

How do Tourists Respond to Meta-stereotypes? Understanding Their Willingness to Interact, Self-presentation and the Role of Power

Abstract: Research into the stereotypes of tourists by locals and the impacts of these stereotypes on local behaviors is well established. However, how tourists respond to these stereotypes remains underdeveloped. This research offers a thorough understanding of the effects of meta-stereotypes on tourists by revealing whether being stereotyped affects tourist intentions to interact with locals and their self-presentation during these interactions. Two scenario-based experiments and a follow-up survey were conducted. Study 1 demonstrates that meta-stereotypes influence in different ways the willingness of tourists to interact with locals and how they present themselves to locals. Study 2 reveals that these effects are significantly moderated by the degree to which tourists hold power, with powerful tourists being more likely to behave in line with meta-stereotypes. Study 3 draws consistent conclusions with Study 1 and 2 in surveying 313 Mainland Chinese tourists. This research offers insights into tourist responses to meta-stereotypes and has implications for organizations seeking to enhance tourist-host relations.

Keywords: tourist-host interactions, tourist meta-stereotypes, willingness to interact, self-presentation, tourist power

1. Introduction

The varying social, environmental, and economic impacts of tourist behaviors on local destinations have attracted significant attention by tourism scholars. A range of concerns, such as social sustainability in tourism destinations to questions of over-tourism have prevailed in the wake of the immense growth of the tourism industry in recent times. In the midst of this, tourists are often accused of misbehaving and conflicts between locals and tourists can erupt suddenly (Tse & Tung, 2022a), leading to an uneasy tourist-resident relationship (Chen, Hsu, & Li, 2021). Equally, positive social contact between tourists and locals can also facilitate mutual understanding across cultures and generate favorable emotions on both sides (Pizam, Uriely & Reichel, 2000). Positive social contact with tourists may also enhance the wellbeing of locals (Eusébio et al., 2018) and consolidate their support of further tourism developments (Tsaour, Yen, & Teng, 2018). Although there is significant research on the various impacts of tourist-resident interactions, there is a paucity of research on the reasons that cause tourists to interact in a positive or negative way with locals.

Human attitudes and behaviors toward each other are highly interrelated and dependable (Vorauer et al., 2020). In particular, an individual's perceptions of how he or she is seen by others can potentially influence his or her feelings and behaviors in everyday social interactions (Tse & Tung, 2020b; Stathi et al., 2020). Meta-stereotypes,

41 which refer to one's beliefs about how the group in which they belong are perceived by
42 outgroup members (Van Leeuwen & Täuber, 2012; Tung, 2019), generally predict
43 intergroup attitudes and behaviours (Stathi et al., 2020). In particular, stereotypes often
44 occur in tourist-host interactions as a result of frequent but superficial contact between
45 tourists and locals (Tse & Tung, 2022b). Research in tourist destinations across the
46 world suggests that local stereotypes of tourists and residents' own meta-stereotypes
47 influence their attitude to tourists (Chen & Hsu, 2021; Tse & Tung, 2020a; Tse & Tung,
48 2022b; Tung, King, & Tse, 2020). However, there is minimal knowledge around the
49 influence of meta-stereotypes on tourist perceptions and behaviors in the context of
50 tourist interactions with locals. Given the regularity with which tourists are stereotyped
51 (Chen & Hsu, 2021), it is important to examine how tourists respond to their own meta-
52 stereotypes.

53 Social interactions appear to be shaped by subjective interaction intentions and
54 objective interaction opportunities, wherein individuals may behave differently in these
55 two interaction states (Zhang et al., 2020). At present, there is minimal research on the
56 differences in these two interaction states, leading to a limited explanation of tourist-
57 host interactions. Just whether meta-stereotypes affect the subjective intentions and
58 actual behaviors of tourists in the same way is a question worth exploring. That is,
59 would tourists still be willing to interact with locals if they are aware of the positive or
60 negative stereotypes held by locals towards them? And if tourists become aware of these
61 stereotypes, how will this awareness affect the way they present themselves to locals in
62 actual social interactions?

63 Power is a prevalent feature in social relationships and represents the ability to
64 pursue one's interest and impose one's own will (Saito & Ruhanen, 2017). Power
65 imbalance exists in any relationship and moderates the outcomes of interactions. People
66 in high-power positions are able, in a social interaction, to follow their own thoughts
67 rather than conform to others (Overbeck, Tiedens, & Brion, 2006). Conversely, people
68 in low-power positions tend to invest more efforts into the way they present themselves
69 as they are eager to please audiences (Menon & Bansal, 2007; Schlenker & Pontari,
70 2000). Encounters between tourists and locals are believed to create invisible but
71 ubiquitous mediated power struggles (Zhang et al., 2017). However, there is limited
72 understanding of how power may influence the social behaviour of tourists and the
73 complex nature of the cross-cultural interactions underpinning tourist-local encounters
74 serves to complicate matters even further. The question of how power influences the
75 intentions and actual behaviors of tourists in response to meta-stereotypes is something
76 this paper seeks to address.

77 This research encompasses three studies (two experiments and one survey) and is
78 driven by two research objectives: (1) to reveal the effects of meta-stereotypes on the
79 subjective willingness of tourists to interact with locals and on the way in which tourists
80 present themselves in actual interactions; (2) to examine the moderating role of tourists'
81 power on these effects. By comparing tourists' subjective intention and actual behaviour
82 in responding to meta-stereotypes, this research provides insights into the strategic
83 coping mechanisms adopted by tourists when confronted with stereotypes. At a more

84 general level, this research contributes to the social psychological literature. Our
85 findings deepen understandings around impression management motives and self-
86 validation hypothesis by introducing the interplay of power into response decisions.
87 The managerial recommendations we offer may enable those involved in marketing to
88 international tourists new opportunities to improve relations between tourists and local
89 residents.

90 **2. Literature review**

91 2.1 Tourist stereotypes

92 Stereotypes are the cognitive component of intergroup biases and has been widely
93 examined in social psychological research (Cox, Xie, & Devine, 2022; Sinclair et al.,
94 2005). Ingroup members generally perceive their outgroup counterparts to be more
95 homogeneous, which is the result of stereotypical assessment (Fiske et al., 2002). In
96 social psychology, stereotype is often defined as the beliefs and expectations held by
97 individuals toward members of outgroups, which can be automatically activated when
98 social category cues (e.g., race, gender, and occupation) are presented (Wang & Yang,
99 2017). In particular, the content of stereotypes can be correct or incorrect, positive,
100 negative, or mixed (Shen et al., 2019; Fiske et al., 2002), but either way, they may
101 influence how individuals behave toward their outgroup counterparts (Sinclair et al.,
102 2005). However, given stereotypes are strongly linked to biases, discrimination,
103 prejudice, and oppression, individuals often struggle to reduce the influence of
104 stereotypes on others' attitudes and behaviors towards them (Cox et al., 2022).

105 In this study, tourist stereotypes are defined as the preconceptions held by local
106 residents toward tourists (Tung et al., 2020). Stereotyping tourists is a common practice
107 by local residents, owing to the mostly transient and superficial nature of tourist-host
108 encounters as well as its efficiency in facilitating how locals process information about
109 tourists (Chen & Hsu, 2021). For example, Hong Kong residents often regard tourists
110 from Mainland China as approachable and competent, if somewhat boastful and rude
111 (Chen, Hsu, & Li, 2018; Tung et al., 2020). Catalan stereotypes of English tourists
112 include characteristics such as stiffness, steadiness, being socially distant, and having
113 integrity (Hsu & Chen, 2019).

114 Although tourism researchers have long studied tourist stereotypes in diverse
115 contexts, they have largely focused on the content of stereotypes (Chen & Hsu, 2021;
116 Chen et al., 2018), the strategies to reduce stereotypes (Ji, Li, & Hsu, 2016; Tung, 2021),
117 and the effects of stereotypes on the behavior of locals towards tourists (Tse & Tung,
118 2020b; Hsu & Chen, 2019). Research into how stereotypes of tourists by locals
119 influence, in turn, the behavior of tourists, is scarce. The pervasiveness of tourist
120 stereotypes and its influence on tourist-host interactions and tourist experiences make
121 an investigation of this issue timely.

122 2.2 Meta-stereotypes and subjective interaction intentions

123 Unlike stereotypes that focus on individuals' preconceptions of others, meta-
124 stereotypes refer to one's beliefs about how their ingroup is perceived by outgroup

125 members (Van Leeuwen & Täuber, 2012; Leeuwen & Mashuri, 2012). It is contextual
126 in nature and generally varies according to the outgroups involved. For example, the
127 meta-stereotype that the French have of Americans is not necessarily the same as the
128 meta-stereotype that they have of Belgians (Anseel, 2011). Since social interaction
129 usually involves members of diverse social groups, individuals are often aware that the
130 outgroup holds certain stereotypes about their ingroup (Fowler & Gasiorek, 2020).
131 Similarly, tourists may be aware that residents have stereotypes about the group to
132 which the tourist belongs, and whether these stereotypes are positive or negative.

133 Meta-stereotypes are believed in social psychology to have important effects on
134 the attitudes and behaviors of individuals during interactions (Lammers, Gordijn, &
135 Otten, 2008; Sinclair et al., 2005). Particularly, meta-stereotypes generally affect
136 individuals' behavior in the direction of the stereotypes (positive or negative) that they
137 perceive the outgroups hold toward them (Anseel, 2011; Sinclair et al., 2005). For
138 instance, if someone believes that outgroup members hold negative evaluations about
139 the group to which they belong (i.e., negative meta-stereotypes), he or she will be likely
140 to feel negatively towards potential interactions with the outgroup (Vorauer et al., 2000).
141 Conversely, if the individual believes that outgroup members hold positive meta-
142 stereotypes about the group to which the individual belongs, he or she may feel more
143 inclined towards interacting with that outgroup (Lammers et al., 2008; Stathi et al.,
144 2020). Indeed, Fowler and Gasiorek (2020) found that negative meta-stereotypes were
145 associated with a strong desire to avoid intergroup interactions.

146 Studies in social psychology have confirmed that people develop different
147 behavioral intentions to outgroups based on the given meta-stereotypes (Leeuwen &
148 Mashuri, 2012; Shen et al., 2019), but just how meta-stereotypes influence the
149 intentions of tourists toward residents has not been considered in the tourism literature.
150 Given individuals who believe that they are the subject of stereotypes are likely to
151 express attitudes (positive or negative) that are in line with the meta-stereotype (Sinclair
152 et al., 2005; Vorauer et al., 2000). Our contention is that tourists will have a positive
153 response to positive meta-stereotypes and a negative response to negative meta-
154 stereotypes. We propose that positive meta-stereotypes will lead to a greater willingness
155 by tourists to interact with locals:

156 H1: Positive meta-stereotypes will stimulate a higher willingness by tourists to
157 interact with hosts compared to negative meta-stereotypes.

158 2.3 Meta-stereotypes in promoting self-presentation

159 Individuals may not necessarily behave in line with the stereotypes that they
160 believe are held about them by the outgroup (He, Sun, & Luo, 2014). People who are
161 trying to demonstrate that negative stereotypes do not apply to them personally may
162 respond in a positive way to negative meta-stereotypes (Van Leeuwen & Täuber, 2012).
163 That is, while negative meta-stereotypes are oftentimes regarded as biases, they can,
164 nevertheless, link individuals to behaviors that are considered positive in nature (Liu &
165 Tung, 2017). For example, an individual who is acutely aware that his or her group are
166 stereotyped as unhelpful may seek to behave in an extra warm manner to disrupt this

167 stereotype (Leeuwen & Mashuri, 2012). This is an example of conscious self-
168 presentation. Self-presentation, a continuous strategic expression of the self, has been
169 regarded as a critical component of impression management in social interactions
170 (Nieto García et al., 2020; Oswald & Harvey, 2020). Generally speaking, efforts
171 invested into self-presentation serve to influence the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors
172 of others (Nieto García et al., 2020). Individuals tend to use self-presentation as a means
173 to refute negative stereotype in actual interactions with the outgroups, in order to
174 position their ingroup in a more favorable light (Oswald & Harvey, 2020).

175 Studies show that meta-stereotypes, once activated, can trigger one's self-
176 presentation (Van Leeuwen & Täuber, 2012), primarily because concerns around one's
177 image can stimulate individuals to modify their own actions to suit the expectations of
178 others (Vorauer et al., 2000). When it comes to negative meta-stereotypes, individuals
179 tend to invest more effort in their self-presentation to undermine these stereotypes;
180 equally, less effort is spent on confirming positive ones (Tung, 2019; Van Leeuwen &
181 Täuber, 2012). In this way, negative meta-stereotypes are more likely to increase one's
182 conscious level of self-presentation (Van Leeuwen & Täuber, 2012). For example, a
183 study has shown that residents were more willing to engage in self-presentation in the
184 face of negative meta-stereotypes, owing to their desire to manage impressions (Tung,
185 2019). Impression management motive, however, is not activated in all contexts, and is
186 only activated when individuals are able to display a specific identity through their
187 strategically exhibiting behaviors (Zaidman & Drory, 2001). Considering the actual
188 interaction with locals is an effective way for tourists to enhance their images (Tung,
189 2021), we suggest that tourists will present themselves in positive ways to refute
190 negative meta-stereotypes when they actually interact with locals. That is, negative
191 meta-stereotypes may boost the incentives of tourists to invest in self-presentation
192 efforts, while positive meta-stereotypes are likely to reduce their efforts in self-
193 presentation (since they already believe they are regarded favorably). We therefore
194 propose the following hypothesis:

195 H2: Negative meta-stereotypes will stimulate greater efforts in self-presentation by
196 tourists when interacting with members of the host group compared to positive meta-
197 stereotypes.

198 2.4 Tourist power as a moderator in tourist-host relations

199 A prevalent feature of social relationships, power has been characterized as a
200 universal concept in the social sciences (Lammers et al., 2008; Magee & Smith, 2013)
201 affecting nearly every aspect of people's lives (Cheong & Miller, 2000). Power can be
202 defined as the ability to advance one's interest or impose one's own will (Saito &
203 Ruhanen, 2017). It has different degrees of intensity from high to low (Wei & Dai,
204 2019), and people high in power can get powerless individuals to do something that
205 they would not otherwise have done (Saito & Ruhanen, 2017). Power relationships
206 evolve through interactions between social actors, and power imbalances often exist
207 between implicated agents (Wang, Weaver, & Kwek, 2016). Issues involving power and
208 power asymmetries permeate in tourism (Cheong & Miller, 2000; Wei, Qian, & Sun,

209 2018). Tourist-host interactions are considered inherently unequal, not only in terms of
210 wealth and relative social-economic status, but also with respect to the control of local
211 knowledge of both parties (i.e., the familiarity with local information and resources, the
212 ability to make arrangements) (Zhang et al., 2017). The behavior of individuals who
213 are the subject of negative stereotypes is influenced by the degree of power the
214 individual feels he or she holds (Van Loo & Rydell, 2013). To date, there has been
215 minimal exploration of how the positions of power occupied by tourists influence the
216 manner in which they respond to meta-stereotypes from the members of the host group.

217 Power is associated with a subjective sense of being in a higher position, of
218 increased confidence, and of having the feeling to act freely (Li & Chen, 2017; Magee
219 & Smith, 2013). Powerful individuals are more inclined to act according to their own
220 wills rather than conforming to the expectations of others (Overbeck et al., 2006). The
221 self-validation hypothesis holds that being in a position of power can increase the effect
222 of thoughts on one's behaviour. That is, if one's thoughts are prosocial in nature, being
223 in a position of power will lead to an increase in prosocial behaviour. Equally if one's
224 thoughts are inherently antisocial, power will enable the individual to engage in
225 increased antisocial behaviour (DeMarree, Briñol, & Petty, 2014). This suggests that
226 the behavioural responses of individuals are more amplified when the individual is in a
227 powerful position (DeMarree et al., 2014). Following this line of reasoning, we argue
228 that tourists who feel that they are in a position of power will use this perceived power
229 to act in accordance with the stereotypes that they believe their counterparts hold about
230 them. That is, tourists who feel powerful are more likely to feel at liberty to avoid
231 interacting with members of the host group if they believe the host group views them
232 negatively. In the same token, we propose that tourists who feel powerful will be more
233 inclined to interact with locals if they believe that locals perceive them in a positive
234 light. This leads to our third hypothesis:

235 H3: The degree to which tourists feel powerful during tourist-host interactions will
236 moderate the effect of the meta-stereotype on tourists' willingness to interact with
237 members of the host group.

238 H3a: Tourists who feel powerful will be more willing to interact with the host group
239 when they believe they are subject to positive meta-stereotypes.

240 H3b: Tourists who feel powerful will be less willing to interact with the host group
241 when they believe they are subject to negative meta-stereotypes.

242 Impression management motives arise when individuals seek approval from others
243 by performing certain social behaviors (Schlenker & Pontari, 2000). We contend that
244 efforts at impression management by tourists occur during their actual interactions with
245 locals and these are affected by the degree to which tourists see themselves as powerful
246 (Schlenker & Pontari, 2000). In general, those who lack power are more inclined to
247 internalize others' perceptions of them because they feel dependent on others (Lammers
248 et al., 2008; Menon & Bansal, 2007). This feeling of dependence motivates them to
249 maintain a favorable image of themselves to others (Schlenker & Pontari, 2000). The
250 greater the dependence on others, the greater the motivation to engage in self-

251 presentation (Zaidman & Drory, 2001). Those in positions of power lack the same
 252 motivation to engage in impression management because they are less dependent on
 253 others (Magee & Smith, 2013; Menon & Bansal, 2007). Even if they may perceive that
 254 they are being viewed in a negative light, or are subject to negative stereotypes, those
 255 in positions of power are less likely to concern themselves with making a favorable
 256 impression of themselves (Van Loo & Rydell, 2013).

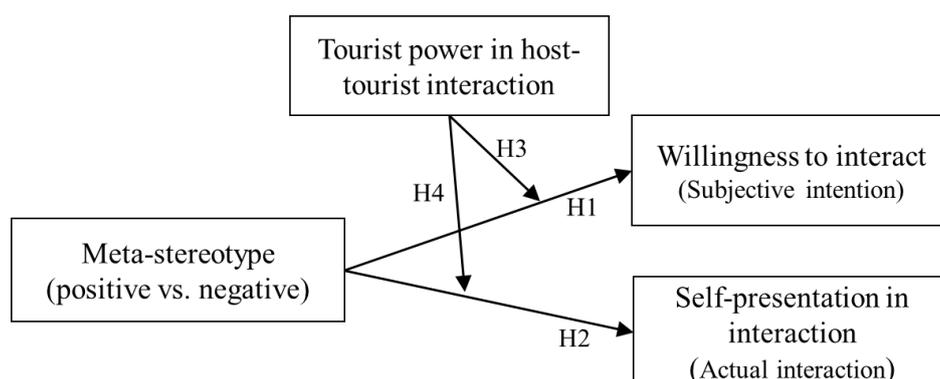
257 It has been argued that powerful people enjoy a greater level of agency and freedom
 258 than people who lack power (Van Loo & Rydell, 2013). People who feel powerful can
 259 be more consistent in their behaviors compared to people who feel disempowered and
 260 who thus feel obliged to present themselves in only favorable ways so as to obtain/retain
 261 the approval of others (on whom they feel dependent) (DeMarree et al., 2014). Applied
 262 to the present concerns, it may be that tourists who feel disempowered are more likely
 263 to be motivated to invest efforts into impression management when negative meta-
 264 stereotypes about them exist. Comparatively, tourists who feel that they are in a position
 265 of power, and who do not seek the approval of others, are likely to present themselves
 266 in favorable ways in the face of positive meta-stereotypes and, equally, to present
 267 themselves in unfavorable ways when confronted with negative meta-stereotypes. This
 268 hypothesis is broken down into the following:

269 H4: The degree to which tourists feel powerful during tourist-host interactions will
 270 moderate the effect of meta-stereotypes on self-presentation during these interactions.

271 H4a: Tourists who feel less powerful (powerless) will report higher levels of self-
 272 presentation when they are subject to negative meta-stereotypes.

273 H4b: Tourists who feel powerful will report higher levels of self-presentation when
 274 they are subject to positive meta-stereotypes.

275 The theoretical model of this research is depicted in Figure 1.



276

277

Figure 1. The theoretical model.

278 **3. Overview of this research**

279 This research involves three studies with multi-method approaches to explore the
 280 differences in whether tourists intend to interact with locals and how they behave during
 281 these interactions in the face of meta-stereotypes. First, two scenario-based experiments

282 were developed to test the proposed hypotheses. Study 1 employs a between-subjects
283 experimental design with three levels (meta-stereotype: negative vs. positive vs. none)
284 to investigate the main effects of meta-stereotypes on the willingness of tourists to
285 interact with locals and the efforts they invested in self-presentation during these
286 interactions (H1 and H2). Study 2 uses a 2 (meta-stereotype: negative vs. positive) \times 2
287 (tourist power: powerful vs. powerless) between-subjects experimental design to
288 examine how power moderates the main effects (H3 and H4). To provide real-world
289 support for the findings from Study 1 and 2, a survey (study 3) of Mainland Chinese
290 tourists was conducted. In Study 3, the given meta-stereotypes and degree of power
291 held by the tourists were measured as independent variables, while the willingness to
292 interact with locals and self-presentation efforts were measured as dependent variables.
293 Each study involved a different set of participants. There are several reasons for
294 conducting this research in relation to Mainland Chinese tourists. Primarily, the
295 increasing number of Mainland Chinese traveling abroad has intensified the stereotypes
296 held by resident populations towards them (Tse & Tung, 2020a). Abuses against
297 Mainland Chinese tourists in public have been reported in many countries (i.e., England,
298 Japan) (Tse & Tung, 2020b) even as the Mainland Chinese market continues to be
299 courted by tourist destinations and operators. By exploring the issues and questions
300 raised thus far through the lens of Chinese tourist experiences, this study sets out to
301 offer insights into tourist stereotypes as a whole and to contribute to the improved
302 management of tourist-host relations.

303 **4. Study 1**

304 The objective of Study 1 is to examine the main effect of meta-stereotypes on the
305 willingness of tourists to interact with locals and on their self-presentation efforts
306 during these interactions. A single-factor (meta-stereotype: negative vs. positive vs.
307 none) scenario-based experiment was conducted, consisting of two experimental
308 conditions: one group was exposed to positive meta-stereotypes, a second group to
309 negative meta-stereotypes, and the control group which encountered no meta-
310 stereotypes.

311 4.1 Design

312 Three fictitious but seemingly real newspaper articles with pictures were used to
313 generate positive and negative meta-stereotypes for the first two groups respectively,
314 and to convey neutral attitudes to the control group (see Appendix 1). Under the positive
315 meta-stereotype condition, participants were informed that a national survey of country
316 ‘A’ (a hypothetical country) had revealed that the attitudes of country ‘A’ residents
317 toward Mainland Chinese tourists were clearly positive. Residents in country ‘A’ had
318 reportedly described Mainland Chinese tourists as friendly, polite, civilized, and
319 industrious. Under the negative meta-stereotype condition, the survey revealed that
320 residents in country ‘A’ held negative attitudes towards Mainland Chinese tourists,
321 describing them as unfriendly, rude, uncivilized, and boastful (Tung et al., 2020). The
322 control group were told that residents held a neutral attitude towards Mainland Chinese
323 tourists, and some even gave no comments. Pictures of residents being interviewed

324 were subsequently added to the articles and served to amplify the differences between
325 the three experimental conditions.

326 In the experiment, participants were asked to imagine that they were travelling in
327 country A. They were asked to read the article conveying the meta-stereotype (or
328 neutral report) and subsequently completed a questionnaire. The questionnaire was
329 designed to provide insights into the effectiveness of the meta-stereotypes being
330 generated, the extent to which participants were willing to interact with the supposed
331 residents and invest in self-presentation efforts during actual interactions with the
332 residents. The term (A) was used for the alleged resident country to avoid biases from
333 participants' prior knowledge of, and familiarity with, real destinations (Su, Tang, &
334 Nawijn, 2021). Portraits in the pictures were blurred to prevent the participants from
335 guessing the destination country.

336 4.2 Pre-test

337 A pre-test was used to check the manipulation of the meta-stereotype. A sample of
338 84 Mainland Chinese respondents were randomly selected as subjects by means of the
339 snowballing technique and e-mail (See table 1). Three links to the experiment were
340 created and randomly sent to subjects. They were asked to rate the degree to which they
341 thought that the attitudes held by country 'A' residents toward Mainland Chinese
342 tourists were negative, neutral, or positive. Responses were provided on a 7-point scale
343 ranging from "1" (negative), "4" (neutral) to "7" (positive). Results showed that
344 participants in the positive meta-stereotype condition scored significantly higher than
345 those in the control group ($M_{\text{Positive}} = 6.59$, $M_{\text{Control}} = 3.96$, $p < 0.001$) as well as those in
346 the negative meta-stereotype condition ($M_{\text{Positive}} = 6.59$, $M_{\text{Negative}} = 1.47$, $p < 0.001$).
347 Thus, the manipulation of the meta-stereotype was deemed successful.

348 4.3 Measurement

349 Willingness to interact refers to the subjective intention of subjects to interact with the
350 hosts. This was assessed using five questions adapted from a study by Logan, Steel, and
351 Hunt (2016) and by Rohmann (2014) (i.e., "I desire contact with the locals"; "I am
352 willing to actively interact with the locals"; "I believe it would be hard to get along with
353 the locals (-)"; "If the locals were to seek contact with me, I would be glad and respond
354 to it"; "I want to get to know the locals better"). Meanwhile, participants responded to
355 three items regarding their anticipation about self-presentation efforts in interactions
356 with locals, which was adapted from Lee and Borah's study (2020) (i.e., "I will show
357 them I am different"; "I will present an attractive persona of myself"; "I will present
358 myself differently to different people"), also using a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree,
359 7 = strongly agree). The demographic information of participants (i.e., gender, age, and
360 education level) was captured as control variables in all studies. Moreover, considering
361 that the outbound travel experience of tourists may influence their attitude and behavior
362 when traveling abroad (Wang, Martin, & Yao, 2021), it was also measured and
363 controlled for in the first two experimental studies.

364 4.4 Results

365 *Participants.* Gpower software application for F tests and ANOVA with one-way was
 366 used to calculate the minimum sample size (Martínez-López, Anaya-Sánchez, &
 367 Fernández Giordano, et al., 2020). The effect size as 0.4, alpha error probability as 0.01,
 368 and power as 0.95 were selected (Faul et al., 2007), and the sample size required was
 369 135. The experiment was carried out in Mainland China, and 165 Mainland Chinese
 370 residents were recruited from Credamo.com, a professional Chinese online data
 371 collection platform similar to Mechanical Turk (Jia, Yao, & Fan, 2022; Xu & Zeng,
 372 2022). Specifically, recruitment information was released through Credamo.com to find
 373 participants, and subjects who meet the requirements (i.e., Mainland Chinese residents)
 374 volunteered to complete the experiment online (Su et al., 2021). Participants were then
 375 randomly assigned to one of three conditions: positive meta-stereotype, negative meta-
 376 stereotype, or the control group. After removing invalid samples (i.e., missing data,
 377 taking too long or too short in completing, giving the same answer for all questions),
 378 144 participants were obtained (See table 1).

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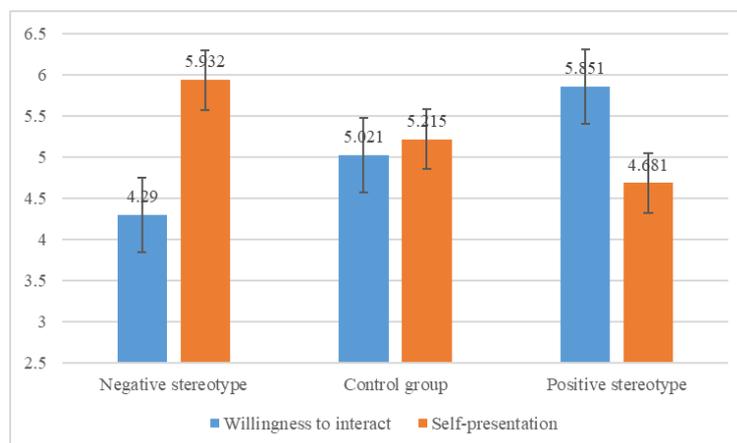
Table 1. Sample Characteristics

Variables		Pre-test		Study 1		Study 2		Study 3	
		N	100%	N	100%	N	100%	N	100%
Gender	Male	38	45.2	73	50.7	81	38.0	118	37.7
	Female	46	54.8	71	49.3	132	62.0	195	62.3
Age (years)	18-29	40	47.6	62	43.1	96	45.1	130	41.5
	30-39	37	44.0	66	45.8	90	42.3	151	48.2
	40-49	4	4.8	11	7.6	18	8.5	22	7.1
	50 and above	3	3.6	5	3.5	9	4.2	10	3.2
Education level	High school or less	3	3.6	8	5.6	10	4.7	3	1.0
	College qualification or Bachelor's degree	69	82.1	120	83.3	175	82.2	265	84.7
	Masters' degree	10	11.9	15	10.4	24	11.3	42	13.3
	Doctoral degree	2	2.4	1	0.7	4	1.9	3	1.0
Personal monthly income (RMB)	Less than 2,000	7	8.3	13	9.0	23	10.8	21	6.7
	2,001-4,000	12	14.3	16	11.1	20	9.4	22	7.0
	4,001-6,000	14	16.7	25	17.4	41	19.2	41	13.1
	6,001-8,000	18	21.4	30	20.8	40	18.8	68	21.7
	8,001-10,000	21	25.0	30	20.8	41	19.2	94	30.0
	More than 10,000	12	14.3	30	20.8	48	22.5	67	21.5

380 *Manipulation check.* One-way ANOVA showed that subjects in the positive meta-
 381 stereotype condition had higher scores ($M = 6.68$, $SD = 0.515$) than those in the control
 382 group ($M = 3.94$, $SD = 0.381$, $p < 0.001$) and those in the negative meta-stereotype
 383 condition ($M = 1.84$, $SD = 1.559$, $p < 0.001$, $F(1, 143) = 293.634$). Therefore, the
 384 manipulation of the meta-stereotype was deemed effective.

385 *Main effect.* One-way ANOVA revealed that subjects in the negative meta-

386 stereotype condition scored more negatively on willingness to interact with residents
 387 than those in the positive meta-stereotype condition and in the control group (M_{Negative}
 388 $= 4.290$, $M_{\text{Control}} = 5.021$, $M_{\text{Positive}} = 5.851$, $F(1, 143) = 26.338$, $p < 0.001$). This indicates
 389 that participants were unwilling to interact with residents when they perceived that they
 390 were the subject of negative stereotypes by the residents. Meanwhile, participants in
 391 the negative meta-stereotype condition scored more positively on self-presentation than
 392 those in the positive meta-stereotype condition and control group ($M_{\text{Negative}} = 5.932$,
 393 $M_{\text{Control}} = 5.215$, $M_{\text{Positive}} = 4.681$, $F(1, 143) = 22.330$, $p < 0.001$). This indicates that
 394 participants who experience a negative meta-stereotype from residents tend to have a
 395 greater desire to manage their self-presentation in ways that create a favorable
 396 impression to offset purportedly negative perceptions about them (Fig. 2).



397
 398 **Figure 2.** The mean scores of willingness to interact and self-presentation.

399 **4.5 Brief Discussion**

400 Study 1 revealed the significant effect of meta-stereotypes on the willingness of
 401 tourists to interact with local residents and their efforts at self-presentation using a
 402 scenario-based experiment. Participants who experienced positive meta-stereotypes
 403 showed a greater willingness to interact with locals but reduced efforts at self-
 404 presentation during the interactions compared with participants who had experienced
 405 negative meta-stereotypes. This suggests that one's awareness of being subject to
 406 positive or negative stereotypes has a different effect on tourist intentions to interact
 407 with locals and on the manner in which they interact.

408 **5. Study 2**

409 The results of Study 1 showed that meta-stereotypes had a significant but different
 410 effect on willingness to interact and self-presentation. Given this, Study 2 aims to
 411 explore the moderating role of tourist power on these main effects through a 2 (meta-
 412 stereotype: positive vs. negative) \times 2 (tourist power: powerful vs. powerless) between-
 413 subjects experimental design.

414 **5.1 Design**

415 The stimuli for meta-stereotypes (positive and negative) in this study were the same
 416 as in Study 1. This group of subjects were asked to read a second scenario that was

417 designed to manipulate a sense of their power as potential tourists. Generally, the degree
418 of power that tourists hold in tourist-host relations rests on their economic status (Zhang
419 et al., 2017); tourists with a strong economic status are considered to have dominant
420 power (Wei et al., 2018). Nonetheless, research also reveals that this economic power
421 cannot be fully realized if they lack local knowledge (Zhang et al., 2017; Wei & Dai,
422 2019). The power held by tourists is influenced by both their economic status and
423 control over local knowledge. That is, high-power tourists have easy access to local
424 information and resources and can make their own arrangements without relying on
425 local residents. Therefore, participants allocated to the powerful group condition were
426 informed that they possessed a higher socio-economic status than local residents and
427 that they could easily access local information and make arrangements without having
428 to rely on locals to obtain this, enabling them to feel a sense of superiority over the
429 locals. Participants allocated to the weak group condition were told that they had no
430 local knowledge and had to depend on locals. They were also told that their socio-
431 economic status was lower than that of local residents to generate a sense of inferiority.

432 5.2 Measurement

433 Participants then completed a questionnaire that replicated the questionnaire used
434 in Study 1, except for the addition of one item adapted from Jia et al. (2022) to check
435 the effectiveness of the sense of power that was being deliberately generated in
436 participants (i.e., “Between you and the locals, who has more power?”). Participants
437 responded on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from ‘local residents’ (1) to ‘me’ (7). The
438 higher the score, the greater the degree of power participants believed they held in
439 relation to local residents.

440 5.3 Results

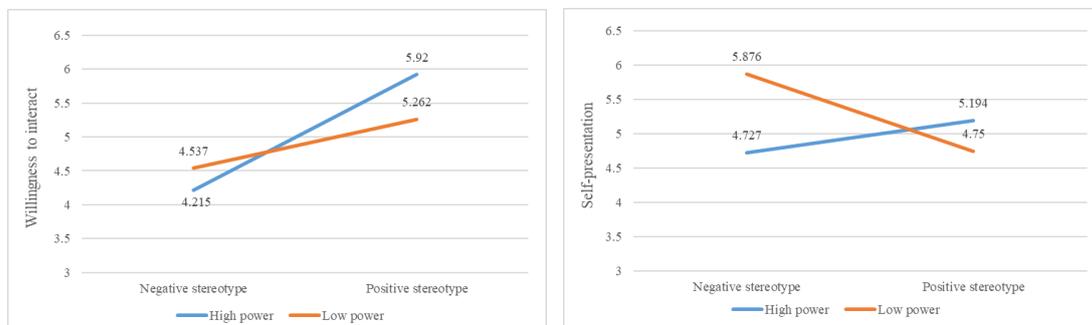
441 *Participants.* Gpower software application for F tests and ANOVA with main
442 effects and interactions (effect size f : 0.4; alpha error probability: 0.01; and power: 0.95)
443 showed the minimum sample size required was 207 and there were 238 residents of
444 Mainland China recruited from the online commercial panel Credamo.com following
445 snowball sampling. After removing invalid samples, 213 valid responses remained. The
446 data screening criteria of participants in this study were consistent with those in Study
447 1. The demographic characteristics of subjects are displayed in Table 1.

448 *Manipulation check.* Independent-sample t-tests indicated that participants in the
449 positive meta-stereotype condition scored significantly higher than those in the negative
450 meta-stereotype condition ($M_{\text{Positive}} = 6.233$, $M_{\text{Negative}} = 3.943$, $t = -11.891$, $df = 211$, $p <$
451 0.001). Participants assigned to the powerful group indicated that they felt more
452 powerful than the local residents while those in the powerless group believed that local
453 residents were more powerful ($M_{\text{Powerful}} = 5.954$, $M_{\text{Powerless}} = 2.369$, $t = -21.832$, $df = 211$,
454 $p < 0.001$). These results suggest that our manipulation of meta-stereotype and tourist
455 power was successful.

456 *Moderating effect.* Two-way between-subjects ANOVA revealed significant
457 interaction effects between meta-stereotypes and tourist power on the willingness to

458 interact with locals ($F(1, 211) = 12.106, p < 0.01$) and self-presentation efforts in these
 459 interactions ($F(1, 211) = 32.844, p < 0.001$). As Fig. 3 shows, positive meta-stereotypes
 460 (as opposed to negative meta-stereotypes) elicited a significantly higher level of
 461 willingness to interact, regardless of whether respondents felt that their degree of power
 462 as tourists was high ($M_{\text{Positive}} = 5.920, M_{\text{Negative}} = 4.215, p = 0.000 < 0.001$) or low
 463 ($M_{\text{Positive}} = 5.262, M_{\text{Negative}} = 4.537, p = 0.001 < 0.01$). Subjects who felt powerful were
 464 more willing to interact with locals in the face of positive meta-stereotypes and were
 465 more reluctant to interact when experiencing negative meta-stereotypes. This reveals
 466 that tourists who feel powerful tend to respond favorably to positive meta-stereotypes
 467 and respond negatively to negative meta-stereotypes.

468 In terms of self-presentation efforts in prospective interactions with locals, subjects
 469 who felt a weak sense of power were more concerned about presenting themselves more
 470 favorably ($M_{\text{Negative}} = 5.876, M_{\text{Positive}} = 4.750, p = 0.000 < 0.001$) when experiencing
 471 negative meta-stereotypes compared to experiencing positive meta-stereotypes.
 472 Subjects who felt powerful tended to present themselves more positively ($M_{\text{Positive}} =$
 473 $5.194, M_{\text{Negative}} = 4.727, p = 0.031 < 0.05$) when experiencing positive meta-stereotypes
 474 compared to negative meta-stereotypes. This reveals that negative meta-stereotypes can
 475 incentivize tourists who feel a limited sense of power to engage in impression
 476 management strategies and to seek to present themselves in a favorable light. Tourists
 477 who hold power, on the other hand, are not concerned with the negative stereotypes
 478 held by locals towards them, and are less inclined to try and present themselves in a
 479 favorable manner.



480
481 **Figure 3.** The analysis of the two-way interactions.

482 **5.4 Brief Discussion**

483 Study 2 involved an experimental study to obtain a significant interaction effect
 484 between meta-stereotypes and tourist power on their willingness to interact with locals
 485 and on their self-presentation efforts. Participants who felt more powerful than locals
 486 exhibited stronger feedback responses to meta-stereotypes. These participants tended
 487 to respond in a retaliatory manner to locals in the belief that the locals held negative
 488 stereotypes about them. They were less willing to interact and engage in self-
 489 presentation efforts in the face of negative meta-stereotypes and were more willing to
 490 interact and engage in self-presentation when they experienced positive meta-
 491 stereotypes. Conversely, participants who felt a limited sense of power also were less
 492 willing to interact with locals in the face of negative meta-stereotypes but they were

493 concerned with investing more efforts into favorable self-presentations when engaging
494 with locals.

495 **6. Study 3**

496 Considering that subjects reported items (i.e., willingness to interact and self-
497 presentation) based on stimulus material may yield inaccurate measures as they may
498 vary regarding understanding to the materials. Study 3 was designed to verify and
499 consolidate the ecological validity of the results derived from Study 1 and 2. Study 3
500 involved an online survey of 313 subjects from Mainland China who had travelled
501 abroad in the past three years. The responses elicited from the survey were aimed at
502 providing further explanations of the effects of meta-stereotypes on the willingness of
503 tourists to interact with locals and on their self-presentation efforts during these
504 interactions.

505 6.1 Participants

506 As with Study 1 and 2, participants for Study 3 were recruited from Credamo.com
507 following snowball sampling. A total of 313 valid and complete responses were
508 collected, and the participants recruitment process was the same as in Studies 1 and 2,
509 except that there were differences in the requirements for participants (i.e., Mainland
510 Chinese residents who had travelled abroad in the past three years). In the survey issued,
511 participants were asked to recall their latest travel experience abroad, rating the meta-
512 stereotypes they had experienced in destination ‘X’, their sense of power compared to
513 local residents, their willingness to interact with the locals during their travels, and how
514 they presented themselves during these interactions. Since the countries where the
515 subjects had traveled were different, ‘X’ was used to refer to their respective destination
516 countries. To deal with the potential difficulties that respondents may have in recalling
517 their tourist experiences, two screening questions were asked to exclude those with
518 faulty recollections. This was achieved by asking participants to indicate Yes or No to
519 whether they “have travelled abroad in the past three years”, and whether they “clearly
520 remember the experience in travel”. Then, some detailed questions were also added (i.e.,
521 the destination of the visit, type of companions, and travel time), to ensure that
522 respondents had outbound travel experience and had clear recollections of their travels.
523 Moreover, to minimize the potential impact of COVID-19 on research findings,
524 respondents’ travel time was also captured as a control variable in this study. The
525 demographic information of respondents was shown in Table 1.

526 6.2 Measures and Reliability Analysis

527 Meta-stereotypes were assessed using seven items adapted from Tung et al. (2020)
528 and Chen and Hsu (2021): uncivilized-civilized, unfriendly-friendly, rude-polite,
529 unpopular-popular, coarse-refined, non-materialistic-materialistic, loud-quiet
530 (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.959$). A 7-point bipolar rating scale from -3 to 3 was adopted for
531 each item. Positive values indicated that participants had experienced positive meta-
532 stereotypes while negative values indicated the experience of negative meta-stereotypes.
533 Tourist power in this study focuses on the psychological experience of power — a

534 sense of power subjects had felt when traveling abroad, which was measured by an item
535 adapted from Liu and Mattila (2017), and from Choi et al. (2019): “when traveling in
536 country X, to what extent did you feel powerful compared to the local residents” (1=
537 not at all, 7 = extremely). The measures of willingness to interact (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.827$)
538 and self-presentation (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.658$) were the same as in Study 2 and exceeded
539 Cronbach’s α of 0.6, the threshold for scale reliability (Tsai et al., 2017).

540 6.3 Hypotheses Testing

541 To test the hypotheses, we conducted a moderation analysis using PROCESS
542 Model 1 with meta-stereotype as a focal predictor, sense of power as a moderator,
543 willingness to interact and self-presentation as outcomes, respectively, and the
544 demographic information (i.e., gender, age, income, outbound travel experience) as
545 control variables. Results showed that meta-stereotype was positively associated with
546 the willingness to interact ($\beta = 0.256, p = 0.001 < 0.005$), but was negatively associated
547 with self-presentation in interactions ($\beta = -0.509, p = 0.000 < 0.001$). This is consistent
548 with the finding of Study 1, revealing that negative meta-stereotypes reduced
549 participants’ willingness to interact but improved their self-presentation in actual
550 interactions. Therefore, Hypotheses 1 and 2 are further supported.

551 The interaction effects of meta-stereotype and tourist power on willingness to
552 interact ($\beta = 0.033, p < 0.05, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.001, 0.065]$) and self-presentation ($\beta = 0.110, p$
553 $< 0.001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.076, 0.145]$) were also confirmed. As shown in Fig. 4, meta-
554 stereotype positively predicted the willingness to interact, regardless of whether tourist
555 power was high or low. However, for subjects who felt a high degree of power, their
556 willingness to interact with locals was more susceptible to meta-stereotypes ($\beta_{\text{Powerless}}$
557 $= 0.321, p = 0.000 < 0.001; \beta_{\text{Powerful}} = 0.451, p = 0.000 < 0.001$), in that there was a
558 reduced willingness to interact when experiencing negative stereotypes and a greater
559 willingness to interact when experiencing positive stereotypes. However, meta-
560 stereotypes positively predicted self-presentation in participants who felt a great degree
561 of power ($\beta_{\text{Powerful}} = 0.153, p = 0.001 < 0.01$) and negatively predicted self-presentation
562 in participants with a limited sense of power ($\beta_{\text{Powerless}} = -0.289, p = 0.000 < 0.001$).
563 That is, the self-presentation efforts of powerful subjects were in line with meta-
564 stereotypes so that positive (as opposed to negative) meta-stereotypes were more likely
565 to stimulate their positive self-presentation. Comparatively, the self-presentation of
566 subjects who felt a limited sense of power were inverse to the given meta-stereotypes:
567 negative meta-stereotypes were more likely to stimulate efforts at positive self-
568 presentation. This result provides additional support for the findings of Study 2.
569 Therefore, Hypotheses 3 and 4 (i.e., H4a and H4b) of this research are confirmed.

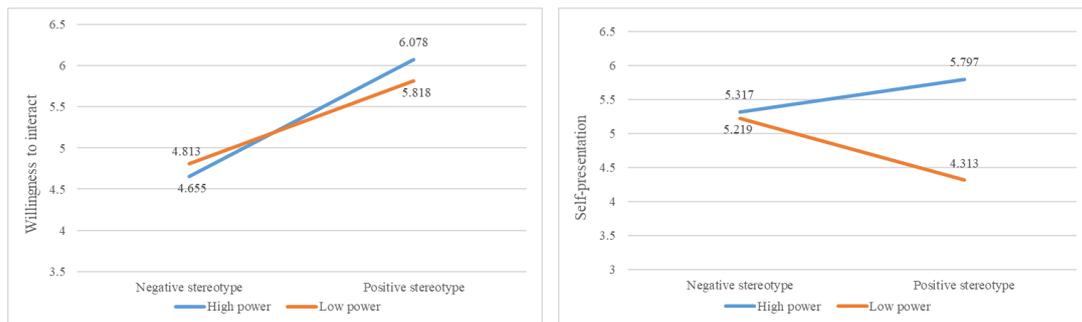


Figure 4. The moderating effect of subjects' sense of power.

570
571

572 6.4 Brief Discussion

573 The results of Study 3, which involved a survey of Mainland Chinese tourists with
574 recent travel experiences, were in line with the results of Study 1 and 2. That is, the
575 effects of meta-stereotypes on tourists' subjective intentions and actual behaviors in
576 interactions with local residents, as well as the moderating effect of tourists' power have
577 been further confirmed in this study with real world setting.

578 7. Discussion and Conclusion

579 7.1 Theoretical contributions

580 The results of these studies offer several theoretical contributions. This paper adds
581 to the social psychology literature on meta-stereotypes and social interaction by
582 exploring the difference between subjective intentions and actual behaviors in
583 individual responses to outgroup perceptions. Although research in social psychology
584 has explored the effect of meta-stereotypes on individual's responses in intergroup
585 interactions, which has either focused on one's intentional or behavioral responses
586 (Lammers et al., 2008; Stathi et al., 2020; Leeuwen & Mashuri, 2012), it is unclear
587 whether meta-stereotypes affect individuals' intentional or behavioral responses the
588 same way. Our paper reveals a clear difference between tourists' subjective intentions
589 and actual performances in dealing with meta-stereotypes, providing evidence that
590 individuals tend to behave differently in two interaction states (Zhang et al., 2020). In
591 particular, this paper demonstrates that tourists may present themselves in a favorable
592 light when interacting with locals, regardless of their subjective intentions to engage
593 with locals. A possible explanation for this is that subjective intentions are entirely
594 shaped by the will of the individual and have no bearing on the maintenance of the
595 ingroup image. It illustrates that individuals who reject the validity of the stereotypes
596 thrust upon them will tend to realize this rejection in the form of outward behaviors (as
597 opposed to subjective intentions) since behaviors can be witnessed by the outgroup
598 audience (Van Leeuwen & Täuber, 2012).

599 This is one of the first attempts to demonstrate how tourists react to residents'
600 stereotypes of them. Research within the topic of tourist-host interactions have focused
601 on resident responses to meta-stereotypes (Tung 2019; Chen et al., 2018) rather than
602 tourist responses. Our research addresses this gap by offering initial evidence that meta-
603 stereotypes may influence tourist behaviors. Results indicate that negative stereotypes

604 may discourage tourists from being willing to interact with locals. This may be
605 explained by the looking-glass effect, wherein people, when confronted with an
606 outgroup's negative perceptions of them, may feel criticized by the outgroup and thus
607 respond more defensively to the perceived criticism (Van Leeuwen & Täuber, 2012).
608 That said, this study also finds that tourists will invest greater efforts into favorable self-
609 presentation when they are subject to negative stereotypes as opposed to positive
610 stereotypes. Impression management theory is helpful here in explaining that those who
611 are subject to negative stereotypes set out to present themselves in a favorable way in a
612 bid to enhance public perceptions of their ingroup (Nieto García et al., 2020). This
613 finding is in line with residents' behavioural responses to meta-stereotype, that is,
614 negative meta-stereotypes tend to motivate residents' positive out-group helping
615 behaviors, while positive meta-stereotypes make them feel less compelled to help
616 outgroup members (Tung, 2019). Therefore, this study verifies and expands the
617 research findings of residents' responses to meta-stereotype by identifying the
618 differences between tourists' intentional and behavioral reactions to meta-stereotypes.
619 Besides, this paper extends knowledge about human responses to negative meta-
620 stereotypes by showing that this leads to enhanced self-presentation (Vorauer et al.,
621 2000) and a decreased desire to interact with those holding the stereotypes (Fowler &
622 Gasiorek, 2020).

623 This research represents an initial attempt to bridge the literature on meta-stereotypes
624 and tourist power, illustrating their joint influence on tourist intentions to, and actual
625 behaviors in, interacting with locals. Our findings suggest that power does not simply
626 facilitate or inhibit tourist responses; it has a more sophisticated impact on tourist
627 responses in its interaction with meta-stereotypes. That is, an increased sense of power
628 magnifies how meta-stereotypes affect the willingness of tourists to interact with locals,
629 be they positive or negative. Meanwhile, a heightened sense of power leads to tourists
630 engaging in more negative self-presentation when experiencing negative meta-
631 stereotypes and more positive self-presentation when they are subject to positive meta-
632 stereotypes. These findings may seem counterintuitive as previous studies suggest that
633 a heightened sense of power may reduce the negative effect of threatening stereotypes
634 (Van Loo & Rydell, 2013; DeMarree et al., 2014). We offer a different perspective to
635 this and, in doing so, extend the literature around the affective power of stereotypes on
636 intergroup relations. We also verify the applicability of the self-validation hypothesis
637 with respect to power in the relationship between tourists and locals by demonstrating
638 that tourists, when experiencing a heightened sense of power, respond more negatively
639 to negative stereotypes and more positively to positive stereotypes. Finding echo to
640 those of Overbeck et al. (2006) and Wang and Yang (2017) who observed that those
641 who feel powerful are at greater liberty to respond negatively to negative stereotypes
642 held by outgroups.

643 7.2 Practical implications

644 Our findings also provide practical implications for destination management
645 organizations (DMOs) and local communities. Positive stereotypes about tourists may
646 be used by DMOs to build harmonious tourist-host relations since they appear to

647 enhance the willingness of tourists (both high-power versus low-power) to interact with
648 locals and elicit the efforts of high-power tourist at favorable self-presentation. Tourists
649 who feel a reduced sense of power may experience a cognitive dissonance in the face
650 of negative stereotypes in that they may be less willing to interact with locals but still
651 feel a need to present themselves in a favorable light. This can trigger negative emotions
652 such as low self-esteem and depression (Stevens & Shriver, 2022). Therefore, negative
653 stereotypes are indeed detrimental to tourist-host interactions, while positive
654 stereotypes, if harnessed effectively, may be used to improve tourist-host relationships.
655 It is imperative that responsive and appropriate strategies are used to spread positive
656 tourist stereotypes and that steps are taken to reduced negative stereotypes. A starting
657 point to promote residents' positive stereotypes of tourists is building a better
658 understanding of local attitudes towards tourists and develop accurate strategies
659 accordingly. Since tourist-host interactions are transitory in nature, there may not
660 always be opportunities to convert shallow relationships into deeper ones (Chen & Hsu,
661 2021; Tse & Tung, 2022b), so their understanding of each other is often reliant on media
662 coverage. DMOs could capitalize on opportunities that promote positive media images
663 of tourists from creditable media agents, such as organic media agents (e.g., individual
664 non-commercial Vlogs) and autonomous agents (e.g., event, culture or film induced
665 publicities) to reduce local prejudice and misconceptions about tourists. Forums that
666 enable locals to freely express their opinions are also instructive in understanding the
667 community's attitudes towards tourists and could facilitate the government officials to
668 take immediate actions to mitigate the negative impacts.

669 In addition, there are potential benefits for DMOs to target tourists with responsive
670 strategies. For instance, to alleviate cognitive dissonance and negative emotions in
671 tourists who feel a reduced sense of power when dealing with negative stereotypes,
672 DMOs may give tourists proper understanding of the local misconceptions that tourists
673 may potentially encounter during their travels to set an objective expectation for their
674 travel. Meanwhile, various strategies should also be offered to manage potential
675 conflicts. For example, pre-arrival tourist briefing regarding the local customs, religions,
676 social norms and inhibitions are encouraged to set up a good understanding of the local.
677 This may be an effective way of helping tourists to retain their self-esteem, safeguard
678 against depression, and persuade them to act without hostility in the face of stereotypes.
679 Certainly, if tourists have a better understanding of why residents have negative
680 preconceptions of them, they are better placed to present themselves strategically to
681 refute these stereotypes.

682 Finally, it is important to create more opportunities for genuine interactions
683 between local residents and tourists. This is because tourists who are subject to negative
684 stereotypes are actually less willing to interact with local residents but nevertheless feel
685 obliged to present themselves in a favorable light to counter the negative stereotype.
686 This is particularly true for those tourists with a reduced sense of power. Therefore,
687 local communities in the destination country should provide more opportunities for
688 authentic interactions to increase the number of opportunities for tourists to engage in
689 self-presentation, which will improve local understandings of tourists and help to

690 eliminate their negative preconceptions. Due to the pandemic situation, online social
691 campaigns aiming to promote “post-pandemic visit” between tourists and locals, such
692 as through live streaming, are also effective strategies to maintain and enhance the
693 tourist-host interactions.

694 7.3 Limitations and future research

695 This study is not without its limitations. First, the extent to which tourists identify
696 with the given meta-stereotypes, previous interactions tourists have had with local
697 residents, and the personality traits of tourists (i.e., narcissism, extraversion) may
698 influence their attitudes toward residents as well as their responses to meta-stereotypes
699 (Cox et al., 2022; Tung, 2021; Rydell & Boucher, 2010), and should be verified in future
700 research. Second, the findings of this research were limited to Mainland Chinese
701 tourists. Tourists in other countries are subject to stereotypes as well and future studies
702 may explore how tourists from other countries respond to meta-stereotypes. Third,
703 tourist power is measured using a single item in Study 3, focusing on the tourists’
704 psychological experience of power - the sense of power when interacting with locals at
705 destinations. Although the use of single-item measure was supported by some academic
706 researchers (Bergvist & Rossiter, 2007; Walsh & Mitchell, 2010), multi-item scales
707 seem to clearly outperform single items in terms of predictive validity (Diamantopoulos
708 et al., 2012). Thus, future studies could verify the current results with multi-item
709 measurement instruments for all constructs. Fourth, although Study 3 measured the
710 subjects’ self-presentation in actual interactions, their recollections of their travels may
711 be slightly flawed, including their awareness of being the subject of stereotypes. Further,
712 due to the capitalization of travel memories, respondents may reconstruct details of
713 their experiences to make it more memorable to the listener and thereby leading to
714 response bias (Tung, Cheung, & Law, 2018). Thus, we must acknowledge the
715 deficiencies of sample selection in this study, and suggest that future research could use
716 a field survey to investigate tourist perceptions of, and responses to, meta-stereotypes.
717 Finally, stereotypes consist of two distinct types: explicit and implicit stereotypes,
718 which may affect recipients differently (Tse & Tung, 2020a; Qu, Dong, & Gao, 2022;
719 Lee, Khan, & Bellman, 2021). This research only focuses on explicit stereotypes and
720 ignores implicit stereotypes. How tourists may respond to implicit stereotypes needs to
721 be further explored in future research.

722

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904 **Appendix 1. Manipulation materials in Study 1 and Study 2**

905 *Negative meta-stereotype*



906

907 **Residents of Country ‘A’ Consider Chinese Tourists Uncivilized and Unfriendly**

908

909 14 September 2021, 14:31 Source: Chinanews.com

910

911 A survey has been carried out on attitudes of country ‘A’ residents towards Chinese tourists, local
912 media reported. The results of the survey show that although Chinese tourists can bring income,
913 they are not welcomed by the residents of country ‘A’. 94% of the residents have negative views on
914 Chinese tourists, including some residents who have never had contact with Chinese tourists.
915 “Chinese tourists are known to be uncivilized and rude, and their presence disturbs our harmony
916 and tranquility, so they are not welcomed”, said one resident interviewed.

917

918 “Nearly 90% of residents in country ‘A’ have complained about Chinese tourists. They think
919 Chinese tourists are unfriendly, rude, uncivilized, and boastful”, the media concluded based on the
920 survey results. “Meanwhile, nearly 70% of residents in country ‘A’ said that the uncivilized behavior
921 of Chinese tourists does not match their spending power. Some residents have a very negative
922 attitude toward Chinese tourists, even though they have no contact with them.”

923



924

925

Residents of Country ‘A’ Were Interviewed

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【Editor: Ou Ye】

927 *Positive meta-stereotype*



928

929 **Residents of Country ‘A’ Consider Chinese Tourists Civilized and Friendly**

930

931 14 September 2021, 14:31 Source: Chinanews.com

932

933 A survey has been carried out on attitudes of country ‘A’ residents towards Chinese tourists, local
934 media reported. The results of the survey show that the behavior of Chinese tourists is strongly
935 appreciated by the residents of country ‘A’. 94% of the residents have positive views on Chinese

936 tourists, including some residents who have never had contact with Chinese tourists. “Chinese
937 tourists are known to be civilized and industrious. They are polite to others and welcome them to
938 visit here”, said one resident interviewed.

939

940 “Nearly 90% of residents in country ‘A’ welcome Chinese tourists. They think Chinese tourists are
941 friendly, polite, civilized, and industrious”, the media concluded based on the survey results.
942 “Meanwhile, nearly 70% of residents in country ‘A’ said that the strong spending power of Chinese
943 tourists is closely related to their diligence and intelligence. Some residents have a very positive
944 attitude toward Chinese tourists, even though they have no contact with them.”

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Residents of Country ‘A’ Were Interviewed

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【Editor: Ou Ye】

949 *Control group*



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951 **Residents of Country ‘A’ Hold a Neutral Attitude Towards Chinese Tourists**

952

953 14 September 2021, 14:31 Source: Chinanews.com

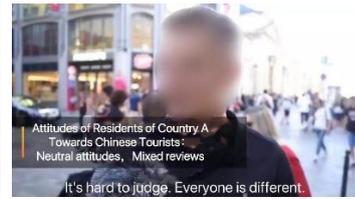
954

955 A survey has been carried out on attitudes of country ‘A’ residents towards Chinese tourists, local
956 media reported. The results of the survey show that the residents of country ‘A’ have always
957 maintained a neutral attitude towards Chinese tourists. 94% of the residents said they neither liked
958 nor disliked Chinese tourists, including some residents who have never had contact with Chinese
959 tourists. “Although I have interacted with some Chinese tourists, it is difficult for me to give a
960 positive or negative review.”, said one resident interviewed.

961

962 “Nearly 90% of residents in country ‘A’ have a neutral attitude towards Chinese tourists”, the media
963 concluded based on the survey results. “The remaining 10% have expressed positive or negative
964 impressions of Chinese tourists, but the number of both parties is basically balanced. It can be said
965 that although residents of Country ‘A’ have different contact experiences with Chinese tourists, their
966 attitudes toward Chinese tourists are basically the same.”

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Residents of Country 'A' Were Interviewed

【Editor: Ou Ye】