjunction with the company (p.551)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-tourist	Four major types of tourist experience: conventional tourism experience, co-creation tourism experience, technology tourism experience, and fully technology-enhanced tourism experience
Andrades & Dimanche (2014)	--	The role of involvement as moderator in the tourist experience	--	Theories on involvement	Co-design and co-create with customers the experiences they are longing for (p.103)	Tourist-personnel	The centric role of tourist
Campos et al. (2015)	--	Literature review	--	--	The sum of the psychological events a tourist goes through when contributing actively through physical and/or mental participation in activities and interacting with other subjects in the experience environment (p.23)	Tourist-organization; Tourist-destination; Tourist-resident; Tourist-personnel; Tourist-tourist	The concept of co-creation is widely and variously adopted by tourism scholars (p.2); Four dimensions of co-created tourist experience: the tourist contributes to the overall tourism experience; the tourist actively participates in on-site experience activities; the tourist interacts with others; the tourist engages in on-site subjective experience.

Author(s)	Setting	Focus	Destination country	Theoretical underpinnings	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction addressed	Implications
Sfandla & Björk (2013)	--	Tourism experience network	--	The S-D logic; co-creation theory; ARA model (actors, resources and activities)	The process to co-create experiences is dependent on adding and augmenting value to differentiate and to co-create competitive advantages in markets-oriented tourism and travel networks (p.499)	Organization-organization; tourist-tourist communities	Tourists as interconnected became resource integrators to supply; experience facilitators should comprehend value perceptions and value-creating processes.
Minkiewicz, Evans & Bridson (2009)	Heritage sector	Conceptualization of co-creation	--	Co-creation theory	“Engaging customers as active participants in the consumption experience, with the various points of interaction being the locus of co-creation of value” (Prahalad & Ramaseamy, 2004c, p. 16)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-object	Three dimensions of co-creation: personalization, engagement, and co-production
Richards (2010)	Creative tourism	Creative tourism as new form of cultural tourism	--	Cultural tourism; experience economy	A level of creative tourism, or co-makership between visitors and locals. Co-creation covers an emerging body of knowledge about the way in which products, services and experiences are made jointly by producers and consumers (p.12)	Tourist-resident	Co-creation at work involves the normal power relationships attached to tourism (p.12)
Richards (2011)	Creative tourism	Relationship between tourism and creativity	--	Creative tourism; experience economy	Tourists become co-performers and co-creators as they develop their creative skills (p.1237)	Tourist-resident	Creative tourism offers more flexible and authentic experiences which can be co-created between host and tourist (p.1225)
Richards (2014)	Creative tourism	Different forms of creativity in cities	Europe	Creative tourism; experience economy	Co-creation of place between the host population and their mobile visitors or temporary fellow citizens (p.131)	Visitors-locals	Creative experiences are closely linked to co-creating experiences with the locals

Author(s)	Setting	Focus	Destination country	Theoretical underpinnings	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction addressed	Implications
Richards & Marques (2012)	Creative tourism	Contributions on creative tourism	--	Creative tourism; experience economy	Process where meaningful experiences are constructed by service providers, local communities and visitors (p.8)	Tourist-resident	Co-creation as a marketing message for cities to promote the creative tourism (p.3)
Richards & Wilson (2006)	Creative tourism	Development of creative spaces, creative spectacles and creative tourism	Europe	Creative tourism; experience economy	Tourists are 'co-producers' of their own experiences and the boundaries between production and consumption are blurred (p.1213)	Tourist-organization; tourist-resident	The centric role of tourist, i.e., the onus is on the tourists themselves to actively learn about their surroundings and apply that knowledge in order to develop their own skills (p.1218)
Mossberg (2008)	Hotel sector	Servicescapes, storytelling and consumer immersion	Finland	The experience economy	It's the consumer who creates his experience, but the guide and the organization provide the prerequisites (p. 202)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-tourist; tourist-organization	Hotel's storytelling benefits from tourists' involvement and co-creation in a servicescape
Chathoth et al. (2013)	Hotel sector	Co-production and co-creation in hotel context	--	Co-creation; co-production; the S-D logic	Co-creation involves a high level of customer participation in customizing the product or service, which requires collaboration with customers for the purpose of innovation (p.13)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-environment	There is a continuum from co-production to co-creation, and the co-creation end of the continuum is an antecedent of competitive advantage (p.19)

Author(s)	Setting	Focus	Destination country	Theoretical underpinnings	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction addressed	Implications
Chathoth et al. (2016)	Hotel sector	Customer engagement and co-creation	--	Co-production; co-creation; consumer engagement; the S-D logic	“The joint creation of value by the company and the customer; allowing the customer to co-construct the service experience to suit her context” (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a, p. 8)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-organization	Firms need to move toward higher-order customer engagement using co-creative modalities to enhance value creation (p.222)
Bharwani & Jauhari (2013)	Hotel sector	Competencies required by frontline employees to enhance guest experience	--	Experience economy; the S-D logic: co-creation theory	Frontline employees can be used as operant resources to co-create customer experiences (with customers) (p.824)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-tourist	The importance of the competencies of employees in ensuring effective customer engagement and co-creating memorable experiences
Morgan (2007b)	Sports tour	Interaction between the sports tourist and the destination	New Zealand	Experience economy; co-creation theory	Co-creation occurs when firms create ‘experience spaces’ where dialogue, transparency and access to information allow customers to develop experiences that suit their own needs and levels of involvement (p.366)	Tourist-organization; tourist-resident	Planners should give visitors space to create their own experiences by encouraging them to explore for themselves (p.361)

Appendix 2 Summary of literature review on empirical research

Table A-2 Summary of literature review on empirical research

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
1) Setting: travel agency/tour operator								
Salvado (2010)	Travel experience ecosystem model	Portugal	Portuguese	Virtual organizations; digital customer ecosystems; collaborative value chain; co - creation	Quantitative structure and analysis of travel agency website	The tourism co-creation experience results from the interaction of an individual at a specific place and time and within the context of a specific act (p.101).	Tourist-organization	Companies need to focus on all aspects of consumer experience, including functional and emotional aspects (p.114)
Cabiddu, Lui & Piccoli (2013)	The role of IT and consumer	Italy	Italian	The S-D logic; co-creation theory; IT economic value theories	Case study (organizational archives and interviews)	Value emanates from robust collaborative relationships among firms; structures and incentives for parties to partake in and equitably share emergent value are necessary to sustain co-creation (p.90)	Tourist-organization	The importance of strategic fit with the objectives of the value co-creation initiative, synergy with other members of the network, and IT readiness in IT enabled co-creation

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
Grisseman n & Stokburger-Sauer (2012)	Company support, customer loyalty and customer expenditures	Australia	Austrian	The S-D logic	Quantitative survey	Customer's provision of input in the development of their travel arrangement (p.1484)	Tourist-organization	The importance of employees' knowledge, relationship between the customer and the company in co-creation; co-creation improves the company's financial and non-financial performance; value is created during the process.
Tan, Luh & Kung (2013)	Creative tourism	Taiwan	Taiwanese	Creative tourism; experience economy	Qualitative interview and observation	In order to create unique experiences, producers should offer ones which are able to transform the consumer, and the co-creative role of the consumer is important; the consumer is the 'product' (p.159)	Tourist-people/environment/object/service	People, environment and product/service/experience are important dimensions with which tourist interact with when they are learning (p.159)
Wang, Hsieh & Yen (2011)	Customer readiness for co-creation	Taiwan	Taiwanese	The S-D logic	Quantitative survey	Value creation activities in which both the service provider and customer collaborate in the customer's consuming and experiencing particular services (p.135)	Tourist-organization	Service provider can provide rich information to customers, apply specific marketing tactics to enhance a customer's psychological involvement in a specific service, emphasize the development of customer readiness in frequent customers (p.139)

2) Setting: holiday/vacation

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
Mathis et al. (2016)	Dimensions and effects of tourism co-creation	--	American	The S-D logic; co-creation theory	Quantitative survey	Through interactions and assistance by the service provider, value is created; the tourist then becomes part producer as opposed to a mere consumer (p.63)	Social interaction in general	Tourists' co-creation of an experience positively affects the vacation experience and loyalty to the service provider; satisfaction with the vacation experience influences overall life satisfaction (p.62)
Morgan (2007a)	What visitors think makes a good festival	West	Western	Experience economy; co-creation theory	Netnography (internet message boards)	Rather than treating consumers as 'human props' in a carefully-staged managed performance, the organization should provide them with a 'creative space' in which experiences can happen (p.3)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-resident; tourist-in-group members	Social interactions contribute to the moments of amazement and can be found in informal fringe events and in the main attraction (p.14)
Morgan & Xu (2009)	Past memorable tourism experiences	--	British	Co-creation theory	Quantitative survey	Destination and tourist co-create the experiences (p.222)	Tourist-destination	Memorable experiences are constructed by the interaction of personal, social and cultural influences; The destination provides the 'co-creation' space rather than creates the experiences Destinations need different approaches to understanding the consumer, to managing the service and to strategic thinking; destination managers think of co-creation as expense rather than investment
Morgan et al. (2009)	Destination managers' perception to co-creation	Europe	European	Experience economy	Semi-structured interview	Customer as an active participant rather than a passive consumer (p.203)	Tourist-organization	

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
Volo (2009)	Tourist experience	Italy	Western	Experience economy; co-creation theory	Analysis on tourists' blogs	Personalized experience; tourists co-create the context in which they develop the essence of the experience (p.122)	Tourist-tourism system	The holistic consumer experience consist of a phenomenological level and a cognitive level (p.119); Tourists sort 'anticipated experiences' into those they might seek and those they would avoid (p.120)
3) Setting: event/activity/festival								
Mehmetoglu & Engen (2011)	Experience economy and its dimensions	Norway	--	Experience economy	Quantitative survey	Individual customers actively co-construct their own experiences through personalized interaction (with the company), and thereby concrete unique values for themselves (p.244)	Tourist-organization	Combine socio-economic and motivation factors to better explain the variation in visitor satisfaction (p.251)
Lugosi (2014)	Identity and associated cultural values in commercial hospitality spaces	England	Mainly English	Actor-network theory; experiential consumption; co-creation theory	Participant observation, research of online forums and websites, semi-interview	The active engagement of multiple, inter- dependent stakeholders (consumers, managers and employees) in creating value (p.166)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-tourist; tourist-organization	Consumer co-creation was evident outside of the venue and continued inside the venue (p.196) All hospitality operations involve entanglements of identity, and rely on organizational-consumer co-creation in creating the experience (p.177)

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
Prebensen, Kim & Uysal (2016)	Tourist participation and co-creation	Norway	English-, Norwegian- and German-speaking tourists	The S-D logic	Quantitative survey	Customer's mental and physical participation in the experience-creation process (p.2)	Tourist-object; tourist-other people	The higher the level of participation, the stronger the experience value-satisfaction link, and vice versa (p.1); the level of cocreation moderates the effect between the experience value of winter tourism activities and satisfaction (p.1)
4) Setting: historic/heritage/cultural sector								
Mcintyre (2010)	Designed visitor experience	UK	UK	Experiential marketing	Focus groups	Visitor's self-design, or co-creation of their own experiential mix and flow (p. 193)	Tourist-object	The shop space should be included in the provision of a mix of spatial types to facilitate experience co-creation
Minkiewicz, Evans & Bridson (2013)	The components of co-creation	--	--	The S-D logic; co-creation theory	Customer critic approach	Consumers actively co-create their consumption experiences through co-production, personalization, and engagement (p.17)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-object	Three facets of co-creation: co-production, engagement, and personalization; co-creation does not occur between the organization and the consumer solely but involves multiple stakeholders.

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
Suntikul & Jachna (2016)	Experiences of the physical sector. Historic/heritage tourism site (p.277)	Macao	Asian	Experience economy; place attachment; S-D logic; co-creation theory	Quantitative survey; experience attachment; co-creation theory	Consumers and firms co-create value and to the strategies by which firms facilitate such collaboration (p.277)	Tourist-consumer; resident; watch such collaboration people	Strong correlations between perceived experience value and place identity (p.284). Interacting with local people correspond to higher degree of place attachment (p.284)
Thyne & Hede (2016)	Museums' management of co-creation	New Zealand	Not specified	The S-D logic; relationship marketing	Observation; interview; qualitative survey	Highly interrelated with co-production, which involves suppliers and consumers collaborating to produce a consumption experience with the value that is placed on their experience (p. 1-2)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-object	To motivate consumers to engage in co-productive experiences, service- or experience-related strategies need to be carefully crafted (p.12)
5) Setting: hotel sector/accommodation								
Azevedo (2009)	Experience memorizing and co-creation	Europe and America	Portugal	Experiential marketing	Quantitative survey	A co-creating relationship between producer and consumer (p.6)	Tourist-personnel	Elements related with the hotel personnel are potential competitive advantages; The 'surprise' factor and the co-creation role are drivers of tourist satisfaction

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
Buonincontri et al. (2017)	Antecedents and consequences of experience co-creation	Italy	Mostly European	The S-D logic; co-creation theory	Quantitative survey	A demand-centric and interactive process that involves at least two willing resource-integrating actors who are engaged in specific forms of mutually beneficial collaboration that results in value creation for them (p.264))	Tourist-personnel; tourist-others (relatives and friends and with unknown users of the internet)	Tourists-service provider interaction and the active participation of tourists are antecedents of tourism experience co-creation. Experience co-creation positively affects tourists' satisfaction, level of expenditures, and happiness. The attitude of tourists of sharing their experiences with others does not influence experience co-creation.
FitzPatrick et al. (2013)	Intellectual capital of hotel	Europe & the US	European & the US	The S-D logic; theories on intellectual capital	Content analysis (of hotel annual reports were)	Consumer as a co-producer involved in the design, production, and consumption processes that determine the 'value' co-created in the consumer experience (p.88)	Tourist-organization; tourist-personnel	Hotels acknowledge intellectual capital assets; the hotel companies overlook the capacity for value-creation from such intellectual capital (p.66)
Neuhofer, Buhalis & Ladkin (2013b)	Use technology to create personalized high-touch experiences	Switzerland	Mainly Switzer	Co-creation theory	Case Study (documentary, guest online feedback examination, unstructured interview)	Consumers demand experiences that allow for an equilibrium of control between the company and their own role in the creation of experiences (p.292)	Tourist-organization; tourist-personnel	High-tech is a critical factor in the co-creation and facilitation of high-touch experiences (p.290)

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
Santosvian de, Álvarez & Rodríguez (2012)	Internal marketing	Spain	Spanish	The S-D logic; internal marketing	Quantitative survey	Companies are co-creators of value either through their interaction with their customers or by collaborating in the co-creation (p.4707)	Tourist-organization	External orientation and suitable management knowledge to develop human resource policies are needed for co-creation
Shaw, Bailey & Williams (2011)	Co-creation between the producer and the consumer	UK	UK	Experience economy; the S-D logic; co-creation theory	Case study (interviews)	A constructive customer participation in the service creation and delivery process requiring meaningful and co-operative contributions (p.208)	Tourist-personnel	Co-creation is already relatively well advanced in some elements of the tourism industry, even if academic research lags behind in this field (p.213)
6) Setting: nature/animal based tourism								
Bertella (2014)	Encounters between the tourists and the animals	Norway	Mostly European	The S-D logic; co-creation theory	Qualitative interview, analysis of online review	Tourists play an active role in creating and giving meaning to an experience (p.115-116)	Tourist-object	Tourists are the main characters of the tourism experience
Campos et al., (2016)	On-site co-creation experience	Portugal	Not specified	Co-creation studies in tourism	Qualitative interview, observation	The sum of the psychological events a tourist goes through when contributing actively through physical and/or mental participation in activities and interacting with other subjects in the experience environment (p.3)	Tourist-in-group members; tourist-personnel; tourist-object	Co-creation involves tourists' active participation and interaction; co-creation influences memorability by focusing the tourist's attention (p.1)

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
Olsson (2012)	Spatial aspects of member behavior	Sweden	Mainly Swedish	Distance decay theory; the S-D logic	Quantitative survey	The joint processes of creation of value performed by members and the supported organization, that is, member involvement in production, services, and marketing (p.238)	Tourist-organization; tourist-tourist	Member co-creation is not related to distance to the destination, but to age (p.243)
Prebensen et al. (2013)	Tourist resources	Norway	Not specified	The S-D logic	Quantitative survey	Tourists' participation in producing the experience through involvement and the spending of time and effort in producing the experience (p.254)	Tourist-destination	Tourist participation in producing the experience through involvement and the spending of time and effort in producing the experience
7) Setting: package tour								
Mathisen (2013)	Natural environment	Norway	Not specified	The S-D logic	Semi-structured interview, conversation, and participant observation	Tourists are active and desire to use their knowledge and skills to interact with tourists, objects, and environment (p.164)	Tourist-tourist/personnel/object/environment	The strategic role of natural environment in the creation of a tourist offering
Prebensen & Foss (2011)	How a tourist copes and co-creates experiences	Spain	Norwegian	Coping strategies in tourism	Diary analysis	Tourist takes an active part in consuming and producing values and involves in defining and designing the experience (p.55)	Tourist-resident/tourist/family	Tourists adopt different roles in different situations; personal and collective well-being and emotions are important aspects of experiences

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
8) Setting: nature attraction and culture attraction								
Prebensen, Woo & Uysal (2013)	Tourist experience	Norway	English-, Norwegian- and German-speaking tourists	Motivation theory; the S-D logic	Quantitative survey	Participation in value co-creation in tourism to a large extent is a motivated, involved, and knowledgeable action (p.14)	Tourist-destination	Motivation, involvement (to a lesser extent), and tourist knowledge are antecedents to the perceived value of a holiday experience, and influence satisfaction and loyalty
9) Setting: restaurant								
Mkono (2012)	Authenticity of dining experience	Zimbabwe	Not specified	Authenticity theory	Netnography (online review and webpage marketing messages)	Active involvement of tourists in the creation of tourism experiences (p.185)	Tourist-personnel	Communication of tangible cultural objects; The emphasis on active participation
10) Setting: adventure tourism								
Prebensen & Xie (2017)	Effects of participation on perceived value	Norway	English-, Norwegian- and German-speaking tourists	The S-D logic	Quantitative survey	Consumers make efforts to use competence or skills, delineated as operant resources in their chosen activities (p.167)	Not mentioned	The importance of acknowledging mastering and co-creation in affecting tourists' perceived value and satisfaction.
11) Setting: creative tourism								

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
Tan, Luh & Kung (2014)	Creative tourists' perceptions of creative experiences	Taiwan	Taiwanese	Creative tourism; experience economy	Q method (qualitative interview)	A creative tourist is the active co-creator or co-producer of their own experience (p.248)	Tourist-people/environment/object/service	Five groups of creative tourists: "novelty-seekers", "knowledge and skills learners", "aware of travel partners' growth", "aware of green issues" and "relax and leisure"
12) Setting: bar, queer consumers								
Lugosi (2009)	Hospitality and queer cultures	England	English	Hospitality experience theory	Social visits, semi-structured interviews	Consumers co-create discourses of hospitality through patronage, representations of space, selective exclusion, and involvement in the commercial operation (p.408)	Tourist-personnel; tourist-tourist	Consumers' perceptions and actions shape the production of hospitality (p.396)
13) Setting: self-guided literary trails								
MacLeod, Hayes & Slater (2009)	Experiential design from perspective of both developer and user	The UK	--	Experiential marketing; co-creation theory of Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004b)	Content analysis (trail brochures)	Tourists are active participant in the experience with personal enrichment, enlighten, engagement and stimulation as the key motivators (p.156)	Tourist-personnel	Experience occurs in isolated self-guided tourists. Opportunities for engagement or feedback are rare, limiting the continual improvement of a service that would normally occur as a result of this interaction.
14) Setting: tourism industry's managers								

Author(s)	Focus	Destination country	Informant nationality	Theoretical underpinnings	Method	Interpretation of co-creation	Type of interaction	Implications
Eraqi (2011)	Attitudes of tourism industry's managers towards co-creation	Egypt	Egyptian	The S-D logic; co-creation theory	Quantitative survey	Co-creation involves tourists' active involvement and interaction with their supplier in every aspect, from product design to product consumption (p.79)	Tourist-organization; tourist-host	Insufficient co-creation has an effect on the competitiveness of tourism in Egypt
15) Setting: urban residents								
Lin, Chen & Filieri (2017)	Residents' participation in value co-creation	China	Chinese	Broaden-and-build theory	Quantitative survey	A process of resource exchange, and the actors involved will need to interact to enable the exchange of resources and the value to be reciprocally created (p.437)	Tourist-resident	Residents' perceived economic and social-cultural benefits of tourism development have positive effects on both value co-creation and life satisfaction, perceived costs have negative effects. Life satisfaction has the strongest impact on value co-creation.
16) Setting: independent traveler								
Reichenberger (2017)	Customer - to - customer value co - creation	New Zealand	European, American, Canadian, Australian, Oceanian, others	Conceptualization of C2C value co-creation in tourism (Rihova et al., 2015); social situation analysis	Qualitative interview	"A process of inter- related interactions and activities that connects the tourist and other actors, and experiences are the context in which those interactions and activities occur" (Campos et al., 2016, p. 3).	Tourist-tourist	Personal resources, shared images, and social structures influence C2C co-creation; value is created through but not necessarily because of social interactions (p.8)

Appendix 3 English interview questions

Interview questions

Initial questions (for tourists 18 years and over):

- Are you a visitor to Japan?
 - Where are you from?
 - How long are you here for?
 - Have you been to Japan before? If so, how many times?
 - Where are you staying while you are in Japan?
 - Why did you choose to stay there?
1. Can you think of two or three examples of where you might come into direct contact with other travellers?
 2. Can you think of two or three examples of where you might have more indirect contact with other travellers? For example see them on a bus.
 3. Can you describe any situations where you have had contact with other travellers on this trip? This could be direct or indirect.
 4. How important is contact between tourists of differing nationalities in creating an overall visitor experience?*
 5. Does contact with other visitors impact upon your experience in general? How?
 6. What might make contact with visitors a positive experience?
 7. What might make contact with visitors a negative experience?
 8. What stereotypes do you have about:
 - American tourists ...
 - Australasian tourists ...
 - Japanese tourists ...
 - Korean tourists ...
 - Chinese tourists ...
 - Taiwanese tourists ...
 9. Can you please describe any situations where you have had contact with local Japanese people - these may be service providers or local citizens.
 10. For you personally, which group of people is most important to you in terms of interaction with when visiting Japan -service providers, local citizens, and the other tourists.
 11. (For respondents who are repeated visitors to Japan) Thinking of your current and previous trips to Japan, how do you think your tourism experience is changing? Specifically, in terms of the service standard, do you think Japan is keeping its standard?

Appendix 4 Chinese interview questions

访谈问题

背景问题

- 您是来日本的游客吗？
- 您来自哪个国家？
- 您已经在日本呆多久了？
- 您之前来过日本吗？如是，来过几次？
- 您在日本旅游时住在什么样的住宿设施（酒店 / 民宿 /）？
- 为什么选择住在那里？

1. 您能列举2-3个可能会与其他游客有直接接触的地方或情形吗？
2. 您能列举2-3个可能会与其他游客有间接接触的地方或情形吗？
3. 您能描述一下您在这次旅行中与其他游客有过接触的情形吗？可以是直接接触，也可以是间接接触。
4. 与各个国家游客的接触对您整体的旅行体验来说有多重要？
5. 与其他游客的接触对您整体的旅行体验有影响吗？是怎样的影响？
6. 您觉得怎样的接触是比较好的，积极的？
7. 您觉得怎样的接触是不太好的，消极的？
8. 您觉得您的旅行方式对您旅行中与他人交流的情况有什么影响吗？是怎样的影响？
9. 您个人对以下几个国家的人有什么样的看法或印象？
 - 美国游客
 - 澳大利亚游客
 - 日本游客
 - 韩国游客
 - 中国游客
 - 台湾游客
10. 您能再谈一下您与日本本地人，或者服务人员有过接触的情形吗？
11. 对您来说，您旅游时更看重与哪个人群的交往（日本本地人，服务人员，其他游客）？为什么？
12. （针对有两次或以上来日本旅行经验的被访者）结合您多次来日本旅行的经验，您觉得您在日本的旅行体验有什么变化吗？特别在服务水准方面，您觉得日本保持得如何？

Appendix 5 English survey questionnaire

Dear madam/sir:

My name is Xing HAN. I am a doctoral student at Otaru University of Commerce, Japan. Thank you very much for agreeing to take part in this survey. This questionnaire is part of my Doctoral studies and focuses on how tourists from China visiting Japan come into contact and interact with other tourists.

The data collected through this questionnaire will only be used for academic research and information about you is anonymous so your privacy is protected.

The answers you provide will be a very important source of data for my study. Please take your valuable time to support me by completing this questionnaire. Thank you very much in advance!

For each of the following statements please encircle the number that you feel is most applicable to you							
1	I have an outgoing and open personality	1: Completely disagree →4: Neutral →7: Completely agree					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
2	When travelling, I often talk to people whom I had not met before	1: Completely disagree →4: Neutral →7: Completely agree					
		1	2	3	4	5	6

Please indicate for each of the following statements how important it was in your decision to travel to Japan in your most recent visit.		1: Not at all important →4: Moderately important →7: Extremely important						
1	To know more about Japan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	To see how local (Japanese) people live	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	To communicate and interact with local (Japanese) people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	To rest and to relax	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	To enjoy being alone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	To enjoy gourmet food and drink	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	To view beautiful scenery and nature	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	(Only answer if you traveled with companions) To spend time with family or friend(s) who is/were travelling with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	To visit relatives or friends living in Japan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	To meet new people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	To make new friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	To look for a new romantic encounter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	To be able to talk about my travel experience after returning home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Shopping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	To attend events as a spectator (sports, festival, music)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16	To experience a different culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	To become a better me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

As I explained before, I am interested to know how tourists from China visiting Japan come into contact and interact with other tourists.

The “other tourists” in this study, refers to those who were not part of your travelling group, and you came into contact with them for the first time when visiting Japan. The “other tourists” include both Chinese tourists and non-Chinese tourists.

The following table lists some interactions you may have had with other tourists when travelling, please indicate how often and in what way you engaged in each of the following types of interaction in your most recent visit.

The following section is about your interaction with Chinese tourists whom you had not met before your most recent trip to Japan.

1.1	Greet other Chinese tourists out of courtesy. (e.g., you and another Chinese tourist sitting next to you in a bus nod at each other to show courtesy)								
	How often did this type of interaction occur during your most recent visit to Japan?	1:Never		→4:Sometimes			→7:Almost always		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? (If you answered “1” to the previous question, please skip to the next question)	1:Passively responded		→4: Depends			→7:Actively initiated		
1		2	3	4	5	6	7		
1.2	Ask other Chinese tourists for help or help other Chinese tourists. (e.g., ask other Chinese tourists for directions, or show directions for other Chinese tourists)								
	How often did this type of interaction occur during your most recent visit to Japan?	1:Never		→4:Sometimes			→7:Almost always		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? (If you answered “1” to the previous question, please skip to the next question)	1:Passively responded		→4: Depends			→7:Actively initiated		
1		2	3	4	5	6	7		
1.3	Have a brief casual chat with other Chinese tourists.								
	How often did this type of interaction occur during your most recent visit to Japan?	1:Never		→4:Sometimes			→7:Almost always		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? (If you answered “1” to the previous question, please skip to the next question)	1:Passively responded		→4: Depends			→7:Actively initiated		
1		2	3	4	5	6	7		
1.4	Have a relatively in-depth conversation with other Chinese tourists.								
	How often did this type of interaction occur during your most recent visit to Japan?	1:Never		→4:Sometimes			→7:Almost always		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? (If you answered “1” to the previous question, please skip to the next question)	1:Passively responded		→4: Depends			→7:Actively initiated		
1		2	3	4	5	6	7		
1.5	Get to know and become friends with other Chinese tourists.								
	How often did this type of interaction occur during your most recent visit to Japan?	1:Never		→4:Sometimes			→7:Almost always		
1		2	3	4	5	6	7		

	How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? (If you answered “1” to the previous question, please skip to the next question)	1:Passively responded →4: Depends →7:Actively initiated						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following section is about your interaction with foreign (non-Chinese) tourists whom you had not met before your most recent trip to Japan.

2.1	Greet foreign tourists out of courtesy. (e.g., you and a foreign tourist sitting next to you in a bus nod at each other to show courtesy)							
	How often did this type of interaction occur during your most recent visit to Japan?	1:Never →4:Sometimes →7:Almost always						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? (If you answered “1” to the previous question, please skip to the next question)	1:Passively responded →4: Depends →7:Actively initiated						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.2	Ask foreign tourists for help or help foreign tourists. (e.g., ask foreign tourists for directions, or show directions for foreign tourists)							
	How often did this type of interaction occur during your most recent visit to Japan?	1:Never →4:Sometimes →7:Almost always						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? (If you answered “1” to the previous question, please skip to the next question)	1:Passively responded →4: Depends →7:Actively initiated						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.3	Have a brief casual chat with foreign tourists.							
	How often did this type of interaction occur during your most recent visit to Japan?	1:Never →4:Sometimes →7:Almost always						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? (If you answered “1” to the previous question, please skip to the next question)	1:Passively responded →4: Depends →7:Actively initiated						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.4	Have a relatively in-depth conversation with foreign tourists.							
	How often did this type of interaction occur during your most recent visit to Japan?	1:Never →4:Sometimes →7:Almost always						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? (If you answered “1” to the previous question, please skip to the next question)	1:Passively responded →4: Depends →7:Actively initiated						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.5	Get to know and become friends with foreign tourists.							
	How often did this type of interaction occur during your most recent visit to Japan?	1:Never →4:Sometimes →7:Almost always						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	How did you usually engage in this type of interaction? (If you answered “1” to the previous question, please skip to the next question)	1:Passively responded →4: Depends →7:Actively initiated						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

To interact with other tourists whom you have not previously met, you may need to utilize time/energy/ability. Please indicate to what extent each type of following items was available for you to use when interacting with other tourists during your most recent visit to Japan.		1: None at all →4: Some →7: A lot						
1	Time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Physical energy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3	Mental energy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Sociability (your ability to interact with other people)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Ability to cope with cultural differences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Foreign language ability (when interacting with non-Chinese tourists)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your level of satisfaction with your most recent visit to Japan		1: Completely dissatisfied. →4: Neither →7: Completely satisfied						
1	How satisfied are you overall with your interactions with other Chinese tourists when visiting Japan during your most recent visit?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	How satisfied are you overall with your interactions with non-Chinese tourists when visiting Japan during your most recent visit?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	How satisfied are you with your overall experience visiting Japan during your most recent trip?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Your gender: 1. Male 2. Female

Your age:

1. Under 20 2. 21-30 3. 31-40 4. 41-50 5. 51-60 6. 61 or above

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

1. High school (including technical high school) or below
2. College graduate (including vocational college)
3. Master degree
4. Doctoral Degree

How many times have you visited Japan including your most recent trip?

1. 1 2. 2 3. 3 4. 4 5. 5-10 6. 11 or more

How long did you travel in Japan during your most recent trip?

1. 7 days or less 2. 8-14 days 3. 15-30 days 4. 31-60 days 5. 61 days or more

How did you travel in Japan last time?

1. Solo, independent travel
2. Solo, travel in an organized tour
3. Independent travel with family and/or friends
4. Organized tour with family and/or friends
5. Travel with family and/or friends who live in Japan
6. Others, please specify_____.

This is the end of the survey, thank you very much for your cooperation!

Appendix 6 Chinese survey questionnaire

尊敬的女士/先生：

我叫韩星，是小樽商科大学(日本)的博士生。非常感谢您同意参与此次调查。这份问卷是我博士研究的一部分，重在了解赴日旅行的中国游客与其他游客的交流与互动。

此问卷收集到的信息将仅用于学术研究，关于您的信息均为匿名，因此您的隐私是受到保护的。

您所提供的回答将成为我研究的重要的数据来源。请您抽出宝贵时间完成此问卷。提前向您致谢！

关于以下表述，请选择您认为最符合您的情况的数字									
1	我有开朗外向的性格	1:完全不同意			→4:一般		→7:完全同意		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2	在旅行时，我常与之前不认识的人聊天、交谈	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

关于以下表述，请就它们对您最近一次来日本旅游时的决策的影响的重要程度，选择相应的数字		1: 完全不重要 →4: 一般重要 →7: 极为重要						
1	更多地了解日本	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	看看当地（日本）人如何生活	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	与当地（日本）人交流、互动	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	休息、放松	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	享受独处	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	享受美食、饮品	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	享受美景、自然	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	(只针对上次是与他人一起旅行的游客) 陪伴和您一起旅行的家人或朋友 (若您上次是独自一人来日本旅行，此题请选择1)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	看望在日本居住的亲人或朋友	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	遇见新的人	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	交新的朋友	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	寻求浪漫的邂逅	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	可以回国后谈论自己的旅游经历	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	购物	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	作为观众参加活动(如体育、节庆、音乐活动)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	体验不同的文化	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	成为更好的自己	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

正如之前的说明，我希望了解来日本旅行的中国游客在旅行中与其他游客的交流与互动的情况。本研究中的“其他游客”，指的是不在您的旅游同伴之列，而是您来到日本旅行时才第一次遇到的人。“其他游客”，包括其他中国游客和外国游客。

下面的表格列出了您在旅行时可能与其他游客发生的互动，**请结合您最近一次来日本旅行的情况**，选择您参与以下各类互动的频率和方式。着重显示以下部分是关于您与之前不认识的**其他中国游客**的互动。

1.1	出于礼貌，与中国游客打招呼（比如，在公交车上，您和邻座的中国游客点头示意）							
	在您 最近一次在日本的旅行 中，这类互动发生的频率	1:从未发生		→4:有时发生		→7:几乎总是发生		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	您对此类互动的参与一般是（若您前一题选1，请直接跳到下一题）	1:被动回应		→4:看情况		→7:积极发起		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.2	请其他中国游客帮忙，或者帮助其他中国游客（比如，您向其他中国游客问路、或您给其他中国游客指路）							
	在您 最近一次在日本的旅行 中，这类互动发生的频率	1:从未发生		→4:有时发生		→7:几乎总是发生		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	您对此类互动的参与一般是（若您前一题选1，请直接跳到下一题）	1:被动回应		→4:看情况		→7:积极发起		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.3	与其他中国游客短暂地随意聊天							
	在您 最近一次在日本的旅行 中，这类互动发生的频率	1:从未发生		→4:有时发生		→7:几乎总是发生		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	您对此类互动的参与一般是（若您前一题选1，请直接跳到下一题）	1:被动回应		→4:看情况		→7:积极发起		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.4	与其他中国游客较为深入的交流							
	在您 最近一次在日本的旅行 中，这类互动发生的频率	1:从未发生		→4:有时发生		→7:几乎总是发生		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	您对此类互动的参与一般是（若您前一题选1，请直接跳到下一题）	1:被动回应		→4:看情况		→7:积极发起		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.5	与其他中国游客相互熟识并建立友谊							
	在您 最近一次在日本的旅行 中，这类互动发生的频率	1:从未发生		→4:有时发生		→7:几乎总是发生		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	您对此类互动的参与一般是（若您前一题选1，请直接跳到下一题）	1:被动回应		→4:看情况		→7:积极发起		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

以下部分为您与之前不认识的**外国游客之间**的互动

2.1	出于礼貌，与外国游客打招呼（比如，在公交车上，您和邻座的外国游客点头示意）							
	在您 最近一次在日本的旅行 中，这类互动发生的频率	1:从未发生		→4:有时发生		→7:几乎总是发生		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	您对此类互动的参与一般是（若您前一题选1，请直接跳到下一题）	1:被动回应		→4:看情况		→7:积极发起		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.2	请外国游客帮忙，或帮助外国游客（比如，您向外国游客问路、或您给外国游客指路）							
	在您 <u>最近一次在日本的旅行</u> 中，这类互动发生的频率	1: 从未发生		→4: 有时发生			→7: 几乎总是发生	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	您对此类互动的参与一般是（若您前一题选1，请直接跳到下一题）	1: 被动回应		→4: 看情况			→7: 积极发起	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.3	与外国游客短暂地随意聊天							
	在您 <u>最近一次在日本的旅行</u> 中，这类互动发生的频率	1: 从未发生		→4: 有时发生			→7: 几乎总是发生	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	您对此类互动的参与一般是（若您前一题选1，请直接跳到下一题）	1: 被动回应		→4: 看情况			→7: 积极发起	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.4	与外国游客较为深入的交流							
	在您 <u>最近一次在日本的旅行</u> 中，这类互动发生的频率	1: 从未发生		→4: 有时发生			→7: 几乎总是发生	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	您对此类互动的参与一般是（若您前一题选1，请直接跳到下一题）	1: 被动回应		→4: 看情况			→7: 积极发起	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.5	与外国游客相互熟识并建立友谊							
	在您 <u>最近一次在日本的旅行</u> 中，这类互动发生的频率	1: 从未发生		→4: 有时发生			→7: 几乎总是发生	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	您对此类互动的参与一般是（若您前一题选1，请直接跳到下一题）	1: 被动回应		→4: 看情况			→7: 积极发起	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

关于以下几项， <u>请根据您最近一次在日本旅行的实际情况</u> ，选择您当时有多少时间/体力/能力可以被用于与（之前不认识的）其他游客的接触与互动。		1: 完全没有		→4: 有一些			→7: 很多	
1	时间	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	体力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	精力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	社交能力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	应对文化差异的能力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	外语能力(当与外国游客接触时)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

请选择您对最近一次来日本旅游的体验的满意度		1:完全不满意			→4:一般		→7:非常满意	
1	对于旅行中与 其他中国游客 的交流与互动的体验，您总体来说有多满意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	对旅行中与 外国游客 的交流与互动的体验，您总体来说有多满意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	对最近一次来日本旅游的体验，您整体来说有多满意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

您的性别：1. 男 2. 女

您的年龄：

1. 20岁或以下 2. 21-30岁 3. 31-40岁 4. 41-50岁 5. 51-60岁 6. 61岁或以上

您的教育水平：

1. 高中(含高职、中专)或以下 2. 大学(含本科、专科) 3. 硕士 4. 博士

您一共来日本旅行过几次？

1. 1次 2. 2次 3. 3次 4. 4次 5. 5-10次 6. 11次及以上

您最近一次在日本旅行了多长时间：

1. 一周或以内 2. 一周到两周 3. 两周到一个月 4. 一到两个月 5. 两个月以上

您当时的旅行方式是：

1. 一个人，自助旅行 2. 一个人，报团旅行
3. 和亲友一起，自助旅行 4. 和亲友一起，报团旅行
5. 和住在日本的亲友一起旅行 6. 其他，请注明_____

本问卷到此结束，十分感谢您的支持！