

# 行政院國家科學委員會專題研究計畫成果報告

## 觀光客與當地居民衝突--量表發展與實證研究

Tourist-resident conflicts: A scale development and empirical study

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### 中文摘要

雖然過去有許多學者從觀光衝擊之觀點探討觀光發展的議題，但過去未有學者探討觀光客與當地居民衝突之概念。本研究目的是進行觀光客與當地居民衝突之概念化及量表發展，此外，驗證兩個觀光客與當地居民衝突之前因及結果模式。透過嚴謹的量表發展程序，本研究確認觀光客與當地居民衝突的三個構面，衡量工具亦具有良好的配適度、信度及效度。接著，運用此發展的觀光客與當地居民衝突量表，確認重要的兩個前因變項(相對群體地位、跨文化能力)及三個結果變項(觀光發展支持、旅遊滿意度及行為意圖)。最後，根據研究結果提出觀光管理策略之實務意涵及未來研究方向。

關鍵詞：觀光衝突、觀光客、當地居民、概念化、量表發展

### Abstract

Although research has investigated tourism development from the perspective of tourism impacts, no previous research has explored the construct of tourist-resident conflict. This study conceptualized tourist-resident conflict and developed a scale for this conflict. Furthermore, this study examined two models of antecedents and consequences of tourist-resident conflict. Through a rigorous instrument development process, the three constructs of tourist-resident conflict were identified. The instrument was proven to have a good fit, reliability, and validity. Applying the scale of tourist-resident conflict enabled identifying two antecedents (relative group status and intercultural competence) and three consequences (support for tourism development, travel satisfaction, and behavioral intentions) in the research models. The implications of these findings for management strategies and future research directions are subsequently discussed.

Keywords: tourism conflict, tourists, local residents, conceptualization, scale development

### INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a complex system that involves the following main stakeholders (D'Angela & Go, 2009; Sheehan, Ritchie, & Hudson, 2007): tourists, local residents, local enterprises, and government departments (Andriotis, 2005; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; Puczko & Ratz, 2000; Yang, Ryan, & Zhang, 2013). According to social exchange theory (Ap, 1992), the attitude and level of support of stakeholders toward tourism development are influenced by the overall assessment results of actual or perceived costs and benefits (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005). Thus, when stakeholder groups share different perceptions and goals toward tourism development, such as a difference between the perceived benefits and personal interests or overall development costs, conflicts regarding

tourism development may arise among stakeholder groups (Byrd, Bosley, & Dronberger, 2009).

Previous relevant studies on tourism development have reported numerous tourism conflicts occurring among stakeholders. Chesney-Lind and Lind (1986), in exploring tourism development problems in Hawaii, reported that conflicting norms of dress, speech, and behavior can heighten tensions between tourists and local residents. When tourists fail to recognize or respond to local norms and customs, they are often perceived by residents as being aggressive and insensitive to the feelings of locals. In addition, tourists can fall victim to crimes committed by local residents. In recent years, many incidents of conflict, prejudice, and discrimination have occurred between Hong Kong residents and tourists from mainland China (hereinafter referred to as Chinese tourists) (Ye, Zhang, & Yuen, 2012a). For example, Chinese tourists have been accused of violating the social norms and principles of Hong Kong (e.g., eating and making noise on the Mass Transit Railway [MTR]) and causing numerous social problems (e.g., inflating the prices of consumer goods and real estate). By contrast, some Chinese tourists have reported that they did not receive reasonable or fair treatment when they traveled to Hong Kong, and have mainly attributed this to discrimination-related problems (Ye et al., 2012a). On the basis of the aforementioned studies, tourism conflicts exist and severely influence the tourism development of tourist destinations in the long term.

Several studies have explored tourism impacts, which relate to how tourism development generates problems at tourist destinations (Andereck et al., 2005; Byrd et al., 2009; Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2012). However, the concept of tourism impact differs from that of tourism conflict. Tourism impact refers to the long- or short-term, positive or negative, and individual or accumulative influences of the continual interactions between tourists and host communities on tourist destinations, local enterprises, and local communities (Moyle, Weiler, & Croy, 2013). The level of tourism impact differs according to the tourist areas and is influenced by economics, social culture, ecology, psychology, and the environment. Conflict refers to individual people or groups perceiving that inconsistencies or contradictions in demands or goals exist between them and other people or groups (Boulding, 1963). Tourist–resident conflict refers to the conditions under which disagreements, negative emotions, and interference arise between tourists and residents. In addition, tourism impact is generally unilateral; that is, the influences of foreign tourists or tourism development on local communities. By contrast, tourism conflict is bilateral, results from interactions, and is mainly reflected in the differing cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions of tourists and local residents.

Previous studies have proposed several terms related to tourism conflict, such as tourism development conflict (Dredge, 2010; Engström & Boluk, 2012), social conflict (Yang et al., 2013), and tourism and cultural conflict (Iverson, 2010; Robinson & Boniface, 1999). However, previous research has neither conceptualized tourism conflict nor developed a set of reliable and valid instruments for measuring it. Hence, studies on and explanations for the following questions from the opposing perspectives of tourists and local residents have been scant: What are the implications associated with tourist–resident conflict? What dimensions or indicators are involved in tourist–resident conflict? What are the factors influencing tourist–resident conflict? What influences does tourist–resident conflict have on tourists or local residents?

On the basis of the aforementioned research questions and knowledge gap, this study conceptualized tourist–resident conflict and developed a scale for determining the significance, constructs, and implications of such conflict. Subsequently, a theoretical framework for the antecedents and consequences of tourist–resident conflict was verified using the scale of tourist–resident conflict to compensate for the insufficient knowledge in the tourism research field. We expect the results to contribute to the knowledge in the field of tourism development and management and to offer suggestions for long-term tourist destination development and for government policies on tourism development.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### *Conflict*

Wall and Callister (1995) indicated that conflict refers to the process by which an individual's interests are opposed or negatively influenced by other people. Barki and Hartwick (2004) defined interpersonal conflict as "a dynamic process that occurs between interdependent parties as they experience negative emotional reactions to perceived disagreements and interference with the attainment of their goals." Several studies have regarded interpersonal relationships as a cause of conflicts, which derive from perceived factors and factors of the communication process (Putnam & Poole, 1987; Robbins, 1978). Moreover, some scholars have indicated that conflicts are mainly caused by two major factors: cognitive and affective factors (Amason, 1996; Amason & Schweiger, 1994). Wall and Callister (1995) reviewed previous studies on conflicts and identified the following three major sources of conflict: individual characteristics, interpersonal factors, and issues.

Regarding the perspective of organizational or group conflicts, Jehn and Chatman (2000) and Jehn and Mannix (2001) indicated that group conflicts in organizations can be divided into three types: relationship conflict, task conflict, and process conflict. Relationship conflict refers to the perception of interpersonal incompatibility, which involves affective conflict; task conflict refers to a disagreement regarding a particular group task and is similar to the concept of cognitive conflict, which refers to a disagreement regarding a certain task (Amason & Sapienza, 1997); and process conflict refers to a disagreement over a group's approach to a task as well as a disagreement over the assignment or distribution of responsibilities and resources in a group.

From the perspective of recreational conflict, several studies have suggested that goal interference or social acceptability conflict is generated during recreational activities; thus, many scholars have indicated that recreational conflict involves two major dimensions: interpersonal conflict and social value conflict (Carothers, Vaske, & Donnelly, 2001; Vaske, Dyar, & Timmons, 2004). Interpersonal conflict occurs when a person or group of people frustrates or interferes with another person or group's efforts to achieve a goal (Jacob & Schreyer, 1980). Social value conflict occurs between groups holding different norms and values toward a particular activity or topic (Ruddell & Gramann, 1994; Vaske, Donnelly, Wittmann, & Laidlaw, 1995; Vaske, Needham, & Cline, 2007). In contrast to interpersonal conflict, social value conflict between groups lacks direct contact.

By summarizing the aforementioned sources and types of conflicts, we determined that organizational conflict is associated with conflict in the tasks executed by groups or organization members. In addition, from the perspective of interpersonal, group, or recreational conflict, individual-individual or individual-group interaction involves interpersonal contact or communication as well as differences in personal perceptions or social values. Tourist-resident conflict occurring during tourism development pertains to the category of interpersonal or group conflict; therefore, with interpersonal conflict and social value conflict constituting the basis of our core theory, we further developed the concept and implications of tourist-resident conflict.

### *Tourist-Resident Conflict*

At the first stage of tourism development and planning, the attitudes and perceptions of all the stakeholders in tourism development must be confirmed and understood (Kuvan & Akan, 2012) to ensure that mutual trust, cooperation, harmony, and interests can be developed. A stakeholder refers to any group or individual who can affect or be affected by the achievement of an organization's objectives (Freeman, 1984). The level of conflict among stakeholders aroused by tourism development is extensive; thus, to effectively clarify the concept and implications of tourism conflict, we focused on tourism conflict between tourists and local residents, without considering other stakeholders such as government or enterprises.

Several studies have applied social exchange theory to explain the phenomenon of tourism development (Andereck et al., 2005; Ap, 1992). Social exchange theory mainly explains the role and interaction of a person in a group in which group goals are achieved by various members who are assigned various roles and tasks. The role a member plays in a group is mainly determined by the interpersonal exchange relationship between the member and other members. The operation of the interpersonal relationship system depends on the concept of reciprocity (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960).

For the domain of tourism and travel, the process of tourism development is considered a type of social exchange relationship for each stakeholder (McGehee & Andereck, 2004), because all stakeholders have their own needs and expectations; therefore, tourism development should be aimed at attaining the optimal cost–benefit balance.

McKercher, Ho, and Cros (2005) indicated that, according to conflict theory, tourism development conflict results from goal incompatibility and a value clash. In the context of tourism development stakeholders, goal incompatibility refers to the goal of a party being incompatible with the behavior of another party; that is, a party's goal is interfered with by another party. A value clash refers to a chaotic situation caused by contradictions in self-interest among different stakeholders or groups. McKercher et al. (2005) reported that conflict may arise when the power balance among stakeholders changes. Yang et al. (2013) used social conflict theory as proposed by Coser (1956) to explore the impacts of tourism development on tourist destinations. Social conflict occurs when two or more parties intentionally oppose each other in a competitive environment. Different stakeholders hold different opinions toward tourist destination development; thus, conflicts in interests, values, and goals among stakeholders occur.

According to the aforementioned sources and types of interpersonal and group conflicts, the literature on tourist satisfaction with and cognitive responses to tourist destinations, and the perceptions and attitudes of local residents toward tourism development, the following three types of tourist–resident conflicts were identified: cultural conflict, social conflict, and resource conflict. Detailed explanations of the significance and phenomena of each type are as follows.

### *Cultural Conflict*

Tourism and consumer behavior in tourist areas involves interaction between local residents and tourists (Pearce, 1982). Cultural conflict may be inevitable when cultural differences exist between tourists and local residents and when both groups lack cross-cultural adaptability (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). In addition, differences in cultural values and social norms may cause conflict between both parties and even arouse subsequent negative behaviors (Reisinger & Turner, 2003; Sharma, Tam, & Kim, 2009). Thyne, Lawson, and Todd (2006) determined that local residents viewed tourists from different cultural backgrounds unfavorably. For example, residents in New Zealand preferred tourists from the United States and Australia over those from Germany and Japan. Therefore, a marked cultural distance may reduce residents' acceptance of tourists and cause resident–tourist conflict (Ye et al., 2013).

Cultural distance refers to the level of difference or similarity in the national culture of tourists and their host communities (Shenkar, 2001). In the context of cross-cultural interaction, the cultural distance between both parties may lead to cultural conflict. The contradictions, negative feelings, or interference between tourists and local residents derived from cultural distance are considered cultural conflict. For example, many Chinese tourists have been accused by Hong Kong residents of violating local social norms and engaging in inappropriate behavior (e.g., talking loudly in public places and littering). By contrast, Chinese tourists in general have reported being disrespected or discriminated against by Hong Kong residents because of differences in language and social norms. According to Ye, Zang, and Yuen (2012b), some Chinese medical tourists in Hong Kong reported experiencing discrimination, receiving poor service from medical personnel (e.g., receiving little respect), perceiving Hong Kong people to have a sense of superiority, and that the amount of medical information they received from doctors and nurses was less than that received by local Hong Kong residents. Hence, cultural conflict may result from cultural ethnocentrism, communication problems, poor quality of service, and lifestyle differences (Wei, Crompton, & Reid, 1989).

### *Social Conflict*

Social conflict occurs when two or more parties or groups oppose each other in a competitive environment, which may be attributed to conflicts of interests, values, and goals (Yang et al., 2013). The development of tourist areas can attract tourists or groups from different countries, influence

social structure, and change the values of local communities, thus causing social conflict. For example, the shopping behavior of Chinese tourists who purchase in bulk has caused social problems and indirectly influenced the attitudes of store sales staff toward local residents in Hong Kong and Macau, as well as the service quality delivered to locals. Some Hong Kong residents have reported that many store sales staff of luxury brands pay excessive attention to Chinese tourists and treat local residents with indifference (Siu, Lee, & Leung, 2013). Moreover, most Chinese tourists pay cash when making purchases and thus are targeted by pickpockets or swindlers; consequently, theft in Hong Kong and Macau has increased in recent years, leading to poor social order and increased crime rates.

Numerous Hong Kong people have reported that, as the number of Chinese tourists has increased, store staff have switched to speaking Mandarin Chinese in general; furthermore, announcements on the MTR, bus, and other mass transportation are now also made in Mandarin Chinese (Siu et al., 2013). Both of these phenomena differ from the long-term social values and perceptions of local Hong Kong residents. In contrast to local residents in China, those in Hong Kong consider themselves to be relatively Westernized (e.g., regarding assertions on democracy and social consciousness). However, local residents in China consider Hong Kong people to possess the Western characteristics of being egocentric, self-motivated, and having a sense of accomplishment (Lai, 1998). Accordingly, inconsistency in values also causes the generation of negative attitudes between Hong Kong and Chinese people (Guan et al., 2009; 2011). On the basis of the aforementioned factors, the social conflict caused by tourism development has led many local residents in Hong Kong to express dislike and even hate about interacting with Chinese tourists; thus, many residents have requested or suggested that Hong Kong authorities restrict the number of Chinese tourists allowed into Hong Kong.

#### *Resource/Transactional Conflict*

As the numbers of foreign tourists to Taiwan have increased, so too has the crowdedness of hardware facilities (e.g., accommodation, restaurants, and transportation) and activity spaces at tourist destinations (Su et al., 2012), thus arousing conflict in resource use and space occupation between tourists and local residents. According to the Taiwan Tourism Bureau, 3.98 million Chinese tourists visited Taiwan in 2014 (Taiwan Tourism Bureau, 2015). This high number caused hotels and restaurants to be overbooked and led to crowdedness at tourist and scenic areas, thus creating the crowding out effect (Su et al., 2012). The crowding out effect in this instance reduces the quality of Taiwan's international tourism and even crowds out international tourists from countries other than China. This effect is especially evident in Hong Kong and Macau. In 2014, the number of Hong Kong residents was approximately 7.2 million, whereas the number of Chinese tourists who visited Hong Kong totaled 47.2 million (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2014). Most Hong Kong residents have reported that Hong Kong and its tourist areas, restaurants, shopping malls, MTR, grocery stores, and even the surrounding living spaces and environments are crowded with Chinese tourists (Siu et al., 2013); consequently, middle-class residents engender a wish to move out of Hong Kong. Traffic congestion has long been a problem in Macau; however, the high numbers of Chinese tourists visiting to gamble in the city have further reduced the quality of life of local residents.

Moreover, many residents in Hong Kong and Macau have complained that the bulk-purchasing shopping behavior of Chinese tourists has led to locals being unable to purchase certain products. The most high-profile instance of this phenomenon involved Chinese visitors bulk-purchasing infant formula when traveling to Hong Kong, which caused panic and outrage among local residents over the resulting shortages of the product. Chinese tourists purchase such products in bulk because they generally believe that the quality of products sold in Hong Kong stores is higher than that of products sold in China; this also makes Chinese tourists willing to pay high prices for these products. Consequently, many supermarkets and pharmacies in Hong Kong seek to increase profits by stocking products for sale specifically to Chinese tourists. Thus, some Hong Kong residents view themselves as being unable to purchase these products at their discretion, thereby arousing antipathy toward Chinese tourists. This imbalance between demand and supply of resources often causes Chinese tourists to feel

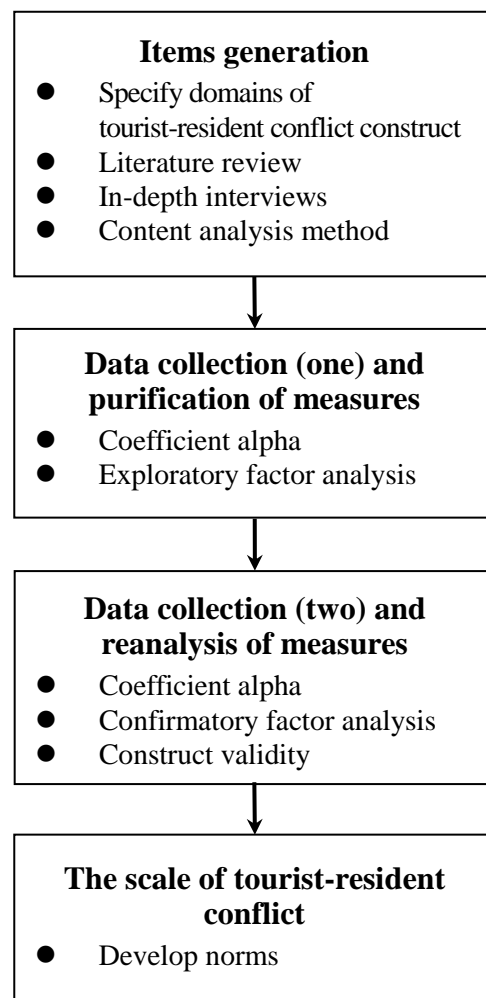
that they are treated unfairly and exploited when making purchases. This phenomenon can be interpreted as transactional conflict for tourists.

## RESEARCH DESIGN

The research content of this study was divided into two stages according to the research questions and objectives. In Study 1, qualitative and quantitative research methods were adopted for conceptualizing the tourist–resident conflict, and the scale of tourist–resident conflict and its items were developed according to the contrasting perspectives of tourists and residents. In Study 2, the scale constructed in Study 1 was used for verifying the causal relationship of tourist–resident conflict. The following sections detail the methods and findings of both studies.

### STUDY 1: SCALE DEVELOPMENT

The scale of tourist–resident conflict was developed by following the scale development procedures adopted by Churchill (1979) and Wang, Hsieh, Chou, and Lin (2007). In the present study, scale development comprised the following four steps: (1) generating item samples, (2) collecting first data and measuring purification, (3) collecting second data and measuring reanalysis, and (4) determining the scale of tourist–resident conflict (Figure 1).



**Fig. 1.** Flowchart of the scale development procedure

### *Item Generation*

*Domains of the Tourist–Resident Conflict Construct.* Churchill (1979) reported that at the first stage of scale development, the scope of the construct being developed must be precisely described. According to previously proposed definitions, conflict generally involves the following three properties: disagreements, negative emotions, and interference (Barki & Hartwick, 2004; Wall & Callister, 1995). Previous studies have explored the implications and components of conflict on the basis of these three properties. Accordingly, with these three properties constituting a theoretical basis, the tourist–resident conflict construct was defined in this study as involving situations in which disagreements, negative emotions, or interference result from interactions between tourists and local residents.

*In-Depth Interviews.* To comprehensively understand the implications of conflict between tourists and local residents, a one-on-one in-depth interview and focus group interview were adopted for collecting detailed face-to-face data from respondents. The following semistructured interview items were designed for local residents: “Regarding the phenomenon or events involving tourists visiting Taiwan (or Hong Kong or Macau), what tourist behaviors do you consider disagreeable?” “What tourist behaviors elicit negative emotions from you?” “What tourist behaviors interfere with your daily life?” The interview items designed for tourists were as follows: “Regarding your visit to Taiwan (or Hong Kong or Macau) and your interactions with the local residents, what types of events or phenomena did you find disagreeable?” “What events or phenomena elicited negative emotions from you?” “What events or phenomena interfered with your travel?”

The in-depth interviews were conducted from January 2015 to March 2015. Twenty-one respondents (nine Chinese tourists and 12 residents of Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan) participated in one-on-one in-depth interviews. The phenomena of tourism conflict between tourists and local residents were understood and collected from the differing perspectives of the tourists and residents. For the focus group interviews, two focus groups with a total of 12 respondents were formed, namely one group of six Chinese tourists and one group of six residents of Hong Kong, Macau, or Taiwan. The interviews, each of which lasted 90–120 minutes, were audio recorded and transcribed.

*Content Analysis Method.* Each sentence or paragraph of the transcripts was considered a unit of analysis. On the basis of the literature review and category analysis of the interview content, two field experts evaluated the processes of content classification and terminology in this study. From the tourist and local resident perspectives, the tourist–resident conflict items were compiled to construct a preliminary scale of tourist–resident conflict.

The initial items were further developed according to the analysis results of the aforementioned content. First, the categories associated with a high level of abstraction and the subcategories associated with a low level of abstraction were identified on the basis of the qualitative analysis results. The subcategories were used for designing the items, which were incorporated into the initial item pool for scale development. The scale designed for local residents comprised 15 items in the following three main categories: cultural conflict, social conflict, and resource conflict. The scale designed for tourists comprised 16 items in the following three main categories: cultural conflict, social conflict, and transactional conflict.

After the initial item pools for the scales were developed, a panel of experts evaluated content validity. The six-person panel, consisting of tourism research scholars and tourism industry personnel, evaluated the relevance between each item and its operational definition and offered suggestions on

the wording, addition, or deletion of the items. Every expert scored each scale item from 1 (*extremely unsuitable*) to 5 (*extremely suitable*). Four items attained scores of less than 3 and were deleted. The remaining items were revised by the panel and subsequently retained as the initial scale items. The local resident scale comprised 13 items for its constructs of cultural conflict (four items), social conflict (four items), and resource conflict (five items); the tourist scale comprised 14 items for its constructs of cultural conflict (six items), social conflict (five items), and transactional conflict (three items).

#### *Data Collection (One) and Measure Purification*

*Data Collection (Sample One).* The preliminary scale of tourist–resident conflict was developed on the basis of the analyzed content. The items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (*extremely disagree*) to 5 (*extremely agree*). According to the tourist and local resident perspectives, the preliminary questionnaire was designed and the scale of tourist–resident conflict was developed. Prior to data collection, we conducted a pilot survey to ensure the clarity, reliability, and comprehensiveness of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed to 50 inbound tourists and 50 local residents.

At the time of the study, the foreign tourists visiting Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan were predominantly from mainland China; furthermore, tourist–resident conflict in the three destinations increased substantially as high numbers of Chinese tourists began traveling to these regions. Therefore, this study focused on the phenomenon of conflict between Chinese tourists and local residents in Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan. The sampled population incorporated Chinese tourists traveling to Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan as well as local residents of these regions. The first questionnaire survey was administered from April 2015 to June 2015. A total of 271 valid questionnaires administered to local residents were returned, with 92 from Hong Kong, 90 from Taiwan, and 89 from Macau. Women and men respectively accounted for 50.9% and 49.1% of the respondents, of whom 58.3% were single, 33.2% were aged 21–30 years, 32.8% had completed an undergraduate college degree, and 34.7% earned a monthly salary of US\$661–US\$990. A total of 265 valid questionnaires administered to Chinese tourists were returned. Women and men respectively constituted 53.6% and 46.4% of the respondents, of whom 64.5% were married, 33.6% were aged 31–40 years, 31.7% had completed a junior college degree, 36.2% earned a monthly salary of US\$331–US\$660, and 72.1% were visiting the region for the first time.

*Item Reduction and Exploratory Factor Analysis.* The collected data were subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) by using varimax rotation to reduce the number of items. According to the EFA results, the following three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted from the local resident scale: cultural conflict (four items), social conflict (four items), and resource conflict (five items). The cumulative percentage of explained variance was 69.44%. The following three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted from the tourist scale: cultural conflict (five items), social conflict (four items), and transactional conflict (three items). The cumulative percentage of explained variance was 67.05%. Two items had factor loadings lower than 0.5 and were thus excluded. All factors exhibited a Cronbach  $\alpha$  value greater than 0.70 and were thus considered reasonably reliable (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), thereby conforming to the criteria for internal consistency (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006).

#### *Data Collection (Two) and Reanalysis of Measures*

The scale of tourist–resident conflict was developed after the aforementioned procedures and analyses. However, Churchill (1979) suggested that after scale items are refined, the reliability and validity of the items should be reexamined using different samples. Accordingly, a second questionnaire survey was conducted and analyzed to ensure that the scale of tourist–resident conflict was valid and reliable.

*Data Collection (Sample Two).* The sampling method for the second survey followed the same procedures used for the first survey. The second questionnaire survey was administered from July



2015 to September 2015. A total of 264 valid questionnaires administered to local residents were returned, with 89 from Taiwan, 88 from Hong Kong, and 87 from Macau. Women and men respectively accounted for 52.3% and 47.7% of the respondents, of whom 54.9% were single, 30.3% were aged 21–30 years, 34.1% had completed an undergraduate college degree, and 32.6% earned a monthly salary of US\$661–US\$990. A total of 253 valid questionnaires administered to Chinese tourists were returned. Women and men respectively constituted 55.3% and 44.7% of the respondents, of whom 65.2% were married, 35.6% were aged 31–40 years, 31.6% had completed a junior college degree, 33.6% earned a monthly salary of US\$331–US\$660, and 71.1% were visiting the region for the first time.

**Confirmatory Factor Analysis.** To verify the reliability and construct validity of the scale, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed for parameter estimation (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). In addition, the convergent validity and discriminant validity of the scale were further examined. The CFA results displayed in Table 1 show that the local resident scale exhibited favorable goodness of fit ( $\chi^2 = 245.16$ ,  $df = 65$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 3.77$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , GFI = 0.92, AGFI = 0.90, NFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.95, IFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.08). The composite reliability of each construct was higher than 0.7, indicating high internal consistency (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The factor loading of each item was higher than 0.5, and the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct was higher than 0.5, indicating that the scale possessed favorable convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The square root of the AVE of each construct was higher than the correlation coefficient between any pair of constructs, demonstrating that the scale had discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

The results in Table 2 indicate that the tourist scale exhibited favorable goodness of fit ( $\chi^2 = 251.87$ ,  $df = 71$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 3.55$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , GFI = 0.93, AGFI = 0.90, NFI = 0.93, CFI = 0.94, IFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.08). The composite reliability of each construct was higher than 0.7, indicating high internal consistency. The factor loading of each item was higher than 0.5, and the AVE of each construct was higher than 0.5, indicating that the scale possessed favorable convergent validity. The square root of AVE of each construct was higher than the correlation coefficient between any pair of constructs, demonstrating that the scale had discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Accordingly, the scale of tourist–resident conflict, based on the perspectives of the tourists and local residents, was finalized.

**Table 1**  
Confirmatory factor analysis results for local resident scale

Construct	Mean	SD	Factor loading	CR	AVE
<b><i>Cultural conflict</i></b>				0.85	0.59
Tourists from China (hereinafter referred to as Chinese tourists) have different habits than we do.	4.18	0.77	0.81		
Chinese tourists have different concepts of morality than we do.	4.12	0.78	0.83		
Chinese tourists have different social norms than we do.	4.18	0.78	0.83		
Chinese tourists have changed our lifestyle.	4.02	0.90	0.56		
<b><i>Social conflict</i></b>				0.84	0.58
When I interact with Chinese tourists, I feel that they treat me badly.	3.58	0.98	0.83		
When I interact with Chinese tourists, I feel that they are not easy to communicate with.	3.35	0.92	0.80		
I have a negative opinion or impression of Chinese tourists.	3.56	0.98	0.79		
Chinese tourists have changed our social values.	3.69	0.90	0.61		
<b><i>Resource conflict</i></b>				0.89	0.61
Chinese tourists influence our use of recreational resources.	4.11	0.88	0.77		
Chinese tourists influence our use of transportation and public facilities.	4.23	0.93	0.81		
Chinese tourists influence our use of environmental resources.	3.97	0.94	0.83		
Chinese tourists share our resources and thus I feel exploited.	3.87	1.07	0.84		
The tourism development policies stipulated by the government are partial toward Chinese tourists.	3.73	1.02	0.65		

**Table 2****Confirmatory factor analysis results for tourist scale**

Construct	Mean	SD	Factor loading	CR	AVE
<b><i>Cultural conflict</i></b>				0.85	0.54
Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents have different habits than we do.	3.14	0.98	0.62		
Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents have different concepts of morality than we do.	2.75	0.94	0.69		
Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents have different social norms than we do.	2.86	0.95	0.90		
Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents hold different values than we do.	2.89	0.81	0.71		
Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents use a different language/dialect to communicate than we do.	2.36	1.04	0.73		
Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents have different freedoms of religion than we do.*					
<b><i>Social conflict</i></b>				0.79	0.50
When I interact with Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents, I feel that they treat me badly.	2.23	0.80	0.97		
When I interact with Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents, I feel that they have discriminatory attitudes.	2.75	0.87	0.67		
When I interact with Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents, I feel that they are not easy to communicate with.	2.43	0.87	0.52		
Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents are unwilling to offer us assistance.	2.12	0.68	0.59		
Taiwan (Hong Kong/Macau) residents have negative opinions or impressions of us.*					
<b><i>Transactional conflict</i></b>				0.83	0.62
I have been pressured into purchasing a product when deciding whether to make a purchase.	2.27	0.97	0.78		
I have felt that I was being exploited when making a purchase.	2.05	0.75	.77		
I have felt that I was treated unfairly when making a purchase.	2.16	0.75	0.81		

Note: \* This item was deleted during exploratory factor analysis.

## STUDY TWO: EMPIRICAL STUDY

To further understand the goodness of fit of the scale constructed in Study 1, an additional questionnaire survey was conducted. Subsequently, the causal relationship of tourist–resident conflict was analyzed from the perspectives of the tourists and local residents. According to the antecedent variables, the economic dependence of local residents on tourism-related industries influenced their attitudes toward tourists (Chiang & Huang, 2012). Relative group status was also associated with discrimination (Ye et al., 2013). Several studies have suggested that the intercultural competence of tourists is beneficial in reducing cultural conflicts (Ye et al., 2013). Concerning the dependent variables, the goal of tourism development and its associated benefits are viewed differently by tourists and local residents. Tourists focus on travel satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Lee, Jeon, & Kim, 2011). Furthermore, tourism conflict influences local residents' level of support for tourism development (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Ritchie & Inkari, 2006). On the basis of the aforementioned studies, the present study incorporated the antecedent and dependent variables relevant to tourism conflict into the research model (Figures 2 and 3) to construct the theoretical framework for tourist–resident conflict, for proposing strategies and offering suggestions for improving long-term tourist destination development and formulating government tourism policies.

### *Sampling and Data Collection*

The questionnaires were administered to Chinese tourists traveling in Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan and to local residents in these regions. The questionnaires were administered to Chinese tourists who were near the conclusion of their trip; the sampling locations were international airports and tourist destinations popular among Chinese tourists. Regarding the questionnaires administered to the Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan residents, the sampling locations were public transportation

stations, neighborhood parks, and local administrative centers where crowds gathered. Through the methods of field questionnaire surveying and purposive sampling, the questionnaires were directly administered to the Chinese tourists and local residents, and were subsequently retrieved on site. The questionnaire survey was administered from July 2015 to December 2015. To ensure an adequate response rate and questionnaire validity, as well as to thank the respondents, souvenirs or cash vouchers for a convenience store were provided to the respondents.

A total of 453 valid questionnaires administered to local residents were returned, with 153, 152, and 148 respondents from Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Macau, respectively. Women and men respectively accounted for 51.9% and 48.1% of the respondents, of whom 52.5% were single, 30.9% were aged 21–30 years, 32.7% had completed an undergraduate college degree, and 31.8% earned a monthly salary of US\$661–US\$990. A total of 398 valid questionnaires administered to tourists were returned. Women and men respectively constituted 52.8% and 47.2% of the respondents, of whom 65.3% were married, 35.2% were aged 31–40 years, 32.7% had completed a junior college degree, 34.9% earned a monthly salary of US\$331–US\$660, and 70.4% were visiting the region for the first time.

### *Measures*

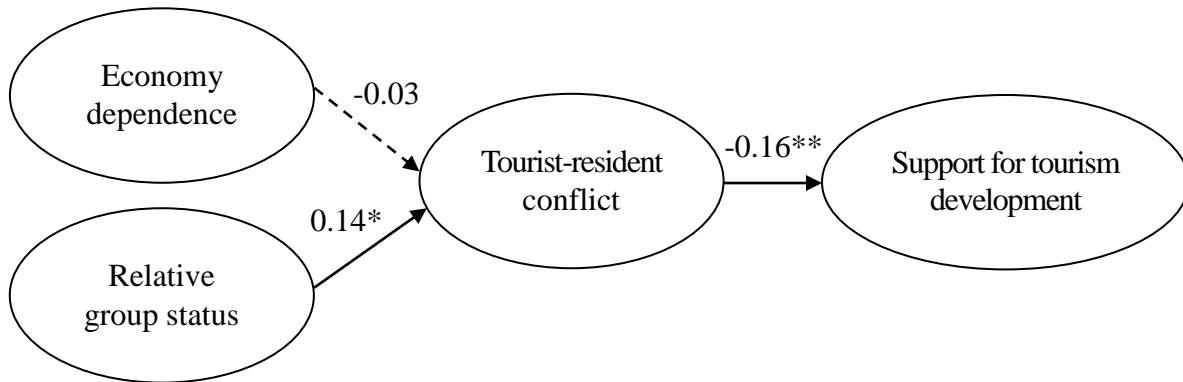
Economic dependence herein refers to the level of reliance that local residents have on tourism-related industries (Chiang & Huang, 2012). The present study employed five items from the scale of economic dependence developed by Chiang and Huang (2012). Relative group status is defined as how local residents perceive the social economic status of themselves compared with that of Chinese tourists (Ye et al., 2013). We used two items from the scale of relative group status developed by Morrison, Fast, and Ybarra (2009). Support of tourism development is defined as the overall level of support for tourism development among local residents who live adjacent to tourist destinations (Woosnam, 2012). We used nine items from the scale of local resident support on tourism development proposed by Woosnam (2012).

Cultural competence is defined as people's competence in demonstrating appropriate behaviors that enable them to interact with people from other countries. In this study, we employed four items from the scale of intercultural competence proposed by Ye et al. (2013). Travel satisfaction is defined as the subjective judgement of tourists regarding their satisfaction with tourism products and services as well as the extent to which the products and services exceed their expectations (Oliver, 1997). Four items from the scale of travel satisfaction constructed by del Bosque and Martín (2008) were used in the present study. Behavioral intention is defined as tourists' perceived likelihood or the subjective probability that they will engage in a particular behavior after a trip (Lee, Petrick, & Crompton, 2007; Oliver, 1997). Several scholars have identified revisit intention, word of mouth, and recommendation behavior as the main indices of tourist behavioral intentions (Williams & Soutar, 2009; Qu, Kim, & Im, 2011). Therefore, three items from the scale of behavioral intentions developed by Wong and Lai (2015) were employed in the present study.

### *Results*

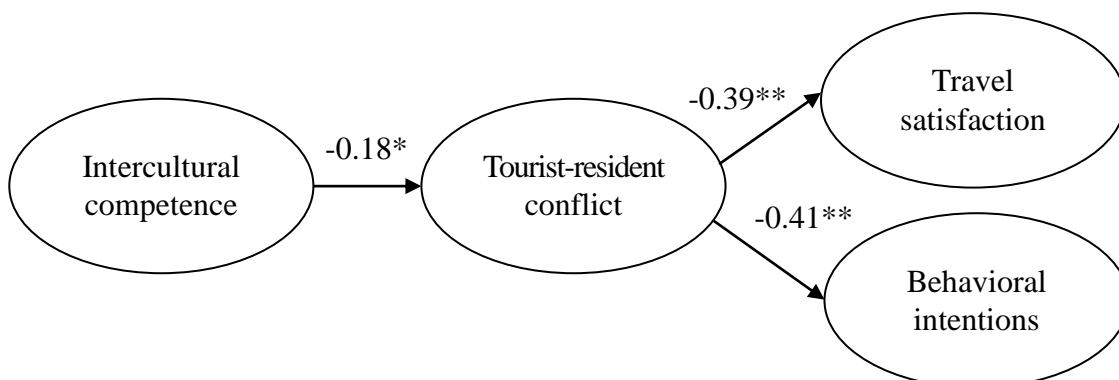
Structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed using the maximum likelihood estimation method to investigate the relationships among economic dependence, relative group status, tourist–resident conflict, and support for tourism development. Westland (2010) suggested that requisite sample size is not a linear function solely of indicator count and  $r = 4.83$  (where  $r$  is the ratio of indicators to latent variables) would require a sample size of at least 93. Therefore, 453 samples in the present study satisfy the lower sample size threshold for SEM. Figure 2 presents standardized path coefficients resulting from testing the proposed structural model. The goodness of fit indices ( $\chi^2 = 418.16$ ,  $df = 87$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 4.80$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , GFI = 0.92, AGFI = 0.90, NFI = 0.93, CFI = 0.95, IFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.08) supported the appropriateness of the structural model. The coefficients were significant for the paths from relative group status to tourist–resident conflict ( $\beta = 0.14$ ,  $t = 2.68$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and from tourist–resident conflict to support for tourism development ( $\beta = -0.16$ ,  $t = -3.08$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The empirical results of this study indicated that relative group status was positively related to

tourist–resident conflict. In other words, the results showed that higher group status among local residents was associated with a higher likelihood of tourist–resident conflict. Furthermore, the results revealed that tourist–resident conflict was negatively related to support for tourism development; that is, the more local residents perceived tourist–resident conflict, the less likely they were to support tourism development. However, the coefficient for the path from economic dependence to tourist–resident conflict was nonsignificant.



**Fig. 2.** Research model of tourist–resident conflict: perspective of local residents

Furthermore, this study examined the relationships among intercultural competence, tourist–resident conflict, travel satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. The lower bound for sample model structure was 110. Thus, 398 samples in this study are large enough for adequate analysis (Westland, 2010). According to the fit indices, the hypothesized model provided an acceptable fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 389.68$ ,  $df = 92$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 4.24$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , GFI = 0.93, AGFI = 0.91, NFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.95, IFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.08). Figure 3 shows the standardized path estimates. The paths from intercultural competence to tourist–resident conflict ( $\beta = -0.18$ ,  $t = 2.81$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), from tourist–resident conflict to travel satisfaction ( $\beta = -0.39$ ,  $t = 6.47$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and from tourist–resident conflict to behavioral intentions ( $\beta = -0.41$ ,  $t = -6.82$ ,  $p < 0.00$ ) were negatively significant. The results revealed that high intercultural competence among tourists was associated with lower levels of tourist–resident conflict, and that tourists who perceived high levels of tourist–resident conflict reported lower travel satisfaction and negative behavioral intention.



**Fig. 3.** Research model of tourist–resident conflict: perspective of tourists

## CONCLUSION

Through a scale development procedure and qualitative and quantitative research methods, we conceptualized tourist–resident conflict according to the differing perspectives of tourists and local residents; subsequently, the scale of tourist–resident conflict was developed. The local resident scale comprised 13 items for its constructs of cultural conflict, social conflict, and resource conflict; the tourist scale comprised 12 items for its constructs of cultural conflict, social conflict, and transactional conflict. We tested two samples and determined that both scales exhibited favorable goodness of fit, reliability, and validity, and could effectively measure tourist–resident conflict. Subsequently, to determine the applicability of the scale of tourist–resident conflict developed in this study and to construct a theoretical framework for tourist–resident conflict, the relevant antecedent and dependent variables associated with tourist–resident conflict were developed according to the differing perspectives of tourists and local residents. The results contribute substantially to and offer crucial implications for academic theories and practical applications. Specifically, the findings expand the literature in the following regards.

First, several scholars have developed scales of tourism impact for measuring how tourism development influences tourist areas. However, we considered the concept of tourism conflict to differ from that of tourism impact. Specifically, tourism impact mainly measures the unilateral influences of tourists or tourism development on tourist areas; and tourism conflict refers to the outcome of bilateral interactions between tourists and local residents. Thus, the scope of tourism conflict differs from that of tourism impact. This is the first study to address the phenomenon of tourist–resident conflict in the context of the tourism industry. This constitutes the theoretical contribution of this study.

Second, tourism scholars have proposed several terms related to tourism conflict such as tourism development conflict, social conflict, and cultural conflict, and have explored the phenomenon of tourism conflict by employing qualitative research methods. However, no scholars have adopted quantitative research methods for conducting in-depth research on the concept of tourist–resident conflict. On the basis of the implications and components of conflict, the present study developed the scale of and constructs for tourist–resident conflict; therefore, the scale could be used to explore the phenomenon of tourism conflict according to the perspectives of different stakeholders (i.e., tourists and local residents) and could serve as a reference for tourism development and guide the management of tourism operations.

Third, according to the tourist and local resident perspectives, the developed scale of tourist–resident conflict incorporated relevant antecedent and dependent variables for developing the theoretical framework of tourist–resident conflict. For the local residents, the current results reveal that relative group status positively influenced tourist–resident conflict and that tourist–resident conflict negatively influenced resident support for tourism development. For the tourists, we determined that if they had high intercultural competence, then tourist–resident conflict could be reduced. Moreover, if the level of tourist–resident conflict experienced by the tourists was high, then the tourists' satisfaction and behavioral intentions would decline. This is the first research to examine the causal relationship underlying tourism conflict. In addition, the present study determined the causes of tourist–resident conflict and the influences that tourist–resident conflict has on tourists and local residents. All these findings constitute crucial theoretical contributions to the field of tourism study.

Several implications can be derived from the present research. First, the scale of tourist–resident conflict developed in this study can be employed by the management personnel of tourist destinations to measure the level of tourist–resident conflict from the perspectives of both tourists and local residents. The problems associated with tourism development can be determined from the high or low scores of the constructs on the scale of tourist–resident conflict; subsequently, the results can serve as a basis for proposing and developing tourism development policies. Second, we determined that relative group status is positively related to tourist–resident conflict. Thus, tourism management

personnel should assist local residents living adjacent to tourism destinations in establishing clear perceptions of tourists' socioeconomic statuses and should promote the service concept of tourist-friendly hospitality, to reduce misconceptions and discrimination and to mitigate the perceived difference in relative group statuses. Third, the results reveal that the intercultural competence of tourists was negatively associated with tourist–resident conflict. Therefore, we recommend that tourism-relevant departments promote the cultural and social habits of their countries or regions to enable tourists to gain a comprehensive understanding of them. Tour guides play the crucial role of a culture transmitter because they can reduce cultural distance and elevate a tourist's intercultural competence. Finally, tourist–resident conflict was negatively associated with support for tourism development, travel satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. The continual promotion of tourism development and the sustainable development of the tourism industry require the support of local residents and sufficient numbers of tourists; therefore, tourism-related departments should pay attention to the phenomenon of tourist–resident conflict caused by tourism development and should continually monitor the level of tourist–resident conflict in order to determine effective tourism development policies and ensure harmonious tourist–resident interactions.

The current study has some limitations, from which several areas of further research arise. First, with China's economic rise in recent decades, a growing number of Chinese tourists have traveled abroad; thus, the occurrence of tourist–resident conflict has increased in many countries and regions. This study focused on Chinese tourists traveling to Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan and the local residents in these regions, using in-depth interviews, focus group interviews, and questionnaire surveys to develop a scale of tourist–resident conflict. Whether this scale can be applied for measuring the phenomenon of tourist–resident conflict in other countries or regions depends on the generalizability of the scale. Therefore, we recommend that future scholars conduct studies in other countries or regions with similar cultural contexts to verify the applicability of this scale. Second, this study focused only on conflict between tourists and local residents; however, the tourism system involves other crucial stakeholders such as local enterprises and government departments. Therefore, to explore the phenomenon of tourism conflict more extensively, future studies should incorporate the perspectives of other stakeholders.

Finally, we incorporated only the antecedent and dependent variables of tourist–resident conflict to construct the causal relationship model. However, previous studies have determined that the level of tourism development in a tourist destination affects the level of tourism impact and influences local residents' attitudes toward tourism development (Harvey, Hunt, & Harris, 1995; Williams & Lawson, 2001; Yoon, Gursoy, & Chen, 2001). In regions with a high level of tourism development, residents pay particular attention to the negative impacts of tourism development (Ritchie & Inkari, 2006). Therefore, whether the influences of the level of tourism development on the antecedent and dependent variables of tourist–resident conflict generate moderating effects warrants further exploration.

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