

2014

Understanding Destination Choice from a Cultural Distance Perspective

Hongbo Liu

University of South Carolina - Columbia

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd>

 Part of the [Hospitality Administration and Management Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Liu, H. (2014). *Understanding Destination Choice from a Cultural Distance Perspective*. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from <https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd/2668>

This Open Access Thesis is brought to you by Scholar Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Scholar Commons. For more information, please contact dillarda@mailbox.sc.edu.

UNDERSTANDING DESTINATION CHOICE FROM A CULTURAL DISTANCE
PERSPECTIVE

by

Hongbo Liu

Bachelor of Science
Fudan University, 2012

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of Master of International Hospitality and Tourism Management in

International Hospitality and Tourism Management

College of Hospitality, Retail and Sport Management

University of South Carolina

2014

Accepted by:

Xiang (Robert) Li, Director of Thesis

David Cardenas, Reader

Jiyeon Kim, Reader

Lacy Ford, Vice Provost and Dean of Graduate Studies

© Copyright by Hongbo Liu, 2014
All Rights Reserved.

DEDICATION

To my beloved parents and all relatives who give me endless love throughout my life.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Xiang (Robert) Li, who gave me professional and patient guidance, tremendous support and continuous encouragement, not only on my thesis writing, but also throughout the whole process of my Master's study. He is always very generous with his knowledge and time, and seeking for the best for his students. I can never finish both my thesis and internship at Disney at the same time without Dr. Li's support and encouragement. I feel so lucky to have such a good advisor.

Besides my advisor, I would also like to thank my committee members: Dr. Jiyeon Kim and Dr. David Cardenas, who spent a lot of time reviewing my thesis drafts, providing me constructive comments, guidance and tremendous support. My sincere thanks also go to Dr. Yang Yang from Temple University, who gave me many patient and helpful guidance in the data analysis process, Dr. Han Shen from Fudan University, who helped review my questionnaire, and those student volunteers from Fudan University and Tongji University, who helped me collect data through street interception in Shanghai. Without their help, I would never be able to complete my thesis.

Specially, I would like to express my gratitude to my boyfriend, Haiyang Xu, who always give me unconditional support and understanding. In particular, he helped me a lot in the data collection process in Shanghai, despite that he was also very busy with his internship at the same time.

In addition, I would like to acknowledge my friends and study buddies: Allison Zhang, Bing Guo, Kang Zheng, Qiulin Lv, Tao Lu, Xi Li, Xiao Lin, Yang Cao, Yao Hu, Yimeng Zhou, Yingda Xu, Yingsha Zhang, Yujia Peng, etc. (Name listed in alphabetical order, and I cannot list everyone due to space limitation). I highly appreciate their warmhearted help during both my Master's study and the process of my thesis writing. I really appreciate having them in my life and those happy times we spent together.

Last but not least, I would like to show my greatest thanks to my dad and my relatives. Thank you for raising me up, offering me good education, and providing me the most unconditional love and financial support.

ABSTRACT

National cultural distance is an important factor of tourists' destination choice, yet the specific role it plays in destination decision process is not well understood. This paper attempts to fill this gap. Taking potential Chinese outbound tourists as a case, this study tries to explore the impact of perceived cultural distance on tourists' international destination choice through a conditional logit model. Familiarity, geographical distance, past international travel experience and novelty-seeking tendency were examined as moderators of the relationship between perceived cultural distance and destination choice. Results show that tourist are more likely to choose culturally similar countries as destinations; geographical distance and novelty-seeking tendency have significant moderating effects on the relationship between perceived cultural distance and destination choice. The research results are expected to provide insights for understanding tourists' destination choice from a cultural distance perspective, and further shed some light on global destination marketing.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
ABSTRACT	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 BACKGROUND OF THIS STUDY.....	1
1.2 OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY	5
1.3 JUSTIFICATIONS OF THIS STUDY	7
1.4 LIMITATIONS & DELIMITATIONS	8
1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS	9
1.6 ORGANIZATION OF THIS STUDY.....	10
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	11
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	11
2.2 DESTINATION CHOICE	12
2.3 CULTURAL DISTANCE.....	14
2.4 CONNECTION BETWEEN DESTINATION CHOICE AND CULTURAL DISTANCE	20
2.5 POTENTIAL MODERATORS	24
2.6 SUMMARY	28

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY.....	31
3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN.....	31
3.2 SAMPLING	32
3.3 MEASUREMENT	33
3.4 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN	35
3.5 DATA COLLECTION.....	35
3.6 DATA ANALYSIS.....	38
CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY.....	40
4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC AND TRIPOGRAPHIC PROFILES.....	40
4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, RELIABILITY AND CORRELATIONS OF EXPLANATORY VARIABLES	45
4.3 HYPOTHESIS TESTING.....	47
CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION.....	57
5.1 REVIEW OF KEY FINDINGS	57
5.2 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS.....	62
5.3 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH	64
REFERENCES	67
APPENDIX A – QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN	79

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Hofstede's cultural framework	16
Table 2.2 Summary of hypothesis development.....	30
Table 4.1 Demographic profile of the sample	41
Table 4.2 Tripographic profile of the sample	42
Table 4.3 Destination choice and previous visitation of 15 destination countries	43
Table 4.4 Perception attributes by countries.....	44
Table 4.5 Descriptive statistics and reliability test of research variables	45
Table 4.6 Correlation analysis and collinearity diagnostics	46
Table 4.7 Model 1	47
Table 4.8 Model 2.....	48
Table 4.9 Model 3	49
Table 4.10 Model 4	49
Table 4.11 Model 5.....	50
Table 4.12 Model 6.....	52
Table 4.13 Model 7	53
Table 4.14 Summary of Model 1–Model 7.....	55
Table 4.15 Summary of hypothesis test results	56

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Number and expenditure of China's outbound tourists during 1992-2012.....	4
Figure 2.1 Theoretical model of this study	29
Figure 3.1 Map of study site	38
Figure 4.1 Predicted probabilities by country (regional travel).....	51
Figure 4.2 Predicted probabilities by country (long-haul travel).....	52
Figure 4.3 Predicted probabilities by level of novelty-seeking	54

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of this study

International tourism has experienced rapid expansion in the past two decades. According to a report from World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), international tourist arrivals has increased from 0.44 billion in 1990 to 1.04 billion in 2012, and it is expected to reach nearly 1.6 billion by the year 2020 (UNWTO, 2013). Tourism has become one of the major parts of international business. This is attributed to, for one thing, the advances in economy and technology, which make outbound travel more affordable and convenient; for another, the expansion of economic globalization and international commerce, which stimulates business trips among different countries to a great extent. In light of the global background of tourism development, understanding tourist behaviors from cultural perspectives is becoming increasingly important for both industry and academic researchers. National culture has been consistently shown as an important factor that shapes and influences consumer behaviors (McCracken, 1986; Sojka & Tansuhaj 1995). Taking cultural influences into consideration, tourism marketers and managers would be able to better capture tourists' characteristics and needs, further could predict tourists' behavioral intention, and provide more satisfactory tourist experiences.

Destination choice is one of the key elements in tourists' travel decision-making process (Wu, Zhang & Fujiwara, 2012). Studying tourists' destination choice behaviors and identifying factors affecting tourists' destination decisions is of critical importance

for destination marketers in order to attract tourists to visit and revisit the destinations. Tourists' destination decision-making has been extensively explored and numerous variables have been recognized as explanatory variables of destination choice. These variables could be generally classified into two categories: individual trait factors, such as personal characteristics and social-demographic profiles, etc.; and environmental factors, like marketing information and destination attributes, etc. (Hill, 2000). In previous studies, cultural factors seem to be somewhat overlooked, although they could have significant impacts on tourists' destination decisions through acting as tourists' social-demographic background, psychological traits, as well as destination attributes. Compared with other variables, like budget and spare time, it is not easy to detect the effects of cultural factors on tourists' destination choice, as cultural values are deeply embedded in people's minds along with their growth, and tend to be reflected in their behaviors unconsciously.

In order to study cultural influences quantitatively, the notion of cultural distance is introduced, which represents the extent of cultural differences between any two distinct cultural systems. National cultural distance is defined as the extent to which cultural norms and practices differ or to which a cultural gap exists among different countries (Kogut & Singh, 1988). National cultural differences could inadvertently affect tourists' destination choice through two ways, on one hand, tourists from different cultural groups could behave differently in destination decision-making process; on the other hand, cultural differences or similarities could be important destination selection criteria. Up to present, very few studies have particularly focused on the impact of cultural difference on destination choice, most of which conclude that tourists are more likely to choose

culturally similar countries as destinations (Crouch, 1994; Ng et al. 2007; Yang & Wong, 2012). However, one study by Jackson (2001) reported a mixed result on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice: people from highly individualistic countries tend to choose culturally similar destinations, and people from highly collectivistic countries tend to choose culturally different destinations. The inconsistent results make the topic worth of further research.

In the most recent decade, the rise of emerging markets has drawn world-wide attention. The emerging markets are characterized by rapid economic growth, fast-pace modernization, urbanization, large middle class, and increased consumer expenditure (Waheeduzzaman, 2011). The growth of economy, middle class and consumer expenditure in such nations like Brazil, Russia, India and China are enabling them to become major and high-yielding international tourist source markets. According to the newest UNWTO Tourism Highlights report, the market share of emerging economies increased from 30% in 1980 to 47% in 2012, and it is expected to reach 57% by 2030, equivalent to over one billion international tourist arrivals (UNWTO, 2013). Among the major emerging economies, China is especially remarkable as the world's fastest growing and biggest-spending tourist source market (Reuters, 2013).

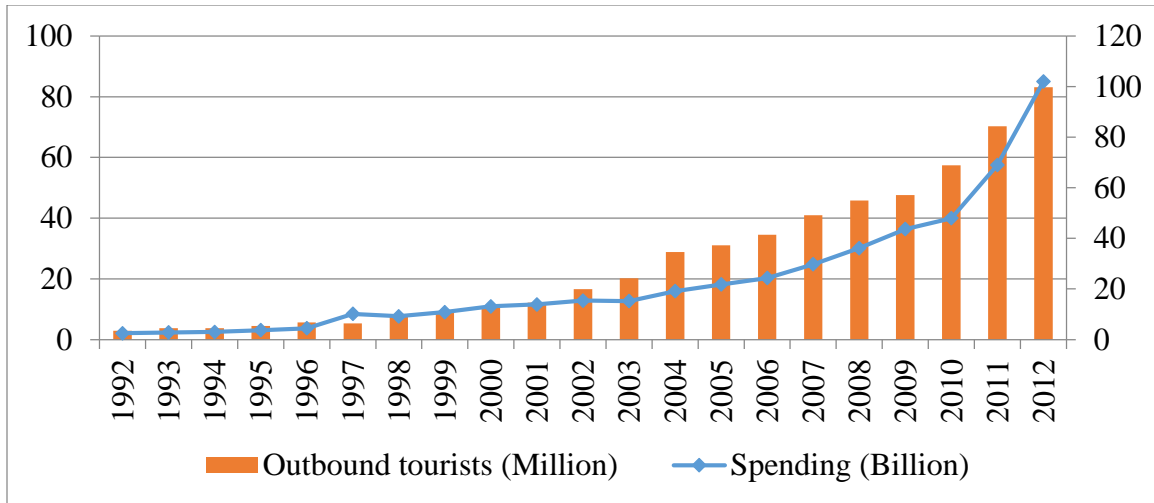


Figure 1.1 Number and expenditure of China's outbound tourists during 1992-2012
Source: China National Tourism Administration

China's outbound tourism to foreign countries officially started from 1990, with Singapore, Malaysia and Thai first opened to Chinese citizens. It has experienced dramatic and continuous growth since then (Figure 1.1). The number of China's outbound tourists has increased from 2.93 million in 1992 to 83.18 million in 2012, and it is estimated to exceed 100 million in year 2015 by UNWTO. In terms of international tourism expenditure, China has surpassed German and United States to become the worlds' biggest spenders, with the spending increased from \$2.51 billion in 1992 to \$102 billion in 2012. Undoubtedly, China is growing to be the largest contributor of international tourism, and Chinese tourists have become quite popular in the global market that every destination marketer wants to compete for (Li, Harrill, Uysal, Burnett, & Zhan, 2010). In this context, understanding the characteristics of Chinese outbound tourists, and identifying the factors that affect Chinese travelers' destination choice is of significant interest to destination countries that are targeting Chinese tourists.

1.2 Objectives of this study

To this date, there is still a relative lack of empirical research specifically on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice, and the existing studies have reported inconsistent conclusions about this topic, as mentioned earlier. Similar contradictory conclusions about the relationship between cultural distance and entry mode choices of multinational enterprises can also be found in international business field (K. Brouthers & L. Brouthers, 2001; Cho & Padmanabhan, 2005; Chang, Kao, Kuo, & Chiu, 2012, etc.), a phenomenon aptly termed as “National cultural distance paradox”: some studies show that enterprises are more likely to choose joint ventures in culturally distant countries, while other studies indicate wholly owned subsidiaries are more preferred in culturally distant countries. It is suggested that potential moderators could be incorporated in order to explain the cultural distance paradox (López-Duarte & Vidal-Suárez, 2010; Shenkar, 2001). This study is interested in exploring the cultural distance paradox in the context of tourists’ international destination choice through including several potential moderators. The potential moderators, including familiarity, geographical distance, past travel experience and novelty-seeking tendency, were selected based on literature. Specifically, the objectives of the study are as follows:

- (1) Examine the empirical significance of existing research on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice, and contribute to the lack of empirical research on this topic.
- (2) Test whether the selected potential moderators have effects on, and how they affect the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice. Under the moderating effects of other variables, what the relationship between cultural

distance and destination choice will be like, and whether the cultural distance paradox phenomenon exist in tourism context.

- (3) Understand what Chinese outbound tourists' destination preference will be like in the future several years, and identify the factors (including cultural distance and potential moderators) that could affect their destination choice.
- (4) Provide insights for understanding tourists' destination choice behaviors from a cultural distance perspective, and further provide marketing implications for global destination marketers, especially those who are targeting Chinese tourists.

Research hypothesis are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Tourists are more likely to choose culturally similar countries as destinations.

Hypothesis 2: Level of familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

H_{2a}: Experiential familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

H_{2b}: Informational familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

H_{2c}: Self-rated familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

Hypothesis 3: Geographical distance between home country and destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

Hypothesis 4: Past international travel experience has a moderating effect on the

relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

Hypothesis 5: Novelty-seeking tendency has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

1.3 Justifications of this study

This study could make important contributions due to the following reasons:

Firstly, although extensive studies have been done on tourists' destination choice, very few studies have particularly involved cultural distance as an explanatory variable, which makes the results from existing research still inconclusive. This study is expected to make a contribution in this regard.

Secondly, most of previous studies used Kogut and Singh's (1988) formula based on Hofstede's (1980) cultural scores to measure cultural distance, which is standardized, unchanged and symmetric (Shenkar, 2001), and may not reflect the actual influence of national culture on decision makers. Perceived cultural distance is employed in this study, as a more individualized alternative.

Thirdly, in order to examine and further explain the cultural distance paradox in destination choice, several variables were selected as potential moderators. Predicting destination choice using cultural distance could be more powerful and convincing when potential moderators are taken into account, as cultural distance will not work on its own, many variables actually work together as a complex mechanism.

Lastly, many previous studies on this topic adopted tourist flow as dependent variable in their studies on destination choice (Jackson, 2000, 2001; Yang & Wong, 2012). However, the inbound and outbound tourist flow could include trips for any purposes, like business, visiting friends and relatives, etc. and many of them are not real

leisure travelers. Notably, non-leisure travelers generally go through very different destination decision-making process from their leisure counterparts. This study use potential outbound tourists' stated leisure destination choice as the dependent variable, which could be more effective in studying leisure tourists' destination choice.

1.4 Limitations & delimitations

This study is subjected to several limitations and delimitations:

First of all, this study is delimited to a convenience sample of potential mainland Chinese outbound tourists in Shanghai, China who are planning to take a leisure trip outside mainland China, Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan. This delimitation makes the study result not necessarily representative of the general Chinese population or people from other societies or countries.

Secondly, the number of choice alternatives is restricted by the main method used in this study: conditional logit model. Only 15 destination countries were listed in the questionnaire to ask respondents to choose from (an option of "Other, please specify" is also provided), as a result, respondents' destination choices were limited by the list, and further study results are also delimited to the 15 countries involved in this study.

Thirdly, tourists' destination choice is delimited to tourists' stated choice. Although this could be superior to tourist flow as a measure of destination choice, the stated choice records might be inconsistent with their actual choice due to many situational factors (McKercher & Guillet, 2011).

1.5 Definition of terms

(1) Destination choice

Destination choice is conceptualized as a tourist's selection of a destination from a set of alternatives (Hsu, Tsai & Wu, 2009). Usually it is considered as a decision-making process from need recognition to final decision, during which it is affected by various factors (Woodside & Lyonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993).

(2) Culture

Culture is "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (Hofstede, 1980, p21).

(3) National cultural distance

National cultural distance is defined as the extent to which cultural norms and practices in one country are different from another (Kogut & Singh, 1988).

(4) Familiarity

Familiarity is defined as the number of product-related experiences or the amount of product-related information (Toyama & Yamada, 2012). Destination familiarity is hence the number of experiences or amount of information received regarding a given destination.

(5) Novelty-seeking

Novelty seeking is referred to a curiosity drive, sensation seeking, and an exploratory drive that motivates tourists to travel (Jang & Feng, 2007). A novel travel is a trip characterized by new and unfamiliar experiences that differ from prior life experience (Faison, 1977).

(6) Great circle distance

Great circle distance or orthodromic distance is the shortest distance between two points on the surface of a sphere ((Berry, Guillén & Zhou, 2010).

1.6 Organization of this Study

This thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the research background, research objectives, the study's importance, and definitions of major terms. Chapter 2 presents a literature review of both the theoretical and empirical studies concerning cultural distance, destination choice and potential moderating variables. Chapter 3 describes the methods used in this study, including sampling, survey development, data collection and analysis methods. Chapter 4 presents the data analysis and hypothesis testing. Finally, Chapter 5 presents the conclusions and discussion.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This literature review includes four sub-sections, namely (1) destination choice, (2) cultural distance, (3) the connection between destination choice and cultural distance and (4) potential moderators of the relationship between destination choice and cultural distance.

The first section gives a brief introduction of destination choice. The definition and influencing factors of destination choice are presented in this section. Cultural distance is an important but understudied predictor of destination choice.

The second section reviews the conceptualization and measurement of cultural distance. The Kogut and Singh's (1988) cultural index based on Hofstede's cultural scores and perceived cultural distance are adopted in this study.

The third section presents the connection between destination choice and cultural distance. Selected studies indicating the connection between national cultural background and tourist behavior, and the connection between cultural distance and destination choice are reviewed. In order to explain the destination choice and cultural distance paradox, four potential moderators are selected from the literature: familiarity, geographical distance, past travel experience and novelty-seeking. The last section discusses how each of these moderators might affect the relationship between destination choice and cultural distance and corresponding hypotheses are proposed after the discussion.

2.2 Destination choice

Destination choice has always been one of the popular research topics in tourism academic field (Crompton, 1977; Woodside & Lyonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992; Keating & Kriz, 2008; Ahn, Ekinci, & Li, 2013, etc.), as it is of crucial importance to destination marketing organizations (DMOs). By definition, destination choice is a tourist's decision on which destination to travel from multiple alternatives. However, researchers often see consumers' decision making as a sequential process, which involves several steps from need recognition, information search, evaluation and comparison of products, and then to final purchase decision (Kotler, 1997, Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997; Solomon, 1996). In the context of tourism, tourists' destination choice is also a sorting out process, which contains a series of steps, including obtaining passive information, initial choice considering situational constraints, evaluation of an evoked set, active information searching and the final destination selection (Um & Crompton, 1990). This sorting out process could be influenced by a number of various internal (motivations, attitudes, needs, etc.) and external factors (information, price, spare time, etc.) (Woodside & Lyonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993).

Several similar frameworks have been developed to understand the process of destination decision based on the behavioral decision theory (Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Woodside & Lyonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992; Mansfeld, 1992; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Moutinho, 1987). Overall, these frameworks (destination choice process) are driven by various influencing factors of destination choice, and these basic factors were classified by Lang, O'Leary, and Morrison (1997) as: 1) socio-

demographic background (age, income, life cycle, etc.); 2) psychographic profiles (benefit pursued, preference, attitude, etc.); 3) marketing variables (product design, pricing, advertising, etc.); 4) destination-related attributes (attractions, situational variables, etc.) and 5) destination awareness. Hill (2000) simply put these influencing factors in two sets: environmental factors and individual trait factors. Environmental factors refer to external forces like sources of information, culture, family, lifestyle, and destination features, while individual trait factors refer to tourists' personal characteristics such as personal motivation, personality, and past experiences, etc. (Hill, 2000).

Among the various factors that affect tourists' destination choice decision, culture is an important one but remains understudied. The effect of culture on destination choice is reflected in two aspects: firstly, tourists from different cultural backgrounds behaved differently in choosing destinations (Richardson & Crompton, 1988; Wong & Lau, 2001); secondly, cultural similarities or differences is an important preference criteria in selecting a destination, some prefer destinations that are culturally similar to their home country (Crouch, 1994), while others who are interested in cultural knowledge and seeking novelty might be interested in culturally distant destinations. As an important determinant of human behaviors and business practices in global market, cultural distance has received substantial attention in international business and multinational corporate management literature, but cultural distance research in tourism is still at its infancy in tourism research. So far few studies have paid attention to the specific effect of cultural distance on tourists' destination choice (Jackson, 2000, 20001; Ng, Lee, & Soutar, 2007, 2009; Yang & Wong, 2012).

2.3 Cultural distance

2.3.1 Definition

Culture is the “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another” (Hofstede, 1980, p21). One way of dividing people in the world is by their nationalities. Cultural differences and similarities may exist among different nationalities. National cultural distance measures this gap, i.e. the extent to which cultural norms and practices differ or to which a cultural gap exists among different countries (Kogut & Singh, 1988). Culture is a very broad and complex concept, hence to be more specific, national cultural distance describes differences between any two countries with respect to the following aspects (Reisinger, 2009):

- *Human environment*
- *Social heritage and traditions*
- *Way of life.*
- *Behavior*
- *Rules of social life*
- *Dress and appearance*
- *Food and eating habits*
- *Sense of self*
- *Relationships*
- *Values and norms*
- *Beliefs and attitudes.*
- *Ways of thinking and doing things*
- *Work and leisure habits.*
- *Time*

- *Cognitive knowledge*
- *Mental process and learning*
- *Information and communication*
- *Symbols and meanings*
- *Perceptions*
- *Differences and similarities between people*

From the perspective of knowledge flow, cultural distance is defined as “the sum of factors creating, on the one hand, a need for knowledge, and on the other hand, barriers to knowledge flow and hence also for other flows between the home and the target countries” (Luostarinen, 1979, p131-132).

Cultural distance is derived from the comparison between national cultures. Many frameworks have been developed to characterize national cultures and could be useful for understanding and operationalizing differences across national cultures (e.g. Hofstede, 1980, 1991; Trompenaars, 1994, 1998; Schwartz, 1994). The most famous national cultural framework is Hofstede’s (1980, 1991, 2010).

2.3.2 Hofstede’s (1980, 1991, 2010) cultural framework

Hofstede analyzed a large database of employee value scores collected by IBM between 1967 and 1973 covering more than 70 countries, and found that employee values in different countries could be statistically grouped into four clusters: 1) Power Distance (PDI), 2) Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV); 3) Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS), 4) Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) (Hofstede, 1980). Later, a fifth dimension was added in 1991 based on an international study by Michael Harris Bond among students with a survey instrument that was developed within Chinese culture. This dimension was

labeled as “Long-term/short-term orientation (LTO)” (Hofstede & Bond, 1988; Hofstede, 1991). Most recently, a sixth dimension “*Indulgence versus Restraint (IVR)*” was added to the framework based on Michael Minkov's analysis of the World Values Survey data for 93 countries (G. Hofstede, G. J. Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010) (See Table 2.1).

Table 2.1

Hofstede’s cultural framework

Dimensions	Descriptions
<i>Power Distance (PDI)</i>	<i>The extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1994, p. 28).</i>
<i>Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV)</i>	<i>Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 1994, p. 51)</i>
<i>Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS)</i>	<i>Masculinity pertains to societies in which social gender roles are clearly distinct (i.e. men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life); femininity pertains to societies in which social gender roles overlap (i.e., both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life (Hofstede, 1994, p. 82-83).</i>
<i>Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)</i>	<i>The extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations (Hofstede, 1994, p. 113).</i>
<i>Long-term/short-term orientation (LTO)</i>	<i>Long Term Orientation stands for the fostering of virtues oriented towards future rewards, in particular perseverance and thrift. It’s opposite pole, Short Term Orientation, stands for the fostering of virtues related to the past and present, in particular, respect for tradition, preservation of ‘face’ and fulfilling social obligations (Hofstede, 2001, p. 356).</i>
<i>Indulgence versus Restraint (IVR)</i>	<i>Indulgence stands for a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives related to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint stands for a society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 281)</i>

Besides Hofstede's framework, other researchers (Hall, 1976; Trompenaars, 1993; Schwartz, 1994; Inglehart, 1997; House et al., 2004) have also developed some other cultural frameworks. Overall, there is much overlap and similarity among these frameworks, and many scholars (e.g. Hofstede, 1991; Morden, 1999; Groeschl & Doherty, 2000; Schwartz, 1994, etc.) have pointed out that these cultural dimensions are closely interrelated. Among these frameworks, Hofstede's (1980, 1991, 2010) is the most widely used in cross-culture research (Gales, 2008). It is also reported as the most influential and comprehensive one (Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996; Sivakumar & Nakata, 2001). Nevertheless, Hofstede's framework is not without its criticism. Schwartz (1994) argues that Hofstede's sample of countries did not accurately reflect the full spectrum of national cultures, and the IBM employees surveyed by Hofstede were not representative of the general population of their countries in terms of education, scientific and technological background. Steenkamp (2001) pointed out that Hofstede's items refer to work-related values, which might not completely represent values of people in other roles (e.g. consumers). Plus, Hofstede's dimension of masculinity/femininity has been criticized as being time- and context- specific (Steenkamp, 2001). Also Terlutter, Diehl, and Mueller (2006) criticized that Hofstede (1980, 2001) confused values and behaviors (practices) in his dimensions, which is a further weakness of his framework. Nevertheless, Hofstede's framework is still the most widely used one with well-confirmed validity and reliability so far.

2.3.3 Measurement of Cultural Distance

Cultural distance has been studied as a determinant of various behaviors in cross-cultural research for many years, such as foreign direct investment (FDI) entry (Du, Lu,

& Tao, 2012), cross-border acquisition (Dikova & Sahib, 2013), international tourism (Yang & Wong, 2012), expatriate job satisfaction (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011), etc. A variety of quantitative methods for measuring cultural distance as an independent variable have been developed since early 1980s (Ng et al., 2007).

To sum up, there are mainly three categories of measures of cultural distance that have been used so far. The first category is named as multi-dimensional cultural index, including Kogut and Singh's (1988) cultural index and Jackson (2001)'s cultural diversity index. This type of methods composite multiple cultural dimensions into a single overall scale. The second type is labeled as "proxy measures of cultural distance". Out of different understandings towards cultural distance, some researchers tend to measure cultural distance using a related distance measure as a proxy of cultural distance, such as linguistic distance (West & Graham, 2004), cultural clusters (Clark & Pugh, 2001; Yamin & Golesorkhi, 2010), and psychic distance (Fletcher & Bohn, 1998; Peng, Hill, & Wang, 2000, etc.). The third measure of cultural distance is perceived cultural distance, namely individuals' perception of national cultural differences.

Kogut and Singh's (1988) cultural index has been the most popular and widely used method to measure cultural distance up to date, almost three quarters of studies in this area used this measure according to Ng et al. (2007). This formula features compositing multiple dimensions of national culture into a single construct, and originally based on Hofstede's (1980) four cultural dimensions. The overall cultural difference between two countries is achieved through the following formula:

$$CD = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^4 \{(I_{iA} - I_{iB})^2 / V_i\}$$

Where, CD stands for the cultural difference between Country A and Country B, I_{iA} is

Hostede's score of the i^{th} dimension of Country A, while I_{iB} is the same dimension's cultural score of Country B. V_i is the score variance of all involved countries on the i^{th} dimension, and n is the number of cultural dimensions.

The measurement of perceived cultural distance is achieved through interview or questionnaire survey. Although this approach is more time-consuming and costly compared with other methods (Ng et al., 2007), a group of researchers in the international business field have recommended employing individual perceptual method to measure cultural differences, as managers' perceptions drive their strategic decisions and behavior (Drogendijk & Slangen, 2006). Three types of instruments are identified in previous perceived cultural distance studies: most researchers, such as Meschi (1997), Nesdale and Mak (2003), Galchenko and Vijver (2007), Drogendijk and Slangen, (2006), etc. adopted a single question design: "How large are the national cultural differences between Country A and Country B?" to measure the overall perceived cultural distance between two countries. Respondents are requested to respond using a five or seven point Likert scale from "very large" to "very small". The second instrument is multi-dimensional questionnaire, which contains questions regarding different dimensions of national culture (Babiker, Cox, & Miller, 1980). A third type of instrument is scenario questionnaire measure (Chirkov, Lynch, & Niwa, 2005), which allows researchers to capture the automatic or subconscious cognitive processing and responses that represent the nature of respondents' cultural orientations. Ng et al. (2007) found that perceived cultural distance was most significantly correlated with tourists' intentions to visit holiday destinations (dependent variable) compared with other cultural distance measures in their study. More importantly, perceived cultural distance measure is expected to

overcome the illusions of symmetry and stability proposed by Shenkar (2001), as people in Country A do not necessarily perceive Country B the same cultural distance as their counterparts in Country B perceive Country A. Besides, surveys and interviews can always get the newly updated perceived cultural distance.

2.4 Connection between destination choice and cultural distance

Many researchers have found that national cultural background makes a difference in various aspects of tourist behavior, such as tourist motivation (You, O’Leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2000), information search, planning, and purchase of international travel vacations (Money & Crofts, 2003), evaluation of travel services (Crofts & Erdmann, 2000), consumption patterns (Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005), travel behaviors (Crofts, 2004), and destination choice (Jackson, 2000, 2001; Ng et al., 2007, 2009; Yang & Wong, 2012). Consisting in “patterned ways of thinking, feeling, and reacting”, which could be acquired and transmitted by symbols under a certain cultural background (Kluckhohn, 1961, p 86), national culture is undoubtedly one of the many forces influencing consumer behavior (Crofts & Erdmann, 2000; Litvin, Crofts, & Hefner, 2004; Crofts, 2004). Researchers have generated a great deal of evidence suggesting that national cultural characteristics or nationality influences tourist behavior (Richardson & Crompton, 1988; Ritter, 1987; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995; Pizam & Jeong, 1996). For example, aiming to answer the question "Does nationality influence tourist's behavior", Pizam and his co-authors (Pizam & Sussmann, 1995; Pizam & Reichel, 1996; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Pizam, Jansen-Verbeke, & Steel, 1997; Pizam, 1999) conducted a series of surveys on tour guides’ perceptions towards the behavioral characteristics of tourists from different countries. Results strongly support that nationality does affect tourist behavior, and there are differences and similarities between behaviors of tourists

from different countries: Japanese and Korean tourists were perceived to be similar in traveling behaviors, while French and American tourists' behaviors were perceived as quite different from each other.

Cultural distance between the origin and destination has been suggested as one of the four key cultural elements influencing tourists' behaviors; the other three elements are tourist's national culture, individual culture and destination culture (Ng et al., 2007; Yang & Wong, 2012). Crofts and his colleagues (Crofts & Erdmann, 2000; Crofts, 2004; Litvin et al., 2004; Money & Crofts, 2003) have conducted a series of studies on the influence of cultural distance on different tourists' behaviors based on Hofstede's national cultural dimensions. They paid special attention to the role of uncertainty of avoidance (UAI), and found that consumers from national cultures of higher levels of UAI prefer to use information sources that are related to the distribution channels (e.g., travel agent), instead of personal, destination marketing-related, or mass media sources; they also more frequently purchase prepackaged tours, travel in larger groups, stay shorter, and visit fewer number of destinations. Results also show that consumers from less masculine cultures were found more loyal, while consumers from more masculine societies are more likely to show higher customer defection (Crofts & Erdmann, 2000). Reisinger and Turner (2002a, 2002b) analyzed the cultural differences between Asian tourists and Australian service providers (destination hosts), and further empirically confirmed that cultural differences between tourists and the host in values and rules of social behavior have a significant influence on tourist satisfaction, and cultural differences in perceptions have a direct effect on social interaction.

Several scholars have made special efforts to explore the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice. Most of the existing studies indicate that tourists are more likely to choose culturally similar destinations (Jackson, 2000; Ng et al., 2007, 2009; Yang & Wong, 2012), for example Saudi tourists prefer to visit Muslim countries (Yavas, 1987). The initial literature support, according to Ng et al. (2007), comes from social psychology. Byrne and Nelson (1965) suggested people are usually attracted to others who have similar attitudes and beliefs with them; this explains why people are always trying to find common points while making friends. Cultural differences in food, language, habits, pace of life, recreation, standard of living, transportation etc., could give rise to uncomfortable feelings and unpleasant experiences, such as stress, anxiety and uncertainty (Reisinger & Turner, 1998; Spradley & Philips, 1972); this is the so called culture shock. In addition, cultural differences could also lead to misunderstandings and interfere with communications between tourists and hosts, and even lead to cultural conflicts. While small cultural distance makes it easier to interact with local people, and enhances tourists' experiences. Under this inference, Yang and Wong (2012) involved cultural distance in their tourism demand analysis, and found that cultural distance has a significant negative effect on tourism flows, which means cultural distance is a barrier for international travel. Jackson (2000) also adopted tourist flow as a measurement of destination choice, and found cultural distance is negatively related with Australia's international tourism flow. Ng et al. (2007, 2009) conducted two studies on the impacts of cultural distance on tourists' visit intention and likelihood; results again support the negative impact of cultural distance on destination choice. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H₁: Tourists are more likely to choose culturally similar countries as destinations.

However, there is also a study reporting mixed results regarding the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice. The study Jackson conducted in 2001 reported that people from highly individualistic countries (such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) tend to choose culturally similar destinations, while people from highly collectivistic countries (such as Colombia, El Salvador, Ecuador and South Korea) tend to choose culturally dissimilar destinations. Considering the influence of other variables, like novelty-seeking, the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice could become positive, which is against with previous studies. Driven by the human nature of curiosity, sensation and exploration (Jang & Feng, 2007), some people could be more interested in exotic cultures. It is worth noting that international business literature has found similar inconsistent conclusions about the relationship between cultural distance and investment entry mode choice: some researchers indicate that companies more likely to choose full control of entry modes in culturally distant countries (Shane, 1994; Anand & Delios, 1997; Padmanabhan & Cho, 1996, etc.); while others show that companies are more likely to adopt joint ventures (JVs), or collaborative mode of entry in culturally distant countries (Chang & Rosenzweig, 2001; Erramilli & Rao, 1993, etc.). This phenomenon is termed as “cultural distance paradox”.

These inconsistent results, according to Shenkar (2001), may result from some theoretical and methodological concerns of cultural distance. He argued that it is groundless to assume that the cultural distance between two countries is symmetric and constant, and that the relationship between cultural distance and investment, entry mode, and performance is linear and causal. In order to explain this cultural distance paradox,

international business researchers suggested incorporating potential moderators, such as foreign investor's accrued experience (Cho & Padmanabhan, 2005), investment risk (K. Brouthers & L. Brouthers, 2001), language diversity between the home and host countries (López-Duarte & Vidal- Suárez, 2010), and host country's governance quality (Chang et al., 2012), which could cast impacts on the relationship between cultural distance and entry mode choice. Shenkar (2001) was also against that culture is the only determinant of distance with relevance to other dependent variables and suggest incorporating other related factors (e.g., language) to better capture socio-cultural differences. Therefore, familiarity, past travel experience, novelty-seeking and geographical distance were selected as potential moderations based on literature review in this study.

2.5 Potential Moderators

2.5.1 Familiarity

Familiarity is defined as the number of product-related experiences or the amount of product-related information (Toyama & Yamada, 2012). Familiarity with destination is an important psychological and cognitive factor influencing tourists' destination selection process (Lee & Tussyadiah, 2012; Baloglu, 2001). In tourism, the construct of familiarity is divided into several dimensions, and the commonly accepted dimensions include level of knowledge, amount of information, previous visitation (Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Baloglu, 2001; Prentice, 2004). Previous empirical studies indicate that familiarity could positively affect tourists' interest and likelihood of visiting a destination (Yang, Yuan, & Hu, 2009). For one thing, out of safety and security concerns, tourists tend to avoid uncertainty in unfamiliar destinations (Yang et al., 2009). For another, it has been empirically confirmed that familiarity is positively related to the formation and modification of destination

image (Prentice & Andersen, 2000; Baloglu, 2001), which could be affected by both knowledge level and amount of information acquired before visitation (Baloglu, 2001), and actual visit experience (Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Dann, 1996). Moreover, familiarity could also affect tourists' information acquisition, reactions to advertising, and the choice of decision rules by consumers (Johnson & Russo, 1984). Many studies report that people who are less familiar with a destination are more likely to seek for more information (Woodside & King, 2001; Carneiro & Crompton, 2010). Tourists are usually more comfortable and confident when they acquired enough knowledge about a destination while making a destination choice (Mackay & Fesenmaier, 1997).

Based on the above discussion, *Hypothesis 2* is presented as:

H₂: Level of familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

H_{2a}: Experiential familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

H_{2b}: Informational familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

H_{2c}: Self-rated familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

2.5.2 Geographical distance

The distance between tourists' usual living area and the destination is an important criterion of destination choice (Nicolau & Más, 2006; Lee, Guillet, Law, & Leung, 2012). Geographical distance affects tourists' destination decision through travel

time and costs. Distant destinations usually represent long traveling time, higher traveling expenses, as well as possible physical and mental fatigue resulted from the long journey. But some scholars revealed that tourism demand increases along with the increase of distance at first until reaching a certain level, after which the tourists' demand begins to decline as geographical distance increases (Greer & Wall, 1979; Bull, 1991; McKercher, 1998). McKercher and Lew (2003) and Lee et al. (2012) later identified that there are more fluctuations after the first peak in tourism demand along with the increase of traveling distance. Cultural geography implies that people in a certain area may share similar cultural factors (Heatwole, 2006); for example, most countries within the Middle East area share similar cultures. Hence it is possible that people might perceive two countries that are close in geographic proximity also as close in cultural distance. It is confirmed by a study on international stock market that cultural distance measured by Kogut and Singh index is positively correlated with geographical distance (Lucey & Zhang, 2010). Therefore, it is hypothesized that

H₃: Geographical distance between home country and destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

2.5.3 Past travel experience

Past travel experience has been acknowledged as a strong stimulus of future behavioral intentions (Mazursky, 1989; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Nyaupane, Paris, & Teye, 2011). Mazursky (1989) argued that travel decision can be influenced both by the extent as well as the nature of past travel experience. Satisfactory travel experience could enhance one's intention to revisit the same or similar destinations. Meanwhile, past travel experience can also reduce one's desire to visit some destinations either because of

unpleasant experience with the same or similar destinations, or simply because tourists' needs or willingness of visiting a destination have been fulfilled, then they will switch to other destinations for next trip.

After visiting a country, there is a gap between actual experiences and pre-trip knowledge, and the gap could make a difference on one's perception about cultural distance before and after the trip. Meanwhile, the level of past international travel experience could affect tourists' judgment towards cultural difference between two countries, as the more a person have traveled internationally, the more adaptive the person could be to cultural differences among different countries. Cho and Padmanabhan (2005) proposed that "decision-specific experience-moderated cultural distance" is a better variable to measure the real effect of cultural distance on foreign ownership mode choice than the "absolute cultural distance" variable (p. 307). Past experience is included as a control variable in many cultural distance studies in international business domain (e.g. Chang et al., 2012; Dikova & Rao Sahib, 2013, etc.). Based on the discussion about past travel experience, the fourth hypothesis is proposed,

H₄: Past international travel experience has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

2.5.4 Novelty-seeking tendency

Driven by the human nature of curiosity, sensation and exploration (Jang & Feng, 2007), novelty-seeking is not only one of the key travel motivations, but also an important aspect of human's personality trait (Cohen 1972; Crompton 1979; Basala & Klenosky, 2001). It is widely accepted that novelty-seeking could affect tourists' decision-making process (Petrick, 2002). Jang and Feng (2007) pointed out that, the

influence of novelty-seeking on tourists' destination choice lies in that tourists may have different levels of novelty-seeking while making a destination decision and different destinations may satisfy similar desires for novelty. Novelty-seeking tendency of tourists is reflected as behaviors seeking for new and unfamiliar experiences, as well as new knowledge (Crompton, 1979; Faison, 1977), which means that tourists with higher level of novelty-seeking tendency might be interested in culturally distant destinations. Several scholars, such as Cohen (1972) and Plog (1974), have developed tourist typology models based on the familiarity-novelty continuum. According to Plog (1974, 2001)'s typology, tourists who are adventurous, outgoing, novelty-seeking and explorative were labeled as "venturers". Culturally dissimilar destinations could be more attractive to those "venturers", who are young, adventurous, and educated (Reisinger, 2009). On the basis of the foregoing analysis, *Hypothesis 5* is stated as:

H₅: Novelty-seeking tendency has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.

2.6 Summary of literature review

This chapter reviewed previous theoretical and empirical studies on the main constructs of this study: destination choice, cultural distance, familiarity, geographical distance, past travel experience and novelty-seeking. Relevant theories, empirical findings were reported and the relationships between these variables were analyzed, a theoretical model is hence provided here:

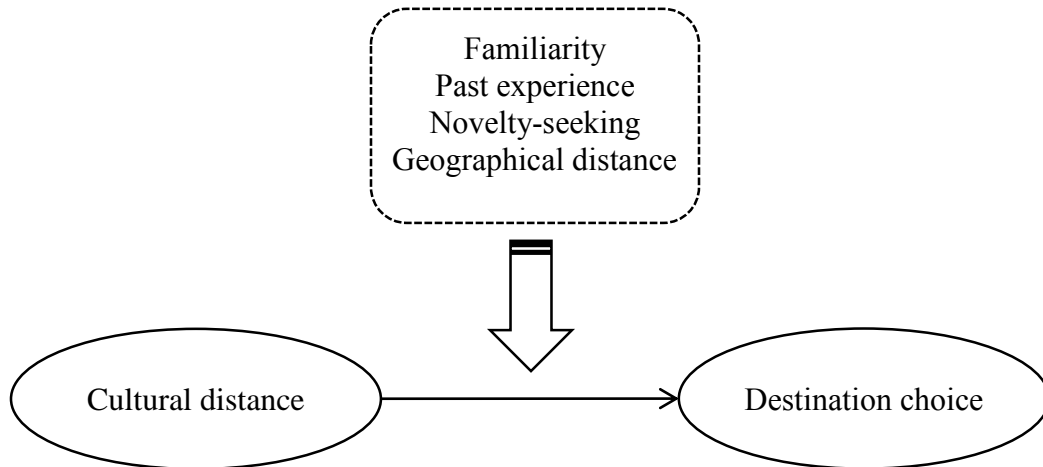


Figure 2.1 Theoretical model of this study

Seen from the model, the two main constructs of this study are destination choice (dependent variable) and cultural distance (independent variable). Four variables, familiarity, geographical distance, past travel experience and novelty-seeking, work as potential moderators.

To date, there are only a few studies particularly on national cultural distance and destination choice, and the results from existing studies are still inconclusive on the relationship between the two, as mentioned earlier. Also, previous studies have not taken potential moderators into consideration; potential moderators like familiarity, geographical distance, novelty-seeking and past travel experiences may affect the strength or the direction of the relationship between destination choice and cultural distance. This study tries to fill the research gaps by testing the following hypothesis:

Table 2.2

Summary of hypothesis development

<i>Hypothesis 1</i>	<i>Tourists are more likely to choose culturally similar countries as destinations.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 2</i>	<i>Level of familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• <i>Experiential familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>• <i>Informational familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>• <i>Self-rated familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 3</i>	<i>Geographical distance between home country and destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 4</i>	<i>Past international travel experience has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 5</i>	<i>Novelty-seeking tendency has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the methodology used to conduct this study, specifically including research design, definition of target population and sampling, measurement of constructs and variables, questionnaire design, data collection and data analysis.

3.1 Research design

This study aims to explore the relationship between perceived cultural distance and international destination choice; several moderators are selected to explain this relationship. Taking Chinese potential outbound tourists as a case study, this study defines its target population as: adult Mainland Chinese citizens who plan to take a leisure trip outside Mainland China, Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan in the next two years (Adapted from Li, Cheng, Kim & Li, in press). A self-administered survey research approach is adopted in this study. A quantitative structured questionnaire is designed based on the literature review to collect data. The questionnaire consists of a series of questions regarding respondents' outbound destination choice, perceived cultural distance, experiential familiarity, informational familiarity and self-report familiarity — all specifically about the alternative countries they will choose as the destination over the next two years; other questions are about respondents' demographic, tripographic, and psychographic characteristics, including novelty-seeking tendency, past international

travel experiences and demographic information. A conditional logit regression model is the main method for data analysis.

3.2 Sampling

Taking Chinese potential outbound tourists as a case study, this study targets adult Chinese citizens who are planning to take an international trip for leisure purpose over the next two years (Li et al., in press). The international trip refers to an overseas trip outside Mainland China, Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan. Leisure trips in this study refer to those trips in which the primary purpose is seeking for leisure and pleasure; business trips which combines with leisure activities are not included, as the business affairs would limit their destination choice. The Chinese citizens in this study are considered as people whose country of origin is China.

Convenience sampling was employed in this study, as the target population is too large to get an explicit sampling frame (Li & Stepchenkova, 2012). Based on the definition of target population, the sample was drawn from three sources:

- (1) High-end commercial districts and Hongqiao Airport in Shanghai were selected to conduct street interceptions, as there is a high likelihood to find potential respondents who could afford overseas trips. Shanghai is one of the major outbound tourist generating cities of China.
- (2) Social network sites (SNS) where there are many potential outbound tourists and backpackers were also used. Three SNSs: Weibo (<http://www.weibo.com>), Douban (<http://www.douban.com>), and Tianya (<http://www.qyer.com/>) are selected for electronic questionnaire distribution. Weibo and Douban are the most popular SNS in China due to their great number of active members and high

volume of website traffic (Ranked as top 2 among China's SNS, China Webmaster, 2013). Tianya is a famous online forum in China (Ranked as second among Chinese forums, China Webmaster, 2013), which contains several outbound tourism related sections. The contents are frequently updated and members are active participants of discussions and experience-sharing on these three SNSs, which makes it suitable for conducting online survey.

- (3) Networking/referral: potential respondents who qualify the research are approached through the referral of existing study subjects (snowball sampling).

3.3 Measurement

3.3.1 Dependent variable

The dependent variable in this study is international destination choice. A list of 15 countries were selected from a combination of top 15 Chinese citizens' outbound destination countries in terms number of arrivals in 2012 (China National Tourism Administration, 2013) and top 15 most selected countries when asked for Chinese citizens' dream destination countries in a previous survey (Sheatsley, Li, & Harrill, 2009). Respondents were asked to select only one country that they will most possibly visit for a leisure trip over the next two years from the list. The 15 countries are: United States, Canada, Russia, UK, Switzerland, Italy, France, South Korea, Vietnam, Cambodia, Malaysia, Singapore, Australia, Thailand, and Japan. Countries are randomized in all relevant questions in the online survey.

3.3.2 Independent variable

The independent variable is perceived cultural distance. Two items were used to measure perceived cultural distance: the first one asks respondents to rate how large the

cultural distance is between China and the list of alternative destination countries using a 5-point scale ranging from “very small” to “very large” (Drogendijk & Slangen, 2006); the second one asks respondents to rate how difficult it is for average Chinese people to adapt to the life and living environment of the destination countries on a 5-point scale ranging from “very easy” (1) to “very difficult” (5) (Boyacigille, 1990).

3.3.3 Moderators

(1) Familiarity

Familiarity with destination countries is measured by three items: experiential familiarity, informational familiarity and self-rated familiarity. Measurement of experiential familiarity was adapted from Baloglu’s (2001) study. Baloglu (2001) measured experiential familiarity with a first-time visit or repeat visit, and repeat visitors in this study are also asked to specify how many times they have visited the destination country before. Informational familiarity is measured through asking respondents to rate the amount of tourism related information they have heard about the destination countries (Jeong, 2009; Baloglu, 2001). The self-rated familiarity is about the respondents’ overall familiarity with their destination countries, and it is measured by a 5-point scale ranging from “very unfamiliar” (1) to “very familiar” (5) (Fridgen, 1987; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997).

(2) Geographical distance

Geographical distance is measured by great circle distance (Berry et al., 2010). Great circle distance is the shortest distance between two points on the surface of a sphere (Berry et al., 2010), and it is calculated by the distance between the geographical center points of China and the 15 destination countries (data available in CIA Factbook).

(3) Past international travel experience

Past international travel experience is measured by perceived past travel experience, which is derived from Kozak, Crofts and Law's (2007) study. Respondents are asked to rate their level of past international travel experience through a 5-point scale ranging from "very inexperienced" (1) to "very experienced" (5).

(4) Novelty-seeking tendency

Respondents' novelty-seeking tendency is measured by a widely-cited scale developed by McIntosh, Goeldner & Ritchie (1995). This scale includes 9 criteria regarding seeking novelty in choosing a tourist destination, such as different culture, local food and handcrafts, local people, etc. (See Appendix-Questionnaire). Respondents are asked to rate the importance of these criteria to them while selecting a destination on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "very unimportant" (1) to "very important" (5).

3.4 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire is designed based on an extensive literature review of the constructs and variables involved in this study. The questionnaire mainly consists three parts: the first part is a cover letter, including the study title, survey purpose, statements about voluntary participation, anonymity, confidentiality, and any other researchers' and respondents' rights and obligations, as well as the researchers' contact information. The second part includes questions about tourists' destination choice, perceived cultural distance, familiarity and novelty-seeking. The third part of the questionnaire is mainly about respondents' tripographic and demographic information, such as outbound travel experience, age, occupation, educational background, etc. Most variables are measured

using multiple items with five-point rating responses, but a couple of open-ended questions are included.

Five faculty members who are expert in destination marketing and consumer behavior studies were invited to review the questionnaire in order to examine the accuracy and internal consistency of the measurement. The original English questionnaire was translated into Chinese. In order to ensure the Chinese translation's accuracy, the questionnaire was back-translated from Chinese to English by another graduate student who is bilingual at English and Chinese and has no prior knowledge to the study objectives (Li, Meng, Uysal, & Mihalik, 2013). The translated Chinese questionnaire was also reviewed by two bilingual professors in tourism field. A pilot test was conducted among 20 subjects drawn from the target population, who can comment on the questionnaire design. The questionnaire was improved and finalized after the expert review and pilot test (See Appendix for the questionnaire).

3.5 Data collection

The data were collected through self-administered questionnaire survey. The electronic version was distributed through email to networking respondents and posting survey links at the three selected online communities mentioned before. Seven student volunteers from local universities were recruited to do the street interception in Shanghai, China. The student volunteers were provided with careful guidance and training before the data collection. Street interception was conducted between March 8 to March 16, 2014 at Wujiangchang, Xintiandi, East Nanjing Road and Hongqiao Airport in Shanghai (See Figure 3.1). Online survey was distributed from March 7 to March 19, 2014. Two screening questions were asked while approaching the respondents, 1) Do you plan to

take a leisure trip outside Mainland China, Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan? 2) Are you an adult Chinese citizen (older than 18 years old)? If the answers to these two questions were both yes, then the respondents were qualified to participate in the survey.

As a consequence, 262 questionnaires were distributed through street interception, of which, 229 are completed, generating an effective response rate of 87.4%; 204 online responses were collected, of which, 61 were incomplete, and 143 were completed and effective, generating an effective rate of 70%. Among the total 372 completed questionnaires, 24 respondents selected other countries as destinations that were not in the specified 15-country list. These data are not applicable to the conditional logit model used in this study, so they were excluded in the study. Three outliers were detected in the preliminary analysis due to patterned responses, and were deleted from the dataset. Therefore, the final sample size was 345, including 132 from online, and 213 from street interception.



Figure 3.1 Map of study site

Note: ①Wujiachang; ② Nanjing Road; ③ Xintiandi; ④Hongqiao Airport.

3.6 Data analysis

Several different data analysis methods were employed in analyzing the data. Firstly, descriptive analysis was conducted for all variables, including frequency, mean, and standard deviation. Secondly, a correlation analysis and a collinearity diagnostic analysis was conducted to detect possible multicollinearity concerns. Thirdly, a conditional logit model was used to examine the influence of perceived cultural distance and potential moderators on respondents' destination choice. Stata 12.0 software package was used for running the data analysis.

Conditional logit model is suitable for multiple discrete choice problems, which contain both attributes of the choice alternatives and characteristics of the individuals who make the choices as explanatory variables (Hoffman & Duncan, 1988). Modeling destination choice with a conditional logit model is based on utility maximization theory, which means that people are always seeking maximum benefits in their destination decision making process. Let U_{ij} denote the utility obtained for respondent i choosing country j as a destination, then

$$U_{ij} = x_{ij}\beta + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

Where x_{ij} is the observable component of U_{ij} , β is the parameter of x_{ij} , and ε_{ij} is the random unobservable component of U_{ij} . ε_{ij} are assumed to be independent across respondents and countries, and assumed to follow the Type I Extreme Value distribution (Bonin & Schneider, 2006). The probability of respondent i choosing country m as destination could be presented as follows:

$$P_{im} = P[U_{im} > U_{ij}, \forall m \neq j] = \frac{\exp[x_{ij}\beta + \varepsilon_{ij}]}{\sum_{ij} \exp[x_{ij}\beta + \varepsilon_{ij}]}$$

The parameters in the observable component of the model can be estimated by maximum likelihood method.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents findings from the data analysis. Three sections are included in this chapter: the first section presents the demographic and tripographic profile of the respondents through descriptive statistics; the second section exhibits descriptive statistics reliability and correlations of research variables; hypothesis tests and results are provided in the third section.

4.1 Demographic and tripographic profiles

According to Table 4.1, the ratio of male to female respondents in this study was 55:45, which is relatively balanced. Most of the respondents are young-aged, with nearly 80% aged 20-34, namely the 80s and 90s generations; this is consistent with the UNWTO's report on Chinese outbound travel market: Chinese outbound travelers are relatively young (UNWTO, 2012). High education level is another obvious characteristic of the respondents: the majority of the respondents have received college graduate degree or above (82%), which is also consistent with the UNWTO report: over 80% of Chinese outbound travelers reportedly have at least a college degree (UNWTO, 2012). In terms of occupation, half of the respondents are employed full-time/part-time (50%), followed by students, accounting for 36.5% of the total sample. For monthly income, respondents who are students or housewives were investigated by monthly household income; all other occupations were recorded using monthly individual income. Overall, the majority of

respondents reported a monthly income between 4,000 and 19,999 RMB (52.5%), and which presumably generates a high disposal income and outbound travel demand.

Table 4.1

Demographic profile of the sample

Demographic	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	187	54.4
	Female	157	45.6
	Total	344	100
Age	18-19	17	4.9
	20-24	104	30.2
	25-29	120	34.9
	30-34	45	13.1
	35-39	20	5.8
	40-44	11	3.2
	45-49	10	2.9
	50-54	7	2.0
	55-59	4	1.2
	60-64	0	0
	65 or above	0	0
	Prefer not to say	6	1.7
	Total	344	100
Education	High School or less	17	4.9
	Technical/vocational high school	4	1.2
	Associate degree or some college	31	9.0
	College graduate	186	54.1
	Graduate work/Master's/ Doctoral degree	96	27.9
	Other	1	0.3
	Prefer not to say	9	2.6
	Total	344	100
Occupation	Employed full-time/part-time	171	50.0
	Housewife	4	1.2
	Freelancer	21	6.1
	Student	125	36.5
	Retired	1	0.3
	Temporarily unemployed/looking for work	1	0.3
	Other	4	1.2
	Prefer not to say	15	4.4
	Total	342	100
Monthly income	Below 2,000 RMB	14	4.1

2,000 to 3,999 RMB	40	11.7
4,000 to 6,999 RMB	67	19.5
7,000 to 9,999 RMB	63	18.4
10,000 to 19,999 RMB	50	14.6
20,000 to 29,999 RMB	16	4.7
30,000 to 39,999 RMB	7	2.0
40,000 to 49,999 RMB	11	3.2
50,000 RMB or above	6	1.7
Prefer not to say	69	20.1
Total	343	100

According to Table 4.2, over half of the respondents have some international travel experiences, i.e. they have taken at least one outbound trip and visited at least one foreign country. Still, a considerable number of respondents lack international travel experience: 43.7% have not traveled to any foreign countries before, over half of the respondents rated themselves as “very inexperienced” (51.5%), and very few respondents think themselves as “somewhat experienced” (4.1%) or “very experienced” (2.3%).

Table 4.2
Tripographic profile of the sample

Number of past outbound travel	Frequency	Percentage
0	150	43.5
1	63	18.3
2-3	71	20.6
4-5	19	5.5
6-10	16	4.6
Over 10	26	7.5
Total	345	100
Number of visited countries		
0	150	43.5
1	63	18.3
2-3	75	21.7
4-5	20	5.8
6-10	23	6.7
Over 10	14	4.1
Total	345	100
Self-reported international travel experience		
Very inexperienced	177	51.5
Somewhat inexperienced	95	27.6
About average	50	14.5
Somewhat experienced	14	4.1
Very experienced	8	2.3
Total	344	100

Respondents were asked to select one country that they are most likely to visit over the next two years from the listed 15 countries. As a result, United States was selected most frequently (17.4%), followed by Japan (13.3%) and Thailand (12.5%). Cambodia (1.2%), Vietnam (0.9%) and Russia (0.9%) were the three least popular countries for a leisure travel among the respondents. In terms of whether respondents have traveled to the listed 15 countries before, United States, Japan and Thailand also ranked as top three most visited countries, indicating the high popularity of these countries among Chinese tourists (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3

Destination choice and previous visitation of 15 destination countries

	Frequency	Percentage	Previous visitation (% of cases)
USA	60	17.4	37.3
Japan	46	13.3	36.1
Thailand	43	12.5	33.1
France	37	10.7	25.9
South Korea	28	8.1	30.1
Australia	27	7.8	11.4
Singapore	24	7.0	20.5
Switzerland	18	5.2	10.2
UK	17	4.9	18.7
Italy	16	4.6	16.9
Malaysia	13	3.8	17.5
Canada	6	1.7	16.3
Cambodia	4	1.2	10.2
Vietnam	3	0.9	15.1
Russia	3	0.9	9.0
Total	345	100	-

The listed 15 destination countries were measured on several perception attributes using a 5-point scale, including perceived cultural distance between China and the 15 destination countries (“Perceived CD” in Table 4.4), how difficult it is to adapt to the living environment of destination countries (“Adaptation” in Table 4.4), self-reported familiarity with destination countries (“Familiarity” in Table 4.4) and the amount of

tourism information respondents have heard regarding the 15 countries (“Information” in Table 4.4). The mean value of each attribute for each country is listed in Table 4.4; countries are listed in alphabetical order. According to the table, perceived cultural distance ranges from 2.62 to 4.12; France, USA and UK were perceived as the most culturally distant countries from China, while Malaysia, South Korea and Singapore were the most culturally similar countries. Despite the cultural differences, it seems to be not so difficult to adapt to the living environment of the destination countries: perceived difficulty of adaptation ranges from 2.37 to 3.51; Italy, France and Russia are perceived as most the difficult to adapt to. In terms of familiarity with destination countries, respondents are most familiar with Japan, South Korea and United States, while least familiar with Vietnam, Switzerland and Cambodia. Respondents knew more tourism-related information about South Korea, Japan and Thailand, while were less informed about Russia, Cambodia and Vietnam.

Table 4.4
Perception attributes by countries

Country	Perceived CD	Adaptation	Familiarity	Information
Australia	3.80	2.99	2.68	3.27
Cambodia	3.15	2.95	2.31	2.46
Canada	3.80	3.13	2.66	2.90
France	4.12	3.49	2.66	3.21
Italy	4.01	3.51	2.48	2.88
Japan	3.06	2.84	3.20	3.61
Malaysia	2.96	2.68	2.57	3.06
Russia	3.70	3.49	2.50	2.45
Singapore	2.62	2.37	2.95	3.31
South Korea	2.72	2.59	3.14	3.68
Switzerland	3.98	3.44	2.42	2.77
Thailand	3.10	2.77	2.88	3.57
UK	4.06	3.32	2.83	3.15
USA	4.08	3.12	3.13	3.46
Vietnam	2.99	2.91	2.44	2.47

Note: Perceived CD: 1= very small, 5 = very large;
Adaptation: 1 = very easy, 5 = very difficult;
Familiarity: 1 = very unfamiliar, 5 = very familiar;
Information: 1= very little, 5=very much.

4.2 Descriptive statistics, reliability and correlations of explanatory variables

Table 4.5 provides the descriptive statistics of all items involved in this study and reliability test results for each scale with more than one item. Cronbach's α coefficients range from 0.513 to 0.806, indicating an acceptable internal consistency of all the scales. Two scales were averaged based on the reliability test: the variable "perceived cultural distance" is coded as the average value of its two items, including perceived cultural distance and perceived difficulty of adaptation; variable "novelty-seeking" is coded as the average value of its nine items. Number of previous visitation is recoded as a dummy variable due to it is highly right skewed: 1 if respondents have visited the country before, 0 if not.

Table 4.5
Descriptive statistics and reliability test

Items	Mean	S.D.	Variables	Cronbach's α
Perceived cultural distance	3.48	1.07	Perceived cultural distance	0.624
Perceived difficulty of adaptation	3.04	1.02		
Self-reported familiarity	2.72	0.95	Familiarity	0.513
Amount of tourism information	3.08	1.07		
Previous visitation	0.16	0.689		
Experiencing a different culture	3.95	0.93	Novelty-seeking tendency	0.806
Local crafts and handiwork	3.20	0.99		
Local cuisine and new food	3.96	0.94		
Interesting and friendly local people	3.60	0.98		
Opportunity to see or experience people from different ethnic backgrounds	3.56	1.02		
Opportunity to see or experience unique aboriginal or native groups	3.45	1.05		
Opportunity to increase your knowledge about places, people, and things in this country	3.78	0.98		
A variety of things to see and do	3.83	.95		
Visiting a place you can talk about when you get home	3.40	1.06		
Perceived international travel experience	1.78	0.99	Past international travel experience	-
Great circle distance	5.46	3.07	Geographical distance	-

Table 4.6 provides correlations between any two independent variables and collinearity diagnostics results. It shows that all correlation coefficients are below 0.5, which indicates that there is little multicollinearity concern. A collinearity diagnostic analysis is conducted to further detect multicollinearity concerns. Indicator VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) examines whether a predictor has a strong linear relationship with other predictors, and a value less than 10 suggests low multicollinearity (Myers, 1990). Another indicator of multicollinearity is tolerance, which indicates the amount of collinearity that a regression analysis can tolerate. The larger the tolerance is the better and a value below 0.2 may lead to collinearity concerns (Menard, 1995). Seen from the table, all VIFs are below 1.5 and tolerance values are greater than 0.7, indicating that there are no major multicollinearity concerns among the seven independent variables.

Table 4.6

Correlation analysis and collinearity diagnostics

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	VIF	Tolerance	R ²	Eigenval	Cond Index
CD	1							1.23	0.814	0.186	1.851	1
Visit	-.110**	1						1.22	0.819	0.181	1.303	1.192
Info	-.149**	.171**	1					1.24	0.804	0.197	1.100	1.2971
Fami	-.193**	.232**	.419**	1				1.28	0.782	0.218	0.970	1.3811
Experience	-.112**	.380**	.137**	.139**	1			1.18	0.846	0.154	0.630	1.7143
Novelty	-.005	-.011	.085**	.026	.003	1		1.01	0.992	0.008	0.592	1.7688
GeoD	.364**	.007	.036*	.014	.000	.000	1	1.17	0.856	0.144	0.554	1.828
Mean VIF	1.19											Condition number 1.828

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Note: For the sake of brevity, all variables were abbreviated: CD: perceived cultural distance; Visit: dummy-coded variable of number of previous visitation; Info: amount of tourism information; Fami: self-reported familiarity; Experience: perceived international travel experience; Novelty: novelty-seeking tendency, aggregated using mean value of a 9-item scale; GeoD: geographical distance.

4.3 Hypothesis testing

4.3.1 The baseline model

The first model contains all alternative-specific variables, including perceived cultural distance, previous visitation, amount of tourism information, familiarity and geographical distance. According to Table 4.7, “CD” has a negative but insignificant impact on destination choice. All other variables in this model are reported to be significant in predicting destination choice; among them, “Info” ($p < 0.0001$), “Fami” ($p < 0.0001$) and “GeoD” ($p < 0.0001$) have positive impacts on destination choice, meaning that respondents are more likely to choose a country which they have more tourism information about, which they are more familiar with, or with a larger geographical distance. Previous visitation ($p = 0.030$) has a significant negative impact on destination choice, indicating that respondents would more likely to visit a destination they have not been to before.

Table 4.7

Model 1

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z 	Model Summary	
CD	-0.067	0.089	-0.75	0.452	Log likelihood	-835.838
Visit	-0.479	0.221	-2.17	0.030	Wald chi2(6)	136.03
Info	0.728	0.085	8.56	0.000	Prob > chi2	0.000
Fami	0.335	0.088	3.8	0.000	AIC	1681.675
GeoD	0.074	0.020	3.79	0.000	BIC	1714.346
					Obs	5085

4.3.2 Testing moderating effect of experiential familiarity

Hypothesis 2 states that level of familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice. Specifically, Hypothesis 2a states that experiential familiarity with destination country

has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice. Experiential familiarity, i.e. previous visitation, was introduced as a moderator in Model 2. An interaction item was generated by multiplying “CD” and “Visit”. Results show that when the interaction term was included in the model, all of “CD” “CD*Visit” and “Visit” became insignificant, indicating that previous visitation has no significant moderating effect on “CD” and destination choice. Therefore, Hypothesis 2a is not supported in this model.

Table 4.8

Model 2

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z 	Model Summary	
CD	-0.059	0.091	-0.64	0.520	Log likelihood	-835.777
CD*Visit	-0.078	0.223	-0.35	0.727	Wald chi2(6)	136.04
Visit	-0.245	0.700	-0.35	0.726	Prob > chi2	0.000
Info	0.728	0.085	8.56	0.000	AIC	1683.553
Fami	0.338	0.088	3.82	0.000	BIC	1722.757
GeoD	0.074	0.020	3.79	0.000	Obs	5085

4.3.3 Testing moderating effect of informational familiarity

Hypothesis 2b states that informational familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice. Informational familiarity is measured by the amount of tourism information respondents have obtained regarding each destination country. In order to test whether it has a moderating effect on the relationship between “CD” and destination choice, an interaction of “CD” and “Info” is incorporated in Model 3. Results show that “Info” is still significant ($p=0.001$), but “CD” ($p=0.98$) and “CD*Info” ($p=0.801$) are not significant in explaining destination choice, thus amount of tourism information has

insignificant moderating effect on “CD” and destination choice, Hypothesis 2b is rejected.

Table 4.9

Model 3

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z 	Model Summary	
CD	-0.005	0.261	-0.02	0.985	Log likelihood	-835.806
CD*Info	-0.017	0.067	-0.25	0.801	Wald chi2(6)	136.24
Visit	-0.478	0.221	-2.17	0.030	Prob > chi2	0.000
Info	0.783	0.234	3.35	0.001	AIC	1683.612
Fami	0.335	0.088	3.8	0.000	BIC	1722.816
GeoD	0.074	0.020	3.79	0.000	Obs	5085

4.3.4 Testing moderating effect of self-reported familiarity

A third dimension of familiarity is measured by self-reported overall familiarity with the destination countries. H2c states that self-rated familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice. A product term of “CD” and “Fami” is included in Model 4. Similar to Model 4, “CD” (p=0.560) and “CD*Fami” (p=0.345) are not statistically significant, but “Fami” is still significant in predicting destination choice (p=0.023). Hypothesis 2c is rejected in this model.

Table 4.10

Model 4

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z 	Model Summary	
CD	0.135	0.231	0.58	0.560	Log likelihood	-835.393
CD*Fami	-0.065	0.069	-0.94	0.345	Wald chi2(6)	136.97
Visit	-0.477	0.221	-2.16	0.031	Prob > chi2	0.000
Info	0.731	0.085	8.58	0.000	AIC	1682.787
Fami	0.546	0.240	2.27	0.023	BIC	1721.991
GeoD	0.075	0.020	3.82	0.000	Obs	5085

4.3.5 Testing moderating effect of geographical distance

It is predicated that geographical distance between home country and destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice in Hypothesis 3. Hence geographical distance is incorporated in Model 5 as a moderator. Results illustrate that “CD” ($p=0.042$) is significant and negative in predicting destination choice, and interaction term “CD*GeoD” ($p=0.051$) is marginally significant and positive in predicting destination choice. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is supported in this model.

Table 4.11

Model 5

	Coef.	Std. Err.	Z	P> z 	Model Summary	
CD	-0.324	0.159	-2.04	0.042	Log likelihood	-833.928
CD*GeoD	0.048	0.024	1.95	0.051	Wald chi2(6)	139.86
Visit	-0.475	0.221	-2.15	0.031	Prob > chi2	0.000
Info	0.720	0.085	8.45	0.000	AIC	1679.857
Fami	0.321	0.088	3.64	0.000	BIC	1719.061
GeoD	-0.083	0.083	-0.99	0.321	Obs	5085

In order to see the moderating effect of geographical distance on “CD” and destination choice more clearly, the predicted probabilities for selecting each country were plotted against perceived cultural distance in Figure 4.1 and 4.2. The 15 countries were divided into two groups by mean of “GeoD”. Figure 4.1 exhibits the predicted probabilities of eight countries with smaller geographical distance from China being selected, such as Japan, South Korea etc., and Figure 4.2 exhibits the predicted probabilities of seven countries that are further from China being selected, like United States and Canada. The line graphs show that when geographical distance is small, respondents are more likely to choose culturally similar destinations; while when

geographical distance is large, there is no big difference for most countries in terms of perceived cultural distance. The exception of United States, which shows an obvious positive relationship between predicted probabilities and perceived cultural distance, could be affected by other factors, like familiarity and awareness of the country.

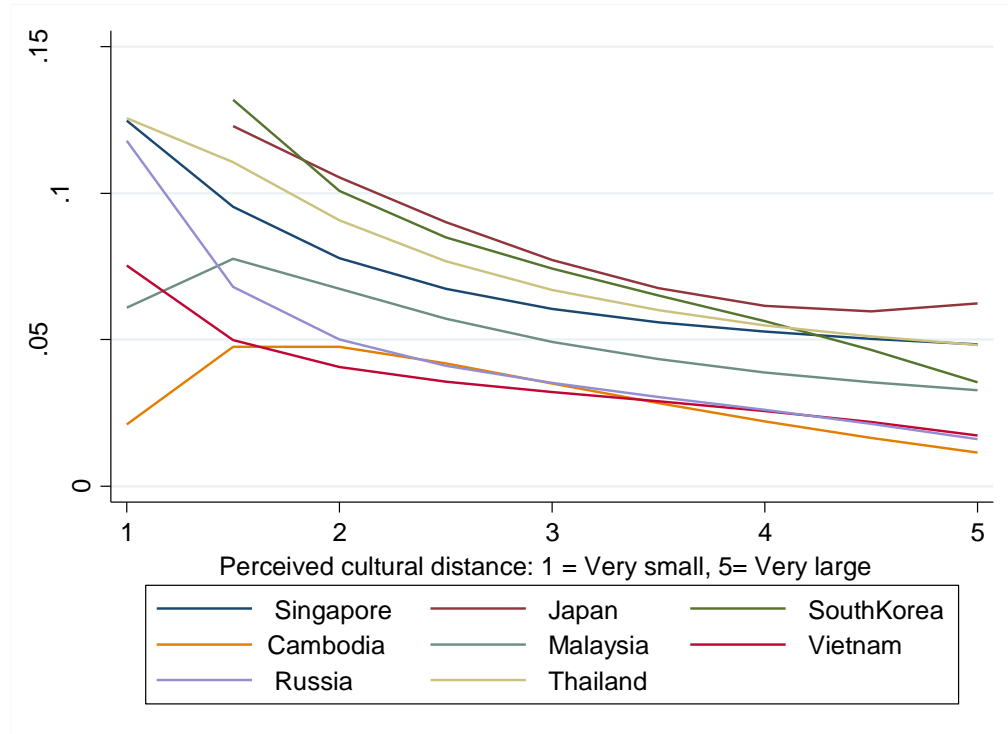


Figure 4.1 Predicted probabilities by country (regional travel)

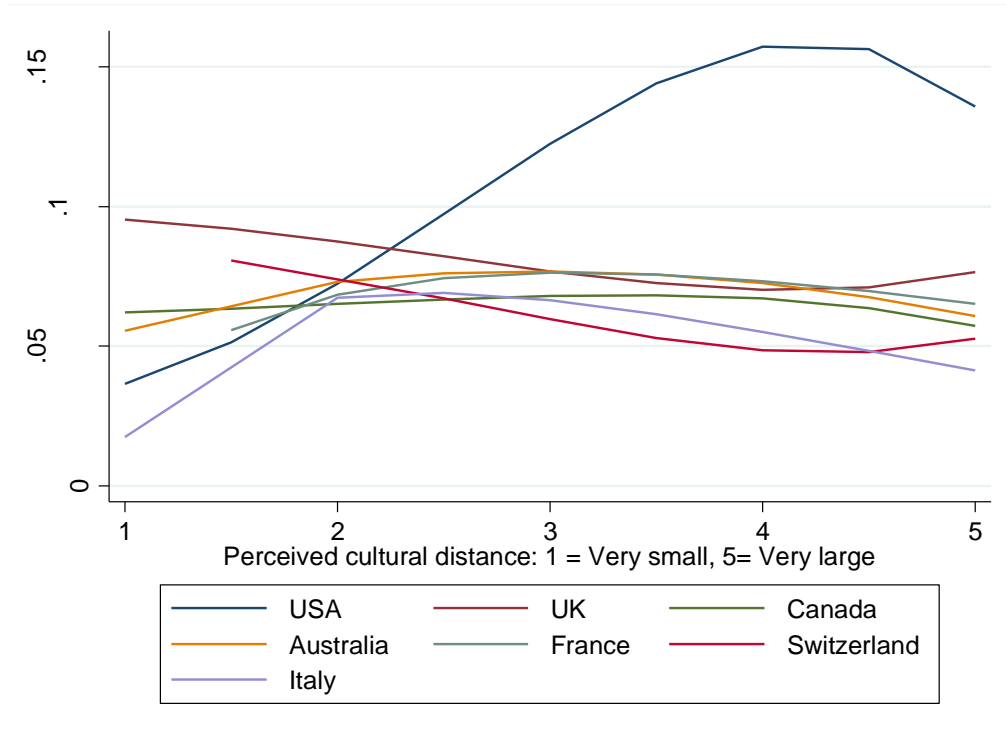


Figure 4.2 Predicted probabilities by country (long-haul travel)

4.3.6 Testing moderating effect of past international travel experience

Hypothesis 4 states that past international travel experience has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice. An interaction term of “CD” and “Experience” is introduced in Model 6 in order to examine the moderating effect of perceived past international travel experience. Results show that neither “CD” ($p=0.161$) nor the interaction term ($p=0.327$) is significant in predicting destination choice.

Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is not supported in this model.

Table 4.12

Model 6

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	Model Summary	
CD	-0.260	0.186	-1.4	0.161	Log likelihood	-800.868
CD*					Wald chi2(6)	172.49
Experience	0.093	0.095	0.98	0.327	Prob > chi2	0.000
Visit	-0.651	0.229	-2.84	0.004	AIC	1641.736
Info	0.601	0.088	6.82	0.000	BIC	1772.358
Fami	0.274	0.091	3.02	0.003	Obs	5070
GeoD	0.086	0.039	2.19	0.029		

4.3.7 Testing moderating effect of novelty-seeking tendency

Novelty-seeking tendency is hypothesized to have a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice in Hypothesis 5. In Model 7, a product term of “CD” and “Novelty” is included to test Hypothesis 5. According to the model estimates, both CD ($p=0.035$) and the interaction term ($p=0.048$) have a significant effect on destination choice at a 0.05 significance level. The negative role of perceived cultural distance on destination choice is largely enhanced under the moderating effect of novelty-seeking ($b=-1.062$). The predicted probabilities of selecting destination countries for low level of novelty-seeking and high level of novelty-seeking were plotted separately: respondents whose novelty-seeking is below the mean (3.63) are regarded as “Low novelty-seeking”, and those have a novelty-seeking above 3.63 are regarded as “High novelty-seeking”. As can be seen from Figure 4.3, there is an obvious negative relationship between perceived cultural distance and destination choice among respondents with a low level of novelty-seeking tendency, while people who are more novelty-seeking have no significant preference in cultural difference while selecting a destination country. As a result, novelty-seeking has a significant moderating effect on perceived cultural distance and destination choice, hence Hypothesis 5 cannot be rejected.

Table 4.13

Model 7

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	Model Summary	
CD	-1.062	0.504	-2.11	0.035	Log likelihood	-790.762
CD*Novelty	0.267	0.135	1.97	0.048	Wald chi2(6)	182.82
Visit	-0.608	0.223	-2.73	0.006	Prob > chi2	0.000
Info	0.547	0.090	6.09	0.000	AIC	1621.524
Fami	0.250	0.092	2.72	0.006	BIC	1752.205
GeoD	0.072	0.113	0.64	0.521	Obs	5085

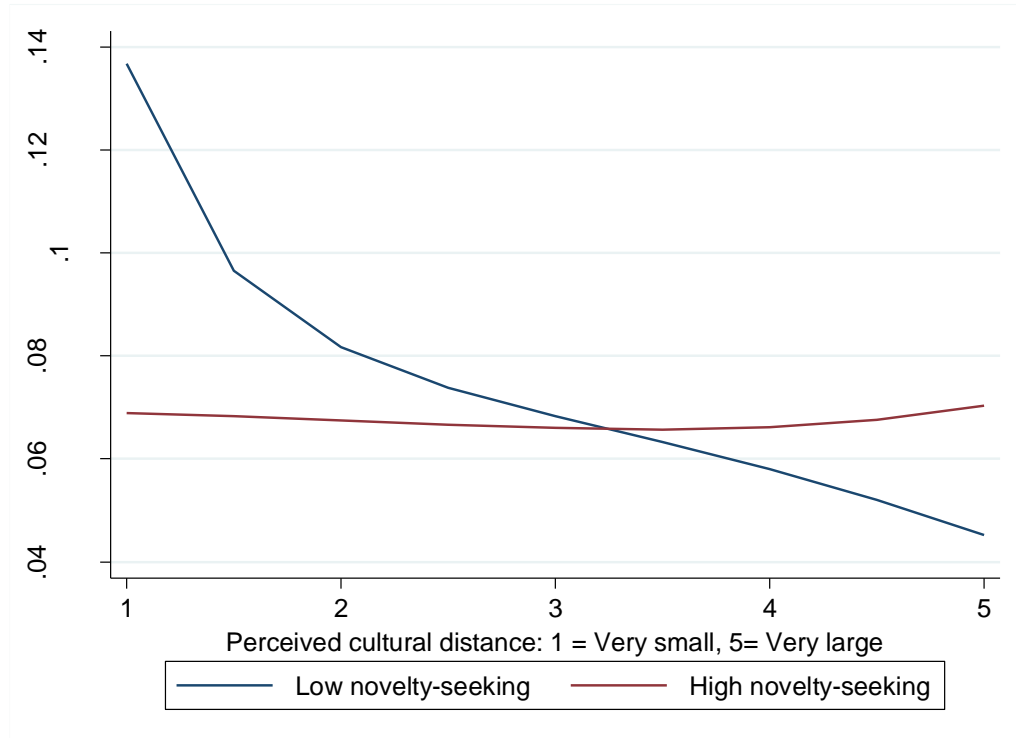


Figure 4.3 Predicted probabilities by level of novelty-seeking

4.3.8 Summary

In total seven models were built to examine the impact of perceived cultural distance on destination choice and the moderating effects of potential moderators (see Table 4.14). All of the seven models are significant and have a good model fit. When all predictors are included in Model 1, “CD” is negative but not significant. When moderators are introduced in the model, “CD” remains negative, except when moderated by self-reported familiarity. “CD” has a significant, negative effect on destination choice when moderated by geographical distance and novelty-seeking. Therefore Hypothesis 1 is partially supported.

Model 2 to Model 7 are constructed to test the moderating effects of potential moderators, including experiential familiarity, informational familiarity, self-reported familiarity, geographical distance, past international travel experience and novelty-

seeking tendency. Among these models, interaction terms “CD*GeoD” (Model 5), and “CD*Novelty” (Model 7) are significant in predicting destination choice, indicating that geographical distance and novelty-seeking have significant moderating effects on the relationship of perceived cultural distance and destination choice. To be specific, when geographical distance is small, respondents are more likely to choose culturally similar destinations, and respondents with a low level of novelty-seeking are more likely to choose culturally similar countries as destinations. A summary of hypothesis test results are described in Table 4.15.

Table 4.14

Summary of Model 1 –Model 7

	Model 1	Model 2	Model3	Model4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
CD	-0.067	-0.059	-0.005	0.135	-0.324**	-0.260	-1.062**
Visit	-0.479**	-0.245	-0.478**	-0.477**	-0.475**	-0.651***	-0.608***
Info	0.728***	0.728***	0.783***	0.731***	0.720***	0.601***	0.547***
Fami	0.335***	0.338***	0.335***	0.546**	0.321***	0.274***	0.250***
GeoD	0.074***	0.074***	0.074***	0.075***	-0.083	0.086**	0.072
CD*Visit		-0.078					
CD*Info			-0.017				
CD*Fami				-0.065			
CD*GeoD					0.048*		
CD*Experience						0.093	
CD*Novelty							0.267**
Log likelihood	-835.838	-835.777	-835.806	-835.393	-833.928	-800.868	-790.762
Wald chi2	136.03***	136.04***	136.24***	136.97***	139.86***	172.49***	182.82***
AIC	1681.675	1683.553	1683.612	1682.787	1679.857	1641.736	1621.524
BIC	1714.346	1722.757	1722.816	1721.991	1719.061	1772.358	1752.205
Obs	5085	5085	5085	5085	5085	5070	5085

Note: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01

Table 4.15*Hypothesis test results*

	Hypothesis	Test results
H₁	<i>Tourists are more likely to choose culturally similar countries as destinations.</i>	Partially supported
H₂	<i>Level of familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>	Not supported
H_{2a}	<i>Experiential familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>	Not supported
H_{2b}	<i>Informational familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>	Not supported
H_{2c}	<i>Self-rated familiarity with destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>	Not supported
H₃	<i>Geographical distance between home country and destination country has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>	Supported
H₄	<i>Past international travel experience has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>	Not supported
H₅	<i>Novelty-seeking tendency has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice.</i>	Supported

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter provides a summary of the study findings and discussion based on the data analysis results; implications, limitations and suggestions for future studies are presented after the discussion.

5.1 Review of key findings

Taking potential Chinese outbound leisure travelers as a case study, this study mainly explored the impact of perceived cultural distance on destination choice, particularly, this study focused on the impacts of selected moderators on the relationship between perceived cultural distance and destination choice. Moderators involved in this study include familiarity (experiential familiarity, informational familiarity, self-rated familiarity), geographical distance, past international travel experience and novelty-seeking tendency. This empirical study concluded that perceived cultural distance could have a negative effect in predicting Chinese tourists' international destination choice in the presence of selected moderators; experiential familiarity, informational familiarity, self-rated familiarity and past international travel experience failed to show significant moderating effects on the relationship between perceived cultural distance and destination choice; geographical distance and novelty-seeking tendency are confirmed to moderate the effects of cultural distance on destination choice, and the negative effect of perceived cultural distance is greatly enhanced when geographical distance is smaller and novelty-seeking tendency is lower.

Perceived cultural distance

Most of the models (except Model 4) showed a negative coefficient of perceived cultural distance, that is, perceived cultural distance has a negative impact on destination choice, which is consistent with most of previous studies (Jackson, 2000; Ng et al., 2007, 2009; Yang & Wong, 2012). Using a sample of tourists from a typical collectivist country, this study fails to confirm the conclusion from Jackson's (2001) study, which reported a positive relationship between cultural distance and destination choice among tourists from highly collectivist countries.

However, the coefficient of CD is not significant in most models, except when geographical distance and novelty-seeking tendency are included as moderators (Model 5 and Model 7). This could be attributed to several reasons: first of all, although the reliability test shows an acceptable α coefficient (0.624) for the measurement of perceived cultural distance, this study did not go through a rigorous scale development procedure. Two items were used for measuring perceived cultural distance from two separate studies; on one hand, the inconsistency between the two items may affect the results, and on the other hand, two items may be not enough to cover all aspects of cultural differences, as culture is such a broad and complex concept. Secondly, perceptual or self-report measures may contain some biases (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002; Drogendijk & Slangen, 2006). Different respondents might have different understandings and different rating standards to the same question; some respondents might also have certain habits while answering scale questions, like extreme values or central tendency (Tellis & Chandrasekaran, 2010), response bias like this would certainly affect the consistency and validity of the data, and further affect the data analysis results. Thirdly,

the small sample size (345) may be another reason leading to the insignificant coefficients of perceived cultural distance. Overall, it appears the findings regarding the role of cultural distance in destination selection remain inconclusive, which warrants further research attention.

Familiarity

Familiarity has three dimensions: experiential familiarity (i.e. previous visitation), informational familiarity (i.e. amount of tourism information) and self-rated overall familiarity. Model 1 reported significant but mixed impacts among the three dimensions on destination choice: experiential familiarity has a significant negative impact on destination choice, while informational familiarity and self-rated familiarity has significant positive impacts on destination choice. In other words, tourists are more likely to visit an outbound destinations that they have not been to before, and they are more likely to choose countries that they have more information or are more acquainted with. The results are not necessarily contradictory. Previous literature also suggests individual tourists rarely revisit international destinations (McKercher & Guillet, 2011), even when they revisit the same country, they are very likely to switch to different destinations in the same country from their previous visit (Lee & Tussyadiah, 2012). Thus, it is not surprising that tourists are more likely to visit a country that they have not been to before. For the other two dimensions, a certain amount of information and some familiarity is necessary during the destination choice process, through which they could judge whether a country is worthy of visiting or not. Even after the destination decision, they still need to collect more specific information in order to reduce uncertainty and improve their travel experience. In addition, the halo effect may be another reason, Chinese tourists are

more likely to visit famous and popular destinations, and they tend to be more familiar with those famous and popular destination countries such as the United States, Thailand and South Korea.

Geographical distance

Geographical distance is reported to have a significant and positive impact on tourists' destination choice. This conclusion could be delimited to the 15 destination countries used in this study, as previous literature indicated mixed results regarding the impact of geographical distance on tourism demand: (1) in the famous Distance Decay theory, tourism demand decreases along with the increase of geographical distance (Bull, 1991; Eldridge & Jones, 1991); (2) some empirical studies found that there is a threshold in the demand curve, namely, geographical distance is positive in predicting destination choice at first, after and certain threshold, the relationship between geographical distance and tourism demand becomes negative (Greer & Wall, 1979; Bull, 1991; McKercher, 1998); (3) however, most recently researchers found that more fluctuations may exist after the first threshold in the tourism demand curve (McKercher & Lew, 2003; Lee et al., 2012), which makes the relationship between geographical distance and destination choice much more complicated. The mixed results about the role of geographical distance in predicting destination choice make it an interesting topic worthy of more exploration.

This study also reveals that geographical distance has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between perceived cultural distance and destination choice: tourists are more likely to choose culturally similar destinations among the countries that are geographically closer to China; when geographical distance is beyond a certain threshold, the impact of cultural distance on destination choice becomes weak. The

United States stands out as an exception— as a country far from China, it shows an obvious positive relationship between perceived cultural distance and destination choice. This might be affected by other factors, such as the popularity of American culture and entertainment among Chinese tourists.

Past international travel experience

Past international travel experience was speculated as potential moderator of cultural distance and destination choice. However, this study failed to support that international travel experience has a statistically significant moderating effect on the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice. This is could be due to the fact that the majority of the respondents lack outbound travel experience. To further study the moderating effect of international travel experience, more experienced outbound travelers need to be included in future studies.

Novelty-seeking tendency

The hypothesis that novelty-seeking tendency has a moderating effect on the relationship between perceived cultural distance and destination choice is well supported in this study, meaning the negative impact of perceived cultural distance on destination choice could be elevated under the moderating effect of novelty-seeking tendency. More specifically, tourists who have a lower level of novelty-seeking tendency tend to choose culturally similar countries as destinations, while there is no obvious preference in terms of cultural difference for those who have a higher level of novelty-seeking tendency while selecting a destination. According to previous literature, people who have a higher novelty-seeking tendency might be more likely to choose culturally distant countries as destinations, as they are more adventurous, outgoing and explorative (Plog, 1974, 2001;

Reisinger, 2009). However, this study found the negative effect of cultural distance is weakened when novelty-seeking tendency is high, instead of the positive relationship inferred in previous literature. The effect of high level of novelty-seeking could be more salient when a larger sample size is employed.

5.2 Managerial implications

Although a convenience sampling method was used in this study, the sample turned out to be relatively representative of the Chinese outbound travel market: young, well educated, with relatively higher income, which is consistent with the UNWTO report on Chinese outbound travel market (UNWTO, 2012). As such, the study results could provide some meaningful marketing intelligence for destination marketers who target Chinese market. The demographic information shows that young people is dominating the Chinese outbound travel market, specifically people between 20 to 35 years old, who are generally born after 1980s (Generation Y). Unlike most Chinese travelers who prefer group tours (Wong & Lau, 2001), Chinese youth tend to prefer individual travel. Grown up in the internet era, the young generation are more tech-savvy— they can share their travel experience and search for tourism information anywhere at any time, meanwhile they are passionate to do so, and they are increasingly sophisticated at travel planning (Jin, Lin, & Hung, 2014; Thraenhart, 2012). Therefore, destination marketers should take advantage of new technology, such as social media marketing, and provide more self-organized and customized outbound travel products for Chinese young travelers. In addition, alternative tourism activities are also favored by young travelers, like volunteer tourism, backpacking, etc., as they seek for unique and memorable experiences and more interaction with locals. Another obvious characteristic

of the Chinese outbound travel market could be the lack of outbound travel experience, and the majority of the potential outbound travelers have no previous outbound travel experience. Tourists in this segment tend to start with regional trips to closer regions and countries, like Hong Kong, South Korea and Japan, etc.; they usually start outbound travel with package tours and famous destinations (Lui, Kuo, Fung, Jap, & Hsu, 2011). Hence, destination marketers targeting this market segment should work on improving the awareness and popularity of their destinations, and promote their traditional products including those must-go destinations in each country, for example, Paris in France and Eiffel Tower in Paris.

Seen from a cultural distance perspective, destination marketers should develop different marketing and product strategies for source markets with smaller and greater cultural distance. For those tourists who come from cultural distant countries, destination marketers should highlight the differences and uniqueness of tourism resources, but also make tourists feel comfortable in a culturally distant environment, as cultural differences could act more as a travel constraint than motivation. Outbound tourism products designed to meet Chinese tourists' expectations and preferences, will help improve Chinese tourists' travel experience and satisfaction (Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline, & Wang, 2011).

Results show that tourists are more likely to visit destinations that they are more familiar with, as Chinese tourists tend to flock to famous and trendy destinations, so destination marketers need to improve the destination countries' awareness and popularity among Chinese tourists, in order to increase the probability of being selected. In addition, Chinese tourists are more likely to choose countries that they have not been

to before, indicating that destination marketers need to develop different strategies for first-timers and repeat visitors based on the different motivations and preferences of the two groups: first-time visitors are more likely to visit famous destinations, while repeat visitors may switch to other destinations in the same country that they have not been to previously (Li, Cheng, Kim, & Patrick, 2008).

5.3 Limitations and future research

Theoretically, this study makes a contribution in examining the empirical significance of existing studies and providing new insights in understanding destination choice from a cultural distance perspective. Yet this study clearly contains several limitations. Firstly, in terms of sampling, the sample size (345) is relatively small, and convenience sampling is less than ideal. Future studies could use a larger sample size and employ random sampling—once the sampling frame becomes available— in order to improve the generalizability of the findings. Secondly, the measurement of perceived cultural distance did not go through a rigorous scale development procedure, which could be one possible reason for the insignificant effect of perceived cultural distance in most models. Further studies need to modify and improve the perceptual measurement of cultural distance. Thirdly, due to the restriction of conditional logit model used in this study, only 15 countries are involved in the choice alternatives, which could not reflect tourists' actual destination choices. Future studies could explore other methods that could include more choice alternatives and make the destination choice data closer to reality. Fourthly, stated destination choice over the next two years is not necessarily equal to actual behavior, as future intentions could be overstated (Ewing, 2000; Chandon, Morwitz, & Reinartz, 2005; McKercher & Tse, 2012). Tourists may also change their

mind due to many other factors while they are really making the decisions. Future studies can include past outbound travelers as a control group in the study of cultural distance and destination choice. Lastly, this study only include perceived cultural distance and four moderators in the model. It is possible that other factors may be omitted from the model, as destination choice could be affected by many factors. It is necessary to test more other factors as potential moderators in order to get a more comprehensive understanding of the impact of cultural distance on destination choice. In addition, most of the respondents in this study had no outbound travel experience. More experienced outbound tourists could be involved in future studies to test the robustness of the findings.

In conclusion, this study could make an important contribution to the current few attempts on cultural distance and destination choice. This study provided empirical evidences that, cultural distance measured through a perceptual approach also has a negative impact on international destination choice, which is consistent with most of previous studies on this topic (Jackson, 2000; Ng et al. 2007, 2009; Yang & Wong, 2012). Taking potential outbound tourists from a highly collectivistic country as a case study, it failed to confirm the findings in Jackson's (2001) study that people from highly collectivist countries are more likely to choose culturally distant countries as destinations. However, it provided a new perspective to understand cultural distance and destination choice and showed that the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice could be moderated by other factors, such as geographical distance and tourists' novelty-seeking tendency in this study. The author believes that more factors could be explored

in future studies in order to obtain a deeper understanding of cultural distance and destination choice.

REFERENCES

- Ahn, T., Ekinci, Y. & Li, G. (2013). Self-congruence, functional congruence, and destination choice. *Journal of Business Research*, 66 (6), 719-723.
- Anand, J., & Delios, A. (1997). Location specificity and the transferability of downstream assets to foreign subsidiaries. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 28(3), 579-603.
- Babiker, I. E., Cox, J. L., & Miller, P. M. (1980). The measurement of cultural distance and its relationship to medical consultations, symptomatology and examination performance of overseas students at Edinburgh University. *Social Psychiatry*, 15(3), 109-116.
- Baloglu, S. (2001). Image variations of Turkey by familiarity index: informational and experiential dimensions. *Tourism Management*, 22(2), 127-133.
- Basala, S. L., & Klenosky, D. B. (2001). Travel-style preferences for visiting a novel destination: A conjoint investigation across the novelty-familiarity continuum. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(2), 172-182.
- Berry, H., Guillén, M. F., & Zhou, N. (2010). An institutional approach to cross-national distance. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41(9), 1460-1480.
- Bonin, H., & Schneider, H. (2006). Analytical prediction of transition probabilities in the conditional logit model. *Economics Letters*, 90(1), 102-107.
- Boyacigille, N. (1990). The role of expatriates in the management of interdependence, complexity and risk in multinational corporations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 21(3), 357-381.
- Brouthers, K. D., & Brouthers, L. E. (2001). Explaining the national cultural distance paradox. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(1), 177-189.
- Bull, A. (1991). *The economics of travel and tourism*. Pitman: Melbourne.
- Byrne, D., & Nelson, D. (1965). Attraction as a linear function of proportion of positive reinforcements. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1(6), 659-663.
- Carneiro, M. J., & Crompton, J. L. (2010). The Influence of involvement, familiarity and constraints on the search for information about destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(4), 451-470.

- Central Intelligence Agency (2014). World Fact Book, retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2011.html>
- Chandon, P., Morwitz, V. G., & Reinartz, W. J. (2005). Do intentions really predict behavior? Self-generated validity effects in survey research. *Journal of Marketing*, 69 (2), 1-14.
- Chang, S. J., & Rosenzweig, P. M. (2001). The choice of entry mode in sequential foreign direct investment. *Strategic Management Journal*, 22(8), 747–776.
- Chang, Y-C., Kao, M-S., Kuo, A., & Chiu, C-F. (2012). How cultural distance influences entry mode choice: the contingent role of host country's governance quality. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(8), 1160-1170.
- China National Tourism Administration (2013). China's Tourism Statistical Bulletin. Retrieved from <http://www.cnta.gov.cn/html/2013-9/2013-9-12-%7B@hur%7D-39-08306.html>
- China Webmaster (2013, December 16). Retrieved from <http://top.chinaz.com/>
- Chirkov, V. I., Lynch, M., & Niwa, S. (2005). Application of the scenario questionnaire of horizontal and vertical individualism and collectivism to the assessment of cultural distance and cultural fit. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 29(4), 469-490.
- Cho, K. R., & Padmanabhan, P. (2005). Revisiting the role of cultural distance in MNC's foreign ownership mode choice: the moderating effect of experience attributes. *International Business Review*, 14(3), 307-324.
- Clark, T., & Pugh, D. S. (2001). Foreign country priorities in the internationalization process: a measure and an exploratory test on British firms. *International Business Review*, 10(3), 285–303.
- Cohen, E. (1972). Towards a sociology of international tourism. *Social Research*, 39(1), 164-182.
- Crompton, J. L. (1977). *A system model of the tourist's destination selection decision process with particular reference to the role of image and perceived constraints*. Ph.D. dissertation. Texas A&M University, College Station.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4), 408-424.
- Crompton, J. L. (1992). Structure of vacation destination choice sets. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(3), 420-434.
- Crompton, J. L., & Ankomah, P. K. (1993). Choice set propositions in destination decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(3), 461-476.

- Crotts, J. C. (2004). The effect of cultural distance on overseas travel behaviors. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(1), 83-88.
- Crotts, J., & R. Erdmann (2000). Does national culture influence consumers' evaluations of travel services? A test of Hofstede's model of cross-cultural differences. *Managing Service Quality*, 10 (6), 410-419.
- Crouch, G. I. (1994). The study of international tourism demand: A review of findings. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33(1), 12-23.
- Dann, G. M. S. (1996). Tourist images of a destination: An alternative analysis. In D. R. Fesenmaier, J. T. O'Leary, & M. Uysal, *Recent advances in tourism marketing research*(pp. 41-55). New York: The Haworth Press.
- Dikova, D., & Rao Sahib, P. (2013). Is cultural distance a bane or a boon for cross-border acquisition performance? *Journal of World Business*, 48(1), 77-86.
- Donaldson, S. I., & Grant-Vallone, E. J. (2002). Understanding self-report bias in organizational behavior research. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 17(2), 245-260.
- Drogendijk, R., & Slangen, A. (2006). Hofstede, Schwartz, or managerial perceptions? The effects of different cultural distance measures on establishment mode choices by multinational enterprises. *International Business Review*, 15(4), 361-380.
- Du, J., Lu, Y., & Tao, Z. (2012). Institutions and FDI location choice: The role of cultural distances. *Journal of Asian Economics*, 23(3), 210-223.
- Erramilli, M. K., & Rao, C. P. (1993). Service firms' international entry-mode choice: a modified transaction-cost analysis approach. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(3), 19-38.
- Ewing, M. T. (2000). Brand and retailer loyalty: past behavior and future intentions. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 9(2), 120-127.
- Faison, E. (1977). The neglected variety drive: A useful concept for consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 4(3), 172-175.
- Fletcher, R., & Bohn, J. (1998). The impact of psychic distance on the internationalisation of the Australian firm. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 12(2), 47-68.
- Fletcher, R., & Bohn, J. (1998). The Impact of Psychic Distance on the Internationalisation of the Australian Firm. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 12(2), 47-68.
- Fridgen, J. D. (1987). Use of cognitive maps to determine perceived tourism region. *Leisure Sciences*, 9(2), 101-117.

- Froese, F. J., & Peltokorpi, V. (2011). Cultural distance and expatriate job satisfaction. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 35(1), 49-60.
- Galchenko, I., & van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2007). The role of perceived cultural distance in the acculturation of exchange students in Russia. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 31(2), 181-197.
- Gales, L. (2008). The role of culture in technology management research: National Character and Cultural Distance frameworks. *Journal of Engineering and Technology Management*, 25(1-2), 3-22.
- Greer, T., & Wall, G. (1979). Recreational Hinterlands: Atheoretical and empirical analysis. In G. Wall (ed.), *Recreational land use in Southern Ontario* (pp.227–246). Department of Geography, University of Waterloo.
- Groeschl, S., & Doherty, L. (2000). Conceptualizing culture. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 7(4), 12-17.
- Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond culture*. New York: Doubleday.
- Heatwole, C. (2006) Culture: A geographical perspective. In *World Communities: What Is a Culture? An Online teacher resource guide for grade 3 social studies*. The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department, Albany, New York.
- Hill, T. H. (2000). Investigating cognitive distance and long-haul destinations. *Tourism Analysis*, 5, 83-90.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: international difference in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: sage publications.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. London, UK: McGraw-Hill.
- Hofstede, G., & M. H. Bond (1988). The Confucius connection: From cultural roots to economic growth. *Organizational Dynamics*, 16(4), 5-21.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hsu, T.-K., Tsai, Y.-F., & Wu, H.-H. (2009). The preference analysis for tourist choice of destination: A case study of Taiwan. *Tourism Management*, 30(2), 288-297.
- Hu, Y., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1993). Measuring destination attractiveness: A contextual

- approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(2), 25-34.
- Inglehart, R. & Welzel, C. (2005). *Modernization, cultural change and democracy: The human development sequence*. Cambridge University Press: New York.
- Inglehart, R. (1997). *Modernization and postmodernization: Cultural, economic and political change in 43 societies*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Inglehart, R., & Baker, W. E. (2000). Modernization, cultural change, and the persistence of traditional values. *American Sociological Review*, 65(1), 19-51.
- Inglehart, R., Basañez, M. & Moreno, A. (1998). *Human values and beliefs: A cross-cultural sourcebook*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Jackson, M. (2000). Predicting Australian mass tourism flow using Hofstede's cultural model. In: M. Ewen (Ed.). *CAUTHE 2000: Peak Performance in Tourism and Hospitality Research; Proceedings of the Tenth Australian Tourism and Hospitality Research Conference*. Bundoora: School of Tourism and Hospitality, La Trobe University.
- Jackson, M. (2001). Cultural influences on tourist destination choices of 21 Pacific Rim nations. *Proceedings of the 11th Australian Tourism and Hospitality Research Conference, CAUTHE 2001: Capitalising on Research*. Canberra, Australia: University of Canberra Press.
- Jang, S. C. & Feng, R. (2007). Temporal destination revisit intention: The effects of novelty seeking and satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, 28(2), 580-590.
- Jeong, C. (2009). *Effects of exposure time to travel information sources on familiarity, destination image, and intention to visit*. Retrieved from ProQuest Digital Dissertations. (UMI: 3467740)
- Jin, T., Lin, V. S., & Hung, K. (2014). China's Generation Y's expectation on outbound group package tour. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 19(6), 617-644.
- Johnson, E. J., & Russo, J. E. (1984). Product familiarity and learning new information. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 11(1), 542-550.
- Keating, B., & Kriz, A. (2008). Outbound tourism from China: Literature review and research agenda. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism management*, 15(1), 32-41.
- Kluckhohn, F. R. & Strodtbeck, F. L. (1961). *Variations in value orientations*. Westport. CT: Greenwood Press.
- Kogut, B., & Singh, H. (1988). The effect of national culture on the choice of entry mode. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19(3), 411-432.
- Kotler, P. (1997). *Marketing Management* (9th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

- Kozak, M., Crotts, J. C., & Law, R. (2007). The impact of the perception of risk on international travellers. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 9(4), 233-242.
- Lang, C., O'Leary, J. T., & Morrison, A. M. (1997). Distinguishing the destination choices of pleasure travelers from Taiwan. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 6(1), 21-40.
- Lee, G., & Tussyadiah, I. P. (2012). Exploring familiarity and destination choice in international tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(2), 133-145.
- Lee, H. A., Guillet, B. D., Law, R., & Leung, R. (2012). Robustness of distance decay for international pleasure travelers: A longitudinal approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(5), 409-420.
- Li, X. & Stepchenkova, S. (2012). Chinese outbound tourists' destination image of America: Part I. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(3), 250-266.
- Li, X., Cheng, C-K., Kim, H., & Li, X. (2013). Positioning USA in the Chinese outbound travel market. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* (In press).
- Li, X., Cheng, C-K., Kim, H., & Petrick, J. (2008). A systematic comparison of first-time and repeat visitors via a two-phase online survey. *Tourism Management*, 29(2), 278-293.
- Li, X., Harrill, R., Uysal, M., Burnett, T., & Zhan, X. (2010). Estimating the size of the Chinese outbound travel market: A demand-side approach. *Tourism Management*, 31(2), 250-259.
- Li, X., Lai, C. Harrill, R., Kline, S. & Wang, L. (2011). When East meets West: An exploratory study on Chinese outbound tourists' travel expectations. *Tourism Management*, 32(4), 741-749.
- Li, X., Meng, F., Uysal, M., & Mihalik, B. (2013). Understanding China's long-haul outbound travel market: An overlapped segmentation approach. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(6), 786-793.
- Litvin, S., Crotts, J., & Hefner, F. (2004). Cross cultural tourist behavior: Revisiting Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 6(1), 29-37.
- López-Duarte, C., & Vidal-Suárez, M. M. (2010). External uncertainty and entry mode choice: Cultural distance, political risk and language diversity. *International Business Review*, 19(6), 575-588.
- Lucey, B. M., & Zhang, Q. (2010). Does cultural distance matter in international stock market comovement? Evidence from emerging economies around the world. *Emerging Markets Review*, 11(1), 62-78.

- Lui, V., Kuo, Y., Fung, J., Jap, W., & Hsu, H. (2011). Taking off: Travel and tourism in China and beyond. The Boston Consulting Group. Retrieved from http://www.bcg.com.cn/export/sites/default/en/files/publications/reports_pdf/BCG_Taking_Off_Mar_2011_ENG.pdf
- Luostarinen, R. (1979). *Internationalization of the firm*. Helsinki, the Netherlands: Helsinki School of Economics.
- MacKay, K. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1997). Pictorial element of destination in image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(3), 537-565.
- MacKay, K. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1997). Pictorial element of destination in image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(3), 537-565.
- Mansfeld, Y. (1992). From motivation to actual travel. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(3), 399-419.
- Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism: Economic, physical and social impacts*. London: Longman.
- Mazursky, D. (1989). Past experience and future tourism decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(3), 333-344
- McCracken, Grant. (1986). Culture and consumption: A theoretical account of the structure and movement of the cultural meaning of consumer goods. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13(1), 71-84.
- McIntosh, R. W., Goeldner, C. R., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1995). *Tourism principles, practices, philosophies*. New York: John Wiley.
- McKercher, B. (1998). The effect of distance decay on visitor mix at coastal destinations. *Pacific Tourism Review*, 2(3/4), 215-224.
- McKercher, B., & Guillet B. D. (2011). Are tourists or markets destination loyal? *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(2), 121-132.
- McKercher, B., & Lew, A. (2003). Distance decay and the impact of effective tourism exclusion zones on in international travel flows. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(2), 159 – 165.
- McKercher, B., & Tse, T. S. (2012) Is intention to return a valid proxy for actual repeat visitation? *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(6), 671-686.
- Menard, S. (2001). *Applied Logistic Regression Analysis (Quantitative Applications in the Social Sciences)* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Meschi, P. X. (1997). Longevity and cultural differences of international joint ventures: Toward time-based cultural management. *Human Relations*, 50(2), 211–228.

- Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1995). The role of awareness and familiarity with a destination: The central Florida case. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33(3), 21-27.
- Money, R. B., & Crofts, J. C. (2003). The effect of uncertainty avoidance on information search, planning, and purchases of international travel vacations. *Tourism Management*, 24(2), 191-202.
- Morden, T. (1999). Models of national culture – a management review. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 6(1), 19-44.
- Moutinho, L. (1987). Consumer behavior in tourism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 21(10), 2-44.
- Myers, R.H. (1990). *Classical and modern regression application* (2nd ed.). CA: Duxbury press.
- Nesdale, D., & Mak, A. S. (2003). Ethnic identification, self-esteem and immigrant psychological health. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 27(1), 23-40.
- Ng, S. I., Lee, J. A., & Soutar, G. N. (2007). Tourists' intention to visit a country: The impact of cultural distance. *Tourism Management*, 28(6), 1497-1506.
- Ng, S. I., Lee, J. A., & Soutar, G. N. (2009). The influence of cultural similarity and individual factors on visitation. *TEAM Journal of Hospitality & Tourism*, 6(1), 68-81.
- Nicolau, J. L., & Mész, F. J. (2006). The influence of distance and prices on the choice of tourist destinations: The moderating role of motivations. *Tourism Management*, 27(5), 982-996.
- Nyaupane, G. P., Paris, C. M., & Teye, V. (2011). Study abroad motivations, destination selection and pre-trip attitude formation. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(3), 205-217.
- Padmanabhan, P., & Cho, K. R. (1996). Ownership strategy for a foreign affiliate: An empirical investigation of Japanese firms. *Management International Review*, 36(1), 45-65.
- Peng, M. W., Hill, C. W. L., Wang, D. Y. L. (2000). Schumpeterian dynamics versus Williamsonian considerations: A test of export intermediary performance *Journal of Management Studies*, 37(2), 167-184.
- Petrick, J. F. (2002). An examination of golf vacationers' novelty. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 384-400.
- Pizam, A. (1999). The American group tourist as viewed by British, Israeli, Korean and Dutch tour guides. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(2), 119-126.

- Pizam, A., & Jeong, G. (1996). Cross-cultural tourist behavior. *Tourism Management*, 17(4),277-286.
- Pizam, A., & Reichel, A. (1996). The effect of nationality on tourism behavior: Israeli tour guide perceptions. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 4(1), 23-49.
- Pizam, A., & Sussman, S. (1995). Does nationality affect tourist behaviour? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(4), 901-917.
- Pizama, A., Jansen-Verbeke, M., & Steel, L. (1997). Are all tourists alike, regardless of nationality? The perceptions of Dutch tour-guides. *Journal of International Hospitality, Leisure & Tourism Management*, 1(1), 19-38.
- Plog, S. (1974). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity? *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 14(4), 55-58.
- Plog, S. (2001). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity: an update of a Cornell Quarterly classic. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 42(3), 13-24.
- Prentice, R. (2004). Tourist familiarity and imagery. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4), 923-945.
- Prentice, R., & Andersen, V. (2000). Evoking Ireland: Modeling tourist propensity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(2), 490-516.
- Reisinger, Y. (2009). *International tourism: Cultures and behavior*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (1998). Cultural differences between Mandarin-speaking tourists and Australian hosts and their impact on cross-cultural tourist-host interaction. *Journal of Business Research*, 42(2), 175–187.
- Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (2002a). Cultural differences between Asian tourist markets and Australian hosts, Part 1. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(3), 295-315.
- Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (2002b). Cultural differences between Asian tourist markets and Australian hosts: Part 2. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(4), 374-384.
- Reuters (2013). Chinese overtake Germans as biggest spending tourists. Retrieved from <http://www.reuters.com/article/2013/04/04/us-china-tourism-spending-idUSBRE9330TJ20130404>
- Richardson, S. L., & Crompton, J. L. (1988). Cultural variations in perceptions of vacation attributes. *Tourism Management*, 9(2), 128-136.
- Ritter, W. (1987). Styles of tourism in the modern world. *Tourism Recreation Research*,12(1), 3-8.

- Rosenbaum, M., & Spears, D. (2005). Who buys what? Who does what? Analysis of cross-cultural consumption behaviors among tourists in Hawaii. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 11(3), 235–247.
- Schiffman, L. G., & Kanuk, L. L. (1997). *Consumer Behavior*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Beyond individualism/collectivism: New cultural dimensions of values. In U. Kim, H. C. Triandis, C. Kagit çibasi, S. C. Choi & G. Yoon (Eds.), *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method and applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Shane, S. (1994). The effect of national culture on the choice between licensing and direct foreign investment. *Strategic Management Journal*, 15(8), 627-642.
- Sheatsley, D., Li, X., & Harrill, R. (2009). Emerging international travel markets: China— Part II. Report published by the United States Travel Association.
- Shenkar, O. (2001). Cultural distance revisited: Towards a more rigorous conceptualization and measurement of cultural differences. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(3), 519-535.
- Sivakumar, K., & Nakata, C. (2001). The stampede toward Hofstede's framework: Avoiding the sample design pit in cross-cultural research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(3), 555-574.
- Smith, P. B., Dugan, S., & Trompenaars, F. (1996). National culture and the values of organizational employees: A dimensional analysis across 43 nations. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 27(2):231-264.
- Sojka, J.Z. & Tansuhaj P.S. (1995). Cross-cultural consumer research: A twenty-year review. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 22, 461-474.
- Solomon, M. R. (1996). *Consumer behavior: Buying, having, and being*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Sönmez, S., & Graefe, A. R. (1998). Determining future travel behavior from past travel experience and perceptions of risk and safety. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(2), 172-177.
- Spradley, J. P., & Philips, M. (1972). Culture and stress: A quantitative analysis. *American Anthropologist*, 74(3), 518–529.
- Steenkamp, J. E. M. (2001). The role of national culture in international marketing research. *International Marketing Review*, 18(1), 30–44.
- Tellis, G. J. & Chandrasekaran, D. (2010). Does culture matter? Assessing biases in cross-national survey research. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*,

- 27(4), 329-341.
- Terlutter, R., Diehl, S., & Mueller, B. (2006). The GLOBE study – applicability of a new typology of cultural dimensions for cross-cultural marketing and advertising research. In Sandra Diehl, Ralf Terlutter (Eds.), *International Advertising and Communication* (pp.419-438). Wiesbaden: Gabler.
- Thraenhart, J. (2012). Behold the tech-savvy, young and affluent Chinese traveler, coming to a country near you. Retrieved from <http://www.tnooz.com/article/behold-the-tech-savvy-young-and-affluent-chinese-traveller-coming-to-a-country-near-you/>
- Toyama, M., Yamada, Y. (2012). The Relationships among Tourist Novelty, Familiarity, Satisfaction, and Destination Loyalty: Beyond the Novelty-familiarity Continuum. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 4(6), 10-18.
- Trompenaars, F. (1994). *Riding the waves of culture: understanding diversity in global business*. Chicago, IL: Irwin.
- Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1998). *Riding the waves of culture* (2nd ed.). London: Nicholas Brealey Publishing Ltd.
- Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(3), 432-448.
- UNWTO (2012). The Chinese Outbound Travel Market 2012 Update. Retrieved from http://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&frm=1&source=web&cd=19&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CHEQFjAIOAo&url=http%3A%2F%2Ftourism-intelligence.com%2Fcatalog%2Fdownload_product.php%3Fdfn%3DMjY5&ei=0U6U4PkNNGzsAS3k4HoBw&usg=AFQjCNE9amLAvBu9XyGOC6Vk2XsFaY0ssg&sig2=zk9XRtG0s7t0RoMdJem7Gw&bvm=bv.63934634,d.cWc
- UNWTO (2013). Facts and figures. Retrieved from <http://www.unwto.org/facts/menu.html>
- UNWTO (2013). Tourism highlights (2013 Edition). Retrieved from http://dtxqt4w60xqpw.cloudfront.net/sites/all/files/pdf/unwto_highlights13_en_lr_0.pdf
- Waheeduzzaman, A. N. M. (2011). Are emerging markets catching up with the developed markets in terms of consumption? *Journal of Global Marketing*, 24(2), 136-151.
- West, J., & Graham, J. L. (2004). A linguistic-based measure of cultural distance and its relationship to managerial values. *Management International Review*, 44(3), 239–260.
- Wong, S., & Lau, E. (2001). Understanding the behavior of Hong Kong Chinese tourists

- on group tour packages. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(1), 57-67.
- Woodside, A. G., & King, R. (2001). Tourism consumption systems: theory and empirical research. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Research*, 10(1), 3-27.
- Woodside, A. G., & Lysonski, S. (1989). A general model of traveler destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27(4), 8-14.
- Wu, L., Zhang, J., & Fujiwarara, A. (2012). A tourist's multi-destination choice model with future dependency. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(2), 121-132.
- Yamin, M., & Golesorkhi, S. (2010). Cultural distance and the pattern of equity ownership structure in international joint ventures. *International Business Review*, 19(5), 457-467.
- Yang, J., Yuan, B., & Hu, P. (2009). Tourism destination image and visit intention: Examining the role of familiarity. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, 5(2), 174-187.
- Yang, Y., & Wong, K. K.F. (2012). The influence of cultural distance on China inbound tourism flows: A panel data gravity model approach. *Asian Geographer*, 29(1), 21-37.
- Yavas, U. (1987). Foreign Travel behaviour in a growing vacation market: Implications for tourism marketers. *European Journal of Marketing*, 21(5), 57-69.
- You, X., O' Leary, J., Morrison, A., & Hong, G. (2000). A cross-cultural comparison of travel push and pull factors: United Kingdom versus Japan. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 1(2), 1-26.

APPENDIX A – QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

Outbound Destination Choice Survey

Dear respondents:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey. My name is Hongbo Liu, a Master's student at the University of South Carolina, USA. I am carrying out a survey for my Master's thesis. The survey is about Chinese tourists' outbound travel destination choice. It should take about 15 minutes to complete the survey.

Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary and you may stop the survey at any time. Neither your name nor any other identifying information will be recorded on the survey, and your responses will be kept completely anonymous. There is no known risk involved in this. In order to keep the information completely confidential, please do not put your name on the questionnaire.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me (liu324@email.sc.edu or (803)-665-5433) or my advisor, Dr. Xiang (Robert) Li (robertli@mailbox.sc.edu or (803) 777-2764) of the School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Tourism Management at University of South Carolina.

Sincerely,
Hongbo Liu
School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Tourism Management
University of South Carolina
701 Assembly Street, Columbia, SC 29208
Email: Liu324@email.sc.edu
Cell: (803)665-5433



1. Have you ever visited the following countries before? If yes, how many times?

	Have you ever visited this country?		If yes, how many times? (Please write a number)
U.S.	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
France	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Australia	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Japan	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Canada	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
U.K.	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Singapore	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Switzerland	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
South Korea	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Thailand	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Cambodia	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Russia	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Malaysia	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Vietnam	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	
Italy	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	

2. How large do you think the national cultural difference (i.e., differences in norms and values, habits and customs, behaviors, language, ways of communication, relationships with people) is between the following list of countries and China?

Please respond based on your impression of this country.

	Very small	Somewhat small	Medium	Somewhat large	Very large
U.S.	1	2	3	4	5
France	1	2	3	4	5
Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Japan	1	2	3	4	5
Canada	1	2	3	4	5
U.K.	1	2	3	4	5
Singapore	1	2	3	4	5
Switzerland	1	2	3	4	5
South Korea	1	2	3	4	5
Thailand	1	2	3	4	5
Cambodia	1	2	3	4	5
Russia	1	2	3	4	5
Malaysia	1	2	3	4	5
Vietnam	1	2	3	4	5
Italy	1	2	3	4	5

3. How difficult is it for a “general Chinese” to adapt to the living environment of the following list of countries? Please respond based on your impression of this country.

	Very easy	Somewhat easy	Medium	Somewhat difficult	Very difficult
U.S.	1	2	3	4	5
France	1	2	3	4	5
Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Japan	1	2	3	4	5
Canada	1	2	3	4	5
U.K.	1	2	3	4	5
Singapore	1	2	3	4	5
Switzerland	1	2	3	4	5
South Korea	1	2	3	4	5
Thailand	1	2	3	4	5
Cambodia	1	2	3	4	5
Russia	1	2	3	4	5
Malaysia	1	2	3	4	5
Vietnam	1	2	3	4	5
Italy	1	2	3	4	5

4. How familiar are you with these countries? Please indicate your overall familiarity with these countries using a 5-point scale ranging from **1=Very unfamiliar** to **5=Very familiar**.

	Very unfamiliar	Somewhat unfamiliar	Neither familiar nor unfamiliar	Somewhat familiar	Very Familiar
U.S.	1	2	3	4	5
France	1	2	3	4	5
Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Japan	1	2	3	4	5
Canada	1	2	3	4	5
U.K.	1	2	3	4	5
Singapore	1	2	3	4	5
Switzerland	1	2	3	4	5
South Korea	1	2	3	4	5
Thailand	1	2	3	4	5
Cambodia	1	2	3	4	5
Russia	1	2	3	4	5
Malaysia	1	2	3	4	5
Vietnam	1	2	3	4	5
Italy	1	2	3	4	5

5. Thinking about the tourism information you received about foreign countries, to what extent have you heard tourism related information about the following countries as tourism destinations? Please respond using a 5-point scale where **1=Not at all** to **5=Very much**.

	Not at all	Very little	Some	Much	Very Much
U.S.	1	2	3	4	5
France	1	2	3	4	5
Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Japan	1	2	3	4	5
Canada	1	2	3	4	5
U.K.	1	2	3	4	5
Singapore	1	2	3	4	5
Switzerland	1	2	3	4	5
South Korea	1	2	3	4	5
Thailand	1	2	3	4	5
Cambodia	1	2	3	4	5
Russia	1	2	3	4	5
Malaysia	1	2	3	4	5
Vietnam	1	2	3	4	5
Italy	1	2	3	4	5

6. Which ONE country are you most likely to visit for leisure purposes over the next two years? Please select **only one country**.

- U.S. Singapore Thailand Cambodia
 Japan Australia Vietnam Russia
 Italy Malaysia Canada Switzerland
 France U.K. South Korea
 None of the above. Please specify the country name: _____

If you chose “**None of the above. Please specify the country name:**” in Q6, **please continue to answer from Q7**; if you chose any of other options in Q6, please **skip to Q8**.

7. Please answer the following questions based on **the country you specified in Q6**.

a. Have you ever visited this country before? If yes, how many times?				
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	_____ Times		
b. How large do you think the national cultural difference (i.e., differences in norms and values, habits and customs, behaviors, language, ways of communication, relationships with people) is between this country and China?				
Very small	Somewhat small	Medium	Somewhat large	Very large
1	2	3	4	5
c. How difficult is it for a “general Chinese” to adapt to the living environment of this country?				
Very easy	Somewhat easy	Medium	Somewhat difficult	Very difficult
1	2	3	4	5
d. How familiar are you with this country? Please indicate your overall familiarity using a 5-point scale ranging from 1=Very unfamiliar to 5= Very familiar.				
Very unfamiliar	Somewhat unfamiliar	Neither familiar nor unfamiliar	Somewhat familiar	Very Familiar
1	2	3	4	5
e. Thinking about the tourism information you received about this country, to what extent have you heard tourism related information about this country?				

Not at all	Very little	Some	Much	Very Much
1	2	3	4	5

8. How likely is it that you will actually make this trip over the next two years? Please use a percentage ranging from 0% to 100% to specify your likelihood of actually taking this trip.

_____ %

9. How important are the following criteria to you when deciding which overseas destination to visit? **Please use a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = very unimportant to 5 = very important.**

	Very Unimportant	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very important
Experiencing a different culture	1	2	3	4	5
Local crafts and handiwork	1	2	3	4	5
Local cuisine and new food	1	2	3	4	5
Interesting and friendly local people	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunity to see or experience people from different ethnic backgrounds	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunity to see or experience unique aboriginal or native groups	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunity to increase your knowledge about places, people, and things in this country	1	2	3	4	5
A variety of things to see and do	1	2	3	4	5
Visiting a place you can talk about when you get home	1	2	3	4	5

Demographics

1. How many times have you traveled outside Mainland China, Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan so far?

- 0 1 2-3
 4-5 6-10 Over 10 times

2. How many countries outside Mainland China, Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan have

you visited before for any purposes?

- 0 1 2-3
 4-5 6-10 Over 10 countries

3. Please indicate your level of international travel experience using a 5-point scale ranging from 1=very inexperienced to 5=very experienced.

Very Inexperienced	Not very experienced	About average	Experienced	Very experienced
1	2	3	4	5

4. What is your marital status?

- Single/never married Married/partnered
 Separated/divorced/widowed Prefer not to say

5. Your gender

- Male Female

6. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- High School or less
 Technical/vocational high school
 Associate degree or some college
 College graduate
 Graduate work/Master's/Doctoral degree
 Other (Please specify_____)

7. Your age:

- Under 18 18-19 20-24 25-29
 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49
 50-54 55-59 60-64 65 and above
 Prefer not to say

8. What is your **employment status**?

- Employed full-time/part-time
 Housewife
 Temporarily unemployed/looking for work
 Retired
 Freelancer

- Student
 Other (please specify _____)

If you chose “Housewife” or “Student” in Occupation, **please skip to Q10**; if you chose any of other options in occupation, please **answer Q9 and skip Q10**.

9. Which of the following broad categories best describes your approximate monthly

individual income in 2013, before taxes (RMB)?

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Below 2,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> 2,000 to 3,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 4,000 to 6,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 7,000 to 9,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 10,000 to 19,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 20,000 to 29,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30,000 to 39,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 40,000 to 49,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 50,000 or above |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Prefer not to say | | |

10. Which of the following broad categories best describes your approximate monthly

household income in 2013, before taxes (RMB)?

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Below 2,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> 2,000 to 3,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 4,000 to 6,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 7,000 to 9,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 10,000 to 19,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 20,000 to 29,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30,000 to 39,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 40,000 to 49,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> 50,000 or above |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Prefer not to say | | |

Thank you so much for your time and participation!