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Resident Perspectives of the Resident-Tourist Relationship: Examining Tourist Attractiveness and Social Determinants Affecting Jeju Residents' Satisfaction and Commitment towards Chinese Tourists

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RESIDENT PERSPECTIVES OF THE RESIDENT-TOURIST RELATIONSHIP:
EXAMINING TOURIST ATTRACTIVENESS AND SOCIAL DETERMINANTS
AFFECTING JEJU RESIDENTS' SATISFACTION AND COMMITMENT TOWARDS
CHINESE TOURISTS

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ABSTRACT

Successful tourism is based on a good relationship between tourists and the residents. To date, the resident-tourist relationship has been understood through two major approaches. The studies emphasizing the industrial aspects of tourism consider tourists as customers who bring economic benefits to a destination, while seeing residents as beneficiaries of the tourists' expenditure during their trip. Other studies that see the resident-tourist relationship in terms of a host-guest relationship assume that residents, as hosts, should treat their guests with respect, while disregarding the industrial aspects of tourism. These two approaches have amplified the skewed and incomplete understanding of the resident-tourist relationship, while disregarding the importance of reciprocity and the merchandized purpose of the exchanges in this relationship.

This dissertation explored the resident perspective in the resident-tourist relationship throughout three journal articles using a case study of Jeju Island, South Korea. In Study One, the concepts of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment were explored and operated through a mixed-method approach in order to examine the resident perception of tourists and their attitude towards relationships with tourists. This study posited that tourist attractiveness includes five sub-dimensions: tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, positive tourist influence, and negative tourist influence.

Using the constructs established in Study One, Study Two examined the relationship among the variables in order to examine the mechanism of residents' sequential decision making process in the resident-tourist relationship: how their

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perception of and their relationship with tourists predict their reactions. The structural equation model (SEM) showed the statistically significant relationships between the variables, indicating tourist attractiveness is a crucial predictor of resident satisfaction with relationships with tourists and resident satisfaction leads to resident commitment to a future relationship with tourists.

Study Three adopted and operated a theoretical framework of the social determinants suggested by Urry (2002) in order to explore the social-contextual factors influencing the resident-tourist relationship. Of the nine determinants of the original framework, seven remained after the purification of the factors: ratio of tourist to resident; tourist's level of involvement in tourist attractions; organization of the tourism industry (primary and second industry; tertiary industry); economic and social differences; needs of standard services (restaurant and food service; travel service); tourism-friendly government and policies; and the extent to which tourists are blamed for local problems. In addition, the SEM analysis of the seven dimensions showed that six of these social determinants — the exception being tourism-friendly government and policy — had significant influences on the resident-tourist relationship.

The approach used in this research is consistent with the sustainable tourism paradigm, which emphasizes community participation as a way to express the needs of residents as well as to improve tourist satisfaction, given that the resident is part of the tourist experience and an important stakeholder. These studies also provided an opportunity to rethink our traditional understanding of the relationship between residents and tourists, one that has often been described in terms of a host-guest relationship, by

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reminding us that it is business-like relationship pursuing rewards or benefits from each

other.

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cold-hearted and over-rational. I want to be a person who integrates rational reasoning and a warm heart like he does.

Many thanks to Dr. Chisung Park who led me into academia and continued to encourage me. Seeing him, I dreamed of studying abroad and contributing to academia. I was able to complete this stage and move forward based on his continuous encouragement. I wish to also thank Dr. Sung-Hyuk Kim, who introduced me to the hospitality and tourism field. I was able to broaden my academic horizon because of his insightful and practical recommendations for my academic career. His advice on the mind-set that a researcher should have guided me as I became immersed in work at Clemson.

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CHAPTER Ⅰ

INTRODUCTION

Background

Tourism, the fastest growing industry in the world, is becoming one of the largest worldwide economic sectors in the 21st century (Forno & Garibaldi, 2015), contributing significantly to the economies of countries across the globe, especially the lesser economically developing nations (Ismail & Turner, 2008). According to the Word Travel and & Tourism Council (WTTC; 2016), in 2015 tourism supported a total of 9.3% of the global gross domestic product (GDP), generating 9.5% of the total employment, including job creation in ancillary sectors, 4.3% of the total investments, and 6.2% of the total exports. It is expected that the number of international tourist arrivals will increase by 3.0% to 1,237 million travelers, with forecasts predicting growth to 1,931 million by 2026. Because of this growth, various ancillary and supporting services sectors such as lodging, food and beverage, merchandise and retail, transportation, and construction have not only been created but also seen significant new demand and prosperity (Ismail & Turner, 2008). This consistent growth in tourists and tourism has been made possible because the general public has experienced an increased accessibility to international travel as a result of factors such as an overall increase in wealth and discretionary income, educational level, and improved transportation and communication technologies (Forno & Garibaldi, 2015).

Tourism not only contributes to economic growth by attracting foreign investments and facilitating technology innovation, but also stimulates conservation of the environment and preservation of local culture (Gunce, 2003; Ismail & Turner, 2008). Travel helps in the understanding of different lifestyles, serving as an important channel for cultural exchange between societies, allowing people to learn about the unique culture, history and geography of destinations through direct experience and engagement (Gunce, 2003). Thus, if planned well, tourism can be a positive tool for developing not only the economic capabilities but also the environmental, social and cultural assets of a country (Edgell, 2006; Gunce, 2003).

On the other hand, if tourism is not properly managed, it can result in exceeding the physical capacity of a destination (Edgell, 2006; Gunce, 2003). This situation can lead to the destruction of cultural and physical values that enhance the competitiveness of the place (Gunce, 2003). To avoid this negative impact, the tourism industry has become increasingly interested in creating long-term development and planning paradigms focused on responsive, systematic, and participatory approaches, as well as comprehensive and flexible understanding of the effects of tourism (Idziak, Majewski, & Zmyślony, 2015; Nault & Stapleton, 2011; Tosun, 2006).

This view corresponds with the concept of sustainable tourism, which is defined as "tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities" (UNEP-WTO, 2005, p. 11-12). More specifically, tourism under the umbrella of sustainability should be responsible for host communities, through

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respect for and conservation of their socio-cultural values and authenticity, as well as should maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction (UNEP-WTO, 2005). The approach is, therefore, closely linked to issues about local participation, empowerment, and a bottom-up tourism policy (Duffy & Kim, 2017). This evolution towards sustainable tourism development assumes that a participatory approach can provide locals with improved opportunities for seeing the greatest possible and most balanced benefits and costs from their local tourism development (Tosun, 2006). Community participation has been understood as a process in which "the intended beneficiaries are at the forefront and participate, by mobilizing their own resources, making their own decisions and defining their own needs and how to meet them" (Stone & Stone, 2011, p. 99). This approach is expected not only to lead to more favorable attitudes of local people toward the preservation of their local resources, but also make them more tolerant of tourism development (Idziak et al., 2015; Nault & Stapleton, 2011; Tosun, 2006). As a result, community participation may assure both the satisfaction of the tourists visiting the destination and the sustainable benefits to the residents of the areas. Of interest in this research is how the concept of community participation implies the importance of the resident perception.

Problem Statement

A good relationship between tourists and the residents has been identified as a key factor for successful tourism by governments, policymakers, and the industry (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; King, Pizam, & Milman, 1993; Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015;

Morrison, 2012; Sinkovics & Penz, 2009). Recently, research on the resident perception and attitude are becoming increasingly important in sustainable tourism planning (Buckley, 2012; Lawton & Weaver, 2015; Liu, Sheldon, & Var, 1987). Tourism development should be maintained in a way that is consistent with the local culture and values, something that be accomplished only through a continuous assessment of the residents' perceptions (Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001). Thus, it is important to understand the needs and attitudes of residents towards tourism and to integrate them into the tourism policy and planning process (Gunce, 2003).

Nevertheless, this body of literature has predominantly focused on resident attitude and perceptions towards tourism development (Burns, 2004; Carneiro & Eusébio, 2015; Hanafiah, Jamaluddin, & Zulkifly, 2013; Ribeiro, do Valle, & Silva, 2013; Sinclair-Maragh, Gursoy, & Vieregge, 2015; Vargas-Sánchez, Oom do Valle, da Costa Mendes, & Silva, 2015) and its social, cultural, economic, and environmental impacts (Deskins & Seevers, 2011; Hanafiah et al., 2013; Kaplanidou et al., 2013; Lindberg & Johnson, 1997; Nybakk & Hansen, 2008; Park & Stokowski, 2011; Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, & Alders, 2013; Wang & Xu, 2014) through a lens of observing tourism as a phenomenon, not the result and process of interaction among people.

However, the perception of tourists should be considered distinct from the perception of tourism development or impact. As Franzidis and Yau (2017) argued, residents' perception of tourists have been excluded from tourism studies, a significant omission as residents perceive tourists separately from the phenomenon of tourism. Some studies have focused on the relationship between tourists and local residents, finding that

the interaction between these two groups can affect the attitudes and satisfaction of both (Carneiro & Eusébio, 2015; Evans-Pritchard, 1989; Luo, Brown, & Huang, 2015; McNaughton, 2006; Pizam, Uriely, & Reichel, 2000; Prentice, Witt, & Wydenbach, 1994). That is, these studies have considered the importance of the interaction, encounter, and/or relationship between resident-tourist. In particular, a mutually beneficial relationship between the groups is regarded as key to hospitable and reciprocal relationships (Luo et al., 2015). However, the dominant perspective in tourism research continues to favor the tourist perspective when investigating this relationship because the traveler is regarded as the main subject of tourism and the customer who brings profits to the local communities.

Nevertheless, as local residents contribute to the tourism experience (Franzidis & Yau, 2017; Zaliza, Asbollah, Lade, & Michael, 2013), their attitude and perspective are important to assess, raising the question, "What is the resident experience in tourist exchanges?" Studies have shown that a hospitable and appealing environments for tourists can be created based on favorable resident attitudes (Cooke, 1982; Davis, Allen, & Cosenza, 1988; Franzidis & Yau, 2017; Pearce, 1980; Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001). This view still favors the notion that understanding resident perceptions is important for the sake of tourist; however, residents' perceptions of their relationship with tourists is also of fundamental importance because it enhances the sustainability of tourism as they allow host communities to see the benefits of tourism, and subsequently emphasizes that residents are just as important as the tourists within interaction (Franzidis & Yau, 2017; Luo et al., 2015). Therefore, to offer the best possible experience to both residents and

tourists, and to create a mutually beneficial exchange, the relationship between residents and tourists requires further exploration from the resident's perspective.

Purpose of Study

To explore this issue, this study proposes to investigate residents' perception of tourists, their relationship with them, and if in turn this influences the resident's intention to host, market, or otherwise attract the certain tourist markets to their community in the future. Specifically, borrowing the notion of buyer-seller relationship from the business literature and relationship interactions from social psychology literature, this study develops the concepts of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment. Subsequently, it examines the influence of tourist attractiveness on resident satisfaction to determine if a higher attractiveness of tourists leads to higher resident satisfaction (*Research Question 1*). The relationship between resident satisfaction and resident commitment then is tested to address the question of whether higher resident satisfaction encourages local residents' favorable intentions to commit to a future relationship with the tourist (*Research Question 2*). In addition, the study explores social factors influencing the resident-tourist relationship in order to understand resident perceptions of the current contextual situations that a single destination faces, and how this perception influences the resident-tourist relationship (*Research Question 3*). To do this, it explores the nine determinants of host-guest relations suggested by Urry (2002).

Thus, the specific research questions addressed by this research are

RQ 1: As perception of tourist attractiveness increases, does resident satisfaction

       of their relationship with tourists increase?

RQ 2: As local residents are more satisfied with their relationship with tourists, are

       they more likely to host/market or attract the tourists?

RQ 3: What are the social factors that influence the resident-tourist relations in

       Jeju?

The results of these research questions are interpreted based on several theories; *Social exchange theory* is used as the primary theoretical framework for explaining that residents expect a mutual reciprocal relationship with tourists. *Social distance theory* provides for the interpretation of the cultural, national, and social differences between the two groups, while the *emotional solidarity theory* explores the differences at the individual level. The *integrated threat theory* explains the results in terms of tension with other groups.

Study Site

The site of this dissertation is Jeju Island, the largest South Korean island, which has a land area of 714 square miles and is located south of the Korean Peninsula (282 miles from Seoul) in Namhae, the southern sea; it is a one-hour flight from the South Korean capital, Seoul. In addition, it is only 335 miles away from China's mainland and a 90-minute flight from Shanghai, China (Figure 1.1).

Jeju consists of two cities, Jeju-si and Seogwipo-si, both representing the primary regional and cultural identity of Jeju Island (Figure 1.2). Jeju-si, the capital of Jeju Island,

has a well-developed public infrastructure including an international airport, a public transportation system, a cruise dock and shopping malls. Jeju-si is the gateway to Jeju Island; when tourists arrive at Jeju Island through a cruise dock or airport, they typically begin their travel from Jeju-si. In Jeju-si, they stay at a tourist hotel and visit various tourist attractions in the city; given the organization of the tourist industry, the residents interact both directly and indirectly with tourists in their daily lives as they move throughout their community. Currently, the population of Jeju-si is approximately 470,000 (Jeju Special Self-Governing Province. (2016a), which accounts for 73% of the total population of Jeju Island. Seogwipo-si, the second largest city on Jeju Island consists of the remaining 27% of Jeju Island's population of approximately 170,000 (Jeju Special Self-Governing Province. (2016a). Seogwipo-si has beautiful rocky volcanic coastlines, and contains one of UNESCO's World Heritage Sites, Jeju Volcanic Island and Lava Tubes. It also served as one of the 2002 FIFA World Cup host cities. Since 2000, the provincial government has focused on developing the tourism industry in the area by building roads, hotels, casinos, shopping malls, and theme parks. As a result of the recent development, the area has recently become famous for its convenient tourist facilities and wildlife.

Until the pre-modern period, before the invention of airplane and ships with modern technology, the island was perceived as a far away isolated land; to this end, historically it was used to use as a place of exile (Jeju Tourism Organization, n.d.; Yang, 2014). Jeju's dialect, which includes distinct accents and words from the mainland Korean language, and its indigenous lifestyle seen in its architecture, arts, and local

myths reflect not only the island's isolated history, but also its cultural uniqueness. In

addition, its tropical flora and fauna coupled with its proximity to mainland Korea make

it a desirable destination for domestic as well as international tourists. Currently, the

island's natural and cultural uniqueness are becoming increasingly commodified as

tourism products. Since the 1970s, Jeju has been a well-known tourism destination in

South Korea, recognized as the best honeymoon destination among Koreans (Kho, Kang,

& Im, 2011). Around 2000, as interest in Korean culture grew across Asia, tourists from

nearby countries including Japan and China became important customers in Jeju's

tourism market (Yu & Ko, 2012). According to the Jeju Special Self-Governing Province

(2016b), the number of tourist arrivals to the island reached 13 million in 2015, an 11.3%

increase from the 12 million tourists in 2014. Of these, 11 million are domestic travelers

and 2 million international; 85.2% of the international market identified as Chinese (Jeju

Special Self-Governing Province, 2016b). According to the Bank of Korea (2013), the

tourism industry accounts for 23.9% of the island's gross regional domestic product

(GRDP), which is the aggregate of resident producer unit productivity in the region, and

is more than its traditional primary industries (e.g., agriculture, forestry and fishing) at

17.8% and the public service industry at 11.3%. Tourism also saw significant growth,

increasing from 7.9% in 2009 to 10.2% in 2013, becoming the representative industry of

Jeju. In an international visitor survey conducted by the Korea Culture & Tourism

Institute (2016), Seongsan Sunrise Peak (or Seongsan Ilchulbong), which is a large bowl-

shaped flat crater, was ranked among the most popular tourist attractions among

international travelers, with 70.9% of the international tourists visiting it in 2016,

followed by Teddy Bear Museum (61.2%), Jeju Folk Village (55.5%), and Yongduam

Rock (53.0%) (Figure 1.3).

However, in the last decade, concerns about over tourism have grown. As it

started to mature around 2000, tourism began to cause many problems on the island.

Living costs and land prices have skyrocketed, and many condominiums, hotels and

casinos have been built around the environmental protection zones on the island,

destroying the beautiful natural scenery that is the key tourist attractions. Crowding,

traffic congestion, a lack of parking space, rising crime rates, increasing living costs, and

the degradation of the local culture are often felt by the community. This growth and the

resulting concerns are seen as potential consequences not only of tourism in general, but

Figure 1.2 Jeju Island
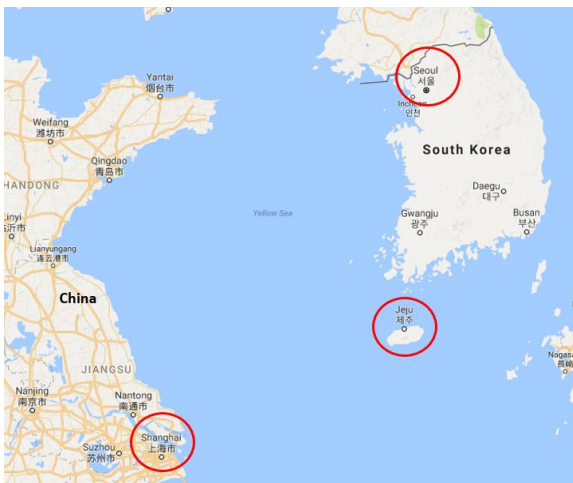
Figure 1.1 Location of Jeju Island
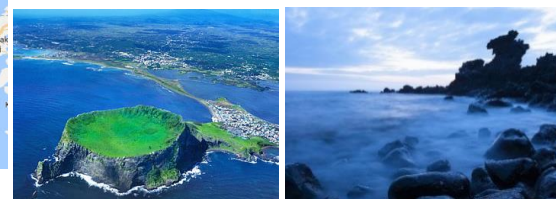
Figure 1.3 Major tourist attractions of Seongsan Sunrise Peak and Yongduam Rock

Sources: Google Map & Image

specifically from the increase in the financial and property investments of Chinese tourists.

In looking at catalysts for the recent increase in foreign investment and tourism, government policies including the Immigrant Investor Scheme for Real Estate (IISRE) and Visa Free Entry Policy (VFEP), particularly targeting Chinese tourists, need to be considered. The IISRE, which allows foreigners who invest more than US$470,000 in Jeju to receive an F-2 residency visa that can be upgraded to an F-5 permanent residency visa after five years, went into effect in 2010. Since the program was implemented, the amount of land purchased by the Chinese has increased nearly 300 times (Huh, 2014). Direct foreign investments in Jeju have caused such issues as disrupting domestic investment, repatriating profits, decreasing local residents' job opportunities due to expatriate employment, losing control of the tourism industry, and promoting the development of inappropriate types and sizes of buildings.

Additionally, the VFEP for tourists went into effect in 2002, (Hwang & Paik, 2016) and was extended to the Chinese in 2006 (Korea Immigration Bureau, 2006). It continues to attract increased numbers to Jeju Island through the convenience it provides. These policies, paired with the increasing middle class in China that can afford to travel abroad, have resulted in increased conflict between Jeju residents and Chinese tourists.

As a result, many residents and local small businesses are opposed to attracting Chinese tourists, stating the foreign investments in this form aren't benefiting Jeju (Kim, 2014). The conflicts between the host community and tourist groups have occurred in a variety of settings outside of Jeju. For example, recent residents' obvious hostility

towards tourists in Venice, Italy, and Barcelona, Spain — part of the reaction to over-tourism — indicates that residents can consider tourists "an invasion" (Backer, 2016; Sansom, 2017). Therefore, the current tourism policies guiding development on the island are now facing the dilemma of the balance between developing for economic gain and sustaining the natural environment and cultural heritage of the island. The local government wants to identify ways to both reduce the problems caused by development while continuing to increase visitors and grow the industry. The government has begun to make community-friendly tourism policies in order to achieve sustainable development and deal with the negative environmental and social impacts that have recently emerged. Since 2017, for example, the government has promoted a project, referred to as *creating Sam-chun village,* that aims to support community-based destinations planned and operated by locals. This initiative changes the previous top-down tourism policies into a bottoms-ups one that includes locals' voices in the development of tourism policies and the creation of local jobs. These officials may realize the importance of identifying and involving the various stakeholders in the region as a critical component in the development of a sustainable plan. To develop the plan, the local government held an international forum, *Capacity Building on Sustainable Tourism: Policies for Delivering Social, Environmental and Economic Benefits in the Asia-Pacific Region in 2015*, which aimed to collect tourism practitioners' ideas on ways to help local actors establish local tourism policies that maximize the benefits to the community by conserving and promoting its natural and cultural heritage.

Therefore, not only is Jeju Island an appropriate site for examining resident perspectives in the resident-tourist relationship but also the information from this dissertation can provide academic and practical implications helping for Jeju Island plan and implement sustainable tourism policies.

Significance of Study

The significance of this dissertation lies in the information that it provides about the relationship between tourists and the residents of Jeju Island. First, it adds to our understanding of the relationship between resident and tourist from both business and interpersonal perspectives, assuming that the relationships are established based on the pursuit of any form of rewards from each other (e.g., profits, positive feeling, cultural exchange, and so on). This approach is an alternative to the existing perspective of the host-guest relationship that is no longer appropriate for the contemporary mass and capitalized tourism contexts (McNaughton, 2006). Second, the operation and application of Urry's (2002) social determinants of resident-tourist relations can show factors influencing the perception of Jeju residents toward Chinese tourists. As such, this exploration operationalizes Urry's (2002) social determinants provides an understanding of the factors that influence the resident-tourist relationship. Third, the study provides the opportunity to consider the importance of the resident perspective with regard to the resident-tourist relationship; the results provide evidence that the resident-tourist relationship is determined by both the tourist as well as the residents' hospitality or performance in these encounters. Fourth, the results of this dissertation can also provide

marketing implications, especially about internal marketing for residents in that it examines the resident-tourist relationship by using the buyer-seller relationship, which assumes that all actors in a market should be an attractive partner to one another in order to build a mutually reciprocal relationship (Ghijsen, Semeijn, & Ernstson, 2010; Hüttinger, Schiele, & Veldman, 2012; Schiele, Calvi, & Gibbert, 2012). Fifth, it can also be used as a reminder that individual tourists should be good visitors who are community-friendly and respectful, and behave properly during their trips in order to be welcomed and receive warm hospitality from the communities they visit. Lastly, it may provide information that can contribute to future tourism policy and development by focusing on improving relationships and minimizing the negative impacts from a sustainable tourism perspective.

Organization of Dissertation

This dissertation is structured based on a three-article format, with the three chapters described below being written as final drafts of peer-reviewed academic articles. The three-article form is expected to provide an in-depth understanding of and multiple approaches to the resident perspectives in the resident-tourist relationship.

Study One establishes scales of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment by adopting the concept of attractiveness, satisfaction, and commitment from the social psychology and business literature. It explores the factors composing these three including testing the reliability and validity of the scales. Study Two explores the resident-tourist relationship in terms of both business and interpersonal

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relationships by examining the relationship between tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment. It addresses the first research question concerning the impact of tourist attractiveness and the level of satisfaction of the locals in their relationship. It also examines the second research question by exploring the relationship between the residents' relational satisfaction with tourists and their commitment to this relationship. These stress that the resident-tourist relationship cannot only be determined by resident's hospitality but also by tourists. Study Three explores the factors that influence the resident-tourist relations by applying the nine determinants suggested by Urry (2002) to the Jeju tourism context. It is also expected to examine how social determinants influence the perceptions of Jeju residents towards their relationship with Chinese tourists. Therefore, it could explain the resident perspective of tourist in terms of social contexts, offering clues about which social factors affect resident's attitude towards the relationship with tourists and subsequently, insight on how to address them in the future.

Definition of Terms

Community participation: A series of processes that intended beneficiaries make in an effort to meet their needs from tourism development by defining and appealing their needs, affecting decisions, and mobilizing resources (Stone & Stone, 2011).

Customer Attractiveness: The capacity of a customer to create interest and attract the attention of a supplier (La Rocca, Caruana, & Snehota, 2012).

Resident Commitment: The residents' desire to maintain a valued relationship with tourists and to work hard to ensure its continuation in the future.

Resident Satisfaction: The satisfaction of the residents with their relationship with tourists.

Resident-Tourist Relationship: Reciprocal interactions between residents and tourists in capitalized tourism.

Social Determinants of Resident-Tourist Relation: Determinants of the particular social relations established between residents and tourists (e.g. the ratio of tourist to resident; the predominant object of the tourist gaze; tourist's level of involvement in tourist attractions; organization of the tourism industry; relationship between tourism and pre-existing industries; economic and social differences between the visitors and the majority of the residents; the degree to which the visitors expect certain standards of accommodation and service; tourism-friendly government and policy; and the extent to which tourists are blamed for local problems (Urry, 2002, p. 51-53).

Supplier Commitment: A supplier's desire to maintain a current relationship and his or her intention to work hard to continue the relationship in the future (La Rocca et al., 2012).

Supplier Satisfaction: A supplier's feeling of fairness or need fulfillment in a buyer-seller relationship (Essig & Amann, 2009).

Sustainable Tourism: Tourism that takes into consideration the current and future

economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism on a destination, while capturing

all stakeholders' needs (UNEP-WTO, 2005).

Tourist Attractiveness: The capacity of tourists to create interest and attract the attention

of the host community.

Tourist Familiarity: The resident's perceived similarity to and friendliness towards

tourists.

Tourist Financial Capacity: The ability of tourists to profit the host community.

Tourist Influence: The resident's perception of the influence of tourists on the host

community.

Tourist Responsibility: The tourist's responsible decisions and actions taken to enhance

social, cultural, economic, and environmental well-being of host community or to avoid

harmful consequences for host community.

CHAPTER Ⅱ

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the conceptual background of the study. It begins with a review of the literature related to the impact of tourism on communities in order to gain an overall understanding of the discourses on the social, economic, cultural, and environmental influences of the tourism phenomenon on a host community. Second, the literature on island tourism is reviewed in order to delineate the relationship between tourism and host community in the island context, the subject of this study. Third, the literature review examines the research trends in resident-tourist relationships in tourism, and finally, the social-psychological theories that can be applied to the resident-tourist relationship are reviewed.

Impacts of Tourism on a Community

Tourism development, which is usually justified on the basis of economic interests, also introduces social, cultural, or environmental advantages and disadvantages (Liu, Sheldon, & Var, 1987). Its impact on community development is often discussed based on the following three categories. First, from an economic point of view, tourism can increase local employment and ensure a better quality of life for local residents by providing a sustainable return to the community (Gunce, 2003). In anticipation of these benefits, many developing countries expect tourism to be one of the most useful strategies for economic development (Urry, 2002, p. 57). However, over-exploitation of tourism can

also cause tax burdens, inflation, and local government debt (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005).

Second, from a socio-cultural perspective, tourism can promote cultural communication and understanding, as well as the reproduction of culture artifacts such as traditional handicrafts (Andereck et al., 2005). Tourism not only provides an important opportunity for interaction between local people and tourists but it can also pass the local history and culture onto the next generation (Gunce, 2003). According to Besculides, Lee, and McCormick (2002), the cultural benefits of tourism to the community can be recognized in one of two ways: by being exposed to other cultures, local residents can realize cultural diversity and develop a tolerance for differences; by experiencing various external cultures, local residents can recognize the importance of community, leading to improved community identity, pride and cohesion. On the other hand, it also poses the risk of changing the traditional culture of the region and weakening the cultural identity (Andereck et al., 2005). As a result, it should be recognized that introducing diverse cultures to the local community through tourism not only can help to preserve the local culture but also can dilute or undermine it (Besculides et al., 2002).

Third, tourism may help protect the social and natural environments of a destination as socio-cultural settings, nature parks, and wildlife are the major sources of this industry. According to Gunce (2003), there are three aspects of the environmental benefits of tourism: the increased public motivation for environmental preservation, the improvement of the social systems, and the development of a social infrastructure. The more public awareness about natural preservation, the more administrative and legislative

measures can be taken to protect the environment. Above all, tourism provides incentives for the restoration and rehabilitation of historical buildings and sites, and encourages the reuse and preservation of unused buildings. In addition, tourism may introduce new infrastructure techniques, such as modern transportation systems that do not cause pollution, improving the image of a destination as well as providing a convenience for the tourists (Gunce, 2003). Hence, the expected benefits from tourism may facilitate preservation of the social and natural environments of the community. Tourism, on the other hand, results in alienation and social tensions between residents and tourists because it often causes or increases crowding; traffic and parking problems; air, water and noise pollution; destruction of wildlife; vandalism and litter (Andereck et al., 2005; Gunce, 2003). In this sense, the negative impacts of the tourists on the environment often threaten the sustainability of a tourist destination while at the same time highlighting the importance of sustainable tourism development (Gunce, 2003).

Past research has found that the well-managed tourism can improve the residents' standard of living as well as enhance the residents' place attachment to the area (Besculides et al., 2002). Therefore, tourism can motivate a local community to become more involved in the protection of its cultural and natural entities by reminding them that these assets are the foundation for a good quality life for both the current and future local residents. As the level of tourism in a community increases, it can lead to increased negative public attitudes toward the tourism industry (Smith & Krannich, 1998). However, Allen, Hafer, Long and Perdue's (1993) study shows that regardless of the region's dependence on the tourism industry, residents think that their community should

attract as many tourists as possible as it is the most important industry for improving the quality of life in the community.

Because of this dichotomy of benefits and disadvantages of tourism, it often generates conflicts between members of a community, and in turn, these social conflicts not only lead to inefficient resource distribution, but also damage the reputation of the destination. Therefore, as a first step toward resolving this problem, it is necessary to understand residents' attitudes and responses to tourism.

Island Tourism

Tourism Industry on Islands

Islands are popular tourism destinations, especially among people who seek beautiful coastlines and enjoy water sports. Sharpley (2012) described island tourism as a phenomenon that is distinctive from other forms of tourism, while emphasizing the fantasy of romance and adventure as attributes making an island a special place. Fantasy about islands based on sense of distance and cultural and environmental insularity attracts people to travel to islands across boundaries of culture and society (Cave & Brown, 2012; Lim & Cooper, 2009). These characteristics also make islands attractive places for field studies (Essex, Kent, & Newnham, 2004) as they are seen as a "natural laboratory for the observation and study of large scale tourism destinations" (Hall, 2010, p. 246).

A variety of topics related to island tourism have been explored in the literature, with many studies examining the factors contributing to successful island tourism. For example, Yang, Ge, Ge, Xi, and Li (2016) found tourist transportation and socio-

economic factors influence tourism development as internal determinants, while tourist enterprises and government policies are the external factors for the evolution of island tourist destinations. Ho, Chia, Ng, and Ramachandran's (2013) investigation of the problems of Tioman Island in Malaysia found that the lack of infrastructure, specifically poor road access and restricted phone/internet access, can lead to low participation of residents in the tourism development and planning process. On the other hand, Cassidy and Brown (2010) explored factors influencing travelers' satisfaction with island tourism. They suggested eight factors that could improve the quality of island tourism: friendliness, range of restaurants, quality of accommodation, variety of entertainment, range of local handicrafts, variety of local entertainment, value for money, and range of shopping (Cassidy & Brown, 2010). In addition, Brown (2009) found that festivals involving cultural resources such as music are important elements for expanding the tourism industry on islands.

Other researchers concentrated on the results of tourism development on islands. Nižić, Ivanović, and Drpić (2010) highlighted the negative environmental changes aggravated by the tourism industry on small islands, arguing that the adoption of "an environmental management system" could be a useful baseline for a sustainable development strategy for islands (p. 46). Bozetka (2013) and Sani and Mahasti (2012) argued that while tourism can enrich the regional culture of an island by facilitating the introduction of new habits, customs, and resources from visitors, these external cultures can also easily replace the traditional values, weakening the spatial identity and societal coherence of the locals. Su, Wall, and Jin (2016) studied the effects of tourism on island

fishing villages, reporting that tourism allows locals to re-evaluate and relocate local resources and infrastructures originally used by this industry, creating new links between tourism and the traditional industry of the island. However, they also argued that the benefits from tourism were unequally distributed among the villages based on income level.

Studies on resident perception of island tourism have also been conducted. For example, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2010) found that residents who think tourism is important or influences their occupation were more likely to have positive attitudes towards tourism development and its impacts than those who don't. Hunter (2012) explored residents' attitudes toward tourism using a Taiwanese island, his results showing that residents have strong attitudes concerning tourism policy and its effects. Specifically, the results indicated a strong dissatisfaction with visitors as well as the process of tourism development and distrust in the local government. Heeney's (2015) study on the relationship between locals and "yachties" (i.e., owners and users of yachts) found that the locals were well aware of impact of tourists; in addition, the study suggested that a positive relationship between locals and tourists requires reciprocal attitudes and behaviors.

Island and Sustainability

The success of island tourism can be influenced by a variety of factors including the authenticity of the cultural resources, the local demographics, and economic strength (Cave, 2009). While this authenticity has been used to explain the attractiveness of

tourism destinations (Hultman & Hall, 2012; MacCannell, 1976; Mura, 2015; Zhou, Zhang, & Edelheim, 2013), just as for other destinations, an island's attractiveness can also be destroyed due to tourism. According to Hall (2010), in many cases the number of tourists attracted by the authenticity of the nature and culture of island often far exceed the permanent population of the island. Sustainable tourism has been suggested as the solution to solve this problem because it is a way to develop tourism fairly and acceptably for local communities, enhancing economically sustainable while at the same time maintaining the tourist attractions (Nižić, Ivanović, & Drpić, 2010). It also provides the organization and control that allows tourists to experience the authentic cultures of the island more fully (Nižić et al., 2010).

The local demographics and economic strength can be considered in terms of carrying capacity. The sustainability of island tourism is often explained using this concept due to the unique characteristics of islands including their isolation and vulnerability (Lim & Cooper, 2009). Islands often have a limited capacity to accommodate visitor activity (Sofield, 2003). Moreover, popular tourism activities such as nature-based travel and volunteer tourism can threaten as well as bring additional opportunities impacting the sustainability of an island's tourism industry (Lim & Cooper, 2009). Because of their size, islands have limited natural resources with only a narrow range of options for development. For example, as the populations on the small island countries in the South Pacific increase, resources required to meet the communities' traditional needs of housing and agriculture must also increase (Sofield, 2003, p. 119). In addition, the economic base of islands is usually weak because their local economy is

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primarily dependent on one main industry, usually the marine industry, which is supported by the limited financial resources of the local community (Kokkranikal, McLellan, & Baum, 2003). As a result, the economy of an island is inevitably influenced by the economy of the mainland (Cave & Brown, 2012). In this context, island tourism is regarded as an important economic opportunity that can offer both income and manufactured resources to the locals (Yang et al., 2016).

However, several factors of island tourism threaten the environmental and cultural sustainability of host communities, specifically transportation shortages, overdevelopment, social disruption by outsiders, and political and economic adversity (Lim & Cooper, 2009). Most island tourism development has primarily focused on economic profit and growth rather than on improvements in the social and cultural condition of the region, often resulting in the failure of this industry (Gössling & Hall, 2009). Thus, social and environmental degradation is often a result of the tourism industry (Sofield, 2003) due to overdevelopment and the failure to implement appropriate regulatory policies. (Cave & Brown, 2012; Hall, 2010). For example, uncontrolled tourism development on small islands can lead to traffic and parking problems; air, water and noise pollution; vandalism; litter; and friction between residents and tourists, causing alienation and social tension (Andereck et al., 2005; Gunce, 2003). Such areas may lose their competitive edge, and the extensive depletion of resources can lead to a decline in their production capacity (Briassoulis, 2002). Addressing this situation requires appropriate policies and managerial strategies to ensure sustainable tourism, decisions

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arrived at through dialogue with the various stakeholders, such as the local government, the community, and tourism entrepreneurs.

Therefore, Jeju Island, which is currently experiencing a dramatic social change due to a sudden influx of Chinese tourists, is not only a good case for showing the vulnerability of islands to mass tourism but also a good laboratory for measuring resident perceptions and relationships with tourists because their arrival and activities have more impact on the residents' lives than for other destinations.

Relationship between Residents and Tourists

Resident and Tourist

There is a linguistic difference between the terms *guest* and *tourist*. According to Krippendorf (1987), tourists are "those who stay only a few days, people out for the day, weekend sportsmen" (p. 59), stressing that they are nothing more than "merchandise" and their contacts with residents are only "a mercenary smile and sterile politeness" (Krippendorf, 1987, p. 59). In contrast, he understood guest in terms of "a friendly and personal relationship" (Krippendorf, 1987, p. 59). McNaughton (2006) also explored the negative effects of tourism, saying that tourists can be perceived as "uninvited guests." She argued that the existing host-guest framework needs to be modified to reflect contemporary mass tourism, which is a capitalistic relationship. The assumption of capitalism implies that there are no defined "dominators" and "dominateds" in the resident-tourist relationship (Maoz, 2006, p. 225). Therefore, it should more accurately reflect the host-guest relationship in terms of "service provider and customers"

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(McNaughton, 2006, p. 647), implying that the two are dependent on and interact with each other with respect even though at times this relationship cannot reflect capitalist motivations in the interactions. This conceptualization is consistent with Peters, Siller, and Matzler's (2011) assumption that "destinations are comparable with strategic business units in organization" (p. 880). It is also supported by an assumption that regards a tourist as an actor who has financial capacity and who becomes directly or indirectly engaged in market transactions (United Nations, 2010).

This discussion requires further clarification concerning the use of these terms and the definition of relationship in this dissertation. In fact, it is impossible to clearly distinguish the use of terms because the concept of guest, visitor, and tourist are seen differently in different settings. For example, in a case Berno (1999) borrowed from Vusoniwailala (1980), in many parts of the South Pacific, local people truly host tourists as "guests" as a social obligation with a sense of *aroa,*" i.e., love, kindness and generosity. Nevertheless, this dissertation uses the term of tourist rather than guest because it uses the lens of the buyer-seller relationship, following Krippendorf (1987) and McNaughton (2006). In addition, this dissertation does not conceptually distinguish tourist from visitor in that the concept of visitor includes the concept of tourist[1]. In line with this approach, this study also adopts the term of resident rather than host.

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[1] Visitor is defined as "a person visiting someone or somewhere, especially socially or as a tourist" (*Oxford Dictionaries*, n.d.-b).

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Relationship

According to Ankor and Wearing (2012), an *encounter* is "a meeting or a coming together in a setting," serving as a "nexus of a range of social and cultural readings" achieved by a series of understandings and interpretations of the uncertainties observed (p. 181). An encounter needs a response, and according to them, such a "response in relation to the other," refers to an *interaction* (Ankor & Wearing, 2012, p. 184). Essentially, if a resident and tourist perceive each other in a same space, an interaction between the two is inevitable (Ankor & Wearing, 2012). Based on these definitions and their analysis, an encounter indicates a physical event where actors share the same space for a given period, whereas an interaction includes any form of response between or among them during the encounter. However, considering the two occur coincidentally, these concepts are used interchangeably in this dissertation.

Similarly, Carneiro and Eusébio (2015) defined the resident-tourist interaction as "the personal interaction and encounter that takes place between tourists and host in specific places" (p. 27). Based on this definition, in their study on the relationship between resident-tourist interactions and residents' quality of life, these researchers suggested three situations when these interactions occur: "when visitors purchase products . . .when visitors and hosts use the same place, attraction or facility . . .[and] when the two actors exchange information and ideas" (p. 27). More specifically, Aramberri (2001) posited three main features that should be included by both parties in the interaction: protection, reciprocity, and responsibilities. Protection is based on the guests' and hosts' common humanity and their basic need for safety. On the one hand, it

influences the guest's choice of where to stay during a trip, and on the other, it is important for the host to allow the guest privacy in his or her space. Reciprocity is a core element that allows the host-guest relationship to continue. It assumes that the host may be a guest at some point, and likewise the guest may be a host someday, meaning that the host and guest promise mutual respect. Last, responsibility includes the idea that both sides have responsibilities in this relationship. The host agrees to this reciprocal arrangement not only for his safety but also for the tourists' well-being, meaning that tourists are welcomed as temporary members of the family (Aramberri, 2001).

Luo, Brown, and Huang (2015) argued that good interactions occur under two conditions: equal status between the groups; and intimate, pleasant, and cooperative contacts. According to them, when people interact with another party, they evaluate the quality of the relationship based on the perception of how much they were equally recognized by the other and how pleasant the contact was. In addition, their study suggested that the more positively people evaluate the quality of the interaction, the more likely they are to have a favorable attitude towards the other party.

A *relationship* is defined as "the way in which two or more people or things are connected, or the state of being connected" (*Oxford Dictionaries*, n.d.-a), suggesting the core value of a relationship is connectedness: "no contact," then, means no relationship (Levinger, 1974). However, levels of connectedness can be achieved through either encounters or interactions. Levinger (1974) suggested three levels of relationship between two people (p. 101):

1. A unilateral awareness, where one person has some attitude toward the other, without

   any sense of reciprocation or interaction.

2. A bilateral surface contact, where interaction either is fleeting, or is governed primarily

   by the participants' social roles.

3. A mutual relationship, where two persons respond to each other to some degree as

   unique individuals.

The first level of relationship indicates a perception of another as an object, while the second level involves perceiving others based on their attributes such as attitude, behavior, or personality (Levinger, 1974). The first level can be classified as an encounter. For example, when a resident sees a group of people in front of a museum, the resident at least perceives the existence of the group. The second level is exemplified by the situation when the resident initiates a minimal interaction with the tourist group such as "saying hello." This level includes perceiving this group as tourists based on such attributes as their use of language, the tickets they are holding, or their style of dress. At the third level another is seen as person who has shared knowledge or norms (Levinger, 1974), for example being able to talk about peripheral things such as the weather, thus allowing people to share "emotionally significant attitudes or feelings" (Levinger, 1974, p. 106). This third level contributes to conceptually explaining the concept of interaction. In this dissertation, the resident-tourist relationship includes all of these forms of encounters and interactions between resident and tourist.

Approaches to Resident-Tourist Relationship

In general, the resident-tourist relationship has seen limited research even though it is a core phenomenon in tourism. Thus, more research is needed to more fully understand the relationship between tourists and the host communities in different contexts. However, some notable studies in this area merit mentioning for their contribution to our current understanding of this relationship (Table 2.1).

In the business field, a number of studies have focused on the buyer-seller relationship, seeing it as a sales tool (Arnett, Macy, & Wilcox, 2005; Beatty, Mayer, Coleman, Reynolds, & Lee, 1996; Belonax, Newell, & Plank, 2007; Bove & Johnson, 2000; Bradford & Weitz, 2008; Doyle & Roth, 1992; Frankwick, Porter, & Crosby, 2001; Friend, Hamwi, & Rutherford, 2011; Gonzalez, Hoffman, Ingram, & LaForge, 2010; Gremler & Gwinner, 2000; Jolson, 1997; Newell, Belonax, McCardle, & Plank, 2011; Williams & Attaway, 1996; Wilson, 2000). It can be understood as customer relationship management (CRM), which is defined as "a set of technological and organizational mechanisms intended to ensure customer profitability" (Landry, Arnold, & Arndt, 2005, p. 231). In this approach, a sales person is regarded as a marketing and communication channel to the customers, not only earning profits for the company through the relationship, but also listening to customer feedback about the design and quality of the products and the customer service (Landry et al., 2005). However, this approach focuses on the customer perspective in that it reflects the customers' feelings, opinions, and suggestions about the interaction with the seller, with most of it exploring the factors important for predicting customer satisfaction because both academics and practitioners

assume that a successful sales person must be attractive to potential customers (Schiele, Calvi, & Gibbert, 2012). In this context, a number of studies have emphasized service quality (Askariazad & Babakhani, 2015; Emerson & Grimm, 1999; Kuo, Wu, & Deng, 2009; Levesque & McDougall, 1996) and salesperson attractiveness (Harris, O'Malley, & Patterson, 2003; Luoh & Tsaur, 2009; Söderlund & Julander, 2009).

However, a few studies have been conducted based on the employee perspective. For example, Baker, Simpson, and Siguaw (1999) examined the impact of supplier perceptions of resellers, finding that a supplier's positive perception significantly influences his or her satisfaction with a reseller. In more recent research, Baxter (2012) examined how buyers can attract sellers' resources in the market, with the results showing that the degree of a supplier's satisfaction with a customer's financial condition impacts his or her satisfaction with and preference for some customers over others, while Hüttinger, Schiele, and Veldman (2012) explored the primary factors explaining the buyer-seller relationship, customer orientation, supplier satisfaction, and preferred customer. In addition, some researchers have investigated buyer attractiveness, examining its role in buyer-seller relationships (Makkonen, Vuori, & Puranen, 2015; Pulles, Schiele, Veldman, & Hüttinger, 2015; Schiele et al., 2012; Tanskanen & Aminoff, 2015).

Likewise, tourism studies have also emphasized the tourist perspective in the resident-tourist relations because tourist are often seen as being guests who should be welcomed. From the tourist perspective, Sirakaya-Turk, Nyaupane, and Uysal (2013) explored prejudicial attitudes of tourists toward the host population, finding that

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prejudicial attitudes increased during trips and that overall satisfaction with their vacation and perceived service quality influenced their attitudes. More specifically, Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, Aguiar-Quintana, and Suarez-Acosta (2013) examined tourists' reactions to service failures of hotel employees, finding that this poor quality reduced customer loyalty. Andriotis (2016) explored the interactions between beggars and tourists from the tourist perspective. In this study, the author understood the phenomenon of begging as an interaction between the two, reflecting a social gap between the two worlds of host community and tourist community. In addition, Weichselbaumer (2012) studied female tourists' sex and romance experiences with local males as tool for exploring the relationship between tourist and resident, and Pabel and Pearce (2016) examined tourist-resident interaction through tourists' responses to humor.

Recently, however, there has been increasing research attention focus on the resident perspective of tourists. For example, Luo et al. (2015) explored resident perceptions of backpackers, finding that the quantity and quality of contact significantly influenced resident's perceptions of them. The perceptions of the backpackers consisted of the five factors of authenticity, responsibility, adventurousness, budget-mindedness, and independence, with a positive evaluation of the factors resulting in a favorable evaluation by the residents. In another study, Shani and Uriely (2012) studied the interaction in friends and relatives tourism (e.g., VFR), an experience that impacts the resident's quality of life both positively and negatively. The results found the loss of privacy, extra expenditures, hard physical work, and mental stress were the negative experiences, while the joy of being with close significant others and a sense of pride

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either regarding their altruistic personality or their place of living were the positive aspects of the VFR experience. In this particular context, it is important to remember the interpersonal relationships likely already existed between the residents and tourists; that is the relationship may be defined by friendship or some other close association. In more recent research, Maoz (2006) focused on exploring if a host's gaze was based on images and stereotypes of the tourists, emphasizing that the resident's perception is influenced by tourist behavior. For instance, a number of tourists smoking in public, wearing provocative attire, and engaging in sexual contacts and all-night parties without consideration for the local inhabitants can lead to hostility toward the tourist group, and consequently, the accumulated experiences of the local people about the tourist group may become stereotypical over time (Maoz, 2006).

However, resident-tourist encounters may be framed not only by previous relationships but also by embodiments of meaning. For example, Teye, Turk, and Sönmez (2011) found that African residents have different perceptions of African American and white tourists in the heritage tourism context, their results showing that residents' knowledge, perceptions, and attitudes towards historical events (e.g., slave trade and slavery) are closely related to their perception of tourists (Teye et al., 2011). Heeney (2015) also highlighted the importance of social connections between the tourist and the host community, the intention to learn about local cultures, the geographical constrictions of the host community, and the host community's economic dependency on tourism as predictors of resident-tourist relationships. Likewise, Woosnam and Norman (2010) assessed the resident-tourist relationship in terms of emotional solidarity, the

degree of intimacy the residents feel toward the tourists, using the scales of emotional closeness, sympathetic understanding, and welcoming of tourists. In a further study, Woosnam (2011) found shared beliefs, shared behaviors, and interactions with tourists were also predictors of the residents' emotional solidarity, and Maruyama and Woosnam (2015) found that the residents' emotional solidarity can lead to support for tourism.

In many cases, what is shared in these contexts can be shaped and controlled. In the study on Indonesia tourism, Cahyanto, Pennington-Gray, and Thapa (2012) investigated what residents wished to share and conceal from visitors as well as how they negotiated these two, focusing on the resident-tourist interface in terms of MacCannell's (1976) staged authenticity. Their results found that the residents were willing to share their sacred places if the tourists behaved appropriately in such spaces. However, they also indicated a desire to prepare their spaces in order to meet expectations of tourists. These results have helped in understanding how residents react to tourists in their community.

Table 2.1 Approaches to Resident-Tourist (or supplier-customer) Relationship

Author(s)	Context	Perspective from	Term(s) for the relationship	Antecedents to the relationship	Outcomes of the relationship
Beatty et al. (1996)	Business	Both	Customer-employee interaction	Personal service; team playing	Employ's reinforcement and loyalty; customer's loyalty
Belonax et al. (2007)	Business	Both	Credibility in business-to-business relationships	Importance of purchase	—
Tanskanen & Aminoff (2015)	Business	Both	Buyer-seller relationship	Buyer attractiveness; supplier attractiveness	—
Arnett et al. (2005)	Business	Customer	Degree of collaboration between buyer and seller	Seller's team effectiveness; strategic value of partnership	Buyer's competitive advantage; buyer's relationship commitment
Bove & Johnson (2000)	Business	Customer	Customer's relationship strength	Perceived benefits derived from service worker; relationship age; service contact intensity; customer's perceived risk; customers' interpersonal orientation; service worker's customer orientation	Loyalty to service worker; loyalty to service firm
Bradford & Weitz (2008)	Business	Customer	Relationship quality with customer	Type of conflict; conflict management approaches	—
Doyle & Roth (1992)	Business	Customer	Relationship with customer	Candor; dependability; competence; customer-orientation; likability	—
Frankwick et al. (2001)	Business	Customer	Salesperson-customer relationship	Salesperson service investment in relationship; corporate support; doubt creators	Product/service retention; percent of business; other products cross-sell
Friend et al. (2011)	Business	Customer	Satisfaction with salesperson; trust in sales person	Perceived salesperson commitment	Commitment to salesperson
Gremler & Gwinner (2000)	Business	Customer	Enjoyable interaction; personal connection	—	Satisfaction; word of mouth communication; loyalty interaction
Jolson (1997)	Business	Customer	Bonding of buyer to seller	—	Customer satisfaction
Landry et al. (2005)	Business	Customer	Sales-related customer relationship	—	—
Newell et al. (2011)	Business	Customer	Business relationship	—	Salesperson trust, salesperson expertise; relationship loyalty

Author(s)	Context	Perspective from	Term(s) for the relationship	Antecedents to the relationship	Outcomes of the relationship
Williams & Attaway (1996)	Business	Customer	Buyer-seller relationship	Customer orientation; firm's organization culture	—
Askariazad & Babakhani (2015)	Business	Customer	Customer satisfaction	Service quality, customer expectation; perceived value; corporate image	Customer loyalty; trust; complaint
Emerson & Grimm (1999)	Business	Customer	Customer satisfaction	Customer service	—
Kuo et al. (2009)	Business	Customer	Customer satisfaction	Service quality; perceived value	Post-purchase intention
Levesque et al. (1996)	Business	Customer	Customer satisfaction	Service quality	—
Harris et al. (2003)	Business	Customer	Cooperation and interaction	Attraction; commitment; trust	Knowledge for interaction
Luoh & Tsaur (2009)	Business	Customer	Customer-server encounter	Server attractiveness; service quality	—
Söderlund & Julander (2009)	Business	Customer	Customer satisfaction	Physical attractiveness of service worker	—
Schiele et al. (2012)	Business	Supplier	Supplier satisfaction	Customer attractiveness	Preferred customer
Baker et al. (1999)	Business	Supplier	Supplier satisfaction	—	Buyer's market orientation
Baxter (2012)	Business	Supplier	Supplier satisfaction	Customer financial attractiveness	Supplier commitment; preferred customer treatment
Hüttinger et al. (2012)	Business	Supplier	Supplier satisfaction	Customer attractiveness	Preferred customer status
Makkonen et al. (2015)	Business	Supplier	Buyer-seller relationship	Buyer attractiveness	—
Pulles et al. (2015)	Business	Supplier	Supplier satisfaction	Customer attractiveness	Preferred customer
Schiele et al. (2012)	Business	Supplier	Supplier satisfaction	Customer attractiveness	Preferred customer status
Aramberri (2001)	Tourism	Both	Hospitality	Protection; reciprocity; duties for the both sides	—
Woosnam (2010)	Tourism	Both	Emotional solidarity	—	—
Sirakaya-Turk et al. (2013)	Tourism	Tourist	Tourist attitudes of guest toward the host population	Overall satisfaction with their vacation; perceived service quality	—
Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara et al. (2013)	Tourism	Tourist	Tourists' reactions to service failures of hotel employees	Guest's perception of injustice behavior	—
Andriotis (2016)	Tourism	Tourist	Interactions between beggars and tourists	—	—
Weichselbaumer (2012)	Tourism	Tourist	Tourist' sex and romance with resident	Social, racial discourse	—
Pabel & Pearce (2016)	Tourism	Tourist	Tourist' response to humor	—	Tourist 'comfort; concentration; connection level
Urry (2002)	Tourism	Tourist	Social relations between host and guest	Nine determinants	—

Author(s)	Context	Perspective from	Term(s) for the relationship	Antecedents to the relationship	Outcomes of the relationship
Woosnam & Aleshinloye (2012)	Tourism	Tourist	Emotional solidarity	Shared belief; shared behavior; interaction	—
Woosnam et al. (2015)	Tourism	Tourist	Emotional solidarity	—	Perceived safety
Krippendorf (1987)	Tourism	Resident	Merchandise relationship	—	—
Shani & Uriely (2012)	Tourism	Resident	Interaction in friends and relatives (VFR) tourism	—	Host's quality of life
Teye, Turk, & Sönmez (2011)	Tourism	Resident	Resident perception of tourists	Race of visitor	—
Cahyanto et al. (2012)	Tourism	Resident	Intent to share with tourist	Time; space	—
Volo (2011)	Tourism	Resident	Comity; Conflicts	Sociocultural factors	—
Concu & Atzeni (2012)	Tourism	Resident	Conflicts	—	—
Carneiro & Eusébio (2015)	Tourism	Resident	Personal interaction and encounter	—	Resident's quality of life
Luo et al. (2015)	Tourism	Resident	Host perception of backpackers	Quantity and quality of host-backpacker contact	Evaluations of backpackers' impact
Maoz (2006)	Tourism	Resident	Local gaze	Tourist behavior	—
Heeney (2015)	Tourism	Resident	Mutual gaze	Reciprocal attitudes and behaviors; few tensions and few power struggles	—
Sinkovics & Penz (2009)	Tourism	Resident	Social distance between residents and international tourists	Stereotype; social categorization; group conflict	—
McNaughton (2006)	Tourism	Resident	Host-guest interaction	Violence in tourism	—
Woosnam & Norman (2010)	Tourism	Resident	Emotional solidarity	—	—
Woosnam (2011)	Tourism	Resident	Emotional solidarity	Shared belief; shared behavior; interaction	—
Woosnam (2012)	Tourism	Resident	Emotional solidarity	—	Support for tourism development; contributions to community
Woosnam et al. (2014)	Tourism	Resident	Emotional solidarity	Length of residency; number of years attending festival	—
Maruyama & Woosnam (2015)	Tourism	Resident	Emotional solidarity	—	Support for tourism
Franzidis & Yau (2017)	Tourism	Resident	Host-visitor interaction	—	Levels of hospitality

Chinese Tourists on Jeju Island

In considering resident-tourist interactions and encounters, this study focuses on the relationship between Jeju Island residents and Chinese tourists. First, it should be noted that the frequency of the interaction, and hence the relationship, between local residents and tourists may vary depending on the type of tourist (Freitag, 1994) as the level of interaction influence the impact on the daily life of the locals. To consider these issues, a number of tourism scholars have categorized the types of tourists. As a seminal study, Cohen (1972) classified tourists into four groups: the organized mass tourist, the individual mass tourist, the explorer, and the drifter. Using the typology, Freitag (1994) classified the majority of tourists visiting Luperon Beach Resort in the Dominican Republic into three categories: package tourists from Canada, Germany, and the UK, finding that even though they were all the same type, their nationality influenced their behavior towards the host community (Freitag, 1994). Specifically, Canadian tourists who preferred short and all-inclusive package tours had relatively fewer opportunities to interact with the host community, while German and British tourists stayed longer and had more interest in exploring the local area.

Many of these types of studies have focused on demographic and sociocultural variables that influence residents' perceptions and attitudes (Seabra, Dolnicar, Abrantes, & Kastenholz, 2013). Wu and Pearce (2012) supported this conclusion, suggesting that such demographics factors as the nationality and ethnicity of tourists (e.g., northeastern Chinese, Caucasians, Japanese and Koreans) play a role in the attractiveness of tourist groups. Other tourism studies offer further support, showing the nationality of a tourist

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can influence residents' perceptions and attitudes (Cortes-Jimenez & Blake, 2011; Seabra et al., 2013; Stringer, 1981; Thyne, Lawson, & Todd, 2006; Westerberg, Jacobsen, & Lifran, 2013).

In relation to the research proposed here, it is logical that the Jeju residents' perception towards tourists could be influenced by their characteristics, specifically the Chinese. The fast growth of the country's economy that improved individual income and the relaxation of restrictions for outbound tourism has allowed Chinese tourists to become the most numerous visitors and the biggest spenders at most overseas tourist destinations since the 2000s (Backer, 2016; Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline, & Wang, 2011). To capture these Chinese tourists, many tourism destinations analyzed their characteristics. Backer (2016) described the characteristics of Chinese tourists in detail using study from the UNWTO (p. 309):

"Chinese tourists live for shopping; it takes up as much as 65 percent of their travel budget. They are so intent on buying things that they are tightwads when it comes to paying for airfare or a hotel. They sign up for cheap hotels in the suburbs and super economy airfare in order to spend more money shopping. At the same time, they complain that those cheap hotels are far from the nightlife and that the food is lousy. Generally, they craved Chinese food when they were abroad."

This description is consistent with other studies addressing the characteristics of Chinese tourists. For example, Guo, Kim, and Timothy (2007) found that Chinese tourists in general have significantly larger shopping expenditures compared to other tourists because they shop not only for themselves but also for their families and friends. These

studies also indicate that Chinese tourists tend to prefer all-inclusive package tours, ones which include multiple destinations at a low price (Guo et al., 2007; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Yu & Weiler, 2001).

Data from Jeju Tourism show that Chinese tourists stay for 4.47 days on average, with 86.1% of them being first visitors, 7.4% second, 2.8% third, and 3.8% fourth, showing that Chinese tourists have a lower rate of returning to Jeju than other nationalities[2] (Jeju Tourism Organization, 2016). Chinese tourists prefer package tours (58.3%) over individual tours (38.3%) and airtel travel (3.4%), also indicating that their package preference is much higher than for other tourist groups (25.7% for Japanese and 37.2% for East Asian). Regarding the average expenditure per package traveler, Japanese tourists (US $ 1,564.1) spend the most, while Chinese (US $ 843.6) spend the least. Renting a vehicle from a tourist agency is the most popular transportation method for Chinese tourists in Jeju (44.4%), followed by public transportation (bus and taxi) 22.1% and tour bus (9.8%) (Jeju Tourism Organization, 2016).

Overview of Resident-Tourist Theories

To understand the resident-tourist relationship, various theories have been borrowed from social-psychological studies. In this study, five social theories are introduced, analyzed, and compared in order to determine the most accurate interpretation of the study results.

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[2] Second visitation rates: Japanese (14.3%), North American (8.2%), East Asian (6.2%).
  Third visitation rates: Japanese (5.7%), North American (2.0%), East Asian (0.9%).
  Fourth visitation rates: Japanese (17.1%), North American (6.1%), East Asian (1.8%).

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory, which has its origins in economic theory, interprets social relationships in terms of a relative trade-off of costs and benefits as a result of an interaction or exchange (Ward & Berno, 2011). The theory is based on the two values of self-interest and interdependency in that it assumes that a transaction between actors can be achieved only when a self-interested actor wants to share resources with other self-interested actors to gain benefit (Lawler & Thye, 1999). The actors estimate the potential costs and benefits of relationships by comparing these two values. The costs and benefits are subjectively judged through a series of comparison processes evaluating possible outcomes consisting of two forms: economic and socio-emotional outcomes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), economic outcomes are tangible resources that can meet the financial needs of actors, while socio-emotional outcomes are based on intangible resources that satisfy social and esteem needs.

In the tourism context, many studies have used social exchange theory to investigate the resident's perception of the effects of tourism (Ap, 1990; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011; Song, Xing, & Chathoth, 2014; Wang & Pfister, 2008; Weaver & Lawton, 2013), basing this perception on a comparison of the costs and benefits of tourism. If the residents consider that the benefits tourists bring to the area exceed the costs, they will make an effort to maintain a relationship with them (Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997). The way in which residents evaluate costs and benefits is influenced by such subjective factors as the possibility of economic gain, the availability of tourism resources for residents, and the social values and attitudes towards the environment

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(Andereck et al., 2005; Jurowski et al., 1997). Therefore, once local residents compare the costs and benefits and determine that the relationship with tourists is to their advantage, their inclination to support tourism development may increase (Jurowski et al., 1997).

Most tourism studies using social exchange theory have focused on tourism development as an interaction or exchange, and the resident-tourist relationship is regarded as the outcome of this development. These studies addressed the economic and socio-cultural benefits gained from the development from the perspective of the resident group (Andereck et al., 2005; Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Ap, 1990; Vargas-Sánchez, Oom do Valle, da Costa Mendes, & Silva, 2015; Wang & Pfister, 2008). However, this research approach cannot fully describe the emotional aspects of the resident-tourist relationship because it primarily focuses on the output from and the process of development as a social phenomenon, not as personal interactions. According to Ward and Berno (2011), the perception of tourists can be measured when these emotional factors as well as the perceptions of tourism impacts are considered together. In this context, some tourism studies using the social exchange theory have focused on the interactions or encounters between residents and tourists. As this approach includes issues caused by the characteristics of the actors in the relationship such as stereotypes (Monterrubio, 2016b) and behavior patterns (Luo et al., 2015), it is more likely to address the emotional resources than the former approach. This reasoning is consistent with Lawler and Thye's (1999) argument that emotional factors, such as feeling good,

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satisfied, relieved, and excited, make the process and outcome of social exchange more reciprocal.

To investigate all the resources addressed in the social exchange theory in a tourism context, this study includes not only the economic and social cultural benefits from the relationship, but also a resident's awareness of tourists who share emotional resources.

Social Distance Theory

Social distance is defined as "the cooperative behavior and sympathetic understanding that exists between people" (Thyne & Zins, 2003, p. 129) or "the perceived affinity and nearness between people or groups" (Sinkovics & Penz, 2009, p. 459). Social distance describes the differences between groups (Lee, Sapp, & Ray, 1996) or individuals (Zamani-farahani, 2011) from different backgrounds. This theory allows for the investigation of the "links between individuals' culture and their personal life" (Wark & Galliher, 2007, p. 383).

Liviatan, Trope, and Liberman (2008) regarded interpersonal similarity as a form of social distance, assuming that people want a sense of belongingness or closeness in relations with similar others. Lee et al. (2015) suggest three ways to conceptualize this social distance, the first being interactive social distance that focuses on relational closeness and familiarity between actors. The second, affective social distance, emphasizes the level of sympathy shared by two groups or individuals, and the third, normative social distance underlines the differences between insider and outsider in order

to distinguish the two. Likewise, social distance theory posits that the social distance is judged over three processes: evaluating, categorizing, and comparing processes. In the evaluating process, people assess their own traits as well as a counterpart's distinct features or behaviors (Liviatan et al., 2008; Magee & Smith, 2013). The information about the traits of each party allows for distinguishing and categorizing between the parties (Sinkovics & Penz, 2009); then, they make a comparison based on traits categorized (Magee & Smith, 2013).

Important factors that determine social differences include nationality, occupation, religion and race, and the significance of each depending on the cultural background (Charness & Gneezy, 2008). Furthermore, the social distance theory assumes that the distance between people or group changes over time. At first, people from different backgrounds will remain socially distant from strangers but sustained friendly interactions will reduce this distance over time (Lee et al., 2015). Because the nature of tourism is based on movement across region, nation, and culture (Urry, 2002), social distance in interactions between tourists as well as between residents and tourists is an area needing further research.

In the tourism field, social distance theory has been used to measure the social distance between tourists from different backgrounds. Zamani-farahani (2011) found tourists feel comfortable when staying with those who are physically and culturally similar. Specific to religion, a study conducted by Nyaupane, Timothy and Poudel (2015) concluded that social distance determines the relational structure between tourists who have different religious backgrounds when they share the same space. Sinkovics and

Penz (2009) also found that tourists in a same nationality group are less likely to have misunderstandings and conflicts between group members.

Social distance theory has also been applied to explain the relationship between residents and tourists. Sinkovics and Penz (2009) explored Austrian residents' perception of Japanese and German tourists using the social distance scale, finding that social distance is used as a strategy to avoid unnecessary conflicts with tourists. The result explains situations when residents are reluctant to become involved in relationships with tourists with high social distance by avoiding space or transportation occupied by the tourist group. Carson, Carson, and Taylor (2013) suggested that negative resident perceptions of tourists strongly contribute to creating greater social distance from tourists. And they also suggested that the greater distance results when the traits of the tourists are not well matched with those of the dominant residents (Carson et al., 2013).

Social distance theory can provide a meaningful interpretation of the Jeju resident-Chinese tourist relationship and for the residents' perceptions of tourists in terms of national and cultural differences. In addition, this theory is expected to provide an opportunity to consider whether social distance between resident and tourist functions as a conflict avoidance strategy for residents.

Emotional Solidarity Theory

Emotional cohesion, characterized by the sense of a bond perceived as emotional intimacy and emotional closeness (Hammarström, 2005), can be thought of as a social tie that binds people together through emotions or actions (Woosnam, Shafer, Scott, &

Timothy, 2015). Solidarity is created when interests, purposes or sympathies are shared among members of a same group (Merz, Schuengel, & Schulze, 2007) and it is based on similar beliefs, common behaviors, and interactions (Woosnam, 2012).

The emotional solidarity theory has been used to investigate societal relations using sociology as its disciplinary foundation. Solidarity provides an important background for explaining the social context because it includes both an individual's moral component as well as his or her interaction with members in the social organization. Therefore, the basic object of the solidarity study is the individual who constitutes the society, meaning the theory focuses on individual feelings in the context of a social unit such as religion (Fish, 2002) or family (Harwood, 2000; Merz et al., 2007). Woosnam et al. (2015) also confirms that the original intention of this theory was to use the sense of solidarity of individuals to explain the entire social system from the perspective of structuralism.

Emotional solidarity has been widely applied in the tourism field to explain the potential relationship among residents and tourists at a travel destination (Woosnam, 2010; Woosnam & Aleshinloye, 2012). Current research suggests that emotional solidarity includes three sub-factors, degree of closeness, identification, and agreement (Bahr, Mitchell, Li, Walker, & Sucher, 2004; Harwood, 2000), all of which have been applied to tourism research based on the adaption proposed by Woosnam and Norman (2010). According to them, the emotional solidarity factors specific to tourism include feeling welcomed, emotional closeness, and sympathetic understanding (Woosnam et al., 2015; Woosnam & Norman, 2010).

In this dissertation, emotional solidarity theory is used to analyze the cultural differences between resident and tourist in individual-level interactions. Primarily, it is expected to supplement social exchange theory by including emotional resources.

Integrated Threat Theory

Integrated threat theory provides not only a framework for group-to-group relationships, but also one for interpreting prejudicial attitude towards external groups (Monterrubio, 2016a). From the perspective of this theory, prejudice is understood as negative beliefs and feelings about external groups (Aberson, 2015). It explains the process of how negative perceptions make group members feel threatened as well as the process of forming negative perceptions through experience with external groups (Aberson, 2015; Voci & Hewstone, 2003). Consequently, integrated threat theory is useful for analyzing the tension between various social groups by understanding perceptions within a group.

Studies suggest that the integrated threat theory includes four components: realistic threats, symbolic threats, intergroup anxiety, and negative stereotypes (Monterrubio, 2016a; Stephan, Ybarra, Martinez, & Schwarzwald, 1998; Ward & Masgoret, 2006). These four, which explain prejudices toward external groups, have been found to be useful in predicting group members' attitudes toward immigrants, ethnic minorities, and other countries (Ward & Berno, 2011). Realistic threats are defined as subjective perceptions of threats to internal groups by external groups. (Monterrubio, 2016a). These threats are largely based on concerns about resource competition, and in general, if a group has experienced conflict with an external group, it feels more

prejudice toward and concern about this group (Monterrubio, 2016a). The second

component, symbolic threat, is related to the worldview within the group (Monterrubio,

2016a). External groups that have different views based on incompatible morals, values,

norms, beliefs, and attitudes can potentially threaten a group's views and, as a result,

generate a feeling of dislike (Ward & Berno, 2011). The third factor, intergroup anxiety,

is seen in intergroup interaction (Monterrubio, 2016a). These threatening feelings, which

can drive members of the group to dislike members outside the group, are closely

associated with negative attitudes, which are especially exaggerated when the members

of the groups have limited contact. (Monterrubio, 2016a). Last, negative stereotypes

implicate threats within a group because they cause negative consequences in the

interaction process, and these stereotypes influence in-group members' expectations

towards external member's behavior (Monterrubio, 2016a).

The integrated threat theory has been used to investigate residents' prejudice

towards immigrants (Leong, 2008; Stephan, Renfro, Esses, Stephan, & Martin, 2005;

Ward & Masgoret, 2006), but it has seen limited application in the resident-tourist

relationship. In studies conducted by Monterrubio (2016a, 2016b), the perceptions of

residents and tourism staff towards tourist were explored, adopting the integrated threat

theory. In the first study, Monterrubio (2016a) found that realistic threats such as

degradation of the physical or material well-being of the resident group are an important

component in creating prejudice in the resident group towards tourists. In addition,

intergroup anxiety that residents may have regarding possible negative outcomes from

interactions with tourists was significant factor leading to prejudice towards tourists. In

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the study exploring tourist staff's attitude towards tourists, Monterrubio (2016b) found that even though the employees have positive attitudes towards tourists because of economic benefits or pleasurable interactions with them, this positive attitude is often offset by perceived negative stereotypes about the tourists.

In this dissertation, integrated threat theory is applied to explore the Jeju residents' negative perception of Chinese tourists group in terms of intergroup conflicts. This group-level approach is expected to supplement individual-level negative perceptions.

CHAPTER Ⅲ

SCALE DEVELOPMENT FOR TOURIST ATTRACTIVENESS, RESIDENT SATISFACTION, AND RESIDENT COMMITMENT

Introduction

Sustainable tourism development focuses on community well-being through the conservation of socio-cultural values and the authenticity of a destination (UNEP-WTO, 2005). Moreover, successful sustainable tourism development requires environments that promote local participation, empowerment, and community-centered tourism policy (Duffy & Kim, 2017). However, it does not suggest that this is accomplished at the expense of tourist satisfaction because both tourist satisfaction and community well-being are central for achieving successful sustainable tourism development (UNEP-WTO, 2005). Rather, studies have noted that a high level of tourist satisfaction can be achieved when the well-being and autonomy of the local community are ensured because the resulting favorable attitude towards tourism will lead to hospitable and appealing environments for tourists, and, in the end higher tourist satisfaction with the destination (Cooke, 1982; Davis, Allen, & Cosenza, 1988; Pearce, 1980; Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001).

Thus, to retain the sustainability of tourism and to provide the best possible tourist experience, the residents' perception and attitudes should be taken into consideration in the tourism planning process (Gunce, 2003). Research in this context has primarily explored resident perception and attitude in terms of the effect and impact of tourism (Deskins & Seevers, 2011; Hanafiah, Jamaluddin, & Zulkifly, 2013; Kaplanidou et al.,

2013; Lindberg & Johnson, 1997; Nybakk & Hansen, 2008; Park & Stokowski, 2011; Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, & Alders, 2013; Wang & Xu, 2014) and level of support for tourism development (Burns, 2004; Carneiro & Eusébio, 2015; Hanafiah et al., 2013; Ribeiro, do Valle, & Silva, 2013; Sinclair-Maragh, Gursoy, & Vieregge, 2015; Vargas-Sánchez, Oom do Valle, da Costa Mendes, & Silva, 2015). Comparatively, resident perception of tourists has attracted less attention from tourism researchers despite of that fact host communities see the benefits of tourism through positive relationships with tourists (Luo, Brown, & Huang, 2015). As a result, the empirical literature exploring the influence of resident attitude on the resident-tourist relationship is limited (Zhang, Inbakaran, & Jackson, 2006).

Studies in this area have primarily focused on the tourist perspective, particularly tourist satisfaction with travel services (Engeset & Elvekrok, 2015; Lee, Jeon, & Kim, 2011; Song, van der Veen, Li, & Chen, 2012; Su, Swanson, & Chen, 2016; Torres-Sovero, González, Martín-Lópe, & Kirkby, 2012) or overall experience at a destination (Alegre & Garau, 2011; Coghlan, 2012; Song et al., 2012). In addition, tourist attitudes toward the host population have been explored (Pabel & Pearce, 2016; Urry, 2002; Weichselbaumer, 2012; Woosnam & Aleshinloye, 2012), in particular, the resident-tourist interaction. For example, Andriotis (2016) examined tourists' interactions with beggars, and Weichselbaumer (2012) interviewed western female tourists who became involved with Caribbean men during their holiday. Pabel and Pearce (2016) examined tourists' responses to the humor of residents in their exploration of the tourist-resident interaction. As these studies suggest, tourists appear to be more valued than residents

when researching their relationship, regarding them as guests who should be welcomed by the locals. This focus has potentially misrepresented the conceptualization of the resident-tourist relationship, as equal status for the groups is the foundation for building and maintaining good intergroup relationships (Luo et al., 2015). As Vargas-Sánchez, Porras-Bueno, and Plaza-Mejía (2011) contend, it should be emphasized that residents are also self-interested individuals who tend to act favorably when they think that they will benefit from tourists. That is, residents are agentic actors who will act and react to a relationship with tourists.

Krippendorf (1987) made two important assumptions that frame this approach to studying the relationship: residents and tourists are actors who pursue their own interests in a tourism market, and the resident-tourist interaction is based on reciprocity. Similarly, McNaughton (2006) also emphasized that the relationship between resident and tourist, especially in contemporary mass tourism under capitalism, cannot be understood in terms of a host-guest relationship, but rather in terms of service provider and customers. Likewise, tourists are often regarded as actors who are involved in market transactions (United Nations, 2010). These assumptions are supported by the social exchange theory that views every relationship as a transaction consisting of a series of comparisons of potential benefits and costs (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The exchange framework provides an understanding of why "individuals are most attracted to persons who provide the highest ratio of rewards to costs" (Huston, 1974, p. 20). Under this business assumption, sellers and buyers should be attractive partners to each other in order to build and keep the reciprocal relationship (Ghijsen, Semeijn, & Ernstson, 2010; Hüttinger,

Schiele, & Veldman, 2012; Schiele, Calvi, & Gibbert, 2012). To address this unbalanced research trend, the first step is to evaluate the resident perception of the tourists.

This study aims to develop scales that reflect three important dimensions of the resident-tourist relationship: *tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment*. To measure resident perceptions of tourists, this study adopted a concept of attractiveness from the social psychology and business literature to address the ways in which a resident may stereotype tourists, how they may assess the capabilities of tourists, and why they perceive tourists as the cause of tourism impacts in their community. The *tourist attractiveness scale* developed here is based on modified attractiveness scales from previous studies (Luo et al., 2015; McCroskey, McCroskey, & Richmond, 2006; Pulles, Schiele, Veldman, & Hüttinger, 2015). The reciprocal relationship was measured by a *resident satisfaction scale*, adopted from relationship satisfaction scales (Baxter, 2012; Ghijsen et al., 2010; Hendrick, 1988; Su et al., 2016). Resident satisfaction indicates the residents' attitudes towards a relationship with tourists: whether the resident thinks the relationship is established in accordance with the principles of fairness and reciprocity. Thus, resident satisfaction represents the other half of the reciprocal relationship, paralleling the tourist satisfaction scales (Alegre & Garau, 2011; Coghlan, 2012; Engeset & Elvekrok, 2015; Lee et al., 2011; Song et al., 2012; Torres-Sovero et al., 2012). Resident commitment is seen as a measurement of the resident's intention to maintain the relationship in the future. Based on this concept, it is possible to measure whether the resident wants to continue the relationship and, thus, reflects whether the

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relationship is viewed as beneficial. In this study, the *resident commitment scale* was developed based on a relationship commitment scale (Baxter, 2012).

This study provides a comprehensive review of the literature supporting the development of the constructs used in this study and outlines the process of scale development and validity testing. This research can contribute to our understanding of resident perspectives in the resident-tourist relationship, extending an important domain of sustainable tourism research. Further, it is expected to provide a basis for theory formation for the resident-tourist relationship.

Tourist Attractiveness

Attractiveness

Attraction, or liking, is "a positive interpersonal attitude that is parsimoniously conceptualized based on one's anticipation or expectations of the other" (Lott & Lott, 1974, p. 172). Analyzing this concept, Lott and Lott (1974) suggested two requirements for the formation of attractiveness: individuals as actors and their interactions that can be evaluated. First, a person is an actor in an interaction with others. In this situation, a person's characteristics are evaluated by others, and the person is distinguished from others. At some point, the person evaluated also responds to the stimuli created by another's characteristics. Second, these actors are simultaneously anticipating rewards from the other. These expected rewards evoke a positive attitude in the actor toward the other. Therefore, having a favorable feeling or liking is based on an individual's perception and memory regarding possible rewards or tokens of rewards, such as the

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other's "salient and distinctive characteristics, incentive or guaranteed quality, and consequences of previous performance" (Lott & Lott, 1974, p. 173).

While attractiveness has been defined in a variety of contexts, in this study the concept of attractiveness is explored in the interpersonal and business contexts. In sociology, the meaning of attractiveness originated from the social exchange theory in its aim to explain relationships (La Rocca, Caruana, & Snehota, 2012). This theory describes the concept of attractiveness as being based on reciprocity (Gaipa, 1977). Based on this assumption, a resource provider considers a receiver's attractiveness when initiating and maintaining a reciprocal relationship with him or her (Hüttinger et al., 2012). Therefore, social exchange theory broadly defines this attractiveness as "the capacity to cause interest and attract or gain the attention of another party" (La Rocca et al., 2012, p. 1241-1242), meaning that an attractive provider or receiver can attract the other's attention, resulting in increased loyalty and improved performance in the relationship (La Rocca et al., 2012; Tóth, Thiesbrummel, Henneberg, & Naudé, 2015).

From the perspective of an interpersonal relationship, attractiveness has been conceptualized and measured using several dimensions, including the social or liking dimension, the task or respect dimension, and the physical or appearance dimension (McCroskey & McCain, 1974; McCroskey et al., 2006). More specifically, the social or liking dimension focuses on similarity and familiarity (Hinds, Carley, Krackhardt, & Wholey, 2000; Kleck & Rubenstein, 1975; Leonard, 1975; Moreland & Zajonc, 1982; Peskin & Newell, 2004), while the task or respect dimension focuses on task performance and capacity (McCroskey et al., 2006; Senn, 1971) and the physical or appearance

dimension focuses on beauty and strong/robust romantic feelings (Eagly, Ashmore, Makhijani, & Longo, 1991; Kleck & Rubenstein, 1975; McCroskey & McCain, 1974; McCroskey et al., 2006; Walster, Aronson, & Abrahams, 1966).

As an extension of this, the buyer-seller relationship is based on the pursuit of profits, employee and organization attractiveness as they are key factors in generating profits for the company or firm (Arachchige & Robertson, 2011; Newburry, Gardberg, & Sanchez, 2014). Particularly in the hospitality and tourism service industries where the encounter between a customer and a company representative is significant for the overall success of the firm, it is believed that employee attractiveness can lead to improved customer satisfaction (Luoh & Tsaur, 2009; Söderlund & Julander, 2009). However, recent research in the business field has shown an increased interest in *customer attractiveness*, assuming an attractive costumer is likely to lead to more profitable relationships with suppliers, in turn creating supplier commitment (Baxter, 2012; Hald, 2012; Hüttinger et al., 2012; La Rocca et al., 2012; Mortensen, 2012; Pulles et al., 2015; Schiele et al., 2012; Tóth et al., 2015). This research trend emphasizes the fact that resources and services provided by a supplier can be determined by the customer. The customer must compete with other customers for the best resources, and, in the long run, the seller's commitment needs to be secured (Baxter, 2012). Once a supplier designates a buyer as a preferred customer, he or she has the opportunity to enhance his or her relationship with the supplier, who, thus, gains more profit (La Rocca et al., 2012).

This concept can be also applied to the resident-tourist relationship. Similar to the business domain, in the tourism market, tourists can also try to make themselves

attractive with the intention of obtaining the best resources from suppliers, i.e. the local

residents (Hüttinger et al., 2012; Schiele et al., 2012). Given local residents are important

source of tourism in that they are not only creating and maintaining culture of destination,

but also directly or indirectly associated with local tourism industry (Bunten, 2012;

Gelbman & Collins-kreiner, 2012; Reisinger, Kozak, & Visser, 2012), if the residents

have unfavorable attitudes towards tourists, they are less likely to share their social,

cultural, environmental resources with the visitors. Consequently, the tourists may miss

opportunities they could have experienced during their trip, or in the worst case, they may

receive services and goods that are less than the value of money they paid.

   While customer attractiveness and how it works can be perceived and understood

intuitively, it remains unclear to what extent it can be conceptualized as a theoretical

concept (La Rocca et al., 2012). Also, its effect has not been fully investigated;

specifically the factors that increase customer's attractiveness merit examination because

as Hüttinger et al. (2012) pointed out, there is no consensus regarding the factors that

make a customer attractive. According to La Rocca et al. (2012), attractiveness should be

examined in a variety of contexts, indicating that customer attractiveness applied in the

study of buyer-seller relations could focus on profitability similar to the relationship

between residents and tourists. In the business context, attractiveness has been explored

in terms of the customer's financial value (e.g., growth rate and influence on the market)

(Pulles et al., 2015) and social values (e.g., familiarity and similarity) (Harris, O'Malley,

& Patterson, 2003). These values have also been explored in the tourism context.

According to Wu and Pearce (2012), preferred tourist groups are described as "those who

will spend more and stay longer" and "those who respect our culture, religious belief and rules" (p. 135). Franzidis and Yau (2017) also found that residents in a small beach community prefer international tourists to domestic ones because the former are "more respectful and have a genuine interest in their culture" (p. 10).

Attributes in Attractiveness

The concept of *tourist attractiveness* in this study is based on a discussion on interpersonal perspectives provided by Lott and Lott (1974). They explained attractiveness in terms of the rewards others provide in a seminal article, "Reward in the Formation of Positive Interpersonal Attitudes" (Lott & Lott, 1974). According to them, individuals tend to like "those who reward them" or those "whose overall behavior is most rewarding" (Lott & Lott, 1974, p. 171). To understand how rewards function in the learning of liking, they suggested three cues (i.e., the nature or quality of a person; a person as an intermediator; and the overt behaviors of a person) that function as the sources of the rewards that can be provided by another person (Lott & Lott, 1974).

First, the nature or quality of the other person could be a strong reward for an individual because merely being in the same place at same time with a person who has good characteristics such as beauty and kindliness may be able to make the individual feel pleasure as an example. Furthermore, Lott and Lott (1974) point out similarity as a key trait generating the attractiveness of a person because an individual can verify his interpretation of social reality and point of view by knowing others who share similar attitudes and social characteristics (Lott & Lott, 1974). Therefore, when a person meets

and interacts with others with similar characteristics, the person is more likely to see positive outcomes from the relationship (Lott & Lott, 1974). In this sense, this study includes *tourist familiarity* as one of factors that can appropriately explain tourist attractiveness, which corresponds to the underpinnings of social distance theory (Lee, Sapp, & Ray, 1996; Sinkovics & Penz, 2009; Thyne & Zins, 2003; Wark & Galliher, 2007; Zamani-Farahani, 2011) and emotional solidarity theory (Hammarström, 2005; Merz, Schuengel, & Schulze, 2007; Woosnam, 2012).

Second, a person in and of himself/herself may be an intermediator who can bring certain positive benefits. For example, a person who has the capability to ensure successful completion of a task, to provide desired goods, or to protect others from danger, could be perceived as attractive. In other words, this cue involves a person's capabilities and how they may create certain benefits. It is also explained in terms of competence and can be found in a variety of forms (e.g., economic, interactional, sexual competence (Rosenblatt, 1974). In addition, Lott and Lott (1974) highlighted that attractiveness can also be based on the results of the capability as a gain-loss sequence, saying "the likability of a person will increase after he or she performs some act that benefits another individual" (p. 174). They explained it further using a personal relationship: people who provide positive evaluations for us are more likely to be liked by us than those who rate us poorly (Lott & Lott, 1974). Therefore, the capabilities of a person and the consequence of his or her behavior are measured in terms of *tourist financial capacity* and perceived *tourist influences,* respectively.

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Third, overt behaviors such as a "smile of approval, an expression of agreement, or some positive evaluation" can be perceived as a positive signal that attracts others (Lott & Lott, 1974, p. 172). This cue is closely related to how satisfied person is with the other's behavior. According to Lott and Lott (1974), people who behave "appropriately" are more liked by their partners than those who behave "inappropriately" (p. 175). For persons who are liked, adjectives such as "sincere, honest, understanding, loyal, energetic, considerate, happy, intelligent, and truthful" are frequently used, whereas for persons who are disliked traits such as "cruel, mean, phony, liar, complaining, insincere, narrow-minded, quarrelsome, and self-centered" are used (Lott & Lott, 1974, p. 179). Therefore, this dissertation uses *tourist responsibility* to measure tourists' responsible and appropriate behavior as a form of reward given to the host community.

This study considers both the interpersonal and the business perspectives since the tourist-resident relationship is not limited to only direct benefits but is fundamentally an interpersonal interaction. This study defines tourist attractiveness as the tourist's capacity to create interest and attract the attention of the host community based on the definition of attractiveness suggested by La Rocca et al. (2012). Further, this study has developed sub-constructs that measure tourist attractiveness, including tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, and tourist influence.

Tourist Familiarity

The concept of familiarity is interrelated with attraction, especially in cross-cultural contexts (Rosenblatt, 1974). More specifically, familiarity, which refers to "the degree of

opportunity for parties to interact" and, in turn, form an attraction (Harris et al., 2003, p. 17), is a precondition for increasing attractiveness (Harris et al., 2003). The concept of attractiveness can be applied to not only the buyer-seller relationship but also to the resident-tourist relationship, which is also based on individual relationships. Interpersonal attraction concerns a "judgement about whether we 'like' another person, whether we 'feel good'" about him or her (McCroskey & McCain, 1974, p. 1). It can also be understood in terms of social attractiveness, which has been studied in terms of similarity and friendliness (Hüttinger et al., 2012). According to Liviatan, Trope, and Liberman (2008), the core value of a relationship refers to "a sense of belongingness, or closeness, between the perceiver and the target on the relevant dimension" (p.2), a conclusion supported by other studies in psychology indicating that the closer the two people are, the more they feel social intimacy (Mussweiler, Rüter, & Epstude, 2004). In the business context, "people may experience more or less social distance from salespeople or customer service representatives with whom they interact" (Wakslak, Liberman, & Trope, 2007, p. 94), and this level of perceived social distance can also be influenced by the cultural background between them (Sinkovics & Penz, 2009).

In terms of the resident-tourist relationship, social distance theory is used to explain why residents have a favorable or unfavorable relationship with a specific tourist group. This theory, which measures the intimacy between actors in strategic interactions, has recently been found to have a significant impact on personal decisions (Buchan, Johnson, & Croson, 2006). For example, Sinkovics and Penz (2009) used social distance to explain why local residents avoid relationships with specific tourist groups, finding

that interacting with tourists groups of the same nationality results in fewer cross-cultural

conflicts than when residents interact with those from a different nationality. Similarly,

Weichselbaumer's (2012) study on sexual relationships between Western females and

Caribbean males found that the females interviewed highlighted similarities between

Western and Caribbean men as they explained the attractiveness of their Caribbean

lovers. These results indicate that the females were attracted by the attributes in their

lovers that were familiar to them. However, while there is some, the research

investigating the sense of familiarity between resident and tourist in terms of

attractiveness is limited.

Since familiarity is a precondition for increasing attractiveness, this study uses

Hüttinger et al.'s (2012) concept of social attractiveness as similarity and friendliness.

More specifically, in this study, familiarity is defined as a perceived similarity and

friendliness towards tourists.

Tourist Financial Capacity

From the perspective of cultural exchange, the resident-tourist relationship has often been

understood in terms of a host-guest relationship. However, there are some differences

between the two, most importantly, the length of stay. Unlike guests, tourists usually only

stay at a particular tourism attraction a short length of time, meaning the social contact

between the residents and visitors is probably "brief, temporary and non-repetitive, open

to deceit and exploitation, superficial, formal and commercial and asymmetric in terms of

meaning for both actors" (Carneiro & Eusébio, 2015; Yvette Reisinger & Turner, 2003).

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In addition, tourists have paid money not only for the travel experience but also for the social and economic interactions with the host community. As tourists have specific, limited, and immediate purposes for their trips, residents primarily profit from the money spent by tourists for a short-term experience.

In this regard, Krippendorf (1987) also understood the resident-tourist relationship in terms of a business arrangement, which, for him, also distinguishes a tourist from a guest. He viewed tourists as "merchandise" in a market, explaining their interaction with locals as having a "mercenary purpose" (p. 59). In addition, because the tourism industry includes some of the unique characteristics of the service industry such as intangibility and inseparability of production and consumption, building and maintaining favorable resident-tourist relationships is essential (Wang, Law, Hung, & Guillet, 2014). Thus, the resident-tourist relationship can be understood in terms of an extended business relationship.

Many tourism impact studies have focused on how tourist revenue contributes to the local economy (Ap, 1990; Dyer, Gursoy, Sharma, & Carter, 2007; Haley, Snaith, & Miller, 2005; Kuvan & Akan, 2005; Li & Wan, 2013; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Suess & Mody, 2016; Yoon, Kim, & Kim, 2015). These studies emphasized the role of tourism in the local economy that generates jobs, attracts investments, and provides economic benefits to local businesses. In addition, tourist spending behavior has been studied by exploring the determinants of expenditure in terms of travel patterns (Abbruzzo, Brida, & Scuderi, 2014; Aguiló, Rosselló, & Vila, 2017; Cannon & Ford, 2002; Jang, Bai, Hong, & O'Leary, 2004; Kastenholz, 2005; Marrocu, Paci, & Zara, 2015; Thrane & Farstad,

2011) and the demographics of the tourists (Abbruzzo et al., 2014; Aguiló et al., 2017; Cannon & Ford, 2002; Hall & Lafayette, 1999; Jang et al., 2004; Marrocu et al., 2015; Yi, Day, & Cai, 2012). For example, Yi et al. (2012) studied the spending behavior of baby boomer tourists as a target market for a recreational fishing trip. These studies assume that tourists who spend more money during a trip and, thus, contribute more to the local economy of the destination are, of course, more welcomed by the locals.

Therefore, financial capacity is applied in this study to determine if tourist profitability informs tourist attractiveness. Here, financial capacity refers to the capacity to bring profits to the host community based on the definition of Hüttinger et al. (2012). This study, thus, focuses on how the host community can benefit from superficial formal, and commercial relationships with tourists.

Tourist Responsibility

Crilly, Schneider, and Zollo (2008) defined responsible behavior broadly as "discretionary decisions and actions taken by individuals in organizations to enhance societal well-being (do good) or to avoid harmful consequences for society (do no harm)" (p. 176). The phenomenological concept of responsibility is an individual's intention to provide favors, help, or benefits to others (Tedeschi, 1974). Responsibility also often involves a personal sense of obligation to do or not do certain actions, an obligation that is assigned to either the person alone, in conjunction with others, or exclusively to others (Passafaro et al., 2015). For example, when people think about environmental issues in terms of their individual obligation, they tend to become more involved in the problem

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and their commitment to the issue is increased (Stern, Dietz, Abe, Guagnano, & Kalof, 1999).

In a personal relationship, responsibility is expressed in terms of care and concern, and being responsible means the person will be available when needed (Tedeschi, 1974). And care, concern, and respect are the affective and dispositional components implied in the formulation of attraction (Tedeschi, 1974). The nature of responsibility works as a positive signal of being "sincere, honest, understanding, loyal, energetic, considerate, happy, intelligent, and truthful," attributes that can attract other people (Lott & Lott, 1974, p. 175). In other words, responsibility depends on reciprocity between the parties although it is explained by the altruistic and dispositional elements of attraction. In that sense, locals often want to control the behavior of tourists to ensure they respect the local tradition and culture, and they try to do so in a variety of ways, such as including the words "if you give respect you get respect'' on restaurant menus (Maoz, 2006, p. 231).

There are several reasons for applying the concept of responsibility in a tourism context (Passafaro et al., 2015). Realizing and accepting responsibility for the impact of tourism behavior on host environments, both physical and human, has been a focus of the industry since the 1980s and it has led to alternative forms and concepts of tourism, referred to as sustainable, eco, responsible, and ethical tourism (Mihalic, 2013). These forms of tourism are regarded as alternatives to the mainstream mass tourism that is often environmentally, socially, ethically and politically intolerable to the host community (Mihalic, 2013; Mihalic & Fennell, 2015).

According to the UNWTO (2008), sustainable tourism typically requires tourists, who consider the socio-economic and environmental impacts of their options before making a decision on travel and a destination; and whose behavior preserves the natural environment and cultural heritage of the destination. Sustainable tourism studies, specifically studies dealing with responsible tourism, are interested in the socially responsible tourist, the one who has "concerns regarding the impacts of mass tourism development, and pursues 'alternative' forms of tourism" (Caruana, Glozer, Crane, & McCabe, 2014, p. 117). They adopt the concept of the socially conscious customer from the business field "who takes into account the public consequences of his or her private consumption or who attempts to use his or her purchasing power to bring about social change" (Webster, 1975, p. 188). In this sense, responsible tourist behavior includes "moral accountability for one's actions and the impacts of those actions" (Leslie, 2012, p.1). According to Perkins and Brown (2012), tourists who are more concerned with their personal impact on the environments and who look for green accreditation in their tourism products and services are more likely to exhibit responsible tourism. Deng and Li (2015) also found that self-identified eco-tourists have distinctive characteristics compared to non-eco-tourists: they are more sensitive and responsible about environmental issues, more interested in environment-certification programs, and more likely to support eco-friendly tourism businesses. However, because research on resident perception of the tourist responsibility is limited, this study explores the tourist responsibility through a lens of attractiveness.

To understand the concept of responsibility in terms of tourist attractiveness, this study uses Crilly et al.'s (2008) definition of responsibility as "discretionary decisions and actions taken by individual tourists to enhance social, cultural, economic, and environmental well-being of a host community or to avoid harmful consequences for a host community" (p. 176).

Tourist Influence

Many tourism researchers have focused on the perceived influence of tourism in relation to tourist behavior (Carneiro & Eusébio, 2015; Cheng & Wu, 2015; Chhabra, 2010; Concu & Atzeni, 2012; Heeney, 2015; Maoz, 2006; Shani & Uriely, 2012; Volo, 2011). Visitors often criticize the residents' quality of life; generate waste, pollution, and noise; and improperly use or overuse natural resource attractions, jeopardizing a destination's sustainable tourism (Kreag, 2001). The area of investigation includes not only the issues associated with direct interactions with tourists, but also those caused by the development targeting tourists that is essential for the tourist experience (Concu & Atzeni, 2012; Heeney, 2015). For example, the increase in area needed to meet the tourist service required can alter the appearance of the landscape, especially the ability to enjoy the scenic landscape at prime locations such as beaches and mountains (Kreag, 2001).

Residents' perceptions and attitudes toward the effects of tourism development caused by tourist behavior have been found to be key factors in describing the relationship between residents and tourists (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004). In areas with diverse stakeholders, these factors become increasingly important for researchers and

policymakers in planning tourism policies and preparing guidelines for sustainable tourism (Liu, Sheldon, & Var, 1987). If the residents think future development will harm the social and physical environments, this perception can have a significant impact on the resident-tourist relationship as well as on the development plans (Laws, Agrusa, & Richins, 2011).

However, the residents' perception and attitude toward tourists and their effect on the future behavior of the locals has received little research attention (Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2011; Ward & Berno, 2011). Vargas-Sánchez et al.'s (2011) research on residents' perception of tourists and its influence on their attitude toward tourism found that the more benefits the residents received, the more they tended to behave favorably to tourists, with those benefitting the most tending to show more tolerance to tourists, almost a sterile politeness, because they consider the visitors as a "necessarily evil" (Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2011, p. 470). In this regard, the residents considered tourism as a chance to improve the quality of their lives by promoting cultural exchange and generating economic benefits (Mok, Slater, & Cheung, 1991). In addition, residents of developing countries also tend to have a favorable attitude toward tourists because they think this industry is important for their community's economy (Ward & Berno, 2011). These examples are consistent with Lott and Lott's (1974) discussion of attractiveness: the attractiveness of an individual can be evaluated by the rewards he or she brings, suggesting that tourist attractiveness can also be explained based on results of the capability, or rewards.

Tourist impact studies typically include three sub-dimensions based on the area of impact (i.e., economic, social, and environmental impacts) in order to measure the resident's perceptions of the impact of tourists on the local community (Almeida-García, Peláez-Fernández, Balbuena-Vázquez, & Cortés-Macias, 2016; Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Kim, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2013; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Xu, Barbieri, Anderson, Leung, & Rozier-Rich, 2016). However, Ap and Crompton (1998) were interested in more specific areas such as social and cultural, economic, crowding and congestion, environmental, services, taxes, and community perceptions. Similarly, Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, and Vogt (2005) considered six areas including community environments, community problems, community life, community image, community service, and community economy. Furthermore, many researchers have explored tourism's impacts in terms of positive and negative aspects (Ap, 1990; Dyer et al., 2007; Haley et al., 2005; Kuvan & Akan, 2005; Li & Wan, 2013; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Suess & Mody, 2016; Yoon et al., 2015). For example, Kuvan and Akan (2005) used positive and negative dimensions to examine the effect of tourism (i.e., economic benefits and economic problems; positive and negative socio-cultural impacts; and positive and negative environmental impacts) on a Turkish coastal destination.

These studies consider tourism impacts as a social phenomenon that occurs as a result of a series of social interactions, specifically those caused by tourist visits and behaviors at a destination. Thus, the term of tourism impact can be understood to be interchangeable with tourist influence. In the sense, this study uses the term of tourist influence instead of tourism impact. It, therefore, defines perceived tourist influence as

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the resident's perception of the influence of tourists on the community, based on the definition of tourism influence suggested by Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2011) and Andereck et al. (2005).

Resident Satisfaction

A sense of satisfaction is formed through a positive perception of an experience over a certain period of time based on relationships (Ganesan, 1994). Similarly, customer satisfaction in the business world is a concept emphasizing a "relationship," one that is primarily based on the perception or evaluation of the goods or services provided by a seller (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, & Bryant, 1996). On the other hand, supplier satisfaction is also important in continuing a good relationship (Essig & Amann, 2009) since suppliers have been identified as a determinant of success in various industries (Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987). As supplier satisfaction refers to "a supplier's feeling of fairness with regard to buyer's incentives and supplier's contribution within an industrial buyer-seller relationship" (Essig & Amann, 2009, p. 104), it focuses on the quality of the buyer-seller relationship from the supplier's perspective.

Recently, supplier satisfaction has become to be regarded as a core value for creating a fair and profitable relationship for both suppliers and customers (Essig & Amann, 2009). If a supplier is dissatisfied with his or her relationship with a buyer, he or she may not care about the quality of products or services provided, a situation that can impact the quality of the buyer's products and, in turn, his or her sales volume and profitability. In this sense, a dissatisfied supplier may choose to discontinue the existing

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relationship to find a more satisfactory situation. Thus, framed as a mutually beneficial relationship aimed to continue into the future, in a buyer-seller relationship, customers should take measures to ensure the satisfaction of their supplier (Essig & Amann, 2009), while suppliers should also do their best to maintain the relationship because leaving it means forfeiting the previous effort and financial investments (Essig & Amann, 2009).

As applied to sustainable tourism, this concept emphasizes the residents' satisfaction with their quality of life as a criterion reflecting resident satisfaction with tourism (Nawijn & Mitas, 2012), meaning supplier satisfaction in this industry should be a main concern. However, there has been relatively little tourism research on the satisfaction of the host community despite its importance (Ko & Stewart, 2002), with most past research focusing on tourist satisfaction. This unbalanced research trend has impacted the establishment of equal status between residents and tourists, a situation essential for creating and maintaining good relationships (Luo et al., 2015). Given that successful tourism is based on resident satisfaction as well as tourist satisfaction (UNEP-WTO, 2005), resident satisfaction needs to be explored. In the business field, many studies have explored the supplier's relational satisfaction with customers (Essig & Amann, 2009; Ghijsen et al., 2010; Hüttinger et al., 2012; Lawrence, 2005; Meena & Sarmah, 2012; Schiele et al., 2012; Wong, 2000). In tourism field, however, resident's relational satisfaction has not been explored. Most studies consider only tourist satisfaction with tourism experiences or services (Alegre & Garau, 2011; Coghlan, 2012; Engeset & Elvekrok, 2015; Lee et al., 2011; Song et al., 2012; Su et al., 2016; Torres-Sovero et al., 2012). For example, Su et al. (2016) examined tourists' satisfaction with

the service and experience provided by hotels. This research trend also reveals that the customer's perspective has been the dominant one in the buyer-seller relationship in tourism studies. Therefore, resident's relational satisfaction with tourists should be further examined in order to understand the resident perspective in terms of the buyer-seller relationship, the one assumed in this study. To address this need, this study adopts the Essig and Amann (2009) definition of supplier satisfaction with a customer, in which resident satisfaction is defined as the satisfaction of the residents with their relationship with tourists.

Resident Commitment

Commitment is the effort needed to join a partnership, more specifically the willingness to accept the short-term sacrifice, cost, or restriction required by others to achieve a common outcome and realize long-term profits (Leonidou, Palihawadana, & Theodosiou, 2006). It also refers to "a desire to maintain a valued relationship and work hard to ensure its continuation in the future" (Leonidou et al., 2006, p. 153). According to Leonidou et al. (2006), commitment can be seen in the following characteristics: the credibility and proportionality of resources for the relationship; the amount of input indicating the degree of long-term involvement in the relationship; and the consistency of resources and attitude for the relationship over time.

A mutual commitment can lead to a cost-efficient relationship with a counterpart (La Rocca et al., 2012). In particular, in a relationship characterized by high interdependence, one that expects benefits from each other through a reciprocal

relationship, each party has a strong motivation to cooperate and show commitment because of the "expected mutual values …the existence of relatively high exit barriers…[and] the difficulties encountered in switching to alternative partners" (Leonidou et al., 2006, p. 152). Thus, commitment is central to relationships from both a sociological and a business transaction-cost perspective, and it is an important marker of the stages in the development of a relationship (Baxter, 2012).

Similar to the other research areas, the research on commitment in the business literature has been conducted from the perspective of a customer's commitment to a supplier rather than from a supplier's commitment to a customer. For example, when a customer is satisfied with the service quality provided by a company, he or she is also likely to become committed to it (Flint, Blocker, & Boutin, 2011; Gustafsson, Johnson, & Roos, 2005). However, because customers often have less specialized knowledge of the products and services than suppliers, they may not be able to fully verify the quality of the goods and services provided (Essig & Amann, 2009). As a result, on one hand, the customer tends to consider the supplier's commitment to the relationship to verify indirectly this quality (Cook & Emerson, 1978), meaning it is necessary to explore the suppliers' commitment to customers in the buyer-seller relationship. As a result, recent business studies have shown an interest in supplier commitment, not only in terms of the organizational commitment that traditionally received attention (Donavan, Brown, & Mowen, 2004; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Zopiatis, Constanti, & Theocharous, 2014), but also commitment to customers (Baxter, 2012; Ghijsen et al., 2010; Provan & Gassenheimer, 1994).

In the context of tourism, resident commitment has been explored in terms of the relationship between residents and tourism development. In many tourism development studies, resident commitment is regarded as a critical factor in the development of community-based tourism (Jamal & Watt, 2011; Jones, 2005; Lepp, 2007) because a high level of resident commitment can maximize the benefits to the community (Jones, 2005) by influencing decision-making in regard to tourism policies, rules, and management (Jamal & Watt, 2011). For example, Chien, Ritchie, Shipway, and Henderson (2012) explored resident support for the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic sailing events held in Weymouth and Portland, United Kingdom. According to them, resident commitment to a local tourism event can be categorized into three dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Chien et al., 2012). Affective commitment, which is a resident's emotional bond with the tourism event, focuses on the residents' desire to be involved in the event "because they want to" (Bansal, Irving, & Taylor, 2004). Continuance commitment is a constraint-based relationship that ties a resident to the event, primarily seen when residents feel that they are closely related to the event (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Normative commitment is related to perceived obligation. In other words, a resident can feel a social pressure to be involved in the event because "they ought to as it is the right thing to do" (Bansal et al., 2004). Regardless of the type, a high level of resident commitment indicates a high level of willingness and desire to ensure the event's success (Chien et al., 2012). In this context, several studies have assessed the support of local residents for tourism based on the extent to which they

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participate in it (Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Nicholas,

Thapa, & Ko, 2009).

However, there is limited research on resident commitment to tourist although it

is a core factor in initiating and maintaining a good relationship with tourists (Ghijsen et

al., 2010; Prahinski & Benton, 2004; Provan & Gassenheimer, 1994). To provide deeper

insight on the sustainability of the resident-tourist relationship, this study focuses on

exploring residents' relational commitment to tourists. In this study, therefore, resident

commitment is defined as a desire to maintain a valued relationship with tourists and to

work hard to ensure its continuation in the future, based on Leonidou et al.'s (2006)

definition.

The table 3.1 indicates the terms and their definitions used in this study.

Table 3.1 Definitions of Tourist Attractiveness, Resident Satisfaction, and Resident
Commitment

Term	Definition
Tourist Attractiveness	The capacity of tourists to create interest and attract the attention of host community
Tourist Familiarity	The resident's perceived similarity to and friendliness towards tourists
Tourist Financial Capacity	The ability of tourists to profit the host community
Tourist Responsibility	The tourist's discretionary decisions and actions taken to enhance social, cultural, economic, and environmental well-being of host community or to avoid harmful consequences for host community
Tourist Influence	The resident's perception of the influence of tourists on the host community
Resident Satisfaction	The satisfaction of the residents with their relationship with tourists
Resident Commitment	The residents' desire to maintain a valued relationship with tourists and to work hard to ensure its continuation in the future

Methods

Advantages of Mixed Methods

Mixed methods research can be considered a third methodological movement that suggests alternative logical and technical approaches to the paradigm that has traditionally separated the use of quantitative and qualitative methods (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Molina-Azorín & Font, 2015). Mixed methods, also referred to as multi-methods, multi-strategy, and mixed methodology, has been acknowledged as a distinct approach to research (Bryman, 2006). According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) mixed method are "the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study" (p. 17). In particular, most of the approaches employed in mixed methods research include a combination of survey methods and qualitative interviews (Bryman, 2006). While it cannot be concluded that mixed methods are superior to research relying on a single method, this approach offers more possibilities for addressing research problems and questions more comprehensively (Molina-Azorín & Font, 2015). This advantage is explained by complementarity, which is one of reasons that researchers should consider using mixed methods (Hesse-Biber, 2014). Complementarity is achieved by utilizing quantitative and qualitative methods, thus allowing numerical or narrative explanations when the researcher interprets a given research problem and set of results (Hesse-Biber, 2014). Mixed methods allow the researcher to fully understand and explain the research backgrounds and contexts in their entirety (Hesse-Biber, 2014; Yauch & Steudel, 2003).

The concept of triangulation of methods facilitated the emergence of mixed methods because it emphasized the limitations of a mono-method (Molina-Azorín & Font, 2015). Triangulation refers to "the use of multiple methods for the same research question in order to examine the same dimension of a research problem" (Jick, 1979, p. 602). It allows the researcher to offset or counteract potential biases in a conceptual phenomenon by converging or comparing the results from different methods (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). Through triangulation, therefore, the researcher can enhance the credibility of the research procedures and findings and can enrich a study's conclusion (Hesse-Biber, 2014).

In the tourism field, the use of the mixed methods approach facilitates diversity and innovation in research designs (Molina-Azorín & Font, 2015). According to Riley and Love (2000), the leading research method in tourism was quantitative, while qualitative and mixed methods were marginal (less than 5%), a conclusion supported by research that focused on the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism (JoST)*. In the study, mixed methods were adopted by only 12% of the studies between 2005 and 2014, while 38% used qualitative and 33% quantitative (Molina-Azorín & Font, 2015). According to Lu and Nepal (2009), 6% of *JoST* articles used mixed methods between 1993 and 2007. Similarly, 6% of published tourism articles adopted mixed methods approach in a study focusing on the three primary tourism journals: *Journal of Travel Research*, *Tourism Management*, and *Annals of Tourism Research* between 1994 and 2005 (Ballantyne, Packer, & Axelsen, 2009), while a more recent study reported this number had risen to 13.5% in the *Journal of Travel Research*, *Tourism Management*, and *Annals of Tourism*

Research between 1984 and 2010 (Nunkoo, Smith, & Ramkissoon, 2013). As these data show, mixed methods remain an approach infrequently applied in tourism research.

Despite the low frequency, mixed methods can offer a number of advantages to tourism research since such studies examine the multifaceted and complex phenomena entangled with tourism (Puhakka, Cottrell, & Siikamäki, 2014). A mixed methods approach is expected to facilitate a more holistic research perspective (Hunt & Stronza, 2009) and to enhance the interdisciplinary nature of tourism studies (Jamal & Hollinshead, 2001). In terms of the practice of research, mixed methods could help to establish and confirm research constructs by identifying key factors that can be applied to tourism (Hesse-Biber, 2014; Yauch & Steudel, 2003).

Hanson, Creswell, Clark, Petska, and Creswell (2005) suggested six types of mixed methods research designs based on the purpose and priority of data use: sequential explanatory, sequential exploratory, sequential transformative, concurrent triangulation, concurrent nested, and concurrent transformative. Among them, sequential exploratory design is used to identify variables or develop new constructs (Hanson et al., 2005). For that purpose, first, researchers conduct interviews to collect a wealth of narrative information regarding the research topic, and they then create a survey tool to gain numerical data based on the qualitative findings (Hesse-Biber, 2014). For example, Yauch and Steudel (2003) used this design to identify "key factors that aided or hindered a company's ability to successfully implement manufacturing cells" in a study examining organizational cultures of two manufacture companies (p. 467).

This study adopts the mixed methods approach in terms of complementarity and triangulation. Specifically, the sequential exploratory design is used for the scale development. This sequential exploratory study is expected not only to provide in-depth information on the research constructs of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment, but also to confirm their cross-validation. In addition, the quantitative results gained from the surveys can be more fully and effectively interpreted in light of the qualitative information obtained from a literature review or interview results (Jick, 1979).

Mixed Methods Procedure

Data collection and analysis were conducted using the mixed methods sequential exploratory design approach suggested by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007). In accordance with this approach, the mixed methods procedure of this study included two phases and eight stages of qualitative and quantitative data analysis (table 3.2). In addition, the researcher further developed the details of the mixed methods procedure by considering Churchill's (1979) scale development procedure that details the techniques required for each step.

In the first phase, qualitative data collection and analysis were conducted through semi-structured in-depth interviews to explore the concepts and constructs of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment. Before the qualitative data collection, a literature review was conducted to specify the domains of the construct (Churchill, 1979) (i.e., attractiveness, satisfaction, and commitment from business

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studies; interpersonal attractiveness from social psychology studies; tourist impacts from

tourism studies). Then, the semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted with Jeju

residents who have diverse perspectives and experiences on their island's tourism

industry and the tourists who visit. Through these semi-structured in-depth interviews,

the core concepts of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment

were explored (Churchill, 1979). Reflecting the qualitative output, the second round of

the literature review was conducted to confirm the concepts of the variables and to

establish test instruments (Churchill, 1979). Then, the scales that were developed were

revised using a Q-sort method and both American and Korean tourism scholars. At this

point, items were removed and added if necessary as well as phrasing and typographical

and format errors were corrected.

In the second phase, a single pilot-test was conducted using samples of Korean

college students through an on-site, self-administered survey instrument. Using the

quantitative data, principle component analysis (PCA) and exploratory factor analysis

(EFA) were applied to confirm the reliability of the test instruments in relation to the

research variables (Churchill, 1979). After the pilot test, all the qualitative and

quantitative information was tested using a larger sample of Jeju Island residents. In the

main study, a representative sample of Jeju Island permanent residents were contacted at

public sites (e.g., public library, government office, etc.) and were asked to complete the

finalized on-site, self-administered survey instrument (including each of the scales

developed for the research constructs and additional residents characteristics) to test the

research model. Then, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to check the

validity of the instruments (Churchill, 1979).

Table 3.2. Procedure of Sequential Exploratory Design: Instrument Development Model

Phase	Stage	Contents	Applied Methods
Qualitative Phase	1	Qualitative Data Collection	Semi-structured In-depth Interview
	2	Qualitative Data Analysis	
	3	Qualitative Results	
	4	Development of Test Instrument	Literature review & Q-sort method
Quantitative Phase	5	Quantitative Data Collection	Pilot test & Main test
	6	Quantitative Data Analysis	
	7	Quantitative Results	
-	8	Interpretation of Results	-

Qualitative Phase

Semi-structured In-depth Interview

An interview is "a personal and intimate encounter in which open, direct, verbal

questions are used to elicit detailed narratives and stories" (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree,

2006, p. 317). Interviews, whether structured, semi-structured, or informal, are one of the

most popular methods for collecting "texts" that form qualitative data (Qu & Dumay,

2011; Yauch & Steudel, 2003). In a mixed methods approach and even in a quantitative

study that does not use interview as the primary method for data collection, interviews

are often used to obtain preliminary data in a pilot study before the actual survey is

conducted (Qu & Dumay, 2011). The purpose of an interview is to gather conceptual and

perceptual knowledge that is formed based on the interviewees' life experiences

(DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). To capture the underlying meanings, interviewing

requires "a respect for and curiosity about what people say, and a willingness to

acknowledge what is not understood, and the ability to ask about what is not yet known"

(Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 13).

According to DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006), as a technique for collecting qualitative data, individual in-depth interviews provide two clear advantages. First, they are a better tool for exploring an individual's personal thoughts about social and personal matters deeply than a group interview because of the public nature of being reluctant to openly express thoughts to others. Second, such interviews allow the interviewer to co-create meanings about the research object, such as experiences and social events, with the interviewees by reconstructing their perceptions. Accordingly, the encounter between interviewer and interviewee is a process that converts actual events happening in the social world to a concept or meaning for the research (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

The structured in-depth interview procedure allows for the interviewer to maintain control over the interaction with the interviewee (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). The word structured here also includes the meaning of standardized (Qu & Dumay, 2011). The structured interview is conducted by using pre-established questions and limited response categories, whereas an unstructured interview uses open-ended questions (Qu & Dumay, 2011). Semi-structured interviews, which lie at some point on the continuum between structured and unstructured interviews (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Qu & Dumay, 2011), are the most popular interview format used in qualitative research (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). This type of interview involves specific questions prepared to initiate a consistent and systematic conversation based on the research themes (Qu & Dumay, 2011; Rubin & Rubin, 2005). In general, these questions consist of a set

of pre-determined, open-ended questions and impromptu questions emerging from the ongoing conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

In this study, semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted to achieve two purposes. First, as a preliminary phase, they were to confirm the concepts and constructs of the variables that would subsequently be used in the quantitative study by cross-checking matching results from the qualitative results and the literature reviews (Qu & Dumay, 2011). The results are expected to show whether the variables demonstrate validity in accordance with the tourism research and research site based on complementarity and triangulation. Second, the qualitative information gained through the interviews is useful for interpreting the quantitative results gained from the surveys more effectively and accurately (Jick, 1979). Thus, the researcher can gain more meaningful implications reflecting the underlying research contexts of Jeju's tourism. from the qualitative information.

Sampling and Interview Steps

Creswell (2007) recommended using purposeful sampling to gain important information from in-depth interviews. The participants in the study reported here consisted of a purposeful sampling of seven Jeju residents. Recruiting these participants required a set of selection criteria to ensure those selected had rich information about the research topic as well as were representative of the study population (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002). LeCompte and Preissle (1993) also suggested using a list of the essential attributes and

then finding people exhibiting those characteristics. For this study these attributes included residents who felt strongly (either positively or negatively) about tourism and tourists on Jeju Island; who have lived on the island for at least 12 months; who were 18 years of age or older; and who possess divergent perspectives regarding tourism and tourists in the area. In addition, to reflect the population of Jeju Island, participants' age and gender distributions were considered[3]. Length of resident was identified by indicating their knowledge about the island's tourism industry and their attachment to Jeju. Occupation was also controlled since societal factors can be closely related to the frequency of contacts with tourists or the hospitality given to them.

To access to potential interviewees, the researcher used mediums such as major environmental organizations, travel agencies, and a university, all of which have a pool of potential participants; and contacted individuals who have a personal relationship with the researcher. Then, the researcher listed the potential participants with the attributes essential for this study as well as those representative of the population on Jeju Island. The individuals on the list were contacted four times in advance of interview. The first contact occurred 7-15 days prior to interview via telephone in order to ask if they would contribute to the research using a recruitment script (see Appendix C). They were informed about purpose of the study and their role in it. Once they agreed to participate, the follow-up contact was conducted via email to arrange for a time and location for the

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[3] According to 2016 demographics of Jeju, the percentage of male population over 18 was 49.8%, while for females it was 50.2%. Also they indicate that 15.3% of the population over 18 was in their 20s, 17.3% in their 30s, 22.4% in their 40s, 20.1% in their 50s, 12.4% in their 60s, and 12.5% above 70.

interview. Finally, the researcher provided a reminder or phone call to encourage their

participation and to confirm the time and location three days prior to the interview. The

last contact was made the day before the interview to remind them of the interview

scheduled. Prior to beginning each in-depth interview, the interviewees received a letter

informing them of the purpose of the study, their role as an interviewee, a confidentiality

statement, a statement detailing the potential benefits and risks, and contact information

(see Appendix E).

Conducting Semi-structured In-depth Interviews

The semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted in July of 2016. Because Jeju's

major industry is tourism, scheduling the interviews during the off-season allowed the

interviewer a greater chance of being able to recruit potential interviewees. Interviews

were held at the site preferred by the participant from the seven on-site locations

suggested by the interviewees (e.g., interviewee's office and cafeteria). All interview

locations had appropriate seating and were quiet, meaning each was appropriate for

conducting an interview using audio recording. All interviews were conducted in Korean.

The minimum age of the participants was 21 and the maximum 67. All participants were

born and raised on Jeju Island, with the shortest length of residence being 21 years and

the longest 54. Three participants had experienced living on the mainland due to their

work or education. Of the seven interviewees, three were male and four were female. The

occupations of the seven included two environmentalists, a tourism employee, an

employee in a non-tourism industry, a college student, a farmer, and a tourism researcher.

The interviewer used an interview script to guide the interview (see Appendix G).

When needed, the interviewer asked follow-up questions about responses and encouraged

the participants to feel free to express additional opinions beyond the prepared questions

to collect broader and deeper data. The interview script included the questions related to

the interviewees' demographic information (e.g., gender, age, number of years of

residence on Jeju, among others) and their attitudes toward Jeju's tourism (e.g., Do the

benefits from tourism go to the locals?), tourists (e.g., Where do they come from?), and

Chinese tourists (e.g., Do you feel Chinese tourists are different from most residents on

Jeju?). The interview was initiated with ice-breakers and general questions to foster a

comfortable interview atmosphere. Then, core questions regarding the concepts and

constructs of the research were asked, followed by any additional comments and/or

questions about the research or interview. These interviews lasted 40-90 minutes. All

interviews were audio-recoded and descriptive notes were also taken.

Interview Analysis

Data from each semi-structured in-depth interview were transcribed in a Microsoft Word

document and analyzed using NVivo11 software. The subsequent content analysis was

based on the eight-step procedure suggested by Busch et al. (n.d.) (Table 3.3). First, the

researcher considered the unit of the codes: whether to code a single word or sets of

words/phrases. In this study, the textual data were coded by phrases to provide contextual

meaning. Second, eight parent nodes were identified from the previous literature: tourist

type, interaction with tourists, familiarity, financial capacity, responsibility, tourist

influence, satisfaction with relationship with tourists, and commitment to the relationship. Thus, similar to selective coding, the use of pre-existing categories guided this analysis. Third, the data were analyzed for frequency to show the importance of the keywords. Fourth, the researcher considered phrases that were similar and, thus, could be integrated into a similar code. For example, "decreased life of quality" was coded as "tourist influence" due to its implicit meaning. Fifth, to maintain the consistency of the coding throughout the analysis, each interview was coded based on the working document of the codes by confirming whether the phrase could be coded into one of the codes already identified. For example, if "noisy" had been coded under the parent node of "tourist influence," other sentences including the word noisy were coded under the same node. Sixth, information was determined to be irrelevant based on the definition of categories (definition of terms in the first chapter) or if the information was not important for the focus of the study. For example, if the phrase did not represent one of the categories, it was disregarded. Consequently, the coded texts in the seventh step were sorted to match nodes that were previously established based on the literature, and the results were interpreted in the final stage.

Table 3.3 Coding Procedure

Step	Coding Procedure
1	Make decision on the level of analysis
2	Make decision on how many concepts to code
3	Make decision of whether code data for existence or frequency
4	Make decision on how to distinguish among concepts
5	Make decision on how code consistently throughout the text
6	Make decision on what to do with irrelevant information
7	Code the texts
8	Analyze the results

Source: Busch et al. (n.d.)

In the coding process, validity and reliability issues were considered. Reliability in a content analysis, which refers to the stability or consistency of the coding, can only be achieved when coding error is minimized (Busch et al., n.d.). Validity refers to the correspondence of contents to the conclusions or the generalizability of the research results (Busch et al., n.d.). Validity can be improved through triangulation and member-checks (Creswell, 2007). In this study, the participants were asked to check the transcribed interview results sent via email for any errors in interpreting their opinions. Analysis and interpretation of the coded data were peer-reviewed by a researcher who holds a Ph.D. in tourism.

Interview Results

The codes were sorted to match the previously established nodes based on the literature: two general domains (i.e., tourist type and interaction); four tourist attractiveness domains (i.e., familiarity, financial capacity, responsibility, and tourist influence); and single domains for each resident satisfaction and resident commitment.

Overall, a total of 926 individual codes were formulated across all parent nodes. There were 294 codes for tourist type, 44 for interaction, 113 for familiarity, 93 for financial capacity, 56 for responsibility, 150 for tourist influence, 84 for satisfaction, and 92 for commitment. All codes were classified into a single parent node.

The 294 codes for tourist type were classified into three sub-categories: origin of tourist, form of travel (package or individual tourist), and purpose of travel. These were used to indicate the residents' perception of the tourists: who they were. Throughout the

interviews, the interviewees provided clues that suggested the nationality or race of the travelers, thus indicating their primary place of origin. Among the 214 codes indicating tourist origin, 148 were associated with Chinese tourists (Chinese, or Chinese tourists), 20 indicated Korean tourists (Korean, Korean tourists, domestic tourists), and 15 Japanese tourists (Japanese, or Japanese tourists), with the remaining codes referencing international tourists and tourists from western countries, among others. The 33 codes associated with form of travel indicated 23 codes for packaged tourists and 10 for individual tourists. Regarding purpose of travel, the 47 total codes were classified into 20 for shopping (e.g., shopping at duty-free shops), 11 for beauty purpose (e.g., plastic surgery), 7 for cruise (e.g., cruise tourists), and 9 other codes (e.g., eco-tourists, golf tourists, and hikers). Because all interviews were conducted in Korean, the following interview results were translated into English by the researcher and a peer reviewer, both of whom speak Korean and English.

Forty-four phrases were coded for residents' interaction with Chinese tourists, with some highlighting a lack of opportunity to interact with Chinese tourists in their daily lives: *"No, I don't have any opportunity to personally interact with them and they don't ask any helps for me."*

On the other hand, other codes indicate that residents inevitably come into contact with Chinese tourists because of their large number on the island: *"I often experience that they catch me to ask where I bought my clothes that I was wearing by saying, "where where?"*

One hundred thirteen codes were associated with the parent node, familiarity with Chinese tourists. A number of codes mentioned an uncomfortable relationship with Chinese tourists. One resident indicated that "*We feel that something is weird about their culture,*" while another commented, "*I think their mental attitude is clearly different from ours.*"

The 93 codes for financial capacity indicated that the residents think the financial capacities of the Chinese tourists are polarized according to income group. One said "*The wealth of Chinese tourists are extremely polarized.*"

People thought some Chinese tourists have a large financial capacity: "*Some Chinese are very rich. Even just one percent of the whole population of China, the size so large. That class has huge money beyond imagination.*"

However, they thought that some Chinese tourists are not spending enough money in the host community: "*They begrudged the money they spend during trip. Just eat instant noodles at a convenience store. They beg drinking water.*"

For responsibility, a total of 56 phrases were coded. Residents described Chinese tourists' responsibility in the following way: "*Chinese tourists seem to ignore Jeju residents*"; "*I feel we are ignored.*" One resident expressed his hope to "*take only tourists who respect Jeju people.*"

Many of the respondents mentioned a variety of issues that Jeju Island is experiencing, indicating they believe these problems have been exacerbated because of the Chinese tourists. The parent node for tourist influence included 150 codes associated with a range of local issues: local employment (e.g., "*They usually hire Chinese people*

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for Chinese tourists"), development (e.g., "*Overdevelopment began in the vicinity of the airport*"), local culture (e.g., "*Local products of Jeju are disappearing*"), living cost (e.g., "*We are worrying about the loss of places for local people because of rising prices of real estates*"), crowding or noisy (e.g., "*Streets became too crowded*"), traffic (e.g., "*Many areas became chronically congested especially during rush hour*"), crime (e.g., "*Types of crimes became further variety*") and local environments (e.g., "*Recently we should buy drinking water from the mainland because of lack of natural underground water that were caused by nature destruction*").

Satisfaction with the relationship with Chinese tourists resulted in 84 coded phrases. Negative perceptions were dominant about this relationship: *"Especially people who recently came to live in Jeju have much dissatisfaction with Chinese tourists because they chose Jeju yearning for a quiet life."* Regardless of the negative perception of the relationship, however, codes for commitment included both positive and negative feedbacks. One resident said: *"We should welcome and help them kindly. Because they are visitors to my town. I know, of course, as a resident I have to treat them like 'guests in my home'. However, it is not easy."*

On the other hand, another resident claimed that Jeju residents should make more efforts to understand Chinese tourists: *"In the past, Koreans also made a number of mistakes on their trip. We have to understand them reflecting that experience."*

These results reflect the fact that the participants recognize the presence of Chinese tourists in terms of a reciprocal relationship: they expect the Chinese tourists to reward Jeju residents and/or the Island, indicating that the respondents tend to like "those

who reward them" or those "whose overall behavior is most rewarding" as Lott and Lott (1974) argued (p. 171). As a result, it can be concluded that the results of interview support the four attributes of tourist attractiveness (i.e., tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, and tourist influence) that this study considered based on Lott and Lott's (1974) discussion. Also, in the interviews, the participants clearly expressed their satisfaction with and commitment to the relationship with Chinese tourists, indicating that the concept of resident satisfaction with relationship and resident commitment, properly reflects the context.

Development of Test Instrument

Literature Review

Based on the interview results, constructs of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment were developed by borrowing constructs from relevant literatures.

To measure tourist familiarity, the social attraction scale suggested by McCroskey et al. (2006) was adopted here, while the financial attractive scale suggested by Pulles et al. (2015) was used to measure the tourist financial capacity. The tourist familiarity scale includes 12 items, and the tourist financial capacity scale includes seven items. For tourist responsibility, five responsibility items adopted from Luo, Brown and Huang (2015) were used. Kuvan and Akan (2005) explored the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental influence of tourism in terms of its positive and negative aspects. This study adapted this approach to measure the perceived influence caused by tourists by

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modifying 19 items borrowed from Kuvan and Akan (2005). Resident satisfaction was measured using the eight satisfaction items suggested by Baxter (2012), Hendrick (1988), Ghijsen et al. (2010), and Su et al. (2016), and resident commitment was measured using the five-item commitment scale suggested by Baxter (2012). All items were modified and improved in accordance with the tourism context, and specifically for application to Jeju and Chinese tourists.

Q-sort Method

The Q-sort method can be adopted when it is required to confirm valid items by identifying the heterogeneous and homogeneous ones (Little, Lindenberger, & Nesselroade, 1999). It does not confirm the items based on facts; but rather it judges how the items can represent the categorized concepts based on the feelings and emotions driven by the evaluators' personal experiences (Stergiou & Airey, 2011). In other words, this method aims to confirm the face validity and content validity (Gould, Moore, McGuire, & Stebbins, 2008). In the tourism field, Q-sort can be used to explore or to compare subjective information to obtain an understanding of tourism phenomena (Stergiou & Airey, 2011).

To conduct the Q-sort, the selection of the participants should be carefully conducted: they should understand the purpose and process of Q-sort (Stergiou & Airey, 2011). Because using a large sample of participants can result in failure to capture underlying meanings and clear distinctions for sub-concepts, a small sample size is expected to offer better quality of and consistency in the Q-sort results (Stergiou & Airey,

2011). To recruit the participants, the researcher sent an email and/or met them in person. The researcher explained the purpose of Q-sort and their roles in the research process. Once they decided to participate, they received instructions (see Appendix I) and a Q-sort questionnaire via email. The instructions included an introduction to Q-sort and the evaluation steps. In this study, four Korean researchers and one American professor in fields related to parks, recreation, and tourism were involved as the expert panel for the Q-sort. The researcher provided each with a definition of the constructs and the experts were asked to review and critique each categorical concept and to confirm if the items represented the categories (Gould et al., 2008). Furthermore, the expert panel was asked to provide feedback with comments and recommendations (Gould et al., 2008).

This phase of the Q-sort included three constructs: tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment. Tourist attractiveness was composed of four subscales: tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, and tourist influence, while both resident satisfaction and resident commitment consisted of a single construct. Based on the Q-sort, each item in the constructs was slightly revised to clarify the meaning and correct the grammar. For resident commitment, two items were added to provide a stronger connection to "customized tourism products and services" to better capture the core meaning of resident commitment. Other suggestions were also taken into account: first, the question asking whether the respondent has a tourism-related job was replaced with a question asking if the household income directly benefits from tourism; second, detailed explanations for each variable were removed to address concerns about

bias (e.g., *"This question is about tourist influences on existing industries in Jeju"*); and third, the order of the questions was rearranged to improve the overall flow.

This process resulted in 58 items being included in the pilot test. All constructs for tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 7= "Strongly agree."

Quantitative Phase

Pilot Study

After the application of the Q-sort method, the modified scale was pilot-tested through a self-administered instrument to a sample population of 56 college students on Jeju Island, South Korea, who had a good understanding of the contexts of tourism on the island. To ensure a clear understanding and accurate responses, a Korean version of the questionnaire, which was translated by the researcher and a peer reviewer who speaks both Korean and English, was used. To purify the collected pilot data and to determine the dimensions, principle component analysis (PCA) and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) were conducted. These were required for this study because the scales had not yet been established in the tourism field; since they were adapted from other relevant fields, it was necessary to evaluate them for their applicability in tourism contexts. First, PCA was used to find the ideal number of factors. Using parallel analysis and the scree plot examination of eigenvalues, the researcher determined the number of factors. Second, based on the results from the PCA, EFA was conducted using the Maximum Likelihood (ML) procedure with Promax rotation to test the adequacy of the proposed factors. Items

shared by multiple factors (with factor loadings greater than 0.4) and those not loaded onto any factors (with factor loadings less than 0.4) should be considered for removal; however, all items properly loaded onto a single factor, resulting in no items being removed in this round of analysis.

The construct of tourist familiarity was comprised of a single factor and twelve items from the EFA, tourist financial capacity, a single factor and seven items, and tourist responsibility, a single factor and five items. Tourist influence was comprised of two factors: positive tourist influence with ten items and negative tourist influence with nine items, and resident satisfaction included a single factor with eight items. Resident commitment, also comprised of a single factor, included seven items. In total of 58 items comprised the seven constructs investigated here. The loadings, reliabilities, and variance for each construct are shown in Table 3.4 below.

Table 3.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Pilot Test

Indicators and Factors	λ	α	% of Variance Explained
Tourist Familiarity			**62.259**
Tourist Familiarity (m= 3.586, SD= 1.061)		*0.950*	*62.259*
I found being with Chinese tourists a pleasant experience	0.916		
I would like spending time with Chinese tourists	0.897		
Chinese tourists are pleasant to be around	0.866		
I could become close friends with Chinese tourists	0.852		
Chinese tourists are easy to get along with	0.847		
I enjoying having friendly chats with Chinese tourists	0.801		
Chinese tourists are very friendly	0.783		
It is easy to meet and talk with Chinese tourists	0.711		
Chinese tourists would fit into my circle of friends	0.706		
Chinese tourists and I could establish a personal friendship with each other	0.695		
Chinese tourists are sociable with me	0.669		
I could be a friend with a Chinese tourist	0.570		
Tourist Financial Capacity			**49.704**
Tourist Financial Capacity (m= 4.311, SD= 0.938)		*0.865*	*49.704*

Indicators and Factors	λ	α	% of Variance Explained
Economic benefits from Chinese tourists in Jeju is worth the negative impacts they cause	0.834		
The host community of Jeju receives fair compensation from Chinese tourists when they visit the island	0.800		
Chinese tourists have a good reputation for trustworthiness in tourism market	0.753		
Chinese tourists have a good reputation for fairness in tourism market	0.734		
Chinese tourists bring new money into the Jeju economy	0.715		
The Chinese tourists to Jeju are a substantial tourism market	0.573		
Chinese tourists are a growing travel market for the Jeju economy	0.445		
Tourist Responsibility			**75.822**
Tourist Responsibility (m= 3.171, SD= 1.130)		*0.939*	*75.822*
Chinese tourists respect the local community	0.899		
Chinese tourists respect the local people living in Jeju	0.884		
Chinese tourists respect the local environment in Jeju	0.883		
Chinese tourists behave respectfully when they are in Jeju	0.869		
Chinese tourists respect the local custom in Jeju	0.817		
Tourist Influence			**58.32**
Positive Influence (m= 4.289, SD= 0.888)		*0.888*	*27.403*
Chinese tourism has led to more recreational spaces (e.g., public parks, trails, etc.)	0.817		
Chinese tourism has led to more cultural facilities (e.g., theaters, museums, etc.)	0.804		
Chinese tourism has increased employment opportunities	0.789		
Chinese tourism has generated employment stability	0.783		
Chinese tourism has improved infrastructures (e.g., roads and public transportations, etc.)	0.762		
Chinese tourism has generated revenues for local governments	0.733		
Chinese tourism has stimulated small businesses development	0.703		
Chinese tourism has helped to protect the local culture	0.636		
Chinese tourism has promoted better understanding between cultures	0.547		
Chinese tourism has encouraged cultural identity of Jeju	0.499		
Negative Influence (m= 4.949, SD= 0.899)		*0.893*	*30.913*
Chinese tourism has increased pollution, noise, garbage, etc.	0.848		
Chinese tourism has harmed the natural environment	0.841		
Chinese tourism has caused conflicts over zoning and land use	0.784		
Chinese tourism has produced more congestion, accidents and parking problems	0.782		
Chinese tourism has harmed the natural beauty of Jeju's coastal and mountain areas	0.782		
Chinese tourism has harmed the natural resources	0.767		
Chinese tourism has increased the cost of goods and services	0.635		
Chinese tourism has caused more crime	0.596		
Chinese tourism has increased the price of housing	0.554		
Resident Satisfaction			**53.690**

Indicators and Factors	λ	α	% of Variance Explained
Resident Satisfaction (m= 3.462, SD= 0.802)		*0.899*	*53.690*
I am generally pleased with my relationship with Chinese tourists	0.850		
I am generally satisfied with my relationship with Chinese tourists	0.812		
I have good relationships with Chinese tourists	0.776		
I am happy that Chinese tourists choose Jeju	0.766		
Overall, I enjoy hosting Chinese tourists in Jeju	0.726		
There is no problem with the relationship between Chinese tourists and me	0.658		
As a whole, I am satisfied with Chinese tourists	0.651		
I am typically satisfied with the way Chinese tourists behave	0.583		
Resident Commitment			**81.219**
Resident Commitment (m= 4.474, SD= 1.161)		*0.968*	*81.219*
I would like to see Jeju provide Chinese-friendly tourism products	0.975		
I would like to see Jeju continue to attract Chinese tourists	0.968		
I would like to see Jeju provide Chinese-friendly services	0.962		
I hope that Chinese tourists will continue to visit Jeju	0.925		
I think Jeju should continue to market to Chinese tourists	0.861		
I think Jeju should continue to attract and capture the Chinese market	0.859		
I think Jeju should be committed to the Chinese tourism market	0.732		

Main Study

Data Collection for the Main Study

Two trained researchers collected the data on Jeju Island, with the local government officials and local residents helping to determine the survey locations that would ensure a representative sampling of the island's residents. Given a population of 640,000, the minimum sample size required was approximately 384 at a 95% confidence level (http://www.surveysystem.com).

Data collection was conducted from 10 am to 4 pm for two weeks in March 2017 using the Korean version of the questionnaire. For the data collection, the researchers obtained oral consent from appropriate organizations or businesses to ensure their support. For example, to collect data at Catholic churches, the researchers explained the

purpose and process of the study to the priest, and all data were collected with his

permission and help. Similarly, when collecting data at a coffee shop, the researchers

obtained permission from the owners before conducting the survey. Data were collected

at sites where the researchers could easily approach locals such as at city halls, public

libraries, coffee shops, cathedrals, hotels, travel agencies, golf club lounges, shops, public

markets, and a local college. Each collection site included comfortable chairs and tables

to allow participants to concentrate on and complete the survey easily.

The researchers approached every potential participant at the survey sites, asking

them to participate in this study. If they agreed, each received a copy of the letter

explaining the study (e.g., purpose, content, and privacy protection) (see Appendix N).

Next, a hard-copy survey was provided (see Appendix P). To encourage participation and

accurate, thoughtful responses, each respondent was given a lottery ticket equivalent to a

dollar as an incentive. After completing the survey, each participant returned it to the

researchers. The survey took approximately 15 minutes. The data collection process and

number of participants intercepted can be seen in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Procedure of Data Collection

	Date	Site	Target	Intercepted	Declined	Collected
1.	Mar 21 (Mon.)	City hall 1	Residents and employees	62	6	56
2.	Mar 22 (Tue.)	Public library 1	Residents and employees	66	7	59
3.	Mar 23 (Wed.)	Coffee shop 1	Local residents	41	7	34
4.	Mar 24 (Thur.)	Coffee shop 2	Local residents	46	5	41
5.	Mar 25 (Fri.)	Public library 2	Residents and employees	61	9	52
6.	Mar 26 (Sat.)	Golf club	Local users and employees	65	8	57
7.	Mar 27 (Sun.)	Catholic cathedral 1	Church members	83	6	77
8.	Mar 28 (Mon.)	Public market	Local visitors and small business owners	101	16	85
9.	Mar 29 (Tue.)	City hall 2	Residents and employees	70	8	62
10.	Mar 30 (Wed.)	Travel agencies	Employees	50	3	47
11.	Mar 31 (Thur.)	Hotel	Employees	25	0	25
12.	April 1 (Fri.)	Street shops	Small business owners	72	17	55
13.	April 2 (Sat.)	Catholic cathedral 2	Church members	69	3	66
14.	April 3 (Sun.)	Public library 3	Resident and employees	50	4	46
15.	April 4 (Mon.)	Coffee shop 3	Residents	33	11	21
16.	April 5 (Tue.)	College	Students and faculties	54	2	52
	Total			948	112	835

Data Screening for Main Study

The study collected 835 responses from island residents at 16 sites on Jeju Island, South Korea, for a response rate of 88.08%. To check if the data were normally distributed, kurtosis and skewness were tested using SPSS 18.0. Kurtosis values between +3 and -3 and skewness values between +2 and -2 indicate data are normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The data for this study fell within these ranges, indicating that they were normally distributed.

The data screening was conducted using the following three steps. First, of the 835 questionnaires collected, 16, which had less than 50% completed, were excluded from the data analysis (Kline, 2011). Second, six additional responses identified as outliers based on the results of Mahalanobis Distance analysis in SPSS were also excluded (Kline, 2011). Lastly, 20 respondents had an issue with multivariate normality and were removed using Mardia's multivariate kurtosis coefficients in EQS 6.3 (Kline, 2011). Consequently, the 793 questionnaires remaining after this screening process were used in the main study.

Data Analysis for Main Study

Descriptive analysis was conducted using SPSS 18.0 and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using the EQS 6.3 Program.

Descriptive Analysis Descriptive analysis was conducted to explore the demographics (e.g., gender, age, marital status, etc.) and social experiences related to encounters with

tourists (e.g., frequency of encounter and interaction with Chinese tourists, etc.).

Categorical variables are shown in frequency tables with number of individuals and the percentages. For continuous variables (e.g., age, length of residency, and direct benefits from tourism), mean value and standard deviations (SD) were analyzed, and they were then placed into categories to provide frequency information. For instance, after calculating the mean value and the SD, age was divided into six ranges (e.g., 18-29 age group) and the number of individuals and the percentage belonging to each range were recorded.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis To assess the measurement model, CFA was conducted on the seven constructs using EQS 6.3. Through this process, the best-fitting model is determined based on the significance of parameters and fit indices. For this study, the robust maximum likelihood estimation was adopted for model estimation.

To estimate goodness of fit, both absolute fit and comparative fit indices were used. An absolute fit index, chi-square (χ^2) provides information for overall fit. The significant χ^2 statistic (p<0.05) indicates that the observed and expected model are consistent (Kline, 2011). However, more information about fit is needed because this statistic is easily influenced by the sample size. For example, a χ^2 test may indicate a poor overall fit for large samples even though the differences between the observed and expected model are slight (Kline, 2011). Therefore, the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), one of the most informative criteria for judgement of model fit (Bryan, 2008), was additionally checked. While RMSEA values of less than 0.05 are

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considered a good fit, values less than 0.08 represent a reasonable fit (Bryan, 2008; Marsh et al., 2004).

The comparative fit indices, non-normed fit index (NNFI) and comparative fit index (CFI), were also used here. These values measure the difference of the fits between a hypothesized model and a baseline model to determine if the former is better than the latter (Bryan, 2008). If the values are greater than 0.9, it is considered a good fit (Bryan, 2008; Marsh et al., 2004).

In this study, construct validity in the CFA was confirmed by examining convergent and discriminant validity (Kline, 2011), defined by Bryan (2008) as "the extent to which different assessment methods concur in their measurement of the same construct" and "the extent to which independent assessment methods diverge in their measurement of different construct" (p. 275), respectively. To test convergent validity, average variance extracted (AVE) values were examined. If the values are higher than 0.5, it can be assumed that each construct has high internal consistency and validity (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). The discriminant validity was confirmed based on the correlation matrix. If the correlations are less than the squared root of the AVE values, the discriminant validity is confirmed (Hair et al., 2006).

To test the internal reliability of the measurement model, this study checked both Cronbach's alpha coefficients (α) and Rho coefficients (Rho). Cronbach's alpha coefficient has been widely used to measure internal consistency with a cut-off value of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2006; Kline, 2011). However, according to Bryan (2008), Rho provides the most appropriate estimate of the internal consistency of multidimensional constructs

in CFA because α is "theoretically based on a restrictive one-factor model that requires all factor loadings and error variances to be equal" (p. 133).

The Results of Main Study

Description of the Sample A total of 793 usable responses from Jeju's permanent residents were used in the main study. As Table 3.6 indicates, the sample consisted of 46.3% males, and 53.2% females, with the remaining 0.5% not indicating a gender.

Table 3.6 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender	n	%
Male	367	46.3
Female	422	53.2
No response	4	0.5
Total	793	100.0

The average age of the respondents was 41.8 (SD=12.583), with the largest age group being between 40 and 49 (28.0%), followed by the 18-29 age group (22.6%), the group between 50 and 59 (20.8%), and the group between 30 and 39 (20.3%) (Table 3.7). The 60-69 (5.4%) and 70 or older (0.9%) groups included the fewest number of participants.

Table 3.7 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age	n	%
18-29	179	22.6
30-39	161	20.3
40-49	222	28.0
50-59	165	20.8
60-69	43	5.4
70 or older	7	0.9
No response	16	2.0
Total	793	100.0

*mean= 41.18. SD= 12.583

As for marital status (Table 3.8), married respondents made up 64.1%, while those who had never married comprised 33.8% of the sample.

Table 3.8 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status

Marital Status	n	%
Never married	268	33.8
Married	508	64.1
Other	10	1.3
No response	7	0.9
Total	793	100.0

Of the respondents, 42.4% reported a bachelor's degree as their highest level of education (Table 3.9), followed by those with a high school diploma (28.2%) and some college (20.8%). A small percentage of the sample either had a master's degree (4.7%) or a Ph.D. (0.9%).

Table 3.9 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Highest Level of Education

Highest level of education	n	%
High school graduate (including current college students)	224	28.2
Technical or community college (2 or 3 years)	165	20.8
Bachelor's degree	336	42.4
Master's or professional degree	37	4.7
Ph.D.	7	0.9
Other	15	1.9
No response	9	1.1
Total	793	100.0

A majority of the sample was employed full-time (54.5%) or part-time (16.8%), while fewer were unemployed (9.6%), students (8.1%), or retired (3.0%) (Table 3.10).

Table 3.10 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Employment

Employment	n	%
Employed full-time	432	54.5
Employed part-time or temporarily	133	16.8
Student	64	8.1
Unemployed	76	9.6
Retired	24	3.0
Other	50	6.3
No response	14	1.8
Total	793	100.0

Participants were asked how frequently they encounter Chinese tourists (Table 3.11)[4]. Most residents answered they typically encounter Chinese tourists at least once a week (66.5%), with approximately 24% of the sample having daily encounters. A number of participants, on the other hand, reported encounters of 2-3 times a month (10.8%) or less (19.8%).

Table 3.11 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Frequency of Encounter Chinese Tourists

Frequency of Encounter Chinese Tourists	n	%
Almost every day	189	23.8
4-5 times a week	89	11.2
2-3 times a week	154	19.4
Once a week	96	12.1
2-3 times a month	86	10.8
Once a month	45	5.7
Almost never	112	14.1
No response	22	2.8
Total	793	100.0

As the Table 3.12 indicates, however, when they were asked about interactions with Chinese tourists, almost three-fourths of sample responded almost never (72.4%), followed by once a month (7.8%) and 2-3 times a month (4.7%). Only a few respondents answered they interact with Chinese tourists at least once a week (12.3%).

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[4] Throughout this dissertation, the terms *encounter* and *interaction* were used interchangeably based on a discussion in Ankor and Wearing (2012). However, here in the description of the sample, the questions for encounter and interaction were separately asked in order to provide a detailed context of the host-tourist relationship in the study site. Therefore, encounter in Table 3.11 means a meeting in a same space, while interaction in Table 3.12 refers to a response to Chinese tourist.

Table 3.12 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Frequency of Interaction with Chinese Tourists

Frequency of Interaction with Chinese Tourists	n	%
Almost every day	29	3.7
4-5 times a week	13	1.6
2-3 times a week	24	3.0
Once a week	32	4.0
2-3 times a month	37	4.7
Once a month	62	7.8
Almost never	574	72.4
No response	22	2.8
Total	793	100.0

Table 3.13 shows the vast majority of the respondents were born on Jeju Island (78.9%), with only 18.4% being non-natives.

Table 3.13 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Birth Place

Birth Place	n	%
Jeju	625	78.9
Non-Jeju	146	18.4
No response	22	2.8
Total	793	100.0

The respondents' average length of residency on Jeju was approximately 35 years (Table 3.14). According to the frequency analysis, most respondents have lived there for more than 10 years (86.1%), with only 9.1% of the respondents reporting that they have lived on Jeju less than 10 years. The highest category of length of residency was the group of 41-50 years (21.9%), closely followed by the 21-30 group (21.2%) and the 31-40 group (18.7%).

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Table 3.14 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Length of Residence

Length of Residency	n	%
1-10 years	72	9.1
11-20 years	54	6.8
21-30 years	168	21.2
31-40 years	148	18.7
41-50 years	174	21.9
51-60 years	112	14.1
61 or longer years	27	3.4
No response	38	4.8
Total	793	100.0

*mean= 35.02, SD= 16.334

The respondents were asked to estimate the percentage of their household income directly derived from tourism or visitor spending. The average percentage of household income coming directly from tourism was 15.37%. This continuous variable was recoded as a categorical variable in order to analyze its frequencies (Table 3.15). Based on the degree of direct benefits from tourism, the responses were divided into three categories: no benefit group (i.e., household income totally independent of tourism), low benefit group (i.e., between 1 and 10% of household income attributed to tourism), and high benefit group (i.e., more than 11% of household income coming from tourism)[5]. The no

[5] For grouping, this study had to take into account the percentage of the distribution of the answers because the distribution was skewed. A large number of responses indicated zero perception of benefits from tourism, while a relatively smaller number of respondents indicated a high percentage of direct benefits from tourism. The no benefit group was considered based on an assumption that people who have no benefits from tourism can have different attitudes towards tourism from those in the benefit group. The sample included a high percentage of no benefited people (39.7%). Next, the remaining respondents, the benefit group, was divided into a low benefit group and high benefit group. As a threshold for the demarcation between the two, 10% was used to balance the sample size between the two groups. Consequently, the low benefit group comprised 22.7% of the sample with a median value of 7.39 and the high benefit group was 29.9% with a median value of 30.00.

benefit group comprised 39.7% of the sample, followed by the high benefit group

(29.9%) and then the low benefit group (22.7%).

Table 3.15 Frequency Distribution of Household Direct Benefits from Tourism

Household Direct Benefits from Tourism	n	%
No benefit group (0%)	315	39.7
Low benefit group (1-10%)	180	22.7
High benefit group (11% or more)	237	29.9
No response	61	7.7
Total	793	100.0

*mean= 15.37, SD= 22.75

Measurement Model Based on the results from the EFA in the pilot study, CFA was

conducted to examine the reliability and validity of the constructs (Kline, 2011). Before

beginning the CFA analysis, all missing values were imputed using the Expectation-

Maximization (EM) algorithm, which is one of the most highly regarded and useful

techniques in structural equation modeling for imputing missing values (Enders, 2001).

EM predicts scores in a series of regressions so that each deficient variable is regressed

on other complete variables for a single case by repeating the data imputation using a

maximum likelihood algorithm until a satisfactory solution is reached (Kline, 2011).

In this study, the CFA procedure consisted of two steps, with the first step testing

for a single factor model. To assess the five sub-constructs of tourist attractiveness

(tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, positive tourist

influence, and negative tourist influence), five separate CFAs were conducted. In

addition, two separate CFAs were conducted for resident satisfaction and resident

commitment. The refined sub-constructs of tourist attractiveness were composed of five

factors, and resident satisfaction and resident commitment each included a single factor.

No items were removed, but a number of correlations between the error covariance of items were added based on the Lagrange Multiplier (LM) test, which finds parameters not specified in models that are significant, in order to improve the model fit: two mis-fittings for familiarity, two for responsibility, one for positive tourist influence, one for negative tourist influence, two for resident satisfaction, and two for resident commitment.

In the second step, based on the information from the tests on the single factor models, tests on the multiple factor model, which included all factors, were conducted to examine the overall measurement model. This study also assessed multivariate normality using Mardia's coefficient of multivariate kurtosis. The Mardia's coefficient was 157.1390, indicating the data set is assumed to be not normally distributed. Therefore, the CFA results were interpreted using the Storra-Bentler scaled χ^2 (S-B χ^2) (Satorra & Bentler, 1994) and robust standard errors (Bentler & Dijkstra, 1985). The model fit for the initial model was not acceptable (χ^2= 8487.0007, df= 1574, NNFI= 0.856, CFI= 0.863, RMSEA= 0.074). To improve the model fit, a total of eight items, which had an error covariance related to more than one error covariance, were deleted from the initial model based on the LM test. From the factor of tourist familiarity, one item was deleted ("Chinese tourists and I could establish a personal friendship with each other"). Two items were deleted from the factor of tourist financial capacity ("Chinese tourists have a good reputation for trustworthiness in tourism market"; "Chinese tourists have a good reputation for fairness in tourism market"). From the factor of positive tourist influence, three items were deleted "Chinese tourism has encouraged cultural identity of Jeju"; "Chinese tourism has generated revenues for local governments"; and "Chinese tourism

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has stimulated small businesses development"). From the factor of negative tourist influence, two items were deleted "Chinese tourism has harmed the natural environment"; "Chinese tourism has harmed the natural resources"). From the factor of resident satisfaction, two items were deleted ("I am generally pleased with my relationship with Chinese tourists"; "I have good relationships with Chinese tourists") and from the factor of resident commitment, one item was deleted (e.g., "I think Jeju should continue to attract and capture the Chinese market").

As a result, the model fit of the final model became acceptable (χ^2= 2815.9251, df= 1003, NNFI= 0.949, CFI= 0.953, RMSEA= 0.047) (Table 3.16). Finally, the measurement model consisted of seven sub-constructs and forty-seven items.

Table 3.16 Model Fit for CFA Model

Parameters	Initial Model	Final Model
χ^2	8487.0007	2815.9251
df	1574	1003
P value for the χ^2	p<0.001	p<0.001
Fit indices	**Initial Model**	**Final Model**
NNFI	0.856	0.949
CFI	0.863	0.953
RMSEA	0.074	0.047
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	0.073, 0.076	0.045, 0.049

*Goodness of Fit Summary for Method= Robust

Table 3.17 shows the factor loadings (λ), the Cronbach's alpha coefficients (α), the Rho coefficients (Rho), and the average variance extracted (AVE) values for the final measurement model. The α ranged from 0.900 for tourist financial capacity to 0.974 for tourist familiarity, and Rho ranged from 0.900 for tourist financial capacity to 0.974 for tourist familiarity, indicating all factors have a good internal consistency (α, Rho>0.70).

The AVE values showed a good convergent validity (AVE>0.50), ranging from 0.620 for negative tourist influence to 0.845 for resident commitment.

Table 3.17 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Indicators and Factors	λ	α	Rho	AVE
Tourist Familiarity		*0.974*	*0.974*	*0.661*
m= 2.851, SD= 1.320				
I could become close friends with Chinese tourists	0.936			
Chinese tourists are easy to get along with	0.936			
I would like spending time with Chinese tourists	0.924			
Chinese tourists are pleasant to be around	0.923			
I found being with Chinese tourists a pleasant experience	0.898			
Chinese tourists would fit into my circle of friends	0.892			
Chinese tourists are very friendly	0.875			
I enjoying having friendly chats with Chinese tourists	0.856			
Chinese tourists are sociable with me	0.841			
It is easy to meet and talk with Chinese tourists	0.798			
I could be a friend with a Chinese tourist	0.786			
Tourist Financial Capacity		*0.900*	*0.900*	*0.644*
m= 3.670, SD= 1.358				
Chinese tourists bring new money into the Jeju economy	0.843			
The host community of Jeju receives fair compensation from Chinese tourists when they visit the island	0.843			
Economic benefits from Chinese tourists in Jeju is worth the negative impacts they cause	0.788			
The Chinese tourists to Jeju are a substantial tourism market	0.787			
Chinese tourists are a growing travel market for the Jeju economy	0.746			
Tourist Responsibility		*0.953*	*0.953*	*0.803*
m= 2.380, SD= 1.210				
Chinese tourists respect the local community	0.933			
Chinese tourists behave respectfully when they are in Jeju	0.932			
Chinese tourists respect the local environment in Jeju	0.896			
Chinese tourists respect the local people living in Jeju	0.888			
Chinese tourists respect the local custom in Jeju	0.828			
Positive Tourist Influence		*0.936*	*0.937*	*0.680*
m= 3.217, SD= 1.248				
Chinese tourism has led to more cultural facilities (e.g., theaters, museums, etc.)	0.904			
Chinese tourism has led to more recreational spaces (e.g., public parks, trails, etc.)	0.892			
Chinese tourism has generated employment stability	0.849			
Chinese tourism has increased employment opportunities	0.825			
Chinese tourism has helped to protect the local culture	0.802			

Indicators and Factors	λ	α	Rho	AVE
Chinese tourism has improved infrastructures (e.g., roads and public transportations, etc.)	0.775			
Chinese tourism has promoted better understanding between cultures	0.706			
Negative Tourist Influence		*0.917*	*0.918*	*0.620*
m= 5.565, SD= 1.206				
Chinese tourism has increased pollution, noise, garbage, etc.	0.881			
Chinese tourism has produced more congestion, accidents and parking problems	0.857			
Chinese tourism has caused conflicts over zoning and land use	0.852			
Chinese tourism has caused more crime	0.825			
Chinese tourism has harmed the natural beauty of Jeju's coastal and mountain areas	0.716			
Chinese tourism has increased the cost of goods and services	0.703			
Chinese tourism has increased the price of housing	0.643			
Resident Satisfaction		*0.924*	*0.924*	*0.671*
m= 2.826, SD= 1.244				
As a whole, I am satisfied with Chinese tourists	0.892			
I am happy that Chinese tourists choose Jeju	0.852			
Overall, I enjoy hosting Chinese tourists in Jeju	0.839			
I am generally satisfied with my relationship with Chinese tourists	0.803			
I am typically satisfied with the way Chinese tourists behave	0.785			
There is no problem with the relationship between Chinese tourists and me	0.733			
Resident Commitment		*0.970*	*0.970*	*0.845*
m= 3.830, SD= 1.605				
I would like to see Jeju continue to attract Chinese tourists	0.968			
I hope that Chinese tourists will continue to visit Jeju	0.958			
I think Jeju should continue to market to Chinese tourists	0.925			
I would like to see Jeju provide Chinese-friendly tourism products	0.918			
I would like to see Jeju provide Chinese-friendly services	0.907			
I think Jeju should be committed to the Chinese tourism market	0.834			

To test the discriminant validity of the constructs, the squared roots of the AVEs were compared to each factor's correlation values (Table 3.18). According to the results, all AVE square roots were higher than the each corresponding factor's correlations, thus confirming the discriminant validity of the measurement model. As a result, tourist attractiveness comprises five factors — tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, tourist positive influence, and tourist negative influence: eleven

items of tourist familiarity; five items of tourist financial capacity; five items of tourist

responsibility; seven items of positive influence; and seven items of negative influence.

Resident satisfaction comprises a single factor with six items. Similarly, resident

commitment also includes a single factor and six items.

Table 3.18 Correlation Matrix between Constructs

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	AVE
Tourist Familiarity	**0.813**[*]							0.661
Tourist Financial Capacity	0.619	**0.802**[*]						0.644
Tourist Responsibility	0.671	0.613	**0.896**[*]					0.803
Positive Tourist Influence	0.587	0.775	0.595	**0.824**[*]				0.680
Negative Tourist Influence	-0.245	-0.196	-0.370	-0.138	**0.787**[*]			0.620
Resident Satisfaction	0.747	0.775	0.775	0.676	-0.306	**0.819**[*]		0.671
Resident Commitment	0.534	0.747	0.494	0.640	-0.106	0.725	**0.919**[*]	0.845

[*]Squared root AVE

Discussion

Pulling from previous literature on interpersonal and buyer-seller relationships, this

research sought to define and measure the constructs of tourist attractiveness, resident

satisfaction, and resident commitment. To establish the scales, a mixed methods approach

was adopted. In the first stage, the qualitative phrase, semi-structured in-depth interviews

were conducted in order to collect qualitative data. Based on the qualitative outputs, a

literature review was conducted to confirm the variable concepts found in the interview,

and to establish the test instruments, which were subsequently improved through a Q-sort

method. In the second stage, or quantitative phrase, a pilot test using PCA and EFA was

conducted to confirm the reliability of the test instruments for investigating the research

variables. Then, in the main study, data were collected from a larger sample and the

measurement model was established in CFA. In the CFA, tourist attractiveness consisted

of five factors: tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, positive tourist influence, and negative tourist influence. Resident satisfaction and resident commitment each consisted of a single factor.

These results of the scale development in this study are consistent with Lott and Lott's (1974) attractiveness theory that defined attractiveness as liking individuals "who reward" (p. 171). The tourist attractiveness scale, which reflects the social exchange theory, interprets social relationships in terms of costs and benefits (Ward & Berno, 2011); in other words, the concept of attractiveness is regarded as a token for rewards from the reciprocal relationship. Lott and Lott (1974) suggested that attractiveness includes the sub-factors of the nature or quality of a person, the possibility of positive benefits, and a positive signal that attracts others, domains also found in this study.

Tourist familiarity as a sub-factor of tourist attractiveness was examined in this study in terms of the nature or quality of a person, finding it is an important indicator that leads to residents' positive attitudes. This result is supported by the social distance theory that posits that differences between groups or individuals cause tensions, and, therefore, people feel comfortable when staying with those who share similar physical or cultural backgrounds (Zamani-farahani, 2011). In addition, the emotional solidarity theory can be applied to explain the scale in terms of emotional intimacy and closeness (Hammarström, 2005). The characteristics of an actor who stimulates interactions with others are evaluated by other people. In that context, familiarity is a key trait as it allows for this evaluation to be grounded in the same social reality and from the same point of view. Considering that travel inherently involves going somewhere else and experiencing

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unfamiliar things (Backer, 2016; Urry, 2002), tourists may not value familiarity in the resident-tourist relationship. On the other hand, from the perspective of residents who have tourists in their area, familiarity is a significant factor that encourages them to feel comfortable with their visitors.

In a domain of the possibility of positive benefits, this study examined tourist financial capacity and positive and negative tourist influences. Because people pursue rewards from others, people tend to judge others based on the likelihood of whether others can bring them rewards. This likelihood can be seen in two aspects: the capacity of a person and the previous results of the capacity. To measure the concept of capacity, this study used tourist financial capacity. In addition, the latter is based on the assumption that people who have benefited from their partners in the past are like to see benefits in the future as well. To measure this consequence based on previous behavior, the concepts of positive and negative tourist influence were adopted in this study. In a tourism context, especially one based on the assumption that the relationship between a resident and a tourist is a business relationship, the host community seeks benefits from tourism by maximizing profits while minimizing the costs (Krippendorf, 1987; McNaughton, 2006). Therefore, the possibility of benefits from the resident-tourist relationship is considered as a crucial domain of tourist attractiveness, and its validity was examined in this study through the practical results that Jeju residents' perceptions of Chinese tourists is partly based on their financial capacity and their influence. This result, which suggests that costs and benefits in the relationship are important factors forming residents' perceptions

of tourists, is supported by McNaughton's (2006) argument that the term *tourist* is not interchangeable with the term *guest*, especially in contemporary mass tourism.

Tourist responsibility, which was also found to act as a positive signal attracting other people, indicates the level of satisfaction people feel in regard to another's behavior. Behavior can be judged according to how appropriately or responsibly someone acts. Responsible tourist behavior has attracted much attention in tourism studies, especially in the sustainable tourism paradigm. In that sense, tourist responsibility was verified here as an indicator comprising a concept of tourist attractiveness, as intended in the scale development.

In addition, resident satisfaction and resident commitment scales were also developed, both of which consisted of a single factor exhibiting good reliability and validity. Resident satisfaction was included in this study to assess the resident attitude toward the relationship with tourists, with the scale representing whether the resident thinks the current relationship with tourists is mutually reciprocal. And resident commitment aimed to measure residents' intention to maintain the resident-tourist relationship, meaning this scale assessed whether the residents want to change the relationship.

Implications and Conclusions

This study has academic and practical implications. First, it is expected to diversify approaches to sustainable tourism studies by expanding the limited previous research domains that have focused on attitude towards tourism impact or development, instead of

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the relational elements of the residents and tourists themselves (Franzidis & Yau, 2017; Sharpley, 2014). Most of all, this study is a significant starting point for expanding the perspective of the resident-tourist relationship as it focuses on the residents unlike previous research with has focused on the tourist side of this relationship. The newly developed concepts and constructs of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment in this study contribute to our understanding of the resident-tourist relationship in terms of buyer-seller relationship. Further, this business lens suggests that the term *guest* is inappropriate for describing tourists in the modern mass tourism context (Krippendorf, 1987; McNaughton, 2006). Rather, to establish a mutually reciprocal relationship between resident and tourist and to listen to residents' needs — what they want from the relationship, — require recognition of the merchandizing purposes of the resident-tourist relationship.

Second, for practical purposes, tourism policy planners and destination managers can use the scale developed here to measure resident perceptions of tourists visiting a destination — how they perceive tourists, how they are satisfied with relationship with the tourists, and whether they expect a future relationship — can provide information to help establish resident-oriented tourism policies. Based on the information found in this study, tourism policy planners and destination managers can determine if a resident community is exhibiting hostility toward a tourist group. If so, the local governments can establish the reason for this hostility and develop appropriate solutions to address it. In addition, this information can be used as local governments develop destination-marketing strategies; for example, a local government can select a primary target market

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and prepare tailored tourism policies for it. Doing so will contribute to ensuring tourists will be welcome at this destination. Therefore, this study can be a starting point for making sure both the residents and tourist are happy.

However, this study developed and tested the scales using a small Korean island and is specific to the Chinese tourist market. Given the many destinations around the world that are experiencing similar social problems caused by an influx of tourists, further studies should be conducted in a variety of social and cultural contexts in order to confirm the validity of the scale developed here.

CHAPTER Ⅳ
TEST OF RELATIONSHIP AMONG TOURIST ATTRACTIVENSS, RESIDENT SATISFACTION, AND RESIDENT COMMITMENT

Introduction

A good relationship between tourists and local residents is considered key for successful tourism development and corresponding tourism policies (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; King, Pizam, & Milman, 1993; Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015; Morrison, 2012; Sinkovics & Penz, 2009). This factor is particularly important in tourism planning given the current trend of sustainable tourism, further emphasizing the need for awareness of the attitude of the host community (Liu, Sheldon, & Var, 1987; McNaughton, 2006). In sustainable tourism, the benefits to the local residents are regarded as a core value (Luo, Brown, & Huang, 2015) because their lifestyle is closely related to the social changes resulting from tourism development, including how it affects the local economy, culture, and environment (Cohen & Cohen, 2012; Law et al., 2012; Moscardo, 2011). In particular, a community usually regards tourism as a tool for initiating or revitalizing the local economy, while at the same time considering the needs and demands of its residents (Wan, 2012). In this regard, sustainable tourism development can be achieved in accordance with local characteristics and values only when the residents' perceptions are reflected in the procedure (Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001). The consideration of their views results not only in well-planned tourism development and policies but also in a good quality of life for the locals.

Sustainable tourism is an approach that is closely linked to local participation, empowerment, and a bottom-up tourism policy. In particular, the development of sustainable tourism is difficult without the support and participation of local residents (Gursoy, Chi, & Dyer, 2010; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Lee, 2013). According to Zaliza, Asbollah, Lade, and Michael (2013), the hospitality of the local residents determines the tourists' feelings about the destination, meaning that their attitude is an important factor influencing its image. This premise is supported by past research which has found that a favorable attitude in the local population can lead to a hospitable and appealing environment for the tourists (Cooke, 1982; Davis, Allen, & Cosenza, 1988; Pearce, 1980; Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001), indicating that if the variables that affect the support of residents are understood and measured, sustainable tourism is more likely to be achieved. For this reason, the factors influencing community support for tourism have attracted much attention in tourism studies. Specifically, previous studies show that residents' perception towards the effects of tourism are primary predictors that may encourage resident support of tourism as these studies have found that resident satisfaction with tourist influences or development is an underlying condition that leads to their support of tourism (Haley, Snaith, & Miller, 2005; Leonidou, Palihawadana, & Theodosiou, 2006; Robin & Ramkissoon, 2010; Vargas-Sánchez, Porras-Bueno, & Plaza-Mejía, 2011; Ward & Berno, 2011; Zhu & Han, 2014).

On the other hand, few studies investigating the relationship between residents and tourists have found that their interactions may influence the attitudes and satisfaction of both groups (Carneiro & Eusébio, 2015; Evans-Pritchard, 1989; Luo et al., 2015;

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McNaughton, 2006; Pizam, Uriely, & Reichel, 2000; Prentice, Witt, & Wydenbach,

1994). However, most of these studies primarily focused on the tourist perspective. Thus,

it is important to explore the residents' needs and attitudes towards the relationship with

tourists, subsequently integrating their needs and attitudes into the tourism policy and

planning process (Gunce, 2003).

One method for investigating this interaction is to use a business model focusing

on the buyer-seller relationship. Academically and professionally in such a business

model, the underlying assumption of these relationships is that sellers are trying to be as

attractive as possible to potential buyers in order to sell their products or services

(Schiele, Calvi, & Gibbert, 2012). It is also well established that the buyer tries to obtain

the best resources from the seller, in part by presenting himself or herself as an attractive

partner in order to build a reciprocal relationship (Hüttinger, Schiele, & Veldman, 2012;

Schiele et al., 2012). Adapting this model, this research assumes that host communities

and tourists function as sellers and buyers in a tourism context. Krippendorf (1987) found

that residents regard their relationship with tourists as a formal business relationship, to

which they respond by trying to create "a mercenary smile and sterile politeness"

(Krippendorf, 1987, p. 59). Likewise, in this business-like relationship, the tourists need

to be good customers to the host community to build a reciprocal relationship.

This study also builds on previous work that has considered perceptions towards

the actual tourists. For example, Liu et al. (1987) found that the stereotyping of tourists

was considered an important element of resident perceptions towards the impact of

tourism. Monterrubio (2016) also found that tourism workers' positive attitudes towards

tourists are often offset by perceived negative stereotypes about tourists. Maoz (2006)

analyzed how the resident perception of the image and stereotypes of tourists are based

on the tourists' behavior. Given these findings, this study considered the resident

perception of tourists as a predictor that can explain the residents' sequential decision-

making process.

Moreover, resident satisfaction with the tourists themselves as a predictor for

resident support has received relatively little research attention. Thus, this study further

discusses the importance of satisfaction in leading to a more favorable commitment to

tourism. To address this issue, this study developed a theoretical model to examine the

structural relationships among *tourist attractiveness*, *resident satisfaction* with tourists,

and *resident commitment* in the context of Jeju Island, South Korea. This research has

two objectives: first, to examine the effect of tourist attractiveness on resident satisfaction

(*Research Question 1*). Second, this study explores the relationship between resident

satisfaction and resident commitment (*Research Question 2*). The results from this

research contributes to the development of the tourism industry and the corresponding

policies for Jeju Island in addition to adding to the current research by focusing on the

resident rather than the tourist perspective.

Tourist Attractiveness and Resident Satisfaction

In this research, the meaning of tourist attractiveness is borrowed from the social

exchange theory, which defines the attractiveness of a party as a capability to attract the

attention of other parties (La Rocca, Caruana, & Snehota, 2012; Schiele et al., 2012;

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Tóth, Thiesbrummel, Henneberg, & Naudé, 2015). It assumes that the liked person's acquired attractiveness can function as positive reinforcement, influencing the behavior of others sequentially; thus the consequences of liking can be predictable (Lott & Lott, 1974).

Tourist attractiveness is necessary for the host community to initiate interactions with tourists or to strengthen friendly exchanges with them, meaning if a buyer or seller wants to attract his partner's attention and establish superior loyalty and performance in their relationship, he or she needs to be attractive to the other party (La Rocca et al., 2012; Tóth et al., 2015). In particular, because tourism involves the interaction between residents and tourists from various cultural groups, the differences in their backgrounds can lead to "encounter failures" in their relationship (Sinkovics & Penz, 2009, p. 458), issues that can be explained using the social distance theory. That is, given social distance influences consumers' evaluation of a product in a buyer-seller relationship (Wakslak, Liberman, & Trope, 2007), a host community's perceived social distance may also influence its satisfaction with tourists.

While social distance theory focuses on the perceived distance between two groups, attractiveness theory focuses on how a perceived closeness can lead to increased attractiveness. Mortensen, Freytag, and Arlbjørn (2008) argued that while attraction is not the only a way to build trust, it is "an important part of maintaining trustworthiness and establishing satisfaction" (p. 804). Further, in earlier research, Ryan and Montgomery (1994) found that people who hold a favorable view of tourists tend to be more positive about their impact on the community. Based on social distance theory, we can assume

that tourist attractiveness can help create cooperative behavior and a sympathetic understanding between residents and tourists. In that context, Mok, Slater, and Cheung (1991) investigated residents' perception of tourists in Hong Kong, concluding that approximately 80% of the respondents felt that the tourists were different from them. In their study, respondents who did not support increased tourism considered tourists to be trouble (Mok et al., 1991). This conclusion suggests that a resident's positive perception of tourists can be influenced by the possible rewards that they can gain from the relationship as Lott and Lott (1974) discussed regarding attributes of attraction. That is, based on the extent to which tourists are thought to bring benefits to the host community, the residents' perceptions of tourist attractiveness can enhance their satisfaction with the resident-guest relationship (Luo et al., 2015).

Based on this analysis, this study emphasizes that the characteristics, behavior, and influence of tourists on a destination should be understood in terms of rewards or attractiveness that can facilitate the future reciprocal relationship between resident and tourist. A number of studies focusing on the relationship between customer attractiveness and supplier satisfaction support this conclusion (Baxter, 2012; Hald, 2012; Hüttinger et al., 2012; Pulles, Schiele, Veldman, & Hüttinger, 2015; Schiele et al., 2012). For example, Baxter (2012) examined that a supplier's satisfaction with a customer's financial condition affects their satisfaction with the customer over others. To obtain the best resources from the supplier, the customer tries to build a reciprocal relationship by presenting himself or herself as an attractive partner (Hüttinger et al., 2012; Schiele et al., 2012). Therefore, similar results are expected from the role of attractiveness in

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influencing satisfaction in the business and tourism contexts. Based on this, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1. Tourist attractiveness influences resident satisfaction

Resident Satisfaction and Resident Commitment

Reciprocity, essential for nurturing the cooperative behavior that ensures sellers and buyers can profit from their relationships, is often related to a feeling of satisfaction with this business relationship (Leonidou et al., 2006). Providers can be dedicated to a certain group of customers, recognizing them as long-term partners, but if some seem more attractive than others, then the seller may provide them with better resources and services (Baxter, 2012). Thus, if a supplier is satisfied with a certain customer, he or she will be more committed to their relationship.

Further, from the traditional perspective, if a satisfied supplier does not make the effort needed to meet the demands of his or her customers, he or she will lose them, while an unsatisfied supplier does his or her best to create a more satisfactory situation. However, in an uncertain market situation, based on the concept of reciprocity, even a satisfied supplier may take extra steps to continue the relationship with a specific customer. Various studies also explain this concept in terms of loyalty: a customer creates loyalty in the supplier (La Rocca et al., 2012; Tóth et al., 2015). From this perspective, a customer is required to be attractive in order to occupy the leadership role in an exchange relationship. That is, the customer is also incentivized to remain attractive in order to receive the best services. According to La Rocca et al. (2012), a preferred customer so

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designated by a supplier is more likely to gain the supplier's commitment. As a result, the

relationship becomes more efficient and profitable for both the supplier and the customer.

In the tourism context, Ryan and Montgomery (1994) found that locals who see tourists

in a favorable light tend to be more positive about these visitors' influence on their

community. Therefore, it could be assumed that the residents who are more satisfied

with tourism or tourists will behave more favorably towards tourists.

Based on this argument, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Resident satisfaction influences resident commitment

Perceived Benefits from Tourism

Numerous stakeholders are involved in tourism, with the host community being regarded

as one of the key ones (Chen, 2015; Dredge & Whitford, 2011; Duffy & Kim, 2017;

Hatipoglu, Alvarez, & Ertuna, 2016; Khazaei, Elliot, & Joppe, 2015; Suntikul & Jachna,

2013). According to Aas et al. (2005), the tourism community or tourism stakeholders

can be defined as "anyone who is impacted by development positively or negatively" (p.

31). However, the concept still cannot explain the degree of each stakeholder's

involvement in tourism. In this regard, Rowley (1997) argued that the degree of

involvement distinguishes direct stakeholders from indirect stakeholders and that

classifying stakeholders into specific categories is meaningful for understanding how

individual stakeholders exert their influence over the organization they are involved in. In

a study on resource management, Figge, Hahn, Schaltegger, and Wagner (2002) defined

direct stakeholders as "those groups that are related to the firm by direct material resource

exchange flows," while indirect stakeholders were defined as "those that are not related

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to such direct material exchange flows" (p. 278). And Vasudevan (2008) defined direct stakeholders in a context of tourism branding as "players who have a direct interest in sustaining the tourism brand, such as hotels, resorts, tour operators" (p. 332).

Thus, the degree of involvement in tourism can provide a deeper understanding of the resident-tourist relationship: how residents perceive tourists and respond to them differ according to the degree of individual residents' involvement in tourism industry. Haley et al. (2005) found that people tend to be more positive about tourists and tourism development if they work in the tourism industry or if they receive direct benefits from tourism. In the study of a small island, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2010) found that as residents think tourism is more important for their occupations, they are more likely to feel positive towards tourism development and to expect positive results. This involvement includes people having family members, friends, and neighbors who depend upon tourism- based employment (Chuang, 2010; Lankford & Howard, 1994). For example, people with family working in the tourism industry evaluated impacts of tourism higher than those who do not have families working in tourism. On the other hand, Smith and Krannich (1998) reported that a community more dependent on tourism tends to prefer less expansion of tourism than other communities. Based on their results, they developed the concept of a "tourism-saturated" destination. King et al. (1993) also found that residents who gain high personal benefits from tourism are more likely to complain about the negative impacts of tourism than others. These results can be interpreted in terms of the possibility that people working for the tourism industry are

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also more likely to be exposed to the negative aspects of tourism such as rude tourists and an encroachment into the job market by foreign workers.

Because studies focus on the resident-tourist relationship in terms of a business relationship that assumes the interactions are for mercenary purposes, direct benefits can play an important role in measuring the involvement in tourism. Thus, this research analyzed the different resident perceptions of tourists based on the level of benefits from tourism. In this study, the benefits from tourism are defined as the degree of individual residents' benefits from local tourism industry. Based on this argument, this study assumes that the proposed hypotheses in the model can be moderated by the degree of direct benefits from tourism.

Based on the literature, the following two hypotheses are proposed:

H3: The relationship between tourist attractiveness and resident satisfaction is moderated by benefits from tourism

H4: The relationship between resident satisfaction and resident commitment is moderated by benefits from tourism

The research model for these hypotheses is given below.
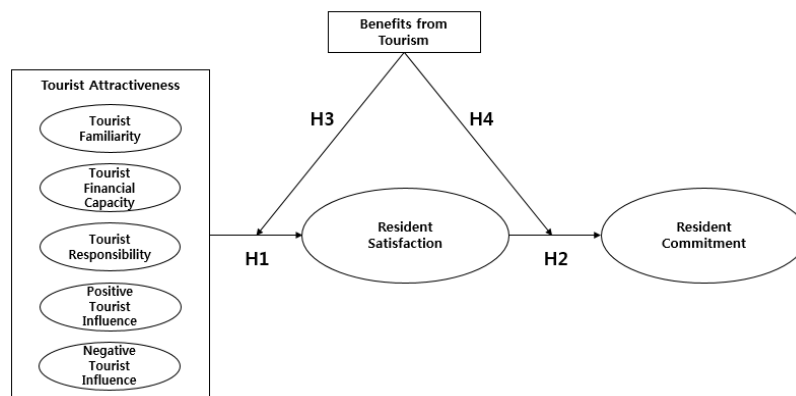
Figure 4.1 Research model 1

Method

To measure tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment, scales developed based on interview results and literature review were used. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with Jeju residents to explore the core concepts of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment. The interview was conducted in Korean and its results were translated into English by the researcher and a peer reviewer who speaks both Korean and English. Then, based on the resulting qualitative output, the concepts represented by the variables were confirmed and test instruments were established based on a literature review. By applying Lott and Lott's (1974) discussion on attributes of attractiveness, four factors of tourist attractiveness — tourist familiarity, tourist responsibility, tourist financial capacity, and tourist influence — were identified. To measure tourist familiarity, the social attraction scale suggested by McCroskey, McCroskey, and Richmond (2006) was adopted in this study, and eleven items refined through Q-sort methods and reliability tests with principle component analysis (PCA), exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were used. The same procedures were applied for the remaining attractiveness factors. As a result, five items of the financial attractive scale suggested by Pulles et al. (2015) were identified and used to measure the tourist financial capacity. To measure tourist responsibility, five modified responsibility items developed based on Luo et al. (2015) were used. To measure tourist influence, the tourism impact scale suggested by Kuvan and Akan (2005) was adopted for this study and categorized into two factors: positive tourist influence with seven items and negative tourist influence with seven

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items. In addition to tourist attractiveness factors, resident satisfaction was measured

using six refined satisfaction items based on Hendrick (1988), Ghijsen et al. (2010),

Baxter (2012), and Su, Swanson and Chen (2016). And resident commitment was

measured by using the six item commitment scale based on Baxter (2012). In this study, a

Korean version of the questionnaire, which was translated by the researcher and a

reviewer who speaks both Korean and English, was used to ensure a clear understanding

and accurate responses.

To collect data, two trained researchers conducted a survey for two weeks in

March 2017 on Jeju Island, South Korea, a location well-known for such unique cultural

and environmental assets as an indigenous lifestyle, beautiful rocky volcanic coastlines

and mountains, all of which appeal to international as well as domestic tourists. Recently,

however, Jeju has experienced sudden social changes generated by an influx of Chinese

tourists and corresponding extensive tourism development. The survey sites used here

were carefully assigned based on accessibility to locals. As a result, city halls, public

libraries, coffee shops, cathedrals, hotels, travel agencies, golf club lounges, shops, public

markets, and a local college were chosen. These sites allowed participants to concentrate

easily on the survey because they included comfortable chairs and tables. Using an

official letter explaining the purpose and process of the study (see Appendix K), the

researchers were able to obtain permission and support from representatives of the target

organizations. For instance, for collecting data at Catholic churches, the priest of the

church helped the researchers reach out to the locals. All potential participants at the

survey sites were asked to participate in this study. If they wished to volunteer, the

purpose and the topic of the study including the procedure for protecting their privacy were explained to each through a consent form (see Appendix N), and then, a hard-copy survey was handed to each (see Appendix P). As an incentive to encourage participation and, thus, a good response rate, a lottery ticket equivalent to a dollar was given to each respondent. Once participants completed the survey, they returned the questionnaires to the researchers. The survey took approximately 15 minutes.

A total of 835 responses were collected, representing a response rate of 88.08%. To check the normality of distribution, kurtosis and skewness were tested using SPSS 18.0. It is assumed the data are normally distributed when the kurtosis value ranges from +3 to -3 and skewness from +2 to -2. The data showed that the kurtosis and skewness of all items were between these values, indicating the data are normally distributed. Of the 835 questionnaires collected, 16 responses were excluded from the data analysis because less than 50% of these questionnaires were completed (Kline, 2011). In addition, six responses were excluded after being identified as outliers based on the results of the Mahalanobis' Distance analysis using SPSS (Kline, 2011). Lastly, 20 responses that had an issue with multivariate normality were also not used based on Mardia's multivariate kurtosis coefficients using EQS 6.3 (Kline, 2011). In total, 793 questionnaires were used to test the research model.

The demographic of the sample used in this study indicates that it includes 46.3% males and 53.2% females with the remaining providing no response; 64.1% married and 33.8% never married respondents; 78.9% native Jeju residents and 18.4% non-native; and 86.1% indicating they had lived on the island for more than 10 years, with the average

length of residency being approximately 35 years. The largest age group of respondents was in the 40 to 49 group (28.0%), with the average age of the sample being 41.8. (SD=12.583). Regarding the highest level of education of the sample, 42.4% of the respondents had a bachelor's degree, while a small percent of the sample had either a master's degree (4.7%) or a Ph.D. (0.9%). The sample showed that the majority had a full-time job (54.5%), followed by those with a part-time job (16.8%), unemployed (9.6%), students (8.1%), and retirees (3.0%). Concerning encounter and interaction with Chinese tourists, most answered they encounter Chinese tourists at least once a week (66.5%), while most in the sample responded that they almost never interact with Chinese tourists (72.4%). When the respondents were asked how much of their household income is directly derived from tourism or visitors, the sample indicated that on average they received 15.37% of their income from direct benefits from tourism.

Using the scale of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment, this study examined the relationship among the variables using EQS 6.3. The model fit was examined by using absolute and comparative fit indices. The chi-square (χ^2) statistic served as an absolute fit index, and the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) was additionally used as a criterion of model fit (Bryan, 2008). An RMSEA value of 0.05 is regarded as a good fit, with values less than 0.08 also being considered acceptable (Bryan, 2008; Marsh et al., 2004). The comparative fit indices, which provide information on the difference of the fits between a hypothesized model and a baseline model (Bryan, 2008), used in this study included the non-normed fit index (NNFI) and the comparative fit index (CFI). They were applied to determine whether the

hypothesis model is better than the baseline model. Values greater than 0.9 indicate a good model fit (Bryan, 2008; Marsh et al., 2004).

To test the path effects, the unstandardized path coefficient (B) and the standardized path coefficient (β) were examined based on an observed z-score, with a value greater than 1.96 at the 0.05 alpha level in the two-tailed critical z-value being considered significant (Kline, 2011). The results were interpreted using Storra-Bentler scaled χ^2 (S-B χ^2) (Satorra & Bentler, 1994) and robust standard errors (Bentler & Dijkstra, 1985) because the Mardia's coefficient of the model was 123.7165, indicating the data set is not normally distributed.

The significance of relationships between tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment was tested in the structural model (H1, H2). Along with the hypothesis analysis, two additional mediation tests were conducted. First, the mediation effects of resident satisfaction were tested to check whether the effects of tourist attractiveness on resident commitment is mediated by resident satisfaction. This mediation test is expected to stress the importance of resident satisfaction in the resident-tourist relationship. Second, a mediation test was also conducted to estimate the relationships among each first-order tourist attractiveness factor (i.e., tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, positive tourist influence, and negative tourist influence), resident satisfaction, and resident commitment. More specifically, to determine the significance of the relationship between the first-order tourist attractiveness factors and resident satisfaction, the mediation effects of the second-order tourist attractiveness factor were examined. In addition, to test the significance of the

relationship between the first-order tourist attractiveness factor and resident commitment, the mediation effects of the second-order tourist attractiveness factor and the resident satisfaction factor were tested. Mediation effect is defined as "a chain reaction where first an independent variable affects a mediator, and then the mediator in turn affects an outcome" (Collins, Graham, & Flaherty, 1998, p. 311). To estimate the mediator effects, the Sobel test, or a normal theory approach, was employed. The Sobel test is widely used to examine the significance of mediation effects that reach the dependent variable via the mediator variable (Kline, 2011).

This study also assumed that the perceived benefits from tourism influence the resident-tourist relationship by suggesting the relationships among tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment can change according to the degree of perceived benefits (H3, H4). As many tourism studies have found that people who benefit from tourism are more likely to have a positive attitude towards tourism and support it, the benefits can also influence the resident-tourist relationship. To examine this assumption, the benefits from tourism were measured by the degree of its direct benefit to the household income (i.e., "How much does your household income directly benefit from tourism?") and its moderation effects were tested through a moderation test. Moderation effect refers to "an interaction effect resulting from a moderator being involved in the relationship between an independent and dependent variable" (Kline, 2011, p. 105). In this study, the direct benefits of household income from tourism were recorded as a categorized variable, meaning the sample was divided into three benefit groups based on the degree of the benefit: the no benefit group, the low benefit group,

and the high benefit group. The significance of the moderation effect of the group variable was measured using the S-B χ^2 difference test, which provides corrected normal-theory test statistics for small and medium-sized multi-samples (Satorra & Bentler, 2001). SEM models can be compared through the χ^2 difference test that examines simple difference of model χ^2 ($\Delta\chi^2$) and the degree of freedom (Δdf) between the constrained and the unconstrained model (e.g., χ^2 and df from the constrained model minus the values from the unconstrained model) (Hair et al., 2006). In the constrained model, all path values were fixed as equal across groups assuming no interaction among moderator, independent, and dependent variables, whereas the path values of the unconstrained model were freely estimated assuming the interaction. So if the $\Delta\chi^2$ is bigger than Δdf, it can be said that the constrained model is different from unconstrained model, or there is a moderation effect.

Results

The structural model was designed to test the significance of the relationships between tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment (H1, H2). In addition to the hypothesis tests, mediation effects were also tested in the model using the Sobel test. Moderation effects were also tested using a categorical variable of direct benefits from tourism (no benefit group, low benefit group, and high benefit group) as the moderation variable (H3, H4). The significance of moderation effects was examined using the χ^2 difference test.

Test for the Relationship among Tourist Attractiveness, Resident Satisfaction, and Resident Commitment

This structural model has three constructs: tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment. The construct of tourist attractiveness is considered a second-order factor that has five sub-constructs, or first-order factors (e.g., tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, positive tourist influence, and negative tourist influence). The constructs of resident satisfaction and resident commitment are used as first-order factors. The equations for the Hypotheses 1 and 2 are seen below:

[Equation 1] RS= $\beta_0 + \beta_1 TA + D$

[Equation 2] RC= $\beta_0 + \beta_1 RS + D$

Where β_0 is the intercept, β_1 is the slope, and D is the residual. In Equation 1, where RS (resident satisfaction) is the outcome measure of the equation, TA (tourist attractiveness) is the value of predictor. In Equation 2, where RC (resident commitment) is the outcome measure of the equation, RS (resident satisfaction) is value of predictor.

The initial model was built based on the CFA model. However, the RMSEA value was not acceptable (>0.05), so the model was improved based on the Lagrange Multiplier (LM) test by adding three correlations between the error covariance of items. The final structure model includes forty-seven individual items that were loaded on the first-order factors. The final model showed good fit with an χ^2 value of 2632.7775 based on 1014 degrees of freedom and fit indices (NNFI= 0.956, CFI= 0.958, and RMSEA= 0.045) (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Model Fit for Structural Model

Parameters	Initial Model	Final Model
χ^2	3120.9354	2632.7775
df	1017	1014
P value for the χ^2	p<0.001	p<0.001
Fit indices	**Initial Model**	**Final Model**
NNFI	0.942	0.956
CFI	0.946	0.958
RMSEA	0.051	0.045
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	0.049, 0.053	0.043, 0.047

*Goodness of Fit Summary for Method= Robust

In terms of direct effects, tourist attractiveness has a significant effect on resident satisfaction (B= 0.995, z=24.76). This finding indicates that higher tourist attractiveness can lead to higher resident satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is accepted. Hypothesis 2 is also accepted, indicating a significant effect between resident satisfaction and resident commitment (B= 0.990, z=19.53). This result supports the argument that satisfied residents are more likely to be committed to a relationship with tourists. The results are shown in Table 4.2

Table 4.2 Test for Relationship between Tourist Attractiveness, Resident Satisfaction, and Resident Commitment: Hypothesis 1 and 2

Path	B	β	Observed z-score
H1: Tourist Attractiveness → Resident Satisfaction	0.995	0.936	24.76*
H2: Resident Satisfaction → Resident Commitment	0.990	0.759	19.53*

The study also tested the relationships between each first-order factor of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment (Table 4.3). All of these first-order factors exhibited significant relationships with resident satisfaction, showing greater z-score than 1.96. Among the five first-order factors of tourist attractiveness, tourist financial capacity was the most significant predictor of resident satisfaction (B= 1.095, z=16.49), followed by positive tourist influence (B= 0.968, z= 15.95), tourist

familiarity (B= 0.943, z= 16.29), and tourist responsibility (B= 0.884, z=16.56). These results indicate that the first-order factors can be considered important for resident satisfaction. Negative tourist influence exhibited a negative relationship with resident satisfaction (B= -0.300, z=-7.22), indicating residents' negative perceptions of Chinese tourism can lead to low resident satisfaction with the relationship with this tourist group. This trend was consistently shown in the results for the relationship between the first-order factors and resident commitment.

The relationship between the first-order factors of tourist attractiveness and resident commitment was tested using the three-path mediation model. In this model, tourist attractiveness and resident satisfaction were considered mediators between the first-order factors of tourist attractiveness and resident commitment. Tourist financial capacity was most highly related to resident commitment (B= 1.085, z=12.57), followed by positive tourist influence (B= 0.958, z=12.77), tourist familiarity (B= 0.934, z=12.48), and tourist responsibility (B=0.875, z=12.60). Negative tourist influence also had a negative relationship with resident commitment (B= -0.297, z=-6.77).

Table 4.3 Test for Indirect Relationships among First-Order Factors of Tourist
Attractiveness, Resident Satisfaction, and Resident Commitment

Path	B	Observed z-score
First-order factors of Tourist Attractiveness – Resident Satisfaction		
Tourist Familiarity - Tourist Attractiveness - Resident Satisfaction	0.943	16.29[*]
Tourist Financial Capacity - Tourist Attractiveness - Resident Satisfaction	1.095	16.49[*]
Tourist Responsibility - Tourist Attractiveness - Resident Satisfaction	0.884	16.56[*]
Positive Tourist Influence - Tourist Attractiveness - Resident Satisfaction	0.968	15.95[*]
Negative Tourist Influence - Tourist Attractiveness - Resident Satisfaction	-0.300	-7.22[*]
First-order factors of Tourist Attractiveness – Resident Commitment		
Tourist Familiarity - Tourist Attractiveness - Resident Satisfaction - Resident Commitment	0.934	12.48[*]
Tourist Financial Capacity - Tourist Attractiveness - Resident Satisfaction - Resident Commitment	1.085	12.57[*]
Tourist Responsibility - Tourist Attractiveness - Resident Satisfaction - Resident Commitment	0.875	12.60[*]
Positive Tourist Influence - Tourist Attractiveness - Resident Satisfaction - Resident Commitment	0.958	12.77[*]
Negative Tourist Influence - Tourist Attractiveness - Resident Satisfaction - Resident Commitment	-0.297	-6.77[*]

In addition, to test the mediation role of resident satisfaction between tourist attractiveness and resident commitment, first, a model that only included a relationship between tourist attractiveness and resident commitment was tested (Model 1). Secondly, a model that included three relationships — tourist attractiveness-resident satisfaction, resident satisfaction-resident commitment, and tourist attractiveness-resident commitment — was tested (Model 2) to compare the tourist attractiveness-resident commitment relationships between the two models.
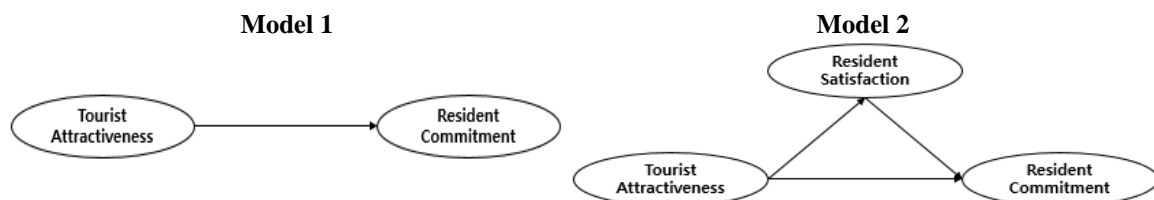
Figure 4.2 Mediation Model

The first model showed a good model fit (χ^2 = 2333.2026, df = 763, NNFI= 0.950, CFI= 0.953, and RMSEA= 0.051). The second model was also exhibited with good fit indices (χ^2 = 3024.9218, df = 1014, NNFI= 0.945, CFI= 0.948, and RMSEA= 0.050) (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4 Model Fit of Mediation Model

Parameters	Model 1	Model 2
χ^2	2333.2026	3024.9218
df	763	1014
P value for the χ^2	p<0.001	p<0.001
Fit indices		
NNFI	0.950	0.945
CFI	0.953	0.948
RMSEA	0.051	0.050
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	0.049, 0.053	0.048, 0.052

*Goodness of Fit Summary for Method= Robust

Based on the results, tourist attractiveness significantly influenced resident commitment in the first model (B= 1.011, z= 19.99). On the other hand, the second model shows that the direct relationship was insignificant (B= 0.271, z= 1.43), whereas tourist attractiveness indirectly influences resident commitment through resident satisfaction (B= 0.720, z= 3.98) (Table 4.5). Comparing the two models, the tourist attractiveness-resident commitment relationship in the second model became insignificant after the moderation of resident satisfaction was added, meaning that resident satisfaction fully mediates the relationship between tourist attractiveness and resident commitment (Hair et al., 2006). This indicates that only tourist attractiveness can influence resident commitment through resident satisfaction.

Table 4.5 Test for Mediation Effects of Resident Satisfaction

Path	B	β	Observed z-score
Model 1			
Tourist Attractiveness → Resident Commitment	1.011	0.729	19.99[*]
Model 2			
Direct Effects			
Tourist Attractiveness → Resident Satisfaction	0.990	0.925	24.01[*]
Resident Satisfaction → Resident Commitment	0.727	0.561	4.05[*]
Tourist Attractiveness → Resident Commitment	0.271	0.195	1.430
Indirect Effect			
Tourist Attractiveness → Resident Satisfaction → Resident Commitment	0.720	-	3.98[*]

Moderation Effect of Benefits from Tourism

To determine the moderation effects of direct benefits from tourism, a group variable of direct benefits was used (e.g., no benefit group: NB, low benefit group: LB, and high benefit group: HB). Three test models were adopted to compare the significance of the moderation effects: baseline model, model A, and model B. The baseline model includes no paths constrained and it was compared to models A and B, both of which have constrained paths for each hypothesis. All fit indices showed a good fit (e.g., NNFI, CFI, and RMSEA) (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Model Fit of Moderation Model

Parameters	Baseline Model	Constrained Model Model A	Constrained Model Model B
χ^2	4763.1267	4769.0385	4776.4523
df	3042	3044	3044
P value for the χ^2	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001
Fit indices	**Baseline Model**	**Constrained Model Model A**	**Constrained Model Model B**
NNFI	0.950	0.950	0.950
CFI	0.953	0.953	0.953
RMSEA	0.048	0.048	0.048
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	0.046, 0.051	0.046, 0.051	0.046, 0.051

*Goodness of Fit Summary for Method= Robust
Model A= Tourist attractiveness-resident satisfaction constrained
Model B= Resident satisfaction-resident commitment constrained

According to the result shown in the Table 4.7, the relationship between tourist attractiveness and resident satisfaction with the three benefit groups has significantly different results, indicating that Hypothesis 3 is accepted at a 0.05 probability level $(\Delta\chi^2 = 7.024, \Delta df = 2)$. More specifically, the group with the highest level of benefit exhibits the strongest effects of tourist attractiveness on resident satisfaction (HB: B = 1.103, z= 15.23), followed by the low benefit group (LB: B= 1.043, z= 11.38) and then the no benefit group (NB: B= 0.868, z= 14.24). This result indicates that tourist attractiveness is an important predictor of resident satisfaction regardless of the degree of direct benefit, and the influence is amplified as the benefit increases.

Regarding the relationship between resident satisfaction and resident commitment, the moderation effect of tourism benefit was also significant $(\Delta\chi^2 = 20.736, \Delta df = 2)$. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was accepted. According to the results, the group with the highest level of tourism benefit has the strongest intention to commit to a relationship with tourists (HB: B= 1.132, z= 12.80), followed by the group with no benefit from tourism (NB: B= 1.053, z= 11.57) and low benefit group (LB: B= 0.675, z= 6.91). This result also indicates that the degree of resident commitment is influenced by resident satisfaction regardless of the level of benefit from tourism. However, the higher effect of resident satisfaction in the no benefit group than that in the low benefit demonstrates that an increase in benefits from tourism does not always strengthen the causal relationship. This result implies that for people in the low benefit group, resident satisfaction may be not the most important reason for resident commitment. In other words, even though they

are not fully satisfied with the relationship, they are likely eager to promote it for more

potential profit compared to the other groups.

Table 4.7 Test for Moderation Effects of Benefit in Tourism: Hypothesis 3 and 4

	Path	No Benefit (NB)			Low Benefit (LB)			High Involvement (HB)			Group Difference
		B	β	z	B	β	Z	B	β	z	
H3:	Tourist Attractiveness → Resident Satisfaction	0.868	0.942	14.24[*]	1.043	0.884	11.38[*]	1.103	0.953	15.23[*]	$\Delta\chi^2= 7.024^*$ $\Delta df=2$ (p<0.05)
H4:	Resident Satisfaction → Resident Commitment	1.053	0.720	11.57[*]	0.675	0.691	6.91[*]	1.132	0.817	12.80[*]	$\Delta\chi^2= 20.736^*$ $\Delta df=2$ (p<0.001)
	n	315			180			237			Total = 732

[*]Storra-Bentler Scaled $\Delta\chi^2$
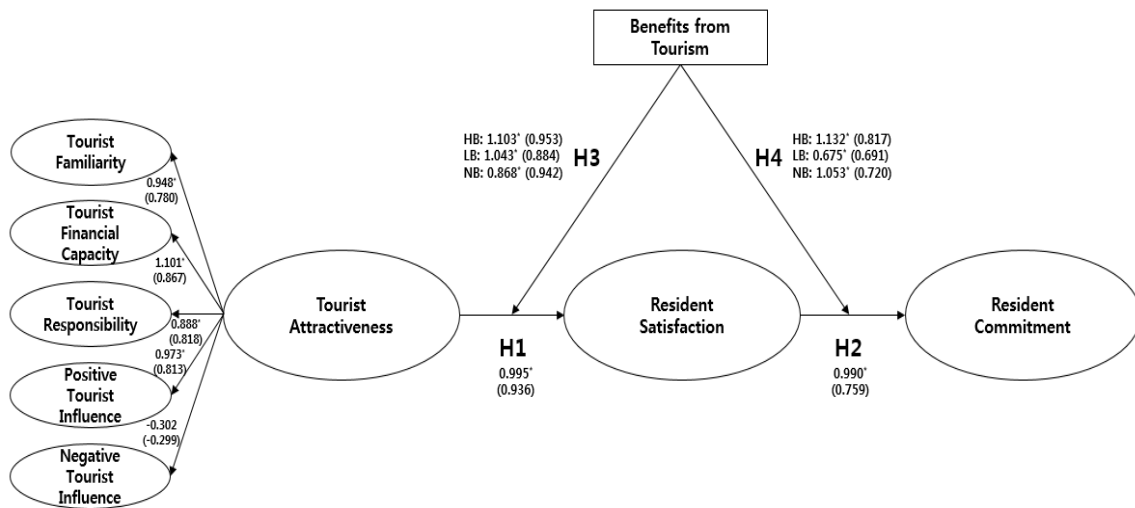
Figure 4.3 Hypothesis Results 1

Coefficient= **B** (*β*)

Discussion

This study tested the structural relationship between tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment on the assumption that a resident attempts to maximize the benefits from the resident-tourist relationship.

First, the significant relationship between tourist attractiveness and resident satisfaction indicated that tourist attractiveness is an important predictor of resident satisfaction. That is, the more attractive tourists are the more likely they are to lead to higher resident satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was accepted. Further, the relationship between the first-order factors of tourist attractiveness and resident satisfaction were examined. All first-order factors of tourist attractiveness made a significant contribution to forming resident satisfaction via the second-order factor of tourist attractiveness. Tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility and positive tourist influences exhibited positive relationships with resident satisfaction, while negative tourist influences had a negative relationship with resident satisfaction.

Second, the relationship between resident satisfaction and resident commitment was also significant; thus, Hypothesis 2 was accepted, indicating that the more satisfied residents are the more likely they are to have a higher intention to maintain their relationship with the tourists. It also suggests that a more mutually reciprocal relationship is preferred by the resident. In addition, it was tested to see the relationship between the first-order factors of tourist attractiveness and the resident commitment via tourist attractiveness and resident satisfaction using the three-path mediation model. Tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, and positive tourist influence

were positively related with resident commitment, while the negative tourist influence was negatively related with resident commitment. The contribution of the first-order factors of tourist attractiveness to forming resident satisfaction and resident commitment through the second-order factor of tourist attractiveness showed that the concept of tourist attractiveness represents the first-order factors in the resident-tourist relationship.

In addition, a mediation effect of resident satisfaction between tourist attractiveness and resident commitment was tested in order to see if the effects of tourist attractiveness impacts resident commitment only via resident satisfaction. This test can attest to the importance of resident satisfaction in the resident-tourist relationship. For the test, two separate model were tested, one testing the direct effect of tourist attractiveness on resident commitment and the other the indirect effect of tourist attractiveness on resident commitment via resident satisfaction as a mediator. The two results were then compared. The direct effect of tourist attractiveness on resident commitment was significant in the first test. However, in the second test, this direct effect became insignificant when resident satisfaction was added, while the indirect effects of tourist attractiveness on resident commitment were significant. Through the mediation test, the importance of resident satisfaction was found, the result showing that the effects of tourist attractiveness impact resident commitment via resident satisfaction.

Last, the moderation effects of tourism benefit were tested. To assess the residents' benefits from tourism, a group variable of direct household income from tourism was adopted (e.g., no benefit group: NB, low benefit group: LB, and high benefit group: HB). In the relationship between tourist attractiveness and resident satisfaction,

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the effects of tourist attractiveness on resident satisfaction was significantly moderated by the level of benefits from tourism. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was accepted. According to the results, the effect of tourist attractiveness on resident satisfaction was strong for all three groups, indicating that tourist attractiveness is an essential predictor of resident satisfaction regardless of the degree of benefit from tourism. Regarding the between-group effect, the high benefit group exhibited comparatively stronger effects of tourist attractiveness on resident satisfaction, while the no benefit group had the weakest tourist attractiveness effect. These results demonstrate that the more people benefit from tourism, the more likely they are to prefer tourists who are familiar, responsible, and bring many rewards.

In addition, the moderation effect of benefits from tourism was significant in the relationship between resident satisfaction and resident commitment. Hence, Hypothesis 4 was also accepted. According to the results, the relationship between resident satisfaction and resident commitment was significant for all three groups. More specifically, the high benefit group exhibited the strongest effects of resident satisfaction on resident commitment, whereas the low benefit group exhibited the weakest effects of resident satisfaction on resident commitment. This result can be analyzed in terms of the importance of satisfaction in generating commitment. That is, resident satisfaction may not be the most important predictor of resident commitment for the low benefit group because these residents can be eager to promote the relationship to increase their profit potential even though they may not be fully satisfied with the relationship. Nevertheless, the output showed that resident satisfaction is influential for resident commitment

regardless of the level of benefit from tourism and its influence strengthens as the benefits increase.

The structural model was examined under the assumption that more attractive tourists can attract more attention from residents and, in turn, they can get more support from them. From the residents' perspective, when residents have a positive attitude towards tourists, they may be more satisfied with the relationship with tourists, and consequently, they are more likely to make an effort to maintain the relationship. This is consistent with the social exchange theory, which interprets the social relationship in terms of a trade-off of costs and benefits (Ward & Berno, 2011). According to this theory, residents and tourists are regarded as actors who have self-interests and are interdependent (Lawler & Thye, 1999). The assumptions were verified in this study; therefore, the resident-tourist relationship can be regarded as a relationship involving the sharing of resources to meet financial and social needs (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Lawler & Thye, 1999). In addition, the result that negative tourist influences had a negative relationship with resident satisfaction and resident commitment can be interpreted using integrated threat theory, which explains how negative perceptions make group members feel threatened (Aberson, 2015; Voci & Hewstone, 2003). According to this theory, resident perceptions of negative tourist influence can be regarded as a negative perception of tourists that may make residents feel threatened (or low resident satisfaction) and consequently lead to a defensive reaction (or low resident commitment).

Implications and Conclusions

The application of the business lens in this study expands the theoretical horizon for understanding the resident-tourist relationship in the modern mass tourism climate. More specifically, the results can contribute to a theoretical framework for a sequential decision making process explaining how residents react based on their perceptions of tourists and their relationships with them. This emphasizes not only the role of tourist but also the importance of resident satisfaction in establishing a reciprocal resident-tourist relationship, while suggesting that the resident-side perception and attitude should be further examined. In line with a sustainable tourism approach, which highlights community participation, these results provide a partial explanation regarding residents' motivation for taking part in the tourism policy and development process, and a mechanism for explaining how the residents' perceptions of and satisfaction with tourists influence their intention to host, market, or attract visitors. This information can help local tourism policy makers and practitioners who seek to attract more active local participation in community-based tourism. More specifically, tourism policy makers can select target tourism markets based on residents' preferences by using the tourist attractiveness scale; then, they can monitor and manage the change in the residents' opinions by using the scales of resident satisfaction and commitment. Doing so can facilitate obtaining more immediate feedback from the local community, opinions that can then be reflected in the tourism policies.

However, this study cannot provide a comprehensive explanation for resident perception and its impact on sequential intention because there could be numerous other

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factors that can indirectly influence residents' perceptions and intentions. In particular, this research scope did not include the actual behavior of the residents: whether they take action based on their intention (e.g., making efforts to keep a good relationship with tourists). Therefore, further studies should be conducted to explore other factors that may influence resident perception and intention in the resident-tourist relationship and to examine the influence of tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment on actual actions regarding support for tourists or local tourism policies.

CHAPTER V

EXPLORING SOCIAL DETERMINANTS OF THE RESIDENT-TOURIST RELATIONSHIP

Introduction

Tourism provides people with opportunities to meet and interact with others from different backgrounds and visit communities representing different cultures, allowing them to build new social relationships and share their own knowledge and experiences (Bimonte & Punzo, 2016). Many countries and regions have focused on the economic value of the tourism industry in revitalizing the local economy, a focus that has often met their expectations of positively impacting the host community with job creation and tourist revenue (Orams, 2013; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1987; Tew & Barbieri, 2012). However, the resulting rapid growth and the uncontrolled expansion of tourism have also led to such serious social and environmental effects as an increase in the crime rate and the cost of living, the degradation of the local culture, and the destruction of the environment (Bimonte & Punzo, 2016; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996). Because of these impacts, much research has suggested that the relationship between resident and tourist is an asymmetrical balance of power based on the social and cultural benefits and the costs associated with tourism (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Ko & Stewart, 2002).

On the other hand, many tourism studies have focused on the relationship between the host community and the tourists, investigating resident attitudes towards the

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impact of tourism or its development or the tourists' attitudes towards a tourism destination. However, first, it is necessary to understand the factors forming the relationship between residents and tourists, making tourism a complex social phenomenon that can be discussed in socio-cultural, historical, geographical, political, economic, and environmental contexts. That is, the encounters between residents and tourists are informed by larger socio-cultural phenomena, meaning they do not exist in isolation. A limited, concrete view, in addition, can consider the current contextual situations a single destination faces, for example a sudden influx of tourists, local tourism policies, and the influence of tourism on pre-existing industries. Adopting this perspective, this study uses the following nine determinants suggested by John Urry (2002) in his book, *The Tourist Gaze*, for discussing the *social determinants* that can influence resident-tourist relations (p. 51-53): the ratio of tourist to resident; the predominant object of the tourist gaze; the involvement of gaze; the organization of the tourism industry; the relationship between tourism and pre-existing industries; the economic and social differences between the visitors and the majority of the residents; the degree to which most of the visitors expect certain standards of accommodation and service; the tourism-friendly government and policy; and the degree to which tourists can be blamed for issues in the host country.

This study aims to examine the theoretical concept of these social determinants by operationalizing and applying it to the real world. To achieve this goal, a social determinant scale is established to measure resident perception of contextual factors based on Urry's (2002) argument. More specifically, to see which determinants influence

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the resident-tourist relationship in accordance with the Urry's (2002) framework, the relationship between them and the resident-tourist relationship was examined in the context of Jeju Island, South Korea. The results are expected to contribute not only to expanding the applicability of the theoretical argument to the real world but also to our understanding of the factors influencing Jeju residents' perceptions of Chinese tourists.

Determinants of Resident-Tourist Relationship

A good relationship between resident and tourist is regarded as a core element for successful tourism (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; King, Pizam, & Milman, 1993; Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015; Morrison, 2012; Sinkovics & Penz, 2009) because a favorable interaction between the two can increase resident support of the tourists (Luo, Brown, & Huang, 2015) as well as improve tourist satisfaction (Pizam, Uriely, & Reichel, 2000). The efforts exploring the resident-tourist relationship have primarily focused on residents and tourists' internal factors, such as prejudices (Sirakaya-Turk, Nyaupane, & Uysal, 2013). However, as tourism is complex and associated with many factors, numerous external or contextual factors that can influence the resident-tourist relationship should also be examined in order to understand the perception of each party and ultimately the relationships between residents and tourists (Heeney, 2015).

These contextual factors have been studied in the past in terms of the number of interactions and encounters between residents and tourists, assuming that the resulting positive or negative experiences with the other party contribute to the future resident-tourist relationship (Carneiro & Eusébio, 2015; Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Jaafar,

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Ismail, & Rasoolimanesh, 2015; Lankford & Howard, 1994). In addition, these factors were explored in light of the characteristics of a destination, such as its stage of tourism development or the rate of community growth (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Lankford & Howard, 1994). This approach assumes that the characteristics of the place associated with its function as a tourist destination contribute to forming the residents' attitudes towards tourism and tourists (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Lankford & Howard, 1994). For example, Lankford and Howard (1994) found that resident attitudes toward changes caused by tourism and tourists can be moderated by their perceptions of the rate of community growth.

In his early work investigating the social factors predicting the resident tourist relationship, Butler (1974) identified factors influencing the resident-tourist relationship using two approaches. The first involved an exploration of the interface between resident and tourist by focusing on the number of tourists, the length of stay of the visitors, the ethnic characteristics of the tourists, the major tourist activities, and the tourists' economic characteristics (Butler, 1974). This approach regards tourists as causes of changes in the destination. Second, he examined the factors of the host community, positing that the resident-tourist relationship is influenced by host community's characteristics. For example, the economic state of the destination, the degree of local involvement in tourism, the spatial characteristics of tourism development, the viability of the local culture, and other characteristics of the destination such as its political situation and ownership and the development of its resources were included in this approach (Butler, 1974).

Based on the literature, this study explores the social factors in the context of Jeju Island. As a first step in understanding these complex social interactions, Urry (2002) considered nine elements that can influence the social relationship between resident and tourist (p. 51-53). These elements were categorized into two dimensions (i.e., interface between resident and tourist; destination characteristics) based on Butler's (1974) argument.

Interface between Resident and Tourist

The Ratio of Tourist to Resident

The number of tourists visiting a place in relation to the size of the population of the destination has been viewed as an important ratio for predicting their social relations (Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2012; Haddock-Fraser & Hampton, 2012; Rinzin, Vermeulen, & Glasbergen, 2007; Tanguay, Rajaonson, & Therrien, 2013; UNEP-WTO, 2005; Urry, 2002). More specifically, a destination where the number of tourists is greater than or equal to the indigenous population will likely be more influenced by its visitors, than one with a smaller number of tourists compared to the local population (Butler, 1974; Deery et al., 2012; Liu, Sheldon, & Var, 1987; Mok, Slater, & Cheung, 1991). According to Urry (2002), for example, to accommodate an increasing number of tourists in small physical areas such as Singapore, it is necessary to eliminate existing structures to build facilities for visitors. On the other hand, the impact of the same number of tourists on the existing social, cultural, and natural environment of a physically larger destination such as New Zealand, for example, will be smaller. This analysis also explains why an island,

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which often has limited resources for supporting tourist activities due to its size, is more vulnerable to an influx of large number of tourists (Hall, 2010; Sofield, 2003).

Recent studies refer to this phenomenon as "over-tourism" to indicates a destination impacted by the pressure of tourism (Seraphin, Sheeran, & Pilato, 2018). As the resident-tourist ratio increases, residents are more likely to become negative towards tourism (Liu et al., 1987). Thus, an excessive number of tourist can result in conflicts between residents and tourists like as happened in, for example Venice, Italy, and Barcelona, where local residents consider tourists "an invasion," expressing overt hostility toward them (Backer, 2016; Sansom, 2017).

The Predominant Object of the Tourist Gaze

The "tourism object" can be an important factor in determining the relationship between the local residents and the tourists; in this context the tourist gaze can be objectifying depending on the objects of interest at a particular destination (Urry, 2002). The tourism object can determine the activities of the visitors and, in turn, influence the degree of contact between them and the local inhabitants (Huang & Lee, 2010; Mahn, 2014; Zara, 2015). Tourist activities pursued in places distant from local villages can result in minimal contact with locals whereas those close to or in local villages can lead to extensive contact between the residents and tourists (Ankor & Wearing, 2012; Butler, 1974).

Therefore, observing physical objects, such as landscapes and townscapes, may be less intrusive than observing individuals and groups, especially an ethnic group and its

lifestyle, which can cause significant social stress since it intrudes on the privacy of the

residents (Urry, 2002). In a slum tour, for example, tourists visit "the urban residential

areas where most resident live under deplorable living conditions," seeing this poverty as

the "culture of locals" (Steinbrink, 2012, p. 216-229). Inevitably, therefore, the objects of

slum tours include observing local residents, consequently increasing the possibility that

residents either directly or indirectly encounter tourists (Frenzel, 2017).

Involvement of Gaze

The level of involvement in tourist attractions, which may vary based on the

characteristics of a destination (Urry, 2002), is closely related to how long tourists spend

on these activities and how deeply they are immersed in the destination (Butler, 1974;

Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Urry, 2002). A longer stay may lead to a greater social

impact on the local community than a short period of stay of a large number of tourists as

the former provides more opportunity for contact and interaction between the two

(Butler, 1974). This increased contact can lead the tourists to penetrate into the local

community in spatial cultural, social, and economic terms (Butler, 1974). For example,

people visiting Mount Cook, the highest mountain in New Zealand, may be impressed by

the magnificent landscape, but they are less likely to be exposed to the object for a long

period of time because they may only take pictures and then leave (Urry, 2002). On the

other hand, tourists in Paris are more likely to stay longer because they may want to

interact with the environment, becoming involved in the unique atmosphere of the city

more fully (Urry, 2002). As another example, Heeney (2015) found that, in general, as

yachties spend longer times at coastal destinations, they are more likely to try to adapt to the local customs and cultures.

Economic and Social Differences

Another important determinant of the resident-tourist relationship is the degree of social and economic difference between the host community and the tourists. Social differences are based on different values, rules of behavior, beliefs, norms, and/or communication patterns between residents and tourists (Reisinger, Kozak, & Visser, 2012). Knowing the attributes of a person including the demographics can contribute to understanding and reconciling various forms of differences, even though, of course, the greater the difference, the more difficult it is to overcome (Rose & Paisley, 2012). In a tourism context in particular, these social differences are regarded as a cultural source that makes a destination more attractive (Guo & Sun, 2016). However, differences in appearance, color, religion and behavior between tourists and local people can also lead to social isolation between these different groups (Rose & Paisley, 2012).

Urry (2002) explained this determinant in terms of the possibility of that "the mass of 'hosts' will themselves be 'guest' on another occasion" (p. 52). If hosts have the opportunity to be guests on occasion, they are more likely to understand tourists (Urry, 2002). This factor is closely associated with the economic difference between the majority of the resident population and the tourists in that the wealthier people usually have more opportunity to take a trip. There is usually a significant economic difference between visitors and indigenous people especially when tourists cross the global

North/South threshold. Many residents, especially those in the developing areas of the world, may have less opportunity to travel on their own given the level of their national economy in relation to the global economy. As a result, they may have a limited understanding of the rest of the world, a situation that can lead to conflicts between residents and tourists.

Moreover, the perceived economic difference through encounters with tourists often makes the inequality or inferiority conspicuous. If the standard of living in a local community is satisfactory, the local people are not disappointed about their own lives when they see tourists enjoying vacations. On the other hand, if the destination's economic status is lower than that of the tourists and the locals recognize this difference, they may want to raise their standard of living (Ahmed, 2015; Butler, 1974). In the worst case, vast differences often lead to exploitative relationships. For instance, Brennan's (2004) research found that the vast economic and social differences between Dominican women working in the sexual economy and the German tourists who were described as macho men led to unequal relationships, with the women being treated like slaves. As this analysis suggests, it is useful to examine the economic and social differences between residents and tourists, in particular any constraints affecting their ability to understand one another.

Visitors' Expectation for Standard Service

Standardized services and products are primarily offered in the context of mass tourism as the term *mass* originated from Ford's mass production model that, through economies

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of scale, created an output of more homogeneous and standardized products (Aguiló

Perez & Juaneda, 2000; Xu, Zhu, & Bao, 2016). In mass tourism, tourist packages that

include a variety of tourism products such as accommodations, foods, and tour guides are

standardized and rigidly planned, resulting in undifferentiated tourist experiences with

high product standardization (Claver-Cortés, Molina-Azorín, & Pereira-Moliner, 2007).

For example, even though Western mass tourists enjoy the local culture of the

destination, they prefer a "safe box lunch and bottled soda rather than a native feast" and

seek "a trained, multi-lingual hotel and tourist staff" and "Western amenities" (Smith,

1989, p. 13). This is also seen in the case of Venice where French tourists choose to stay

at the Sofitel, while Americans prefer the Marriott (Backer, 2016). The economic impact

of this preference for chains means more leakage, i. e. the opposite of "buying local."

However, mass tourism has not only been seen as exemplifying commodification

but also as affecting the quality of the relationship with the host community. For

example, mass tourism also negatively affects community identities where

individualized, unique local aspects are transformed for the sake of standardization

(Vainikka, 2013). In addition, standardized services can distort the perception of and the

interaction between the resident and the tourists by reducing the opportunity for tourists

to experience the authenticity of the destination. Consequently, the tourism services and

goods produced in the mass tourism sector tend to be consumed by tourists with no

consideration of the local norms or culture (Vainikka, 2013). Therefore, if tourists prefer

standardized services, especially franchises and known chain brands, at a tourist

destination, there is a greater likelihood that they will undermine the unique traditions and the local features of the destination (Urry, 2002).

Destination Characteristics

Organization of the Tourism Industry

How the tourism industry is organized — in terms of both its physical development in space as well as how it is planned, managed, and owned — is an important determinant influencing the resident-tourist relationship. For example, regarding environmental issues, some groups may welcome commercial development, while others desire conservation, their views differing based on their individual interests. The best way to navigate these differences is to determine the characteristics of the tourism industry: whether the capital is privately or publically generated, whether it is locally owned or includes significant foreign investments, whether the capital is small or large, and whether there are conflicts between local residents and emerging industries (Urry, 2002).

An area which has been primarily developed by outside interests may receive minimal economic and social benefits from tourism (Butler, 1974). Development by outside interests is also more likely to be undertaken regardless of the opinions of the local community, resulting in tourism development that is often separated, either physically, emotionally, or politically, from the host community (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2013; Paczynska, 2005). This situation is closely associated with the degree of foreign ownership of the tourism resources and the local involvement in the tourist development, particularly with respect to the employment of the local people (Butler, 1974). Further, if

the development occurs in the center of or in close proximity to areas of significant local population, it could generate serious political and social hostility from the local residents towards tourism development and tourists because of its effect on their daily lives (Urry, 2002; Yankholmes, 2013). Therefore, the issue of the primary body of ownership or development in the tourism industry is a major consideration when studying the interrelationship between resident and tourists (Urry, 2002).

Relationship between Tourism and Pre-existing Industries

As an emerging new industry in certain areas, tourism can potentially have a negative or positive impact on existing industries such as agriculture or fishing (Urry, 2002). According to Walmsley (2004), as the socio-economic structure of a society changes, its relationship with the tourism industry also changes. For example, in rural areas, the traditional socio-economic structure that is politically, economically, and socially dominated by the agricultural or forestry sector can easily be influenced by an influx of new industries (Aragón & Rud, 2016). In newly developed rural areas, tourism is seen by local political leaders as a way to regenerate the local economic and social structures by replacing extractive industries like fishing, forestry, agriculture, and mining (Biddulph, 2015). The new industry is expected to bring more employment opportunities for the local people and improve the local economic situation (Liu et al., 2014; Slocum, Backman, & Robinson, 2011; Yu, Wu, Zheng, Zhang, & Shen, 2014). However, this transition from a traditional economy to a tourism economy has led to political (e.g., involvement in politics), social (e.g., education opportunity), environmental (e.g.,

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pollution), and resource (e.g., land use) conflicts between stakeholders in these communities (Yu et al., 2014). These result because not only natural resources such as the sea and the forest but also the infrastructure and superstructures that have been primarily used for the pre-existing local industries such as fishing and agriculture are now required to be shared with the tourism industry (Liu, 2003). This change means that tourism inevitably competes with host communities for limited resources, and consequently, tourism can negatively affect residents' standard of living due to increased housing and energy costs (Gutierrez, Lamoureux, Matus, & Sebunya, 2005). Thus, the relationship between tourism and other industries can influence the residents' perceptions of tourism. For example in Venice, as cheap foreign copies of Venetian crafts for tourists gradually killed the market for the goods created by the traditional artisans, residents began to see tourists as invaders (Backer, 2016). On the other hand, if tourism is perceived by locals as a reasonable alternative to destructive livelihoods such as slash-and-burn agriculture (Gutierrez et al., 2005) or if tourism can help promote local industry, like, for example, agritourism which can foster agriculture, (Flanigan, Blackstock, & Hunter, 2014), tourism may be welcomed by the host community.

Tourism-friendly Government and Policy

Government plays a major role in shaping and developing the national or local economy (Anderson, 2015), its actions including "deliberate distancing or incompetent neglect" as well as "active invention" (Anderson, 2015; Baum & Szivas, 2008); of interest for this research are tourism-friendly policies that encourage or stimulate this industry. In

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general, especially in developing countries, the private sector has insufficient resources and ability to create the industrial environment needed to foster tourism (Qin, Wall, & Liu, 2011). Thus, public planners need to participate in the tourism planning process so that tourism-friendly environments can be developed (Jenkins, 2015; Qin et al., 2011).

The views of the government about the tourism industry can vary depending on the political and socio-economic context of the country. From a modernist perspective, tourism is an industry that can provide an opportunity for many developing countries to modernize (Jenkins, 2015). Tourism not only offers a catalyst for growth by generating jobs and improving public infrastructure but it also provides many advantages that are impossible in other industries such as creating jobs for women and the residents in the lower socio-economic scale in a community (Jenkins, 2015). According to Urry (2002), for example, Spain, Tunisia, and Hawaii developed tourist attractions because they saw tourism as a good tool for restoring the local economy. By contrast, many oil-producing countries are restricting tourism by refusing to issue visas for moral/social reasons. Likewise, during the Cultural Revolution in China (1960s to 1970s), the government limited the growth of the tourism industry for political reasons.

Despite of the importance of general government policies towards tourism, explaining how policies are combined with other contextual factors is extremely difficult (Butler, 1974). For example, residents' perceptions of tourists in countries where tourism is the dominant sector in the economy may differ from the public perception in countries whose economies are not heavily reliant on this industry. However, both perceptions

should be recognized in order to understand the responsibility of the principal agent in tourism planning and management.

Blame Tourist for Local Problems

The degradation of social and environmental aspects of the community and the residents' discomfort caused by tourists have been regarded as important issues to be resolved in promoting future tourism development. Negative impacts of tourism may generate negative resident perceptions, attitudes that can distort the resident-tourist relationship (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Laws, Agrusa, & Richins, 2011). Horn and Simmons (2002) saw tourists as a source of local problems generating crowding or a lack of parking. In that sense, Knowles, Macmillan, Palmer, Grabowski, and Hashimoto (1999) insisted that the term "ecotourism," regardless of its original sense, is often used as a conceptual tool for distinguishing tourists who consume goods and services without environmental awareness from environmentally conscious tourists. This view posits that host communities respect tourists who are concerned about their social, cultural, environmental influence on the destination.

However, the degree of blame given to tourists can differ based on individual, cultural, social, and industrial contexts. According to Alicke and Zell (2009), blame is a defense mechanism that detects and marks harm doers in order to avoid or punish them. They argued that blame is subject to a number of external factors such as the social attractiveness of and the behavioral information about their counterpart. If the information is negatively biased, it can lead to negative perceptions (Alicke & Zell,

2009). For example, if the information is ambiguous, a person who is perceived as selfish, disagreeable, or rude is more likely to be blamed by others experiencing a negative situation (Alicke & Zell, 2009). In that sense, if the local residents are experiencing social problems, they may blame tourists even if they are not the cause. This phenomenon tends to be worse when the community is undergoing rapid economic and social changes. This situation can be further exacerbated because it is easy to blame outsiders for the inconveniences the community is experiencing (Urry, 2002). For example, Heeney (2015) mentioned locals on a small island who determined the increase in waste was due to tourists despite the fact that the problem was actually caused by local residents.

Based on the literature, it can be assumed that these social determinants influence residents' relational satisfaction and willingness to improve their relationship with tourists. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses and research model:

H5: The social determinants influence resident satisfaction
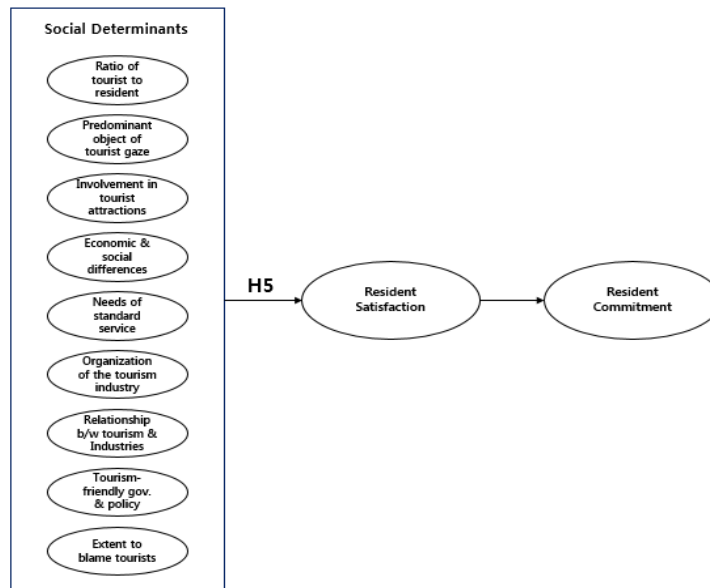
Figure 5.1 Research model 2

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Development of Constructs

Based on Urry's (2002) original framework of the host-guest relations, this study

developed a survey to measure these determinants influencing the relationship between

Jeju residents and Chinese tourists. Tourism is the island's largest industry, accounting

for 23.9% of its gross regional domestic product (GRDP) and, therefore, local policies

and the economy are closely associated with tourism. Over the past decade, however, Jeju

Island has experienced dramatic changes resulting from Chinese tourism that have

threatened the island's social, cultural, and environmental assets as well as the residents'

daily lives. Because of these, the residents have begun to perceive tourism and tourists

negatively. For example, they feel uneasy about the news that the rapidly increasing

crime rate is caused by outsiders, and they feel that the reliance on overseas capital has

damaged Jeju's identity as well as destroyed its natural and cultural resources.

Considering both the importance of travel and its negative impact on the islands, the

attitude of the residents toward tourism seems complicated. It also reflects the close

association of local residents with local tourism as well as their high concern about this

industry. Therefore, Jeju Island is appropriate for studying resident perceptions of the

social determinants that can affect the resident-tourist relationship.

The survey questions asked the individual respondents' perceptions of the tourism

industry and tourists on Jeju based on their knowledge or experience using Urry's (2002)

nine determinants. First to investigate Urry's (2002) determinant that the ratio of tourists

to residents is perceived as "the number of tourists visiting a place in relationship to the

size of the host population and to the scale of the objects being gazed upon" (p.51), the

survey asked respondents whether they think there are too many tourists visiting Jeju compared to the population and spatial capacity using four items (e.g., I feels sometimes Jeju is overcrowded because of tourist; too many people visit Jeju at the same time). Second, Urry (2002) maintained that the predominant object of the tourist gaze influences the resident-tourist relationship, asserting that "the observation of the private lives of host groups will produce the greatest social stress" (p. 51). Therefore, the survey asked local residents which activities were enjoyed by Chinese tourists on Jeju to determine if the local respondents think Chinese tourists' travel activities invade their everyday living spaces using nine items (e.g., Chinese tourists enjoy viewing the natural landscapes of Jeju; walking around Jeju's downtown). Third, "the character of the gaze involved and the resulting spatial and temporal 'packing' of visitors'" were considered crucial determinants influencing social relations between residents and tourists by Urry (2002, p. 51). To measure this determinant, four items were developed, asking local respondents their perceptions of how much Chinese tourists are immersed in Jeju (e.g., Chinese tourists want to explore the different regions and areas of Jeju; are typically immersed themselves in the Jeju's culture).

Fourth, Urry (2002) indicated that the organization of the tourism industry in a destination can lead to different reactions to the mass gaze of tourists, specifying "whether it is private or publicly owned and financed; whether it is locally owned or involves significant overseas interests; whether the capital involves is predominantly small or large scale; and whether there are conflicts between the local population and the emergent tourist industry" (p. 51). Based on his argument, seven items were created (e.g.,

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Jeju's tourism industry is largely owned/financed by the Korean federal/local government; owned/financed by private sector businesses). Fifth, Urry (2002) suggested that "the effects of tourism upon the pre-existing agricultural and industrial activities" can change the resident-tourist relationship because the local community's perception of tourism can change based on whether it can overcome the destruction of existing industries. To explore this determinant, six items were developed (e.g., Tourism industry enhances Jeju's agriculture industry; fishing industry). Sixth, the economic and social differences between tourists and the majority of residents was measured using four items asking how the local respondents think Chinese tourists are different from themselves (e.g., I share a similar lifestyle and behavior with typical Chinese tourists; beliefs and values). Seventh, Chinese tourists' demands for standard services can be an impediment to the resident-tourist relationship. According to Urry (2002), these demands are generally associated with accommodations, food, language, and services familiar to the foreign visitors. The variable was measured using six items (e.g., Chinese tourists need accommodations they are familiar with; need foods they are familiar with). Eighth, Urry (2002) considered favorable tourism policies or political environments as a macro factor influencing the resident-tourist relationship. To measure this factor, five items were created (e.g., the Jeju local government actively seeks to promote the tourism industry; adopts tourist-favorable tourism policies). Last, "the extent to which tourist can be identified and blamed for supposedly undesirable economic and social development" was seen by Urry (2002) as influencing the tourist-resident relationship. Because it refers to unexpected side effects of tourism, nine items measuring negative tourist influence were

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adopted to test this concept (e.g., Chinese tourism has increased the price of housing; has increased the cost of goods and services). Consequently, a total of 54 items were created based on Urry's (2002) nine determinants, all measured using a 7-point Likert scale (1: Strongly disagree; 7: Strongly agree).

Improvement of Constructs

To confirm and subsequently improve the face and content validity, the constructs established based on Urry's (2002) nine social determinants were first tested using the Q-sort method (Gould, Moore, McGuire, & Stebbins, 2008). Five experts on Q-sort, four Korean researchers and one American professor, all working in tourism field, formed the panel. They were asked to review and critique each concept of the categories of the social factors, and to confirm whether the items created approximately represented the categories (Gould et al., 2008). They were also asked to provide comments and recommendations for improvement (Gould et al., 2008). Through the Q-sort, two items representing the demand for standardized service were deleted as they duplicated the meaning of other items (i.e., "Chinese tourists need standardized restaurant services" and "need tour guides who can speak Chinese"). As a result, 52 items were retained and used in the pilot test.

Next, using a sample of 56 college students on Jeju, a pilot test was conducted using the nine constructs and the 52 items. Because the sample used in this study is composed of Koreans, the researcher and a reviewer who speaks both Korean and English translated the questionnaire into Korean, and that version was used here. To

refine the test instrument, principle component analysis (PCA) and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) were conducted in SPSS 18. First, the number of factors were determined using parallel analysis, and a scree plot of eigenvalues was developed using PCA. Based on these results, EFA with a Maximum Likelihood (ML) procedure and Promax rotation was conducted to test the adequacy of the proposed factors. As a result, first, the ratio of tourist to resident was comprised of a single factor and four items (i.e.., Jeju is overcrowded because of tourists; too many people visit Jeju at the same time). Second, the predominant object of the tourist gaze included two factors: a traditional object with six items (i.e., Chinese tourists enjoy viewing the natural landscapes of Jeju; seeing the cultural traditions and resources of Jeju) and a pop-entertainment object with three items (e.g., casinos; Korean Wave on Jeju).

Third, the tourists' level of involvement in tourist attractions comprised a single factor with four items (i.e., Chinese tourists want to experience the unique local atmosphere of Jeju; want to explore the different regions and areas of Jeju). Fourth, the organization of the tourism industry comprised two factors: Ownership 1 with four items (i.e., Jeju's tourism industry is owned/financed by private sector businesses; owned/financed by big conglomerate (Chaebol)) and Ownership 2 with three items (i.e., owned/financed by Jeju residents; owned/financed by Korean federal/local government). Fifth, the relationship between tourism and pre-existing industries comprised two factors: the primary/secondary industry with four items (i.e., the tourism industry enhances Jeju's fishing industry; agriculture industry) and the tertiary industry with two items (i.e. service industry; cultural industry). Sixth, the economic and social differences between the

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resident and tourist groups consisted of a single factor with four items (i.e., I share similar beliefs and values; lifestyle and behavior with typical Chinese tourists).

Seventh, the needs for standard service included two factors: accommodations and food service with two items (i.e., Chinese tourists need accommodations they are familiar with; need foods they are familiar with) and travel activity services with two items (i.e., prefer planned tours operated by tourist professionals; need translated tourism information). Eighth, tourism-friendly government and policy consisted of a single factor with five items (i.e., the Jeju local government actively seeks to develop tourist products; seeks to market Jeju's tourism industry). Last, the extent to which tourists are blamed for local problems also consisted of a single factor but with nine items (i.e., Chinese tourism has increased pollution, noise, garbage, etc.; has deteriorated the natural environment).

Consequently, a total of 52 items were included in the thirteen factors. However, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) for the pop-entertainment object showed unacceptable values below the cut-off value of 0.7, meaning that the internal consistency of the constructs is potentially problematic; however, according to Little, Lindenberger, and Nesselroade (1999) and Kline (2011), if the sample size is large enough, somewhat lower reliability scores from a test using latent variables can be tolerated compared to a test using observed variables. Therefore, the lower reliability values were accepted at this stage of the study. Table 5.1 shows the loadings, reliabilities, and variance explained of each construct.

Table 5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Pilot Test

Indicators and Factors	Loading	α	% of Variance Explained
The ratio of tourist to resident			56.094
The ratio of tourist to resident (m= 5.313, SD= 0.970)		*0.813*	56.094
Jeju is overcrowded because of tourists	0.972		
Too many people visit Jeju at the same time	0.866		
Tourists outnumber Jeju residents	0.524		
Traffic is bad because of tourists	0.523		
The predominant object of the tourist gaze			**43.337**
Traditional object (m= 4.497, SD= 0.867)		*0.824*	*30.283*
Chinese tourists enjoy viewing the natural landscapes of Jeju	0.848		
Chinese tourists enjoy seeing the cultural traditions and resources of Jeju (e.g. stone walls, Dol hareubang, traditional housing)	0.771		
Chinese tourists enjoy recreational activities on Jeju (e.g., hiking Olle trail, scuba diving)	0.725		
Chinese tourists enjoy the sand, sun and sea of Jeju	0.651		
Chinese tourists enjoy seeing local residents and their lifestyle in Jeju	0.503		
Chinese tourists enjoy walking around downtown Jeju	0.471		
Pop-entertainment object (m= 5.280, SD= 0.947)		*0.567*	*13.054*
Chinese tourists enjoy casinos	0.646		
Chinese tourists enjoy the Korean Wave on Jeju (e.g., visiting to Korean movie or drama sites)	0.570		
Chinese tourists enjoy shopping on Jeju	0.437		
Tourist's level of involvement in tourist attractions			**51.503**
Tourist's level of involvement in tourist attractions (m= 4.585, SD= 0.968)		*0.802*	*51.503*
Chinese tourists want to experience the unique local atmosphere of Jeju	0.891		
Chinese tourists want to explore the different regions and areas of Jeju	0.669		
Chinese tourists are typically immersed in the culture of Jeju	0.659		
Chinese tourists are attracted to the local culture of Jeju	0.619		
Organization of the tourism industry			**59.330**
Non-local ownership (m= 4.441, SD= 0.575)		*0.811*	*36.536*
Jeju's tourism industry is largely owned/financed by private sector businesses	0.822		
Jeju's tourism industry is largely owned/financed by big conglomerates (e.g., Chaebol)	0.747		
Jeju's tourism industry is largely owned/financed by Koreans who don't live on Jeju	0.732		
Jeju's tourism industry is largely foreign-owned/financed	0.577		
Local ownership (m= 4.024, SD= 0.663)		*0.743*	*22.794*
Jeju's tourism industry is largely owned/financed by Jeju residents	0.873		
Jeju's tourism industry is largely owned/financed by Korean federal/local government	0.617		
Jeju's tourism industry is largely owned/financed by small scale capital	0.613		

Relationship between tourism & pre-existing industries			**58.891**
Primary & secondary Industry (m= 4.955, SD= 1.038)		*0.792*	*38.451*
The tourism industry enhances Jeju's fishing industry (fisheries, mariculture)	0.937		
The tourism industry enhances Jeju's agriculture industry (e.g.., tangerine, carrot. onion, mushroom)	0.822		
The tourism industry enhances Jeju's stock-farming industry (e.g., horse, cow, pig)	0.570		
The tourism industry enhances Jeju's manufacturing industry (e.g., food product processing, heavy/light industry)	0.466		
Tertiary Industry (m= 5.393, SD= 1.242)		*0.764*	*20.440*
The tourism industry enhances Jeju's service industry (e.g., public market, traditional market, restaurants, public transportation)	0.926		
The tourism industry enhances Jeju's cultural industry (e.g., movie, arts, museum)	0.646		
Economic & social differences			**73.476**
Economic & social differences (m= 3.232, SD= 1.131)		*0.914*	*73.476*
I share similar beliefs and values with typical Chinese tourists	0.998		
I share a similar lifestyle and behavior with typical Chinese tourists	0.838		
I share a similar cultural background with typical Chinese tourists	0.833		
I share a similar socio-economic status with typical Chinese tourists	0.739		
Needs of standard service			**60.776**
Accommodation & food service (m= 4.286, SD= 1.057)		*0.773*	*39.950*
Chinese tourists need accommodations they are familiar with	0.806		
Chinese tourists need food they are familiar with	0.782		
Travel activity service (m= 5.536, SD= 1.022)		*0.734*	*20.827*
Chinese tourists prefer planned tours operated by tourist professionals	0.806		
Chinese tourists need translated tourism information	0.717		
Tourism-friendly government & policy			**62.402**
Tourism-friendly government & policy (m= 5.261, SD= 0.924)		*0.891*	*62.402*
The Jeju local government actively seeks to develop tourist products (e.g., leisure/tourism programs, tourist attractions)	0.865		
The Jeju local government actively seeks to market Jeju's tourism industry (e.g., commercials, advertising, promotions)	0.814		
The Jeju local government actively seeks to develop tourism infrastructure within Jeju (e.g., parking, sidewalks, airport)	0.790		
The Jeju local government actively seeks to promote the tourism industry	0.752		
The Jeju local government actively adopts tourist-favorable tourism policies (e.g., visa policy, translation service)	0.721		
Extent to which tourists are blamed for local problems			**49.572**
Extent to which tourists are blamed for local problems (m= 4.949, SD= 0.899)		*0.895*	*49.572*
Chinese tourism has increased pollution, noise, garbage, etc.	0.828		
Chinese tourism has harmed the natural environment	0.794		
Chinese tourism has caused conflicts over zoning and land use	0.794		

Chinese tourism has produced more congestion, accidents and parking problems	0.734
Chinese tourism has harmed the natural beauty of Jeju's coastal and mountain areas	0.674
Chinese tourism has harmed the natural resources	0.658
Chinese tourism has increased the cost of goods and services	0.647
Chinese tourism has caused more crime	0.598
Chinese tourism has increased the price of housing	0.557

Main Study

The data for main study were analyzed for their reliability and validity of measurement using CFA. Then, using the finalized scale of the social determinants resulting from the CFA, the structural relationship between the social determinants, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment was examined using structural equation modeling (SEM). In addition, the structural relationship was tested again after controlling for the benefits from tourism to determine the relationships among the variables without the external influence of these benefits.

For the main study, a survey was conducted by two trained researchers for two weeks at 16 sites (e.g., city halls, public libraries, coffee shops, cathedrals, etc.) on Jeju Island, South Korea, in March 2017. The survey sites were carefully chosen in terms of accessibility to local residents, and all surveys were conducted with permission of the organizations or businesses. For example, at Catholic churches, the survey was allowed and supported by the priest of the church. All sites had comfortable tables and chairs, allowing participants fully concentrate on the questionnaire. At the survey sites, the researchers intercepted all potential participants. If they chose to volunteer, a copy of the letter explaining the study including its purpose, its content, and the procedure for protecting their privacy was handed to each (see Appendix N). Next, a hard copy of

survey was given (see Appendix P). To encourage participation and reasoned responses, the researchers informed all participants that they would be given a lottery ticket equivalent to a dollar as an incentive after they completed the survey. Completed questionnaires were returned to the researchers and coded. Each survey took approximately 15 minutes.

A total of 835 individuals participated for a response rate of 88.08%. Normality of distribution was checked using kurtosis and skewness tests using SPSS 18.0, the results finding that all items ranged between +/-3 for kurtosis and +/-2 for skewness (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), indicating the data were normally distributed. Of the 835 questionnaires collected, the 16 responses with less than 50% completed, six responses indicated as outliers based on the results of Mahalanobis' Distance analysis, and 20 responses had an issue with multivariate normality based on Mardia's multivariate kurtosis coefficients were excluded (Kline, 2011). Consequently, 793 usable responses were adopted for the main analysis.

Using CFA and SEM, model fits were tested by using absolute and comparative fit indices. In terms of the absolute fit indices, the chi-square (χ^2) statistic and the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) values were checked (Bryan, 2008). For the RMSEA, a value of 0.05 is regarded as the threshold of a good fit, but values less than 0.08 are also considered acceptable (Bryan, 2008; Marsh et al., 2004). In terms of the comparative fit indices, the non-normed fit index (NNFI) and comparative fit index (CFI) were used. Based on the values, the difference of the fits between a hypothesized

model and a baseline model can be determined (Bryan, 2008). If the values are greater than 0.9, it is assumed that the model fits are good (Bryan, 2008; Marsh et al., 2004).

To test the path effects in SEM, both unstandardized path coefficient (B) and standardized path coefficient (β) were used along with observed z-scores. An observed z-score value greater than 1.96 is considered significant at the 0.05 alpha level in the two-tailed critical z-value (Kline, 2011). A Mardia's coefficient value of 99.6744 indicates the data set is not normally distributed; thus, the results were interpreted using Storra-Bentler scaled χ^2 (S-B χ^2) (Satorra & Bentler, 1994) and robust standard errors (Bentler & Dijkstra, 1985).

The study sample of Jeju's permanent residents was comprised of 46.3% males and 53.2% females; 64.1% married respondents and 33.9% never married respondents; and 78.9% born in Jeju (78.9%) and 86.1% having lived there for more than 10 years. The average age of the sample was 41.8 (SD=12.583), with the largest age group of respondents being in the 40 to 49 group (28.0%). Regarding the educational level, 42.4% of the respondents had a bachelor's degree, followed by those a high school diploma (28.2%) and some college (20.8%), while a small percentage of the sample had either a master's degree (4.7%) or a Ph.D. (0.9%). The majority of the sample were employed full-time (54.6%), followed by part-time (16.8%), unemployed (9.6%), students (8.1%), and retired (3.0%). When they were asked how frequently they encountered Chinese tourists, most answered they encountered them at least once a week (66.5%), whereas the majority of the sample indicated they almost never interacted with Chinese tourists (72.4%) when asked that question. Concerning total household income directly derived

from tourism or visitor spending, the sample indicated they benefitted from tourism

15.37% on average.

Measurement Model

CFA was conducted using EQS 6.3 to examine the test instrument of the social

determinants for the main study along with the variables of resident satisfaction and

resident commitment representing the resident-tourist relationship. The CFA procedure

was conducted in two steps. First, nine separate tests for a single factor were conducted

for each construct of the social determinants. Using the Lagrange Multiplier (LM) test,

correlations between error covariance items were added: one mis-fitting for the ratio of

tourist to resident; one for the predominant object of the tourist gaze; one for the tourist's

level of involvement in the tourist attractions; one for the social and economic

differences; one for the needs for standard service; one for the relationship between

tourism and pre-existing industries; and two for the extent to which tourists are blamed

for local problems.

Then, based on the information from the single factor models gained from the first

step, the overall measurement model for multiple factors was examined. In this model,

two factors for resident satisfaction and resident commitment were added. The initial full

model included fifteen factors with 64 items; however, its model fit was not satisfactory

($\chi^2 = 3103.7267$, $df = 1422$, NNFI= 0.935, CFI= 0.942, RMSEA= 0.039). In the initial

model, four factors with sixteen items (e.g., traditional object; pop-entertainment object;

non-local ownership; and local ownership) were deleted due to low discriminate validity

(Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). More specifically, three factors (pop-entertainment object; non-local ownership; and local ownership) were removed based on the LM test because they were highly correlated with a couple of other factors. In addition, the AVE square roots of the factor, traditional object, was lower than the correlations with other corresponding factors (e.g., tourist's level of involvement in tourist attractions; and economic and social differences). Therefore, these factors were deleted from the final model.

The resulting final model included eleven factors with 45 items showing acceptable fit indices (χ^2= 1885.4350, df= 880, NNFI= 0.957, CFI= 0.962, RMSEA= 0.038) (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Model Fit for CFA Model

Parameters	Initial Model	Final Model
χ^2	3103.7267	1885.4350
df	1422	880
P value for the χ^2	p<0.001	p<0.001
Fit indices	**Initial Model**	**Final Model**
NNFI	0.935	0.957
CFI	0.942	0.962
RMSEA	0.039	0.038
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	0.037. 0.040	0.036, 0.040

*Goodness of Fit Summary for Method= Robust

The final measurement model is shown in Table 5.3 along with the factor loadings (λ), Cronbach's alpha coefficients (α), Rho coefficients (Rho), and average variance extracted (AVE) values. The α ranged from 0.741 for travel service to 0.971 for resident commitment, and Rho ranged from 0.743 for travel service to 0.972 for resident commitment. The AVE values fell in satisfactory convergent validity range (AVE>0.50), ranging from 0.593 for travel service to 0.851 for resident commitment.

Table 5.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Indicators and Factors	λ	α	Rho	AVE
Ratio of Tourist to Resident		*0.899*	*0.901*	*0.697*
(m= 5.341, SD= 1.267)				
Jeju is overcrowded because of tourists	0.926			
Too many people visit Jeju at the same time	0.910			
Tourists outnumber Jeju residents	0.752			
Traffic is bad because of tourists	0.733			
Tourist's Level of Involvement in Tourist Attractions		*0.892*	*0.893*	*0.676*
m= 3.673, SD= 1.242				
Chinese tourists are attracted to the local culture of Jeju	0.881			
Chinese tourists want to experience the unique local atmosphere of Jeju	0.845			
Chinese tourists are typically immersed themselves in the culture of Jeju	0.833			
Chinese tourists want to explore the different regions and areas of Jeju	0.722			
Primary & Secondary Industry		*0.902*	*0.902*	*0.697*
m= 4.253, SD= 1.402				
The tourism industry enhances Jeju's stock-farming industry (e.g., horse, cow, pig)	0.896			
The tourism industry enhances Jeju's fishing industry (fisheries, mariculture)	0.827			
The tourism industry enhances Jeju's manufacturing industry (e.g., food product processing, heavy/light industry)	0.812			
The tourism industry enhances Jeju's agriculture industry (e.g.., tangerine, carrot. onion, mushroom)	0.802			
Tertiary Industry		*0.796*	*0.799*	*0.665*
m= 5.047, SD= 1.410				
Tourism industry enhances Jeju's cultural industry (e.g., movie, arts, museum)	0.877			
Tourism industry enhances Jeju's service industry (e.g., public market, traditional market, restaurants, public transportation)	0.749			
Economic & Social Differences		*0.922*	*0.925*	*0.758*
m= 2.856, SD= 1.200				
I share similar beliefs and values with typical Chinese tourists	0.944			
I share a similar cultural background with typical Chinese tourists	0.937			
I share a similar lifestyle and behavior with typical Chinese tourists	0.885			
I share a similar socio-economic status with typical Chinese tourists	0.692			
Restaurant & Food Service		*0.863*	*0.863*	*0.760*
m= 4.801, SD= 1.199				
Chinese tourists need accommodations they are familiar with	0.880			
Chinese tourists need foods they are familiar with	0.863			

Indicators and Factors	λ	α	Rho	AVE
Travel Service		*0.741*	*0.743*	*0.593*
m= 5.349, SD= 1.134				
Chinese tourists need translated tourism information	0.831			
Chinese tourists prefer planned tours operated by tourist professionals	0.704			
Tourism-Friendly Government & Policy		*0.900*	*0.901*	*0.695*
m= 4.500, SD= 1.198				
The Jeju local government actively seeks to develop tourist products (e.g., leisure/tourism programs, tourist attractions)	0.908			
The Jeju local government actively seeks to market Jeju's tourism industry (e.g., commercials, advertising, promotions)	0.833			
The Jeju local government actively seeks to develop tourism infrastructure within Jeju (e.g., parking, sidewalks, airport)	0.828			
The Jeju local government actively seeks to promote the tourism industry	0.758			
Extent to Which Tourists are Blamed for Local Problems		*0.920*	*0.921*	*0.628*
m= 5.565, SD= 1.206				
Chinese tourism has caused conflicts over zoning and land use	0.873			
Chinese tourism has increased pollution, noise, garbage, etc.	0.872			
Chinese tourism has produced more congestion, accidents and parking problems	0.857			
Chinese tourism has caused more crime	0.838			
Chinese tourism has increased the cost of goods and services	0.710			
Chinese tourism has harmed the natural beauty of Jeju's coastal and mountain areas	0.713			
Chinese tourism has increased the price of housing	0.649			
Resident Satisfaction		*0.926*	*0.927*	*0.681*
m= 2.826, SD= 1.244				
As a whole, I am satisfied with Chinese tourists	0.892			
I am happy that Chinese tourists choose Jeju	0.890			
Overall, I enjoy hosting Chinese tourists in Jeju	0.869			
I am generally satisfied with my relationship with Chinese tourists	0.779			
I am typically satisfied with the way Chinese tourists behave	0.778			
There is no problem with the relationship between Chinese tourists and me	0.727			
Resident Commitment		*0.971*	*0.972*	*0.851*
m= 3.830, SD= 1.605				
I would like to see Jeju continue to attract Chinese tourists	0.972			
I hope that Chinese tourists will continue to visit Jeju	0.959			
I think Jeju should continue to market to Chinese tourists	0.928			
I would like to see Jeju provide Chinese-friendly tourism products	0.920			
I would like to see Jeju provide Chinese-friendly services	0.909			
I think Jeju should be committed to the Chinese tourism market	0.842			

Table 5.4 shows the discriminant validity of the constructs. All square roots of the AVEs exceed those for each corresponding factor's correlations, meaning the measurement model exhibited good discriminant validity.

Table 5.4 Correlation Matrix between Constructs

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	AVE
Ratio of Tourist to Resident	**0.835**[*]											0.697
Tourist's Level of Involvement in Tourist Attractions	-0.022	**0.822**[*]										0.676
Primary & Secondary Industry	0.016	0.293	**0.835**[*]									0.697
Tertiary Industry	0.031	0.213	0.747	**0.815**[*]								0.665
Economic & Social Differences	-0.168	0.663	0.237	0.131	**0.871**[*]							0.758
Restaurant & Food Service	0.210	0.131	0.180	0.163	0.053	**0.872**[*]						0.760
Travel Service	0.226	0.084	0.197	0.206	-0.103	0.702	**0.770**[*]					0.593
Tourism-Friendly Government & Policy	0.041	0.285	0.345	0.402	0.275	0.256	0.271	**0.834**[*]				0.695
Extent to Which Tourists are Blamed for Local Problems	0.419	-0.167	0.025	0.117	-0.312	0.231	0.327	0.049	**0.792**			0.628
Resident Satisfaction	-0.314	0.417	0.286	0.270	0.511	0.109	0.044	0.243	-0.283	**0.825**[*]		0.681
Resident Commitment	-0.204	0.271	0.207	0.227	0.336	0.201	0.159	0.214	-0.104	0.750	**0.922**[*]	0.851

[*]Squared root AVE

Test for Relationship between Social Determinants and Resident-Tourist Relationship

A path model was established to test the structural relationships between the social determinants and resident-tourist relationship using SEM (Hypothesis 5). In this model, social determinant factors from the CFA were applied as predictors of the resident-tourist relationship, with resident satisfaction and resident commitment being used as the constructs for the resident-tourist relationship. In the path model, second-order factors were considered for the factors sharing the same conceptual domains. The factor of accommodation and food service and the factor of travel activity service were represented

by the second-order factor of needs for standard service. Also, the factor of primary and second industry and the factor of tertiary industry were tested as second-order factors of the relationship between tourists and pre-existing industries.

The other seven factors of the social determinants — the ratio of tourist to resident; tourist's level of involvement in tourist attractions; economic and social differences; tourism-friendly government and policy; the extent to which tourists are blamed for local problems; resident satisfaction; and resident commitment — were measured as first-order factors. Consequently, the constructs of social determinants consisted of seven constructs: ratio of tourist to resident; tourist's level of involvement in tourist attractions; economic and social difference; needs for standard service; relationship between tourism and other industries; tourism friendly government and policy; and extent to blame tourist. The equations for the hypotheses are seen below:

[Equation 1] RS= β_0 + $\beta_1 SD_1$ + $\beta_2 SD_2$ + $\beta_3 SD_3$ + $\beta_4 SD_4$ + $\beta_5 SD_5$ + $\beta_6 SD_6$ + $\beta_7 SD_7$ + D

[Equation 2] RC= β_0 + $\beta_1 RS$ + D

In the Equation 1, where RS (resident satisfaction) is the outcome measure, SD_{1-7} are the value of predictor (social determinants), and β_0 is the intercept, β_{1-7} are slopes, and D is the residual. In the Equation 2, where RC (resident commitment) is the outcome measure, RS (resident satisfaction) is the value of predictor, and β_0 is the intercept, β_1 is the slope, and D is the residual. The model was established based on factor information provided by CFA. The model had good fit indices (χ^2= 3095.0848, df= 1096, NNFI= 0.924, CFI= 0.929, RMSEA= 0.048) (Table 5.5), so it was used to test the relationship between social determinants, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment.

Table 5.5 Model Fit for Structural Model

Parameters	Final Model
χ^2	2704.1832
df	916
P value for the χ^2	p<0.001
Fit indices	**Final Model**
NNFI	0.926
CFI	0.931
RMSEA	0.050
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	0.048, 0.052

*Goodness of Fit Summary for Method= Robust

Of the seven factors of social determinants, six exhibited a significant effect on resident satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was partially accepted, indicating that social determinants can determine the resident attitude toward resident-tourist relationships. First, as the ratio of tourists to residents (B= -0.247, z= -7.71) and the degree of blaming tourists for local problems (B= -0.107, z= -3.02) increased, resident satisfaction decreased. Second, as involvement in tourist attractions (B= 0.136, z= 4.04), economic and social differences (B= 0.314, z= 8.30), expectation for standard service (B= 0.150, z= 4.66), and a positive relationship between tourism and pre-existing industries increased (B= 0.189, z= 5.24), resident satisfaction increased. However, tourism friendly government and policy did not have a significant effect on resident satisfaction (B= 0.048, z= 1.539). In addition, resident satisfaction predicted resident commitment at a significant level (B= 1.208, z= 16.15).

Next, the indirect relationship between the first-order factors of the social determinants and resident satisfaction was examined using the Sobel test. The first-order factors of need for standard service (accommodation and food service: B= 0.146, z= 4.00; travel activity service: B= 0.127, z= 3.99) were positively related to resident satisfaction through the second-order factor of need for standard service. Regarding the relationships

between the first-order factors of relationship between tourism and pre-existing industries and resident satisfaction, primary and second industry (B= 0.193, z= 4.69) and tertiary industry (B= 0.070, z= 2.61) were positively related to resident satisfaction through the second-order factor of relationship between tourism and pre-existing industries. The results are shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Test for Proposed Model

Path	B	β	Observed z-score
H5: Social Determinants → Resident Satisfaction			
Ratio of Tourist to Resident → Resident Satisfaction	-0.247	-0.269	-7.71[*]
Involvement in Tourist Attractions → Resident Satisfaction	0.136	0.148	4.04[*]
Economic & Social Differences → Resident Satisfaction	0.314	0.342	8.30[*]
Expectation for Standard Service → Resident Satisfaction	0.150	0.163	4.66[*]
Relationship between Tourism & Pre-existing Industries → Resident Satisfaction	0.189	0.206	5.24[*]
Tourism-friendly Government & Policy → Resident Satisfaction	0.048	0.052	1.539
Blame Tourist for Local Problems → Resident Satisfaction	-0.107	-0.116	-3.02[*]
Sub-Factors of needs of standard service – Resident Satisfaction			
Accommodation & Food Service – Resident Satisfaction	0.146	-	4.00[*]
Travel Activity Service – Resident Satisfaction	0.127	-	3.99[*]
Sub-Factors of relationship between tourism & pre-existing industries – Resident Satisfaction			
Primary & Secondary Industry – Relationship between Tourism & Pre-existing Industries – Resident Satisfaction	0.193	-	4.69[*]
Tertiary Industry – Relationship between Tourism & Pre-existing Industries – Resident Satisfaction	0.070	-	2.61[*]
Resident Satisfaction → Resident Commitment			
Resident Satisfaction → Resident Commitment	1.208	0.725	16.15[*]
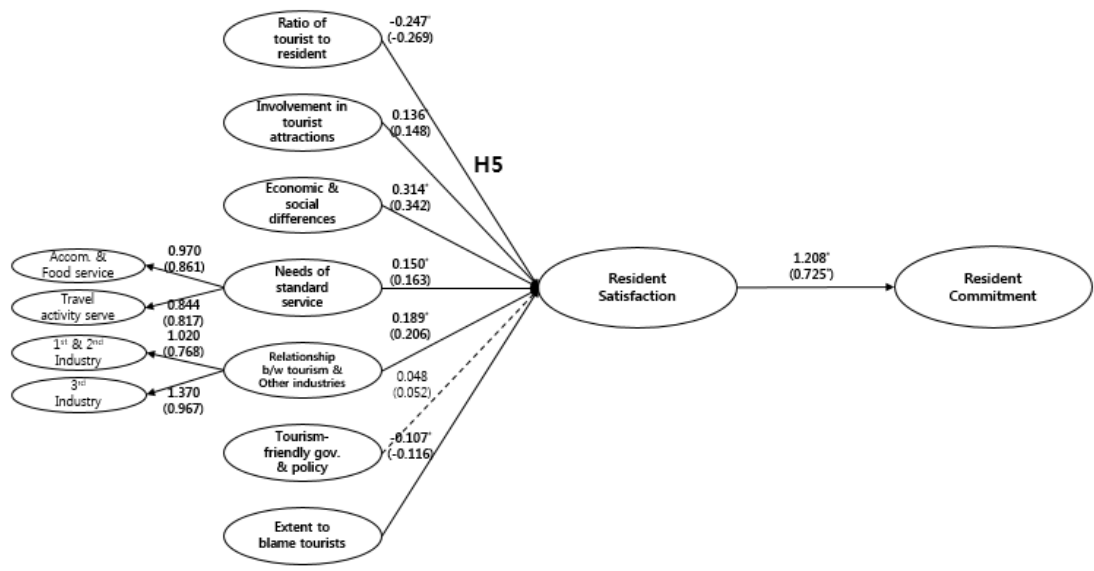
Figure 5.2 Hypothesis Results 2
Coefficient= **B** (*β*)

Effect Controlled by Benefits from Tourism

The variable, the degree of benefit from tourism, which was measured using the direct

benefits from tourism, was used to control for its effect on the influence of social

determinants on resident satisfaction. This test is based on the assumption that the social

determinants can be perceived differently based on the degree of benefits from tourism

and, in turn, lead to different resident-tourist relationships. For this test, a baseline model

that does not include constrained paths was compared with constrained models (Table

5.7).

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Table 5.7 Model Fit of Moderation Model

Parameters	Baseline Model	Constrained Model						
		Model A	Model B	Model C	Model D	Model E	Model F	Model G
χ^2	4925.6788	4927.9420	4931.7638	4928.1244	4928.1769	4927.3554	4926.9329	4930.8316
df	2769	2771	2771	2771	2771	2771	2771	2771
P value for the χ^2	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001

Fit indices	Baseline Model	Constrained Model						
		Model A	Model B	Model C	Model D	Model E	Model F	Model G
NNFI	0.907	0.908	0.907	0.908	0.908	0.908	0.908	0.907
CFI	0.914	0.914	0.914	0.914	0.914	0.914	0.914	0.914
RMSEA	0.057	0.057	0.057	0.057	0.057	0.057	0.057	0.057
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	0.054, 0.059	0.054, 0.059	0.054, 0.059	0.054, 0.059	0.054, 0.059	0.054, 0.059	0.054, 0.059	0.054, 0.059

*Goodness of Fit Summary for Method= Robust
Model A= ratio of tourist to resident—resident satisfaction constrained
Model B= involvement in tourist attractions—resident satisfaction constrained
Model C= economic & social differences—resident satisfaction constrained
Model D= expectation for standard service—resident satisfaction constrained
Model E= relationship between tourism & pre-existing industries—resident satisfaction constrained
Model F= tourism-friendly government & policy—resident satisfaction constrained
Model G= blame tourist for local problem—resident satisfaction constrained

Overall, the level of benefits from tourism did not significantly influence the effect of the social determinants on resident satisfaction. It was significant only in the relationship between involvement in tourist attractions and resident satisfaction at a 0.005 probability level $(\Delta\chi^2= 11.153, \Delta\ df= 2)$. The group with the highest benefits from tourism showed a significantly stronger effect of involvement in tourist attractions on resident satisfaction (HB: B= 0.284, z= 4.05) than the other groups. The low benefit group (LB: B = 0.128, z= 1.667) and no benefit group (NB: B = 0.085, z= 1.889) exhibited insignificant relationships between involvement in tourist attractions and resident satisfaction. The results are shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Test for Moderation Effects of Benefits from Tourism

Path	No Benefit (NB)			Low Benefit (LB)			High Benefit (HB)			Group Difference
	B	β	z	B	β	z	B	β	z	
Ratio of Tourist to Resident → Resident Satisfaction	-0.179	-0.225	-3.87*	-0.354	-0.335	-4.81*	-0.240	-0.244	-4.27*	Δχ²= 2.444 Δdf=2
Involvement in Tourist Attractions → Resident Satisfaction	0.085	0.106	1.889	0.128	0.121	1.667	0.284	0.288	4.05*	Δχ²= 11.153 Δdf=2 (p<0.005)
Economic & Social Differences → Resident Satisfaction	0.263	0.331	5.19*	0.434	0.410	4.67*	0.249	0.253	3.71*	Δχ²= 2.375 Δdf=2
Expectation for Standard Service → Resident Satisfaction	0.158	0.199	3.64*	0.226	0.213	2.90*	0.084	0.086	1.254	Δχ²= 2.003 Δdf=2
Relationship between Tourism & Pre-existing Industries → Resident Satisfaction	0.237	0.298	4.73*	0.145	0.137	1.919	0.179	0.182	2.48*	Δχ²= 1.170 Δdf=2
Tourism-friendly Government & Policy → Resident Satisfaction	0.001	0.001	0.019	0.063	0.059	0.990	0.009	0.009	0.159	Δχ²= 0.496 Δdf=2
Blame Tourist for Local Problem → Resident Satisfaction	-0.176	-0.221	-3.79*	-0.181	-0.171	-3.01*	0.006	0.006	0.088	Δχ²= 5.547 Δdf=2
N		315			180			237		Total = 732

*Storra-Bentler Scaled Δχ²

Discussion

The goal of this study was two-fold: scale development for Urry's (2002) host-guest determinants; and testing the influence of those determinants on resident relational satisfaction with tourists and resident commitment to the relationship. To construct a social determinant scale, this study used the nine determinants suggested by Urry (2002). Of these nine, the following five can be grouped as determinants of the resident-tourist interface as Butler (1974) suggested: the ratio of tourist to resident; the predominant object of the tourist gaze; the tourist's level of involvement in the tourist attraction; the economic and social differences between the resident and the general population of the host society; and the tourists' expectation for standard service. These factors influence the frequency or way of interaction between resident and tourist. In addition, the following four — the organization of the tourism industry; the relationship between

tourism and pre-existing industries; tourism-friendly government and policy; and the extent to which tourists are blamed for local problems — can also be included in destination characteristics suggested by Butler (1974) as they represent the economic, social, and political conditions of the destination.

The social determinant scale created by the researcher based on Urry's (2002) argument was improved through Q-sort methods and pilot tests using PCA and EFA. The data subsequently collected for the main study were analyzed using CFA, the results leading to the deletion of the predominant object of the tourist gaze and factors for the organization of the tourism industry because of validity problems. The results from CFA indicate that the difficulty in assessing residents' attitude towards macro-environments may be caused by the individual resident's lack of knowledge about or interest in ownership of local tourism industry and tourists' specific behaviors. This lack of knowledge can lead to inconsistencies in their answers, thus revealing a limitation of applying the theoretical framework to the real world. Consequently, factors for seven social determinants remained in the final measurement model.

Next, the study analyzed the influence of social determinants on the resident-tourist relationship by measuring resident satisfaction and resident commitment using SEM. This analysis found that of the seven determinants, six were significantly influential for resident satisfaction, partially accepting the hypothesis of this study. More specifically, the ratio of tourist to resident and the degree of blame placed on tourists for local problems exhibited negative relationships with resident satisfaction, indicating that a larger number of tourists can lead to low resident satisfaction. In addition, when

residents are more likely to believe that local problems occur because of tourists, they

feel less satisfaction with tourism, a result supported by previous studies that also found

residents often tend to ascribe local problems to tourists, expressing a hostile attitude

towards them (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Heeney, 2015; Laws et al., 2011; Urry,

2002). These findings suggest that when residents think tourists generate social problems

or inconveniences, their attitude towards the relationship becomes unfavorable.

On the other hand, four factors (involvement in tourist attractions; economic and

social differences; expectation for standard service; and positive relationship between

tourism and pre-existing industries) exhibited positive relationships with resident

satisfaction, meaning that as the tourists become more involved in local tourist

attractions, the residents are more likely to be satisfied with the relationship. Likewise,

the results show that the residents perceive tourists more favorably if the tourists are more

interested in the local culture. The positive relationship between the economic and social

difference and resident satisfaction suggests that the more similar the lifestyles and

cultural and socio-economic backgrounds shared with the tourists, the more likely

resident satisfaction can be ensured. The results also suggested that higher tourists'

expectations for standard service leads to higher resident satisfaction, a finding that can

be explained based on the contextual information of the research site: on Jeju, many

Chinese tourist use hotels and restaurants owned and managed by Chinese nationals;

therefore, as Chinese tourists seek the services they are familiar with, the local residents,

then, are not sharing the same restaurants and facilities with them. In addition, the

positive relationship between tourism and pre-existing industries led to higher resident

satisfaction. In other words, even though tourism eliminates traditional livelihoods and resources to a certain degree, if the industry can create a synergy with other industries, it can also lead to residents having a positive perception of their relationship with tourists. This result emphasizes the importance of harmonious relations with other industries.

However, tourism-friendly governments and policies did not have a significant effect on resident satisfaction, this result indicating that the relationship between governments' efforts to promote tourism industries and resident satisfaction needs to be further explored because approaches to tourism policy can vary according to individual opinions or political backgrounds.

To control for the effects of the degree of benefits from tourism on the relationship between social determinants and resident satisfaction, additional analysis was conducted using a separate sample: no benefit group, low benefit group, and high benefit group. Overall, however, the effects of social determinants on resident satisfaction was not significantly different among the groups. Only the effect of involvement in tourist attractions on resident satisfaction showed significant higher effects for the high benefit group, indicating that the social-contextual factors are perceived similarly regardless of the benefit level. The different effects of involvement in tourist attractions on resident satisfaction can be interpreted in the light of the fact that because more involvement in tourism attractions leads to more profits for people in the tourism industry, the high benefit group will be more welcoming to tourists who are more involved in tourist attractions. However, this analysis requires further investigation using variables underlying the causal relationship.

Implications and Conclusions

The operation and application of the theoretical framework of social determinant suggested by Urry (2002) to measure social-contextual factors in the real world can facilitate a comprehensive understanding of the resident-tourist relationship. This is an important starting point that makes a theoretical concept more practical in the tourism field as it connects the academic and the professional worlds. In addition, measuring the social determinants enables us to understand the combination effects of social-contextual factors that can influence the resident-tourist relationship. These results provide a destination with a tool for exploring social-contextual factors influencing the resident-tourist relationship in the destination. Using this tool, tourism policy makers can consider a variety of issues at the same time when they plan and implement community-based tourism. Thus, decision makers can take a macro-view as they consider and enact policy.

Moreover, the examination of the influence of social determinants on the resident-tourist relationship in this study attested to the veracity of this conceptual discussion by establishing their statistical significance of their impact on the resident-tourist relationship. These results also show that macro-level factors can influence individual residents' perception of their relationship with tourists. Therefore, this study helps to explain the mechanism for how the social-contextual conditions surrounding residents can directly or indirectly determine the resident's perception.

This result shows that the difficulty of measurement based on theoretical discussion. Even though the theoretical framework of social determinants were successfully operationalized and measured in the Jeju tourism context, there are still

some limitations. Out of nine social determinant factors, seven factors were remained in the measurement model, indicating assessing residents' attitude towards macro-environments is difficult because of residents' lack of knowledge or interests in ownership of local tourism industry and tourists' specific behaviors. In addition, the structural relationship model showed an insignificant effect of tourism-friendly government and policy on the resident-tourist relationship. This indicates that the scale of theoretical framework should be modified and used, reflecting specific contexts and conditions of a destination.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section summarizes the results and findings from all three articles in this dissertation. Second, based on these findings, the next section discusses the implications and the contributions of this dissertation for the academic community and tourism professionals (i.e., policy makers, tourism enterprisers, among others) who are seeking a more sustainable and community-friendly tourism. Finally, the last section addresses the limitations of this dissertation and suggests areas of future research that can further develop the research issue investigated here.

Summary

The purpose of this dissertation was to explore the resident-tourist relationship from the resident perspective. To achieve this goal, first, *tourist attractiveness* and *social determinants* were explored as predictors of the resident-tourist relationship. Tourist attractiveness was used to explain resident perceptions of tourists. The resident perception of tourism development has been studied in a variety of contexts; however, analyzing tourists as reciprocal partners from the resident perspective has not previously been explored in depth. For this investigation, this research explored tourist attractiveness by adopting the concept of attractiveness from the social psychology and business fields and measuring it using the constructs of tourist familiarity, tourist financial capacity, tourist responsibility, and tourist influence. Social determinants were considered as

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social-contextual factors influencing the resident-tourist relationship. This variable included not only factors associated with destination characteristics but also factors associated with the interface between resident and tourists. To measure and test the social-contextual factors, the social determinants suggested by Urry (2002) were operationalized in this study.

Second, *resident satisfaction* and *resident commitment* were studied in terms of the resident-tourist relationship. Resident satisfaction was explored in order to verify the reciprocity of this relationship, a concept that can be described based on how satisfied locals are with the resident-tourist relationship. The resident commitment was examined as an intention variable to maintain the relationship, and this variable was found to reflect resident attitude toward future relationships with tourists.

Third, relationships between the scales developed in this study were tested using structural equation modeling (SEM). To examine how residents' perceptions affect their relationships with tourists, the effect of tourist attractiveness on resident satisfaction was tested. In addition, the effects of social determinants on the resident-tourist relationship were also tested. Furthermore, the relationship between resident satisfaction and resident commitment was examined in order to determine the importance of resident satisfaction in predicting resident commitment.

These analyses were embodied in three articles. Study One included the scale development procedure for tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment, while in Study Two, hypotheses for the relationship between the three variables were established based on the literature and then tested using SEM. Study Three

included the scale development for the social determinants and the test of the structural

relationship between them and resident satisfaction and resident commitment. In addition,

in Articles Two and Three, the degree of tourism benefit was considered as a moderator,

or control variable, in the structural models in order to determine if the effect of

predictors of the resident-tourist relationship is influenced by the tourism involvement of

individual residents. This investigation was based on the assumption that the resident-

tourist relationship is a business-orientated relationship, where the more benefits people

receive from the relationship the more likely they are to have a favorable attitude towards

it.

The primary findings and contributions of this dissertation are summarized here.

First, the tourist attractiveness scale consisting of tourist familiarity, tourist financial

capacity, tourist responsibility, positive tourist influence, and negative tourist influence

was verified. In addition, scales for resident satisfaction and resident commitment were

also confirmed. The results of the scale development showed that the concept of

attractiveness, which consists of the nature or quality of a person, a person as an

intermediator, and the overt behavior of a person (Lott & Lott, 1974), can be used to

explain resident perceptions of tourists.

Second, through SEM, it was found that tourist attractiveness is an important

predictor of resident satisfaction (H1). In addition, the effect of resident satisfaction on

resident commitment was also found (H2). All first-order factors of tourist attractiveness

had a relationship with resident satisfaction and resident commitment through the second-

order factor of tourist attractiveness. In addition, the mediation test of resident

satisfaction in the relationship found that tourist attractiveness and resident commitment are connected through resident satisfaction. This result is consistent with social exchange theory, which views social relationships in terms of a trade-off of costs and benefits (Ward & Berno, 2011). According to this theory, residents perceive tourist attractiveness as a type of reward that brings greater benefits than costs, and as such it influences their relational satisfaction with tourists. In turn, when residents are satisfied with the tourists, they may want to maintain this beneficial relationship.

Third, the social determinant scale consisted of seven determinants: the ratio of tourists to residents; tourist's level of involvement in tourist attraction; economic and social differences between resident and the largest population segment of the host society; tourists' expectation for standard service; the relationship between tourism and pre-existing industries; tourism-friendly government and policies; and the extent to which tourists are blamed for local problems. The determinants were found to have a significant relationship with resident satisfaction (H5). This result shows that Urry's (2002) social determinants are useful tools for explaining the multifaceted and complex phenomena entangled with tourism. Of the nine social determinants Urry (2002) suggested, two factors (i.e., predominant object of the tourist gaze; organization of the tourism industry) were not included in this study due to validity issues and a third factor (i.e., tourism-friendly government and policy) did not show a significant impact on the resident-tourist relationship. These results indicate that the theoretical model should be used and modified in accordance with specific contexts of destinations.

Finally, benefits from tourism were found to have a moderating effect. In the relationship between tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment, the group receiving the most benefit exhibited the strongest relationship between the variables (H3, H4). In the relationship between social determinants and resident satisfaction, the variable of benefits from tourism was controlled. The results indicated that the benefits from tourism variable did not fully significantly influence the model, with six of the seven relationships not being significantly different across the groups with different benefits from tourism. The only significant finding was the higher the benefits from tourism, the stronger the influence of involvement in tourist attractions on resident satisfaction.

Implications

Conceptual and Theoretical Implications

This study challenged the dominating research perspective of focusing on tourists in the resident-tourist relationship as most tourism studies have been concerned with this perspective. Tourists' perceptions of and attitudes toward the tourism destination, tour operations and services, and the resident population have been the focus of much research in the tourism and hospitality fields, which consider tourists as customers who bring benefits to the host communities. This research trend does not reflect the mutual reciprocity found in the resident-tourist relationship, and as a result, the resident population began to display a negative perspective about the tourists visiting their communities (Backer, 2016; Sansom, 2017).

As a first step in addressing this issue, this dissertation explored the concept of tourist attractiveness and established scales to measure this concept, thus offering an opportunity to consider the resident perspective in the resident-tourist relationship. This new concept of tourist attractiveness is expected to broaden the theoretical framework for analyzing the resident-tourist relationship. In particular, the analysis tool allows for a better understanding of the resident attitude toward and perceptions of tourists by extending the limited previous research domains that focus on attitudes toward tourism impact or development.

In addition, based on the framework of a business relationship, the resident and tourist can be understood in terms of a supplier and customer, suggesting that the use of the term *guest* to describe tourists should be retired from future research in order to build a more mutually reciprocal relationship that listens to the voice of the resident. To date, the resident-tourist relationship has been analyzed using two major approaches. First, in the studies that regard tourism as an industry, tourists have been considered as customers who bring benefits to a destination, while considering residents as the beneficiaries of tourism. This assumption may be useful in discussing tourism in less developed countries, where this industry is an important source for the local economy and where there is a large economic difference between the local population and the tourists; however, this perspective may not be applicable in many wealthier regions that consider the negative social, cultural, economic, and environmental impacts of tourism. Therefore, this research trend has led to a lack of explanations for the current phenomenon where residents boycott local tourism and tourists in many destinations.

Second, other studies that disregard the industrial aspects of tourism tend to see the resident-tourist relationship in terms of a host-guest relationship. This approach posits that residents should be hosts who welcome and treat their guests well despite the fact that residents expect rewards from the tourists. Hence, these two approaches have amplified the unequal relationship between residents and tourists while failing to deliver appropriate explanations about the resident-tourist relationship. It is time to admit that the resident-tourist interaction is for merchandized purposes. This movement will support further questions about how return rewards to residents in the tourism market.

The scales of resident satisfaction and resident commitment were developed here to measure the residents' relational satisfaction with tourists and their intentions to support the relationship, respectively. Resident satisfaction explains how residents perceive the resident-tourist relationship as reciprocal. This dissertation insists that residents should be able to judge the quality of the relationship, and if it is not perceived as satisfactory, it should be considered in future tourism policy and planning decisions. These decisions can then reflect the residents' intention to maintain the relationship by using the resident commitment scale. The resident satisfaction and resident commitment scales can facilitate sustainable tourism and tourism policy studies in measuring resident perception of tourists and support for local tourism.

The test of the relationship between tourist attractiveness and resident satisfaction indicates that residents are more satisfied with their relationship with tourists when these visitors are familiar and responsible, and bring positive benefits to the community, indicating that the reciprocity of the resident-tourist relationship is determined not only

by a resident's hospitality but also by the tourist's characteristics and behavior. The output on the effects of resident satisfaction on resident commitment demonstrates the importance of resident satisfaction in order to maintain an amicable relationship with tourists. It is a reminder that resident satisfaction should be ensured to provide tourists with the best possible experience, considering a favorable resident attitude is an important element of the tourist experience. Reflecting these results, this study extends the theoretical framework by explaining the sequential decision making process in the resident-tourist relationship: how residents react is based on their perceptions of tourists and their relationship with them.

This study provides a comprehensive understanding of the predictors of the resident-tourist relationship by examining the resident perception of social-contextual factors that can contribute to the environment to facilitate the resident-tourist relationship. Even though social determinants have been suggested as factors influencing the resident-tourist relationship, they have not been empirically tested to determine whether they actually do so. To test the relationship, first, this study explored the social determinants influencing the resident-tourist relationship based relevant literature and developed scales to measure the concepts argued in these theoretical papers. Then, this study verified the influence of social determinants on the resident-tourist relationship by testing a structural relationship between them and resident satisfaction and resident commitment. Therefore, this study contributes to our understanding of the combination effect of social-contextual factors on the resident-tourist relationship. These results provide the foundation for

moving forward to discussions about measurement issues in accordance with a variety of social backgrounds within a single destination.

In addition, this dissertation verified that the effects of tourist attractiveness and resident satisfaction are different based on the level of benefits from tourism. It was confirmed that the people who benefitted more from the relationship with tourists are more likely to be concerned with tourist attractiveness when they evaluate their satisfaction with the relationship, suggesting that residents consider tourist attractiveness differently based on their stake in the relationship. In addition, the level of benefits from tourism changed the effect of resident satisfaction on resident commitment, suggesting that the resident population can react differently to tourists, again based on personal gain. These results contribute to our understanding of the formation process of the resident-tourist relationship based on a self-interest perspective as well as our understanding of the resident population through a tourism industry lens by providing a starting point for exploring the resident population as a supplier in a market who pursues maximizing their own gain.

Overall, this dissertation provides an opportunity to rethink tourism in terms of the social phenomena associated with the resident-tourist relationship. Given the fact that the main actors are individuals who are experiencing and sharing cultural, social, and environmental assets of destinations, tourism is both a process and a result of social interactions created by people. Thus far, however, tourism studies tend to view tourism without considering the people involved, seeing this industry as a series of developments and social effects. This incomplete research trend can distort our understanding of

tourism. Therefore, this study applied a lens that helps us understand the resident-tourist relationship in terms of social-interpersonal relationships. This effort can contribute to widening the dominant perspective of tourism research.

Practical Implications

Using the tourist attractiveness scale, tourism policy planners and managers can assess the resident perception of tourists visiting a destination. The information about resident perception gained here can be used to establish more resident-oriented tourism policies. For instance, the information can be used when a local government selects a main target market. Based on information indicating which tourist group is preferred by the host community, the local government can establish tourism policies that are friendly to this market. It can provide an opportunity for the local community to assume leadership of the resident-tourist relationship, thus serving as a starting point for developing a tourism destination where both the residents and tourists are happy.

In addition, this information will provide an indication if there are feelings of hostility toward a particular tourist group in the resident community. Based on this knowledge, local governments can look for the cause of this hostility and take appropriate steps to remedy it. For example, when the level of tourist attractiveness of a certain tourist group is low, the local government can determine the reason why the residents have a negative perception. If this perception is based on a particular prejudice or preconception about the tourist group, the local government can make an effort to change

this distorted socio-cultural perception. Doing so will contribute to making the host community a more attractive destination where all tourists are welcomed.

This study also explored the relationships between tourist attractiveness, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment, the results showing that resident satisfaction is significantly influenced by tourist attractiveness, indicating tourists who are more familiar and responsible, and provide more benefits are preferred by the host community. This finding suggests that to improve the satisfaction of the host community with tourists, their characteristics and behavior at a destination need to be considered in tourism marketing and management. For instance, public marketing can be used to encourage responsible behavior by educating tourists on the importance of the host community's well-being.

In addition, the relationship between resident satisfaction and resident commitment demonstrates the importance of resident satisfaction for strong tourism support in the host community. The more satisfied people are the more likely they will be to maintain and improve the reciprocal relationship with tourists. This result also serves as a reminder that residents who are less satisfied with the relationship are less likely to be involved in it in addition to being more likely to oppose tourist-friendly tourism policies. It further implies that to gain local support for tourist-friendly tourism policies, the local government should secure high resident satisfaction with relationships with the target tourists. The results from this study support the need for additional research on resident satisfaction in a tourism marketing context as well as a sustainable tourism context.

The social determinant scale demonstrates how the host community perceives social-contextual factors that can influence the resident-tourist relationships. These subjective perceptions should be assessed and addressed by the local government as they can influence public support for the relationships with tourists. Because not all residents are aware of or involved with the tourism industry in their area, the conditions related to local tourism and tourists are not recognized easily by residents. Thus, assessing the public attitude towards the social-contextual factors is helpful for understanding whether the local community is interested in local tourism and tourists. In particular, the comparison between the results showing the public attitude and the objective values representing facts can provide insightful information about the public attitude. For example, if when comparing the numerical values representing the ratio of tourists to locals with the residents' feeling about crowding, the local government should ascertain if there is a difference between the two and explore the reason why. If the values for the issue do not reflect the reality, the government can improve the method of investigation. On the other hand, if the public perception is distorted, the local government can provide the local residents with the correct information through public education or marketing.

This study examined that the different decision making processes based on groups receiving different benefits from the industry. The results found that the influence of the effects of tourist attractiveness and resident satisfaction are different according to the benefits from tourism, suggesting that the resident population in a destination should be managed differently based on their involvement in tourism. The group seeing more benefits is comparatively more sensitive about the tourist characteristics and behavior,

and they are more likely to make an effort to have a favorable relationship with tourists. Based on these results, therefore, more elaborate tourism policies targeting a specific resident group can be established.

Finally, the results from these studies can provide accurate information regarding issues that many tourism destinations including Jeju Island are currently experiencing. Tourists, especially mass tourists, who visit destinations can be seen as customers who bring essential benefits to the destination. At the same time, however, these tourists can be regarded as invaders when they do not show respect to the local community and when they harm the resources and cultures of the destination. In terms of a business relationship, not only the tourists but also the local community should be considered. In that sense, this study insists that the voice of locals should be reflected in the development of policy to ensure that it is resident-friendly. The concepts addressed in this study (tourist attractiveness, social determinants, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment) suggest that resident-oriented tourism policies can be justified and facilitated.

Limitations and Future Research

This study was planned and conducted on a small island of South Korea. Even though many destinations are experiencing similar social issues caused by an influx of tourists, it is difficult to generalize the results. Therefore, further studies need to be conducted in a variety of social and cultural contexts. Additional research will support more generalized implications of the topics studied here. In particular, the newly constructed scales of

tourist attractiveness, social determinants, resident satisfaction, and resident commitment should be tested and improved through further studies.

Nine social determinants were applied in this study. However, the range of social factors are wide and, thus, there are numerous factors that should be considered. Also, the social determinants may not directly influence the resident-tourist relationship: there are environmental factors that influence the relationship indirectly, meaning that mediation variables in the relationship can be considered in the future studies.

In addition, this study of social determinants exposed a gap between theory and reality as all nine determinants were not included in the final measurement model. Factors for the predominant object of the tourist gaze and for the organization of the tourism industry were excluded, indicating the difficulty in assessing every resident's attitude toward macro- environments. Therefore, future research should try to measure the social-contextual factors using secondary data (e.g., the number of in-bound tourists and the resident population) instead of using variables based on resident perception.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

IRB Approval Email for Interview

Dear Dr. Duffy,

The Clemson University Institutional Review Board (IRB) validated the protocol referenced above using exempt review procedures and a **determination was made on July 12, 2016** that the proposed activities involving human participants qualify as **Exempt under category B2**, in accordance with federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101. **Your protocol will expire on November 30, 2018.**

This approval is based on U.S. human subjects protections regulations (45 CFR 46) and Clemson University human subjects protection policies. We are not aware of any regulations that may be in place for the country you are planning to conduct research in that would conflict with this approval. However, you should become familiar with all pertinent information about local human subjects protection regulations and requirements when conducting research in countries other than the United States. We encourage you to discuss with your local contacts any possible human subjects research requirements that are specific to your research site, to comply with those requirements, and to inform this office of those requirements so we can better help other researchers prepare for international research in the future.

The expiration date indicated above was based on the completion date you entered on the IRB application. If an extension is necessary, the PI should submit an Exempt Protocol Extension Request form, http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/forms.html, at least three weeks before the expiration date. Please refer to our website for more information on the extension procedures, http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/guidance/reviewprocess.html.

All team members are required to review the IRB policies on Responsibilities of Principal Investigators and the Responsibilities of Research Team Members available at http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/regulations.html.

No change in this approved research protocol can be initiated without the IRB's approval. This includes any proposed revisions or amendments to the protocol or consent form. Any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects, complications, and/or adverse events must be reported to the Office of Research Compliance immediately.

The Clemson University IRB is committed to facilitating ethical research and protecting the rights of human subjects. Please contact us if you have any questions and use the IRB number and title when referencing the study in future correspondence.

Good luck with your study.

Sincerely,

Nalinee

Nalinee D. Patin, CIP
IRB Administrator
Clemson University
Office of Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board (IRB)
223 Brackett Hall
Voice: (864) 656-0636
Fax: (864) 656-4475
E-mail: npatin@clemson.edu
Web site: http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/
IRB E-mail: irb@clemson.edu (send all new requests to IRB inbox)

APPENDIX B

Official Letter for Personal Information Protection for Interview

Official Letter for Personal Information Protection

**Department of
PARKS, RECREATION
and TOURISM
MANAGEMENT**

263 Lehotsky Hall
128 McGinty Court
Clemson, SC
29634-0735

P (864) 656-3400
F (864) 656-2226

July 12, 2016
Dear participants,

I would like to thank you for participating in the interview for the study of "*Host perception of tourists and their socio-cultural effects on host community: The case of Jeju Island, South Korea*". The research aims to explore residents' perception of tourists, the tourism industry, and to explore how the tourists' socio-economic status effects on the host community. While protecting your identifying information, the results of the study may be published in academic journals. All data will be only used for academic research. The study strictly follows the guideline of Institutional Review Board (IRB) in order to ensure the rights and welfare of participants are protected during the whole research process.

Data collected through the interview will be kept confidential through the whole data collection and analysis process:

- Audio recordings will be transcribed and all identifying information will be removed and replaced with pseudonyms in order to protect your personal information.
- All information collected will be kept on a secure server and access to the raw data will be strictly allowed only for the researchers.
- Once the research is completed, the audio and text data will be destroyed immediately. The research is expected to be completed by 2018.

Thank you again for your valuable input. Please do not hesitate to contact me at any time if you have questions or concerns regarding about this study or if any problems arise (lduffy@clemson.edu).

If you have any questions or concerns about your rights in this research study, please contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at irb@clemson.edu.

Best Regards,

Dr. Lauren Duffy, Principle Investigator
Assistant Professor
Department of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management
College of Health, Education, and Human Development
Clemson University
128 McGinty Court, 294 Lehotsky Hall
Clemson, SC, 29634-0735
Ph: 1-704-213-2099; lduffy@clemson.edu

www.clemson.edu/PRTM/

APPENDIX C

Verbal Recruitment Script for Interview

Hello - My name is Gyunghoon Kim and I am a Ph.D. student from the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at Clemson University. I'm calling to talk to you about participating in my research study that I am conducting that explores Jeju Island's hosts' perception of tourists and their socio-cultural effects on host their community. This research is being conducted under the guidance of Dr. Duffy, an Assistant Professor at Clemson University.

You are eligible to be in this study because you are a resident of Jeju and you are directly or indirectly influenced by tourism.

If you decide to participate in this study, you will be asked: 1) your perception of tourists (e.g., where do they come from, how long do they stay, do they benefit the community, do they create negative impacts); 2) your interaction with the tourists (e.g., how often do you encounter tourists, are you satisfied with the relationship); and 3) your evaluation how you feel about the tourists' socio-economic status (e.g., do you feel the tourists are similar to you in values in ideals). However, if you feel uncomfortable with any questions, you do not have to answer and may skip to the next question. This interview should last one hour.

The interview will be audio recorded, if you allow, and notes from the research will also be recorded during the interview. Any of your personal identifying information (e.g. name, job position) will be excluded from the transcriptions. The audio and text data will be stored on a secured hard drive and only the two researcher will have access to the raw data. The results of the study may be published in academic journals.

Remember, this is completely voluntary. You can choose to be in the study or not. If you would like to participate, you can choose a time for us to schedule the interview. The times available include (insert list of potential dates and times). If you would like to participate but are not currently sure what time or date will work for you, or if none of those times work, we can schedule an interview at a later time.

Remember, this is completely voluntary. You can choose to be in the study or not. If you need more time to decide if you would like to participate, you may also call or email me with your decision.

Do you have any questions for me at this time?

If you have any more questions about this process or if you need to contact me about participation, I may be reached at 010- 5065-2076 (US 1-864-650-0392) or gyunghk@clemson.edu

Thank you so much.

Gyunghoon Kim

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APPENDIX D

Verbal Recruitment Script for Interview in Korean

안녕하십니까, 저는 미국 클렘슨 대학교에서 관광학을 전공하고 있는 박사과정 김경훈 입니다.

본 인터뷰는 미국 클렘슨 대학교의 로렌 더피 (Dr. Lauren Duffy) 교수의 책임하에 이루어지고 있는 "제주도 지역주민의 관광객과 그들의 지역영향에 대한 인식연구"를 위한 것으로, 귀하의 참여를 요청 드립니다.

귀하의 관광객에 대한 직/간접적 경험은 본 연구의 소중한 자료가 될 것으로 확신합니다.

본 연구는 다음과 같은 질문들을 포함합니다.

첫째, 귀하의 관광객에 대한 인식과 관련된 문항으로서 관광객의 주된 국적 및 체류기간, 관광객의 지역에 대한 영향 등의 정보들을 포함합니다.

둘째, 귀하의 관광객과의 상호작용에 관한 문항으로서, 관광객과의 접촉 횟수, 관광객과의 관계에 대한 만족도 등의 정보를 포함합니다.

셋째, 관광객의 특성에 대한 귀하의 동질성 및 선입견과 관련된 문항으로서, 당신이 관광객들과 얼마나 친밀감을 느끼는 지와 같은 정보를 포함합니다.

본 인터뷰는 한 시간 내외에 걸쳐 이루어질 예정이며, 모든 인터뷰 과정은 음성녹취와 필기에 의해 기록됩니다. 귀하께서 제공해주신 모든 개인정보는 분석에서 제외되며, 음성과 텍스트로 기록된 모든 데이터는 특정 하드드라이브에 보관되어 연구자 이외의 접근은 철저히 제한됨을 알려드립니다. 본 연구의 결과는 학술적 용도로만 사용됩니다.

본 연구의 참여는 전적으로 귀하의 자율적 선택에 의해 결정됩니다. 따라서 귀하께서 본 연구의 참여를 결정해 주셔야 합니다. 참여를 원하신다면, 인터뷰를 위한 별도의 정보와 일정 조정을 위해 다시 한 번 연락 드리겠습니다. 만약 결정을 위한 추가적인 시간이 더 필요하시다면 언제든지 이메일 또는 전화를 통해 알려주십시오.

지금까지 알려드린 정보에 대해 혹시 궁금한 점이 있으신지요? 인터뷰에 대해 궁금한 점이 있으시면 다음 전화번호 또는 이메일로 언제든지 연락 주십시오.

김경훈 연구원: tel. 010- 5065-2076   email gyunghk@clemson.edu

협조해 주셔서 감사합니다.

Consent Letter for Interview Participants

Information about Being in a Research Study

Clemson University

Host perception of tourists and their socio-cultural effects on host community: The case of Jeju Island, South Korea

Description of the Study and Your Part in It

The Department of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Managements' Dr. Lauren Duffy, and Mr. Gyunghoon Kim, M.S. are inviting you to take part in a research study. This research aims to explore residents' perception of tourists, the tourism industry, and to explore how the tourists' socio-economic status effects on the host community.

While protecting your identifying information, the results of the study may be published in academic journals. Your part in the study would be to participate in a semi-structured interview about your perception of tourists in your community. According to your preferences, the interview may be audio recorded. Completion of the interview will take approximately one hour.

Risks and Discomforts

There may not be any risks or discomforts to you in this study. However, if you feel uncomfortable with any questions, you are eligible to skip it.

Possible Benefits

The result of this study is expected to provide the opportunity to change the point-of-view from a tourist perspective to a host perspective in terms of host-tourist relationship. This can also suggest the change of policy priority from tourists to local people by pointing out the importance of host community's role for the successful tourism. Thus, you may benefit indirectly from this study in terms of host community-friendly tourism policy and equal host-tourist partnership.

Protection of Privacy and Confidentiality

Data collected through the interview will be kept confidential through the whole data collection and analysis process. Audio recordings will be transcribed and all identifying information will be removed and replaced with pseudonyms in order to protect your personal information. Only data with pseudonyms will

be used and master log linking the names with pseudonyms will not be created. All information collected will be kept on a secure server and access to the raw data will be strictly allowed only for the researchers. All data will be only used for academic research. Once the research is completed, the audio and text data will be destroyed immediately. The research is expected to be completed by 2019.

Choosing to Be in the Study

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You do not have to be in this study. You may choose not to take part and you may choose to stop taking part at any time. You will not be punished in any way if you decide not to be in the study or to stop taking part in the study.

Contact Information

If you have any questions or concerns about this study or if any problems arise, please contact Dr. Lauren Duffy at lduffy@clemson.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns about your rights in this research study, please contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at irb@clemson.edu.

Consent Letter for Interview Participants in Korean

<u>연구 서약서</u>

관광객과 그들의 사회경제적 영향에 대한 지역주민의 인식 연구: 제주도의 사례를 중심으로

연구내용 및 참가자의 역할

본 연구는 관광객과 그들의 사회경제적 영향에 대한 지역주민의 인식을 조사하기 위해, 미국 클렘슨 대학교(Clemson University) 관광경영학과(The Department of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management)의 로렌 더피(Dr. Lauren Duffy) 교수와 김경훈 박사과정 연구원에 의해 수행됩니다.

이 연구 결과는 학술지에 개제될 수 있으며, 어떠한 상황에서도 귀하의 개인 정보는 보호됨을 알려드립니다. 본 연구에 대한 참여는 비구조화된 설문지를 바탕으로 수행되며, 제주도를 방문한 관광객의 특성, 관광객이 지역에 미치는 영향, 및 제주도 관광정책의 방향에 대한 귀하의 인식을 묻게 됩니다. 귀하의 동의 하에 모든 인터뷰 과정은 녹취될 수 있으며 인터뷰는 60 분 가량 소요될 예정입니다.

위험 및 불편한 질문의 포함

본 연구는 응답자의 불편을 초래하는 어떤 내용도 포함하고 있지 않습니다. 하지만 만약 불편하신 질문이 있다면 응답을 안 하셔도 무방합니다.

연구의 기여사항

본 연구는 관광객의 관점으로만 이해되었던 관광객-지역주민의 관계를 지역주민의 관점으로 환기할 수 있는 계기를 마련하기 위함입니다. 특히 본 연구는 지역주민의 관광활성화에 대한 역할의 중요성을 강조하고 지역주민을 위한 관광정책을 촉구하는 근거를 제시하게 됩니다. 따라서 본 연구가 관광객과 지역주민의 동등하고 건설적인 관계를 정립하는 데 기여할 수 있을 것으로 기대합니다.

개인정보 및 비밀의 보호

귀하께서 제공해 주신 모든 정보는 철저히 보호되며 연구 이외의 목적으로 사용되지 않습니다. 모든 데이터 수집과 처리는 무기명으로 실시되며, 식별 가능한 개인 정보들을 삭제되거나 임의적인 코드가 부여됩니다. 모든 정보는 개별 데이터 저장공간에 지정/보존되며 연구자 이외의 접근이 제한됩니다. 연구에 사용된 모든 정보는 연구가 종료됨과 동시에 삭제됩니다. 이 연구는 2019 년 전에 종료될 예정입니다.

참가선택의 자유

본 연구에 대한 귀하의 참여는 전적으로 귀하의 선택과 의지를 전제로 합니다. 어떠한 상황에서도 귀하는 본 연구의 참여 유무를 선택하실 수 있으며, 연구의 진행상황과 무관하게 종료하실 수 있습니다. 연구의 불참 및 중도포기로 인한 불이익은 전혀 없음을 약속 드립니다.

책임자 연락처

본 연구와 관련된 의견이나 문제점은 연구책임자 로렌 더피(Dr. Lauren Duffy) 교수 또는 클렘슨 대학교 리서치 센터(ORC)로 연락 주시기 바랍니다.

Dr. Lauren Duffy:
Email. lduffy@clemson.edu.
Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC):
Tel. 1-864-656-6460
Email. irb@clemson.edu

Interview Guide

A. Demographic Information
1. Gender:
2. Age:
3. Number of years lived on Jeju:
4. Education Level:
> 1) Less than high school diploma 2) High school graduate 3) Some college, no degree 4)
> Associate degree 5) Bachelor's degree 6) Graduate or professional degree
5. Marital Status:
> 1) Never married 2) Currently married 3) Married but separated, widowed, or divorced
6. Occupation and career path:

B. We are interested in investigating Jeju residents' social distance to international tourists and their commitment to tourists.
1. From your experience, describe the typical tourist visiting Jeju.
- Where do they come from? Are they domestic, international or both? What countries do they represent?
- Why do you think they visit Jeju?
- Can you describe the characteristics of a typical trip? Do they travel alone, with family, with friends?
- How long do they seem to stay?

2. Overall, do you think tourism is good for Jeju--Why or why not?
- Do the benefits from tourism go to the locals? If so, what type of benefits have you noticed (i.e. economy; development and sustainability; quality of life)?
- Do you think tourism is economically important for Jeju--Why or why not?
- Do tourists create any negative impacts? What are some examples?
- From your perspective, do you think Jeju should continue hosting tourists and increasing tourism development? Why or why not?

3. Next, I would like you to tell me a little bit about your interactions with tourists. Do you generally walk away after interacting with a tourist with a positive or negative feeling? Why do you think you feel this way?
- Do you often encounter them in your daily life? If so, where?
- Are you satisfied with your relationship with them--Why or why not?
- Have you ever helped them when they are in need? For example, if they are lost, do you provide directions, or if they ask for recommendations of where to eat, do you provide this information?
- On most days, do you hope that tourists have a positive experience on Jeju (and that they will return)? Why do you think you feel this way?
- Do you think residents of Jeju are important for the success of the Island's tourism? For example, if the people of Jeju were not hospitable and helpful, do you think tourists would still visit?
- What is the main thing that makes you uncomfortable about serving travelers in your community? For example, the language barrier or feelings of hostility toward them?

4. Here in Jeju, we receive many Chinese tourists. Do you feel they are very different from you? For example, do you have different values, interests, and/or behaviors?

- Do you feel Chinese tourists are different from most residents on Jeju? Do these differences create issues during interactions with tourists?
- Do you have a preference for a certain type of tourist visiting Jeju? Chinese, domestic Koreans, Japanese? Why do you have this preference?

5. Are you familiar with the policy and governance that is guiding tourism in Jeju? If so, do you think the tourism policy of Jeju is working well-- Why or why not?
- What type of changes would you like to see in the direction that tourism is heading on Jeju?
- Do you have any ideas of what is needed to improve the competitiveness of Jeju's tourism industry?
- Do you have any other suggestions or comments?

Thank you for your participation

APPENDIX H

Interview Guide in Korean

Interview Guide

A. 인구통계

1. 성별:

2. 나이:

3. 제주도 거주기간:

4. 학력:

       1) 고교 중퇴 및 중졸 이하 2) 고교 졸업 3) 대학중퇴 4) 전문대졸 5) 학사 6) 석사/박사

5. 결혼여부:

       1) 미혼 2) 결혼 3) 기타

6. 경력 및 직업:

B. 다음은 관광산업과 관광객에 대한 제주도민의 일반적 인식에 관한 문항입니다.

1. 당신의 경험을 바탕으로, 제주도를 방문한 관광객을 묘사해 주십시오.

– 제주도의 주된 관광객은 누구입니까? 외국인 이라면 주로 어떤 나라에서 방문합니까?

– 그들이 제주도를 왜 방문한다고 생각하십니까?

– 관광객들의 일반적인 특징은 무엇입니까? 그들은 주로 누구와 여행합니까?

– 관광객들이 제주도에 머무는 기간은 대체로 어떻게 됩니까?

2. 관광산업이 제주도에 도움이 된다고 생각하십니까?

– 제주도민들이 제주도의 관광산업으로부터 어떤 혜택을 받는다고 생각하십니까? (경제활성화, 지역발전, 지속가능성 향상, 삶의 질 제고 등)

– 관광산업이 제주도의 경제에 기여 한다고 보십니까?

– 관광개발이 제주도의 환경을 개선/보존하는 데 긍정적인 영향을 미친다고 생각하십니까?

– 관광산업이 제주도의 고유 문화를 보존하고 알리는 데 긍정적인 영향을 미친다고 생각하십니까?

– 제주도를 방문한 관광객들이 유발하는 부정적인 영향은 무엇입니까?

– 제주도의 미래를 위해서 관광산업을 더 발전시켜야 한다고 생각하십니까? 특히, 관광객의 규모를 증대시키는 것에 대해 어떻게 생각하십니까?

3. 당신은 제주도를 방문한 관광객들과 일상 및 업무적으로 접촉한 경험이 있습니까? 그러한 경험들이 긍정적으로 느껴집니까 부정적으로 느껴집니까?

– 일상에서 얼마나 자주 관광객들과 접촉하십니까? 어떤 계기로 접촉하십니까?

– 당신은 현재 관광객들과의 관계에 만족하십니까? 그렇다면 그 이유는 무엇입니까?

– 당신이 길 안내 또는 관광정보 제공과 같이 관광객들에게 도움을 주신적이 있습니까?

– 당신은 관광객들이 제주도에서 긍정적인 경험을 하기를 바라십니까? 그렇게 생각하시는 이유는 무엇입니까?

– 제주도 관광산업의 성공을 위해서 제주도민들의 역할이 크다고 생각하십니까? 제주도민의 관광객에게 대한 비우호적인 태도가 관광객의 지속적인 방문에 부정적인 영향을 미친다고 생각하십니까?

– 당신이 관광객들과 관계를 형성하는데 걸림돌이 되는 가장 큰 장애물은 무엇입니까? (언어장벽, 비우호적 감정 등)

5. 최근 들어 제주도에 많은 중국인 관광객들이 방문하고 있습니다. 당신은 중국인 관광객들이 이질적으로 느껴지십니까? 그들이 추구하는 가치나 행동, 또는 이해관계가 당신이 추구하는 것과 어떻게 다르다고 느끼십니까?

– 중국인 관광객들의 일반적 특성이 제주도민과 다르다고 느끼십니까? 이러한 차이점이 제주도민과 관광객의 관계에 어떤 영향을 준다고 생각하십니까?

– 제주도를 방문하는 관광객들 중, 선호하는 관광객 유형이나 그룹이 있습니까? 그 관광객 유형(그룹)을 선호하시는 이유는 무엇입니까?

6. 당신은 제주도의 관광정책에 대해 잘 인지하고 계십니까? 그렇다면, 현재 제주도의 관광정책이 잘 수립/운영되고 있다고 생각하십니까?

– 현재 제주도가 추구하는 관광정책 또는 관광산업의 방향이 적절하다고 생각하십니까?

– 제주도의 관광경쟁력을 향상시키기 위해 개선되어야 할 점은 무엇이라고 생각하십니까?

– 제주도의 관광산업 및 정책, 또는 본 연구와 관련된 다른 의견이 있다면 말씀해 주십시오.

– 협조해주셔서 감사합니다 –

APPENDIX I

Q-sort Instruction

Exploring the Host-Guest Relationship

Thank you for your participation in the Q-Sort process. You are participating as an expert in the tourism field.

The reason for this process is to check the *Face Validity* and *Content Validity* of the survey items that will be used for my dissertation "Exploring the Host-Guest Relationship."

- Face validity indicates that "the items appear to be capturing the essence of the appropriate construct" (Gould, Moore, McGuire, & Stebbins, 2008).

- Content validity indicates that "the important content domain is covered with the indicators" (Gould et al., 2008)

1. Please review and critique each definition of the variables.
2. Please check if the items fit the definition of the variable.
- It can be rated based on your feelings and emotions from both your immediate and lived personal experiences.
- Please remove items if they do not fit the definition of the variable.
- Please recommend additional items if needed.
3. Please provide any comments you have for improving the items.

Thank you for your participation!

IRB Approval Email for Survey

Dear Dr. Duffy,

The Clemson University Office of Research Compliance reviewed the protocol "Exploring Host-Guest Relationship: The Case of Jeju Island, South Korea" using exempt review procedures and a **determination was made on February 28, 2017** that the proposed activities involving human participants qualify as **Exempt under category B2**, in accordance with federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101. **Your protocol will expire on December 31, 2017**.

This approval is based on U.S. human subjects protections regulations (45 CFR 46) and Clemson University human subjects protection policies. We are not aware of any regulations that may be in place for the country you are planning to conduct research in that would conflict with this approval. However, you should become familiar with all pertinent information about local human subjects protection regulations and requirements when conducting research in countries other than the United States. We encourage you to discuss with your local contacts any possible human subjects research requirements that are specific to your research site, to comply with those requirements, and to inform this office of those requirements so we can better help other researchers prepare for international research in the future.

All team members are required to complete the CITI human subjects training course, http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/training.html, and review the IRB policies on "Responsibilities of Principal Investigators" and "Responsibilities of Research Team Members" available at http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/regulations.html.

No change in this approved research protocol can be initiated without the IRB's approval. This includes any proposed revisions or amendments to the protocol or informed consent form(s). Any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects, complications, and/or adverse events must be reported to the Office of

Research Compliance immediately.

The Clemson University IRB is committed to facilitating ethical research and protecting the rights of

human subjects. Please contact us if you have any questions and use the IRB number and title when

referencing the study in future correspondence.

All the best,

Nalinee

Nalinee D. Patin, CIP | IRB Administrator Clemson University Office of Research Compliance Institutional Review
Board (IRB) Clemson Centre, 391 College Avenue, Suite 406 Clemson, SC 29631
Voice: (864) 656-0636
E-mail: npatin@clemson.edu
IRB E-mail: irb@clemson.edu (send all new requests to IRB inbox)
Web site: http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/

APPENDIX K

Official Letter for Personal Information Protection for Survey

Official Letter for Personal Information Protection

March 19, 2017
Dear participants,

**Department of
PARKS, RECREATION
and TOURISM
MANAGEMENT**

263 Lehotsky Hall
128 McGinty Court
Clemson, SC
29634-0735

P (864) 656-3400
F (864) 656-2226

I would like to thank you for participating in the survey for the study of "*Exploring Host-Guest Relationship: The case of Jeju Island, South Korea*". The research aims to explore residents' perception of tourists, the tourism industry, and to explore how the tourists' socio-economic status effects on the host community. While protecting your identifying information, the results of the study may be published in academic journals. All data will be only used for academic research. The study strictly follows the guideline of Institutional Review Board (IRB) in order to ensure the rights and welfare of participants are protected during the whole research process.

Data collected through the survey will be kept confidential through the whole data collection and analysis process:

•   This survey does not include any questions asking identifying information.
•   All information collected will be kept on a secure server and access to the raw data will be strictly allowed only for the researchers.
•   Once the research is completed, the data will be destroyed immediately. The research is expected to be completed by 2018.

Thank you again for your valuable input. Please do not hesitate to contact me at any time if you have questions or concerns regarding about this study or if any problems arise (lduffy@clemson.edu).

If you have any questions or concerns about your rights in this research study, please contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at irb@clemson.edu.

Best Regards,

Dr. Lauren Duffy, Principle Investigator
Assistant Professor
Department of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management
College of Behavioral, Social and Health Sciences
Clemson University
128 McGinty Court, 294 Lehotsky Hall
Clemson, SC, 29634-0735
Ph: 1-704-213-2099; lduffy@clemson.edu

APPENDIX L

Verbal Recruitment Script for Survey

Hello - My name is Gyunghoon Kim and I am a Ph.D. student from the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at Clemson University. I'm calling to talk to you about participating in my research study that I am conducting that explores Jeju Island's hosts' perception of tourists and their socio-cultural effects on host their community. This research is being conducted under the guidance of Dr. Duffy, an Assistant Professor at Clemson University.

You are eligible to be in this study because you are a resident of Jeju and you are directly or indirectly influenced by tourism.

If you decide to participate in this study, you will be asked: 1) possible social factors that can influence the relationship with tourists; perception of tourists; evaluation of how you are satisfied with tourists; and your commitment to existing tourism markets. You will also be asked to answer demographic information. However, if you feel uncomfortable with any questions, you do not have to answer them and may skip to the next question. This survey should last approximately 15 minutes.

<u>This is an anonymous survey. The survey questionnaire does not include any questions asking personal identifying information such as your name and social security number</u>. The data collected from this survey will be stored on a secured hard drive and only the two researcher will have access to the raw data. The results of the study will be published in academic journals.

Remember, taking this survey is completely voluntary. You do not have to be in this study. You may choose not to take part and you may choose to stop taking part at any time. You will not be punished in any way if you decide not to be in the study or to stop taking part in the study.

Do you have any questions for me at this time?

If not, are you willing to take the survey?

Thank you so much.

Gyunghoon Kim

Verbal Recruitment Script for Survey in Korean

안녕하십니까, 저는 미국 클렘슨 대학교에서 관광학을 전공하고 있는 박사과정 김경훈 입니다.

"제주도 지역주민의 관광객과 그들의 지역영향에 대한 인식연구"를 위한 설문에 귀하의 참여를 요청 드립니다. 본 연구는 미국 클렘슨 대학교의 로렌 더피 (Dr. Lauren Duffy) 교수의 책임하에 이루어지고 있습니다.

귀하의 관광객에 대한 직/간접적 경험은 본 연구의 소중한 자료가 될 것으로 확신합니다.

본 연구는 다음과 같은 질문들을 포함합니다.

첫째, 귀하께서 생각하시는 제주도민과 관광객 간의 관계에 영향을 미치는 요인들 및 제주도를 방문하는 관광객에 대한 인식에 대한 정보를 포함합니다.

둘째, 귀하의 관광객에 대한 만족도 및 향후 그들과의 관계를 지속하고자 하는 의도에 대한 정보를 포함합니다.

셋째, 귀하의 인구통계 정보를 포함합니다.

본 설문은 익명으로 진행됩니다. 본 설문지는 개인 신분을 노출시키는 어떤 인식 정보도 포함하지 않습니다. 설문을 통해 얻어진 모든 데이터는 특정 하드드라이브에 보관되어 연구자 이외의 접근은 철저히 제한됨을 알려드립니다. 본 연구의 결과는 학술적 용도로만 사용됩니다.

본 설문의 참여는 전적으로 귀하의 자율적 선택에 의해 결정됩니다. 따라서 귀하께서 본 설문의 참여를 결정해 주셔야 합니다. 불참으로 인한 불이익은 전혀 없음을 약속 드립니다.

지금까지 알려드린 정보에 대해 혹시 궁금한 점이 있으신지요?
설문에 참여 하시겠습니까?

감사합니다.

Consent Letter for Survey Participants

Information about Being in a Research Study
Clemson University
Exploring Host-Guest Relationship: The case of Jeju Island, South Korea

Description of the Study and Your Part in It

The Department of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Managements' Dr. Lauren Duffy, and Mr. Gyunghoon Kim, M.S. are inviting you to take part in a research study. This research aims to explore residents' perception of tourists, the tourism industry, and to explore how the tourists' socio-economic status effects on the host community.

While protecting your identifying information, the results of the study may be published in academic journals. Your part in the study would be to participate in a questionnaire survey about your perception of tourists in your community. Completion of the survey will take approximately 15 minutes.

Risks and Discomforts

There may not be any risks or discomforts to you in this study. However, if you feel uncomfortable with any questions, you are eligible to skip it.

Possible Benefits

The result of this study is expected to provide an opportunity consider the 'host' perspective in terms of host-tourist relationship, whereas much of the literature has explored the tourist perspective. This research may then also demonstrate the importance of considering the perspective of local people by pointing out the importance of host community's role for the successful tourism. Thus, you may benefit indirectly from this study in terms of host community-friendly tourism policy and equal host-tourist partnership.

Protection of Privacy and Confidentiality

This is an anonymous survey. Data collected through the survey will be kept confidential through the whole data collection and analysis process. All your answers will be coded and there is no questions asking personal identifying information (e.g., name and social security #). All information collected will be kept on a secure server and access to the raw data will be strictly allowed only for the researchers. All data will be only used for academic research. Once the research is completed, the data will be destroyed immediately. The research is expected to be completed by 2018.

Choosing to Be in the Study

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You do not have to be in this study. You may choose not to take part and you may choose to stop taking part at any time. You will not be punished in any way if you decide not to be in the study or to stop taking part in the study.

Contact Information

If you have any questions or concerns about this study or if any problems arise, please contact Dr. Lauren Duffy at lduffy@clemson.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns about your rights in this research study, please contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at irb@clemson.edu.

Consent Letter for Survey Participants in Korean

<u>연구 서약서</u>

지역주민과 관광객의 관계에 대한 탐색적 연구: 제주도 사례를 중심으로

연구내용 및 참가자의 역할

본 설문은 제주도민의관광객에 대한 인식과 그들과의 관계에 영향을 미치는 사회경제적 요인을 탐색하기 위해 수행됩니다. 본 연구는 미국 클렘슨 대학교(Clemson University) 관광경영학과(The Department of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management)의 로렌 더피(Dr. Lauren Duffy) 교수와 김경훈 박사과정 연구원에 의해 수행됩니다.

이 연구 결과는 학술지에 개제될 수 있으며, 어떠한 상황에서도 귀하의 개인 정보는 보호됨을 알려드립니다. 설문은 제주도를 방문하는 관광객에 대한 귀하의 인식을 측정하기 위한 문항들로 이루어져 있으며, 설문을 마치는데 약 15 분 정도의 시간이 소요 됩니다.

위험 및 불편한 질문의 포함

본 연구는 응답자의 불편을 초래하는 어떤 내용도 포함하고 있지 않습니다. 하지만 만약 불편하신 질문이 있다면 응답을 안 하셔도 무방합니다.

연구의 기여사항

본 연구는 관광객의 관점으로만 이해되었던 관광객-지역주민의 관계를 지역주민의 관점으로 환기할 수 있는 계기를 마련하기 위함입니다. 특히 본 연구는 지역주민의 관광활성화에 대한 역할의 중요성을 강조하고 지역주민을 위한 관광정책을 촉구하는 근거를 제시하게 됩니다. 따라서 본 연구가 관광객과 지역주민의 동등하고 건설적인 관계를 정립하는 데 기여할 수 있을 것으로 기대합니다.

개인정보 및 비밀의 보호

귀하게서 제공해 주신 모든 정보는 철저히 보호되며 연구 이외의 목적으로 사용되지 않습니다. 모든 데이터 수집과 처리는 무기명으로 실시되며, 식별 가능한 개인 정보들을 삭제되거나 임의적인 코드가 부여됩니다. 모든 정보는 개별 데이터 저장공간에 지정/보존되며 연구자 이외의 접근이 제한됩니다. 연구에 사용된 모든 정보는 연구가 종료됨과 동시에 삭제됩니다. 이 연구는 2018 년 전에 종료될 예정입니다.

참가선택의 자유

본 연구에 대한 귀하의 참여는 전적으로 귀하의 선택과 의지를 전제로 합니다. 어떠한 상황에서도 귀하는 본 연구의 참여 유무를 선택하실 수 있으며, 연구의 진행상황과 무관하게 종료하실 수 있습니다. 연구의 불참 및 중도포기로 인한 불이익은 전혀 없음을 약속 드립니다.

책임자 연락처

본 연구와 관련된 의견이나 문제점은 연구책임자 로렌 더피(Dr. Lauren Duffy) 교수 또는 클렘슨 대학교 리서치 센터(ORC)로 연락 주시기 바랍니다.

Dr. Lauren Duffy:
Email. lduffy@clemson.edu.
Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC):
Tel. 1-864-656-6460
Email. irb@clemson.edu

Survey Instrument

JEJU RESIENT-CHINESE TOURIST RELATIONSHIP

This will be marked by researcher		
ID: _____	Date: _____	Site: _____

Hello - My name is Gyunghoon Kim and I am a Ph.D. student from the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at Clemson University. I'm currently conducting my doctoral dissertation that explores "resident-tourist relationship in Jeju Island". This research is being conducted under the guidance of Dr. Lauren Duffy, an Assistant Professor at Clemson University, South Carolina, U.S.

This is an anonymous survey and does not include any questions asking personal identifying information.

This survey includes five sections and it will last approximately 15 minutes.

If you have any questions or concerns about this study or if any problems arise, please contact Dr. Lauren Duffy at lduffy@clemson.edu or the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at irb@clemson.edu.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Gyunghoon Kim

SECTION 1. GENERAL PERCEPRION ON JEJU'S TOURISM

Notice: There is No Right answer. Please answer based on your perception.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. <u>Please check only one.</u>

The tourism industry enhances Jeju's _____	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
agriculture industry (e.g.., tangerine, carrot. onion, mushroom)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
fishing industry (fisheries, mariculture)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
manufacturing industry (e.g., food product processing, heavy/light industry)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
stock-farming industry (e.g., horse, cow, pig)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
cultural industry (e.g., movie, arts, museum)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
service industry (e.g., public market, traditional market, restaurants, public transportation)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

<u>Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. Please check only one.</u>

Jeju's tourism industry is largely _____	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
owned/financed by Korean federal/local government	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
owned/financed by private sector businesses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
foreign-owned/financed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
owned/financed by Jeju residents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
owned/financed by Koreans who don't live on Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
owned/financed by big conglomerate (Chaebol)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
owned/financed by small scale capital	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. Please check only one.

The Jeju local government actively _____	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
seeks to promote the tourism industry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
adopts tourist-favorable tourism policies (e.g., visa policy, translation service)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
seeks to develop tourism infrastructure within Jeju (e.g., parking, sidewalks, airport)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
seeks to develop tourist products (e.g., leisure/tourism programs, tourist attractions)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
seeks to do market Jeju's tourism industry (e.g., commercials, advertising, promotions)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. Please check only one.

I feels sometimes _____	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
Jeju is overcrowded because of tourists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
too many people visit Jeju at the same time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
tourists outnumber Jeju residents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
traffic is bad because of tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Continued...

SECTION 2. PERCEPTION OF CHINESE TOURISTS

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. Please check only one.

Chinese tourists enjoy _____	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
viewing the natural landscapes of Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
walking around downtown of Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
seeing local residents and their life style in Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
seeing the cultural traditions and resources of Jeju (e.g. stone walls, Dol hareubang, traditional housing)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
recreation activities in Jeju (e.g., hiking Olle trail, scuba diving)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
sand, sun and sea of Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the Korean Wave on Jeju (e.g., visiting to Korean movie or drama sites)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Casinos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
shopping on Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. Please check only one.

Chinese tourists _____	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
need accommodations they are familiar with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
need foods they are familiar with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
need translated tourism information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
prefer planned tours operated by tourist professionals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Continued...

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Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. **Please check only one.**

Chinese tourists _____	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
want to explore the different regions and areas of Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
are typically immersed themselves in the culture of Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
want to experience the unique local atmosphere of Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
are attracted to the local culture of Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. **Please check only one.**

Chinese tourists share a similar _____	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
lifestyle and behavior with typical Jeju residents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
beliefs and values with typical Jeju residents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
cultural background with typical Jeju residents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
socio-economic status with typical Jeju residents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Continued...

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. <u>Please check only one.</u>

_____	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree
I could be a friend with a Chinese tourist	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoying having friendly chats with Chinese tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is easy to meet and talk with Chinese tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chinese tourists and I could establish a personal friendship with each other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chinese tourists would fit into my circle of friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I found being with Chinese tourists a pleasant experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chinese tourists are sociable with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like spending time with Chinese tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I could become close friends with Chinese tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chinese tourists are easy to get along with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chinese tourists are pleasant to be around	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chinese tourists are very friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. <u>Please check only one.</u>

_____	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree
The Chinese tourists to Jeju are a substantial tourism market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Economic benefits from Chinese tourists in Jeju is worth the negative impacts they cause	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chinese tourists bring new money into the Jeju economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chinese tourists are a growing travel market for the Jeju economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chinese tourists have a good reputation for trustworthiness in tourism market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chinese tourists have a good reputation for fairness in tourism market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The host community of Jeju receives fair compensation from Chinese tourists when they visit the island	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Continued...

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. <u>Please check only one.</u>

Chinese tourists _____	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
respect the local custom in Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
respect the local people living in Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
behave respectfully when they are in Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
respect the local environment in Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
respect the local community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Continued...

SECTION 3. PERCEPTION ON CHINESE TOURISM

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. <u>Please check only one.</u>

Chinese tourism _____	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
has generated revenues for local governments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has stimulated small businesses development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has improved infrastructures (e.g., roads and public transportations, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has increased employment opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has generated employment stability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has led to more cultural facilities (e.g., theaters, museums, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has led to more recreational spaces (e.g., public parks, trails, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has helped to protect the local culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has encouraged cultural identity of Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has promoted better understanding between cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has increased the price of housing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has increased the cost of goods and services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has caused more crime	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has produced more congestion, accidents and parking problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has caused conflicts over zoning and land use	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has increased pollution, noise, garbage, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has harmed the natural environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has harmed the natural resources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
has harmed the natural beauty of Jeju's coastal and mountain areas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Continued...

SECTION 4. RLEATIONSHIP WITH CHINESE TOURIST

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. **Please check only one.**

_____	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
I have good relationships with Chinese tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am generally pleased with my relationship with Chinese tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am generally satisfied with my relationship with Chinese tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is no problem with the relationship between Chinese tourists and me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overall, I enjoy hosting Chinese tourists in Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am happy that Chinese tourists choose Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
As a whole, I am satisfied with Chinese tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am typically satisfied with the way Chinese tourists behave	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by checking the appropriate number. **Please check only one.**

_____	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly agree
I think Jeju should be committed to the Chinese tourism market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think Jeju should continue to attract and capture the Chinese market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think Jeju should continue to market to Chinese tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I hope that Chinese tourists will continue to visit Jeju	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like to see Jeju continue to attract Chinese tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like to see Jeju provide Chinese-friendly tourism products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like to see Jeju provide Chinese-friendly services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Continued...

SECTION 5. DEMOGRAPHICS

PART 16. Please answer the questions based on your Background Information.

Birth year:
Please fill out your birth year.
19_____

Gender:
What is your gender?
□ Female   □ Male

Marital status:
What is your material status?
□ Single, never married
□ Married
□ Other

Education:
What is the highest level of education have you completed so far?
□ High school graduate (including current college students)
□ Technical or community college (2 or 3 years)
□ Bachelor's degree
□ Master's or professional degree
□ Ph.D.
□ Other (please specific) _____

Employment status:
What is your employment status?.
□ Employed full-time
□ Employed part-time or temporarily
□ Student
□ Unemployed
□ Retired
□ Other (please specific)_____

Continued...

Type of occupation:	**If you are employed, which industry best describes your current occupation?** □ Agriculture industry (e.g.., tangerine, carrot. onion, mushroom) □ Fishing industry (fisheries, mariculture) □ Manufacturing industry (e.g., agricultural/marine products processing, heavy/right industry) □ Stock-farming industry (e.g., horse, cow, pig) □ Cultural industry (e.g., movie, arts, museum) □ Service industry (e.g., public market, traditional market, restaurants, public transportation) □ Government or public service (e.g., local governments, NGOs) □ Other (please specific)_____
Benefits from tourism:	**How much does your household income <u>directly</u> benefit from tourism? Please indicate the percentage.** Total household income is directly influenced by tourism approximately _____%.
Frequency of contact:	**How often do you <u>see</u> Chinese tourist?** □ Almost every day □ 4 or 5 times a week □ 2 or 3 times a week □ Once a week □ 2 or 3 times a month □ Once a month □ Almost never
	How often do you <u>interact</u> with Chinese tourist? □ Almost every day □ 4 or 5 times a week □ 2 or 3 times a week □ Once a week □ 2 or 3 times a month □ Once a month □ Almost never

Continued...

Birth place: **Were you born in Jeju?**
                       □ Yes
                       □ No

Length of resident: **From when do you live in Jeju?**
                       Since _____

Living area: Where you do currently live in?
                       □ Jeju-si
                       □ Seogwipo-si

Recently, Chinese government banned trip sales to Korea. Please tell your opinion about the new policy and expected results.

| |
| |

THE END

Thank you for your participation.

Survey Instrument in Korean

설 문 지

제주도와 중국관광객의 관계에 관한 연구

연구자 외 기입 금지		
ID: _____	일시: ____월 ____일	장소: _____

안녕하십니까, 귀중한 시간 할애해 주서서 대단히 감사드립니다.
본 설문지는 **"제주도와 중국관광객의 관계"**에 대한 박사논문을 위해 사용됩니다.
귀하께서 응답해주신 설문내용은 연구 외의 어떠한 목적으로도 사용되지 않습니다.
본 조사는 무기명으로 실시되며, 귀하의 개인신원정보에 관한 질문은 포함되어 있지 않습니다.
따라서 응답내용의 비밀은 철저히 보장됩니다.
본 조사는 15 분 정도 소요됩니다. 의미 있는 연구가 될 수 있도록 한 문항도 빠짐 없이 응답하여 주시기 바랍니다.

이 연구는 미국 클렘슨대학교 관광경영학과 (PRTM, Clemson University)의 로렌 더피 교수 (Dr. Lauren N. Duffy)의 책임 아래 실시되며 연구 윤리를 준수하고 있습니다.
Dr. Lauren Duffy at lduffy@clemson.edu
The Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at irb@clemson.edu.

협조해 주서서 감사합니다.

2017 년
클렘슨대학교 관광경영학과
김경훈

1. 다음은 <u>제주도 관광산업</u>에 관한 내용입니다.

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 <u>체크(✔)</u>하여 주시기 바랍니다.

관광산업은 제주도의 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다			보통이다			매우 그렇다
농업에 긍정적인 영향을 미친다. (예. 감귤, 당근, 양파, 버섯재배 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
수산업에 긍정적인 영향을 미친다. (예. 어선어업, 양식업 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제조업에 긍정적인 영향을 미친다. (예. 식품가공, 경공업 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
목축업에 긍정적인 영향을 미친다. (예. 양계, 말 목축 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
문화관련 산업에 긍정적인 영향을 미친다. (예. 예술, 대중문화, 전시 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
서비스산업에 긍정적인 영향을 미친다. (예. 유통, 요식, 대중교통 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 <u>체크(✔)</u>하여 주시기 바랍니다.

제주의 관광산업은 대부분_____	전혀 그렇지 않다			보통이다			매우 그렇다
정부가 소유하고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
민간자본이 소유하고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
외국자본이 소유하고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 지역자본이 소유하고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
육지자본이 소유하고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
대기업이 소유하고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
소규모 자본이 소유하고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 체크(✓)하여 주시기 바랍니다.

제주특별자치도가 적극적으로 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다		보통이다			매우 그렇다	
제주도의 관광산업을 증진시키고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
관광객들의 편의를 위한 정책들을 운영하고 있다. (예. 비자정책, 영어 및 한자 표기 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 관광인프라를 개발하고 있다. (예. 주차시설, 공항건설 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 관광상품을 개발하고 있다. (예. 관광지, 지역체험프로그램 개발 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주관광을 홍보하고 있다. (예. 대중매체광고, 해외 관광객 유치 프로모션 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 체크(✓)하여 주시기 바랍니다.

나는 가끔 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다		보통이다			매우 그렇다	
관광객들 때문에 제주도가 혼잡해진다고 느낀다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
한꺼번에 너무 많은 관광객이 제주도를 방문한다고 느낀다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
관광객이 제주도민보다도 많다고 느낀다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
관광객들 때문에 교통혼잡이 발생한다고 느낀다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. 다음은 <u>중국관광객</u>에 관한 내용입니다.

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 <u>체크(✓)</u>하여 주시기 바랍니다.

중국관광객들은 제주도에서 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다		보통이다		매우 그렇다		
자연환경을 둘러보는 것을 즐긴다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
시내를 둘러보는 것을 즐긴다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도민의 일상생활을 지켜보는 것을 즐긴다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 문화와 전통생활방식을 구경하는 것을 즐긴다(예. 돌담, 돌하르방, 전통가옥)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
레저활동을 즐긴다(예. 올레길 걷기, 스쿠버 다이빙)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
해변과 해수욕을 즐긴다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
한류문화를 즐긴다(예. 영화촬영지 방문)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
카지노를 즐긴다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
쇼핑을 즐긴다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 <u>체크(✓)</u>하여 주시기 바랍니다.

중국관광객들은 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다		보통이다		매우 그렇다		
익숙한 숙박업소를 원한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
익숙한 음식을 원한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국어로 표기된 관광정보를 원한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
여행사에 의해 사전에 계획/준비된 여행을 선호한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 체크(✓)하여 주시기 바랍니다.

중국관광객들은_____	전혀 그렇지 않다			보통이다			매우 그렇다
제주도의 다양한 지역을 방문하기를 원한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 문화에 몰입되어 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 독특한 문화를 경험하길 원한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 문화에 매료되어 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 체크(✓)하여 주시기 바랍니다.

중국관광객들은 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다			보통이다			매우 그렇다
제주도민과 유사한 생활방식을 공유한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도민과 유사한 사회적 가치와 믿음을 공유한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도민과 유사한 문화적 배경을 공유한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도민과 비슷한 경제수준을 가지고 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 체크(✓)하여 주시기 바랍니다.

나는 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다			보통이다			매우 그렇다
중국관광객들과 친구가 될 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과 친밀한 대화를 하고 싶다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과 편하게 만나고 대화할 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과 쉽게 친구관계를 맺을 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들이 내 친구가 되기에 적합하다고 생각한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과 어울리는 게 즐거울 것 같다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들이 사교적이라고 느낀다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과 친해질 수 있는 시간을 가지고 싶다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과 가까운 친구가 될 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과 편하게 어울릴 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과 함께 지내는 게 즐거울 것 같다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들이 친근하다고 느낀다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 체크(✓)하여 주시기 바랍니다.

_____	전혀 그렇지 않다			보통이다			매우 그렇다
중국관광객들은 제주도에게 중요한 고객이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들이 가져오는 경제적 이익이 다른 부정적인 영향을 보상하기에 충분하다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들이 제주도가 필요한 자본을 가지고 온다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들이 제주도의 경제에 미치는 중요성이 커지고 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과 신뢰할 수 있는 관계가 형성되어 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과 공정한 관계가 형성되어 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들의 제주도 방문은 제주 지역사회에 적절한 보상을 가져다 준다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 체크(✔)하여 주시기 바랍니다.

중국관광객들은 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다			보통이다			매우 그렇다
제주도의 문화와 관습을 존중한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도민을 존중한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도에 해가 되지 않도록 조심스럽게 행동한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 자연환경을 존중한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 지역사회를 존중한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. 다음은 <u>중국관광의 파급효과</u>에 관한 내용입니다.

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 <u>체크(✔)</u>하여 주시기 바랍니다.

중국관광이 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다			보통이다			매우 그렇다
	←						→
제주특별자치도의 재정능력을 향상시켰다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 소규모 점포/기업 발전을 도왔다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 공공시설을 향상시켰다 (예. 도로정비, 대중교통확충 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도민의 고용기회를 증대시켰다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도민의 고용안정성을 증대시켰다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 문화시설을 향상시켰다 (예. 극장, 박물관 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 여가시설을 향상시켰다 (예. 공원, 올레길 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 지역문화를 지키는데 도움이 됐다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 지역정체성을 지키는데 도움이 됐다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도민이 다른 문화를 이해할 수 있는 기회를 제공했다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 주거비를 올렸다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 물가를 올렸다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 범죄률을 올렸다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도를 혼잡하게 만들었다 (예. 시내혼잡, 교통사고 증가, 주차문제 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 토지사용과 관련된 갈등을 증대시켰다 (예. 환경보존구역 개발 등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 공해, 소음. 쓰레기 문제를 증대시켰다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 자연환경을 훼손시켰다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 천원자원을 훼손시켰다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도의 해안선과 산릉성을 훼손시켰다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. 다음은 중국관광객과의 관계에 관한 내용입니다.

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 체크(✔)하여 주시기 바랍니다.

나는 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다		보통이다			매우 그렇다	
중국관광객들과 좋은 관계를 가지고 있다고 생각한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들과의 관계가 마음에 든다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객과의 관계에 만족한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객과의 관계에 아무런 문제가 없다고 생각한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
제주도를 방문하는 중국인 관광객들을 환영한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국인 관광객들이 제주도로 관광 오는 것이 좋다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들이 만족스럽다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들이 제주도에서 하는 행동들이 만족스럽다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

각 문항을 읽고 해당되는 정도를 체크(✔)하여 주시기 바랍니다.

제주도가 _____	전혀 그렇지 않다		보통이다			매우 그렇다	
중국관광시장에 관심과 노력을 기울여야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광시장을 유지/발전시키기 위한 노력을 지속해야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들을 유인하기 위한 마케팅을 해야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객이 지속적으로 제주도를 방문했으면 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광을 유인하기 위한 노력을 계속해야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들을 위한 맞춤 관광상품 제공해야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
중국관광객들을 위한 맞춤서비스를 제공해야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. 다음은 <u>인구통계</u>에 관한 내용입니다.

각 문항에 알맞은 정보를 <u>체크(✓)</u>하거나 <u>직접 기입</u> 하여 주시기 바랍니다.

생년: 태어나신 년도를 <u>기입</u>하여 주십시오.
19____ 년

성별: 귀하의 성별을 <u>체크(✓)</u>해 주십시오.
☐ 남   ☐ 여

결혼유무: 귀하의 현재 결혼여부를 <u>체크(✓)</u>해 주십시오.
☐ 미혼
☐ 기혼
☐ 기타

학력: 귀하의 **최종학력**을 <u>체크(✓)</u>해주십시오.
☐ 고졸 (대학재학 포함)
☐ 전문대졸 (2/3 년제)
☐ 대졸(4 년제)
☐ 석사
☐ 박사
☐ 기타 (구체적으로 기술해주십시오) _____

고용형태: 귀하의 **고용형태**를 <u>체크(✓)</u>해주십시오.
☐ 정규직
☐ 파트타임/비정규직
☐ 학생
☐ 비고용
☐ 정년퇴직
☐ 기타 (구체적으로 기술해주십시오) _____   *뒷장에 계속-*

고용산업: **현재 고용된 상태이시라면,**

귀하가 현재 일하고 계시는 산업을 체크(✓)해주십시오.

☐ 농업 (예. 감귤, 당근, 양파, 버섯 생산 등)

☐ 어업 (예. 선박조업, 양식업 등)

☐ 제조업 (예. 식품가공, 의류생산업 등)

☐ 축산업 (예. 목장운영, 양계업 등)

☐ 문화관련산업 (예. 영화, 예술, 전시산업 등)

☐ 서비스업 (예. 운수업, 판매업 등)

☐ 공공부문 (예. 공무원, NGO 등)

☐ 기타 (구체적으로 기술해주십시오)＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

관광산업혜택 정도: **관광산업이 귀하의 총 가계소득(가족수입)에 얼마나 영향을 미치는지 그 정도를 비율(%)로 기입해 주십시오.**

관광산업이 직접적으로 약 ＿＿＿＿＿%만큼 총 가계소득에 영향을 미친다.

중국관광객 접촉빈도: **일상에서 얼마나 자주 중국관광객과 마주치십니까?**

☐ 거의 매일

☐ 일주일에 4~5 번

☐ 일주일에 2~3 번

☐ 일주일에 한 번

☐ 한 달에 2~3 번

☐ 한 달에 한 번

☐ 거의 없음

일상에서 얼마나 자주 중국관광객과 대화할 기회를 가지십니까?

☐ 거의 매일

☐ 일주일에 4~5 번

☐ 일주일에 2~3 번

☐ 일주일에 한 번

☐ 한 달에 2~3 번

☐ 한 달에 한 번

☐ 거의 없음

출생지: 제주도에서 출생하셨습니까?
          ☐ 네
          ☐ 아니오

제주도 정착시기: 언제부터 제주도에 거주하셨습니까?
          _____ 년부터

거주 지역: 현재 거주하고 계신 지역은 어디 입니까?
          ☐ 제주시
          ☐ 서귀포시

*최근 중국정부가 중국관광객의 한국관광을 전면 금지시켰습니다. 이러한 제재에 대해 어떻게 생각하십니까? 간략한 의견 부탁드립니다.

               -참여해주셔서 감사합니다-