

“Don’t go for humiliation.”

Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism versus visitation to Hong Kong

Yang Liu

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Primary Supervisor: Dr Charles S. Johnston

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Attestation of Authorship

“I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.”

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Abstract

Nationalism is always seen as a “double-edged sword” for governing a nation. In the 1990s, Chinese cyber nationalism emerged and has developed at an increasing pace. The history of anti-America, anti-Japan and anti-France has witnessed its strong and dark power in the international economy, especially in the tourism industry. As more and more Mainland Chinese visit Hong Kong, the difference in politics, culture and economy, as well as Hong Kong’s special status as a Special Administrative Region of China, has cultivated and prospered Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong. Meanwhile, nationalistic arguments by “angry youth” were frequently observed on the Internet. Recent years have seen the reduction of Mainland Chinese visitors to Hong Kong, making it no longer the Chinese most favoured destination. Since tourism is one of the pillar industries in Hong Kong, and Mainland China is the biggest tourist market, it is essential to investigate the connection between increasing Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong and its impact on Mainland tourists travelling to Hong Kong.

This study was designed to examine the relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and its impact on potential tourists’ pre-visit behaviour. Based on Planned Behaviour theory, a quantitative content analysis was adopted to investigate the emotion and intentions involved in the text comments made by online users. A dual approach of both computer-assisted tools and human coding was employed to analyse the massive text data derived from Sina Weibo and ensure the accuracy and validity of the results. Altogether 545 Hong Kong-Mainland incident reports and 495,811 text comments were retrieved and analysed. Correlation tests were conducted to test the strength of the association between Chinese cyber nationalistic sentiment and contemporaneous mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong. It is clear that Chinese cyber nationalism has different levels of negative impact on potential tourists’ attitudes and travel intentions towards Hong Kong, depending on the types of Hong Kong-Mainland incidents. Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong moderately and negatively correlate with Chinese cyber nationalism, but are significantly and negatively correlated with long-term accumulated Chinese cyber nationalism.

Chapter1 Introduction

1.1 Opening remarks

According to the UNWTO (2016), Chinese outbound tourists numbers have kept up a staggering growth and played a predominant role in the global tourism industry; yet Mainland visitor arrivals in Hong Kong dropped in 2015 for the first time after steadily growing for nearly two decades (HKTb, 2016b). The down trend started at the beginning of 2015 and has lasted to most recently. Hong Kong was literally called “Fragrant Harbour” and has long enjoyed reputations such as “The Shopping Paradise” and “The Pearl of the East” among Mainland Chinese tourists. Nowadays however, the buzzwords regarding Hong Kong on the Chinese internet are replaced by “港灿”, (gang can, “shallow” Hong Kong people), “港狗/奴” (gang gou/Gang nu, Hong Kong dog/slave subservient to British feet) and “港怂” (gang song, Hong Kong people who bully Mainlanders but fear foreigners). Accordingly, in the Hong Kong online sphere, Mainland Chinese are despised as “蝗虫” (huang chong, mainland locusts), “支那人” (shina people, a derogatory appellation of Chinese first used by the Japanese) and “强国人” (strong nation people, ridiculing Mainlanders as rich but ungracious). Clearly, overheated Chinese cyber nationalism has evoked large-scale enmity towards Hong Kong. As an additional example, voices boycotting travelling to Hong Kong are regularly observed on the Chinese internet whenever an incident relating to Hong Kong is involved. The online recrimination of Hong Kong implies that the increasing Chinese cyber nationalism somehow plays a role in the fall of mainland tourist numbers to Hong Kong. So the question is, when mainland Chinese netizens express anger towards Hong Kong, are they really angry? Would they really stop visiting Hong Kong?

As a matter of fact, scholars have done considerable research to investigate nationalism and consumer behaviour, but not many have studied nationalism and tourist behaviour. A weighted study among all was Cheng and Wong’s (2014a) qualitative approach on nationalism and tourist travel intentions upon a case study of the Sino-Japan dispute. Apart from this, literature regarding nationalism and tourism

mainly focuses on the integration of nationalism into tourism, such as heritage sites. Cheng and Wong's (2014a) nationalism dynamics model illustrates that Chinese popular nationalism has a different influence on Chinese tourists' travel intentions, depending on the level of nationalism perceived by them. However, differing from popular nationalism, Chinese cyber nationalism has its own manifestation and influence on the society and has been rising rapidly accompanied by the unparalleled development of information and communication technologies (Wu, 2016). The massive online discussions regarding Hong Kong-Mainland incidents provide an ideal opportunity to investigate Chinese tourists' behaviour under Chinese cyber nationalism objectively. With commenting online being absolutely anonymous and stress-free, would tourists still hold the same opinions as they claimed in interviews? Besides, granted that Chinese cyber nationalism has a similar effect on tourists' travel intentions as Chinese popular nationalism, whether it is related to tourists' final travel decision-making and would ultimately result in visitor arrivals reduction have remained unknown. Despite the evident empirical connection between Chinese cyber nationalism and Mainland visitor arrivals in Hong Kong, no research has been conducted in regard to this problem.

1.2 Assumptions, research question and objectives

Based on the situation presented above, the author begins the research with a working hypothesis that Chinese cyber nationalism will have a negative impact on Chinese outbound tourists' attitudes and travel intentions to relevant destinations. Specifically, considering the downtrend of Mainland Chinese tourist arrivals in Hong Kong, the author also assumes that Chinese cyber nationalism is negatively correlated with tourists' decision-making, the longer Chinese cyber nationalism lasts, the stronger this negative effect will work. Accordantly, this study aims to investigate the relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and Chinese outbound tourist behaviour, in the context of Mainland Chinese travelling to Hong Kong. To be more specific, it aims to examine the relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and Chinese tourists' attitudes, travel intentions, and travel decision-making respectively. In order to achieve the aim, three major objectives will be followed:

1. To investigate the influence of Chinese cyber nationalism on potential tourists' attitudes by identifying the attitude of "angry youth" towards online Hong Kong-Mainland nationalistic event reports.
2. To examine the travel intentions towards Hong Kong indicated by the "angry youth" in the Chinese cyber nationalistic environment.
3. To test the correlation between attitudes of "angry youth" and actual Mainland tourist arrivals' fluctuation in Hong Kong.

1.3 The methodology applied

As the research question of this study is raised from literature and empirical evidence, and the objectives of this study are supposed to be achieved by testing assumptions that are led by the research question, the author regards it as positivism research, for positivist research usually commences with a hypothesis, which is deductively derived from theories and built on empirically tested facts (Jennings, 2010).

Besides, the main topic of this study – Chinese cyber nationalism and Chinese tourist arrivals – involves mass data in terms of online nationalistic arguments and tourist arrivals; thus, the author adopted a quantitative approach to examine the relationship between the two, as quantitative research is defined as "an inquiry into a social or human problems, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analysed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalisations of the theory hold true." (Creswell, 2013)

The methods employed in this research depend on the needs of the objectives. In order to investigate Chinese netizens' attitudes and travel intentions towards Hong Kong, it is essential to figure out what they are talking about and feeling. Therefore, content analysis, including sentiment analysis is introduced to sort and analyse the massive secondary data collected on the Chinese internet. As stated by (Miller, 1998), content analysis analyses the substance and form of text which reveals underlying ideas and meanings by analysing patterns within the text. In order to reveal respondents' intentions to visit Hong Kong for a particular nationalistic event, the author divides the text content of the online

comments meaningfully and calculates the frequency of key words relating travel intention as the means of measurement. Sentiment analysis is a way to discover the hidden sentiments, attitudes and emotions within written language (Liu, 2012). It has been applied by many scholars in online information source analysis to monitor or predict market trends. For example, Bollen, Mao, and Zeng (2011) studies on large-scale Twitter feeds suggest that the stock market can be driven by the emotions of market participants. In this study, the author employs a bipolar sentiment analysis to judge the emotion within a text, and to determine if the attitude towards Hong Kong held by the respondent is positive or negative, by detecting the negative words and expressions in the comment.

After this, in order to examine the strength of association between Chinese cyber nationalistic sentiment and Mainland tourist arrivals' fluctuation in Hong Kong, the author utilises the data analysis tool SPSS and conducts Pearson correlation tests. The Pearson r coefficient indicates the short-term and long-term relationship between the two variables respectively. Following this procedure, the methodology applied in this study helps to achieve the objectives and answer the research question in a proper way.

1.4 The significance of the study

Tourism in Hong Kong plays as one of the pillar industries, and Mainland tourists contribute about 2/3 of the total travel market (Qu & Lam, 1997). Since the dramatic and continuous fall of Mainland visitor numbers, the Hong Kong government has been trying to turn the tables. A series of promotions and preferential policies have been released to stimulate Mainlanders to visit Hong Kong, yet the efforts have had no evident effect so far. The findings of this study offer a new perspective for both the Hong Kong government and the rattled tourism-related sectors to look into the situation. Firstly, it helps stakeholders to find possible solutions to restore the confidence of Mainland visitors and regain their favour. Secondly, it provides the Hong Kong tourism industry a new avenue of forecasting tourist arrivals by considering Chinese cyber nationalism as a significant influential factor in the future. Moreover, it alarms government to review the Individual Visit Scheme (IVS) in terms of the mutual interactions between Mainland visitors and Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong. For other destinations, especially those that have frequent nationalistic conflicts with China, this study indicates

the dark power of Chinese cyber nationalism. It alerts these nations to take precautions against rising Chinese cyber nationalism and possible damage it may cause to the tourism industry.

Besides, in spite of the potential hazard of Chinese cyber nationalism in tourism, literature with regard to nationalism and tourism rarely involves the impact of nationalism on tourist behaviour, especially on cyber nationalism. A few have explored nationalism and tourist travel intentions, implying nationalism has an influence on tourists' travel intentions, but none of them has examined the influence of Chinese cyber nationalism on tourists' pre-travel behaviour, including tourist attitudes, intentions, and decision-making. Thus, the findings of this study would fill a gap in the current literature, and shed a light for future studies regarding cyber nationalism and tourist behaviour, as well as tourist arrival forecasting.

1.5 The outline of the study

This study is comprised of six chapters, including introduction, background, literature review, methodology, findings, discussion and the conclusion. Following this chapter, Chapter 2 demonstrates the background of the research topic, giving a thorough understanding of Chinese nationalism, the development of Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong and current problems it has caused to the Hong Kong tourism industry; as well as an explanation of mainland tourists travelling to Hong Kong. Chapter 3 reviews the relevant literature in regard to Chinese cyber nationalism, consumer behaviour and nationalism in tourism. A great many existing studies provide a conceptual foundation to explain the characteristics of Chinese cyber nationalism, the influence of nationalism on consumer behaviour and also offer the current academic views of Chinese nationalism in tourism. Apart from identifying research gaps in this study area, the literature also offers a sound base to build a tailored conceptual framework that suits this study. Chapter 4 presents a detailed description of the research methodology. The research paradigm, context, sampling, data collection and data analysis methods are all explained in this section. Chapter 5 first presents the findings through the research process. Patterns of mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong, potential tourists' attitudes and travel intentions and Pearson correlation test results are all presented in this chapter. Following each section of the findings, the author discusses them thoroughly around the research question and compares them with relevant literature.

Chapter 6 summarises and concludes the outcomes from this research and points out the limitations, as well as the implications for future study. It also reports the contributions of this study, to both the theoretical environment and practical perspectives of the tourism industry.

Chapter2 Background

2.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the background of both Chinese tourists to Hong Kong and emerging Chinese nationalism. It first starts with the loss and return history of Hong Kong, the origin and development of Mainland Chinese tourists to Hong Kong, as well as the formation of Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong. It then introduces the development of Mainland Chinese travelling to Hong Kong and the current situation. Lastly, it ends by presenting the history of Chinese nationalism's impact on Chinese outbound tourism, indicating the remarkable power of Chinese nationalism.

The rise of China has greatly influenced world tourism trends and Hong Kong undoubtedly has gained the most from this market growth. Nevertheless, the overwhelming Mainland tourists have also caused a large amount of problems to Hong Kong society, and have gradually resulted in a series of nationalistic conflicts. Additionally, in this information era, netizens from both sides have created new battles on the internet, which consequently fostered extensive Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong, and in return has brought unprecedented loss to the tourism industry in Hong Kong.

2.2 From poor sibling to rich relative – The loss and return of Hong Kong

Unlike most territories of China, Hong Kong had an extraordinary development history with being colonised by both Britain and Japan for a total of 155 years. Hong Kong is known as “fragrant harbour” in the Chinese language. It has been part of China since 214 BC in the Qin dynasty, where it used to be a place famous for salt-producing and fishing. After the First Opium War, Hong Kong became a British colony in 1842. In early times, Hong Kong was mainly treated as a place for opium trade. Later on, under the reign of Britain, it developed into an important trade hub between Mainland China and South-east Asian countries. In 1941, Japan attacked Hong Kong and took it over from Britain until 1945 when it came back to British control (Choi, Chan, & Wu, 1999). The development of Hong Kong was

completely broken off during this period. At that time, for Mainland Chinese people, Hong Kong was a poor adopted sibling.

However, things changed dramatically after the foundation of the People's Republic of China in 1949. Firstly, the United Nations issued an embargo on China because of the 1950s Korean War. Meanwhile, Sino-phobic (anti-Chinese sentiment) activities were widely held in South-east Asian countries. China was forced to stop all trade activities with South-east countries until 1978 when Deng Xiaoping started the far-sighted Chinese Economic Reform. During this period, a large number of Chinese capitalists in South-east Asian countries transferred their funds from these countries to Hong Kong and Singapore. Thus, Hong Kong transferred from a trade port to a manufacturing city and gradually became an international finance centre. Hong Kong people also gained a much higher living standard than those in Mainland China. The per capita GDP of Hong Kong even caught up with Britain in 1987. Moreover, from 1987 to 1997, Hong Kong stepped into being one of the wealthiest Asian countries. The per capita GDP of Hong Kong ranked in the top 10 worldwide (Lane, 1990; Liu, 1997). But fortune did not help Hong Kong people to worry less about the upcoming regime change. In the early 1980s, China and Britain started to discuss the transfer of government. Hong Kong was finally transferred to China in 1997 as a special administrative region of China. Since then, for Mainland Chinese, the poor sibling had grown into a rich relative.

2.3 From Paradise to Heaven – The rise and fall of Mainland visitors to Hong Kong

At the time Hong Kong came back to China, it had already been developed as a well-known international travel destination. Hong Kong ranked as the second most popular tourist destination in Asia in 1999, after Mainland China (Song, Wong, & Chon, 2003). There were 10.7 million visitor arrivals in 1999, about 1.5 times the total population of Hong Kong, and representing an increase of 11.5% over the previous year. The total tourism receipts amounted to US\$6.8 billion. Thus, the tourism sector became one of the major business sectors in Hong Kong, which provided nearly 5% of Hong Kong's GDP and employed 350,000 people as early as 1999 (Zhang & Chow, 2004).

As a free trade port with low tax, Hong Kong enjoyed a reputation as a “Shopping Paradise”. For Mainlanders, Hong Kong was even a mystery for its unique geographic location and colonisation history. People from Mainland China were full of curiosity about Hong Kong and yearned for this wonderland. As a means of Chinese governmental control, travelling to Hong Kong in the beginning was not extensively opened (Zhang, Chong, & Ap, 1999). Back to 1987, only 7-night 8-day package sightseeing tours were introduced to Hong Kong. Besides, Mainland tourists were required to have relatives in Hong Kong who could act as both sponsors and guarantors for their trips. Later, in 1993, a relatively slack policy allowed tourists to stay in Hong Kong for no more than seven days on a transit visa-free basis, as long as they held a valid passport and a return ticket or a ticket to a third country (Song et al., 2003). Nevertheless, the controlling to some extent has helped make Hong Kong even more attractive. For instance, in the study regarding motivation of Mainlanders visiting Hong Kong, Hanqin and Lam (1999) argued that the restriction upon Mainlanders visiting Hong Kong made travelling to Hong Kong a prestige perceived by Mainlanders. According to a report by the Hong Kong Tourist Association (HKTB, 2016a), there had been a shift of market segment from Western markets to Asian markets in Hong Kong’s tourism industry. Among all the major tourism source markets of Hong Kong, Mainland China had surpassed Japan, Taiwan and the USA, becoming the single largest market for Hong Kong tourism. More than 3 million Mainland Chinese visited Hong Kong in 1999, accounting for 29% of the total arrivals. They spent about HK\$13,477 million, which was 26% of the total visitor spending in Hong Kong in 1999.

For Mainlanders, travelling to Hong Kong became easier only after the implementation of the Individual Visit Scheme (IVS) policy. The scheme was released in 2003 and pushed Chinese Mainland tourist arrivals to Hong Kong to an unprecedented high level. The IVS began on 28 July 2003, and allowed travellers from Mainland China to visit Hong Kong and Macau on an individual basis (Ye, Zhang, Shen, & Goh, 2014). The IVS was mainly created as a coping strategy for the catastrophic Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) infection. The tourism industry in Hong Kong was adversely affected by the outbreak of the fatal infection disease SARS from March to June 2003, which resulted in a sharp drop in the number of both Mainland and overseas visitors, to an unparalleled low level. The main

reason for launching the IVS was to boost the economy of Hong Kong and Macau. Under the initial stage of the scheme, residents of Beijing, Shanghai and eight Guangdong provincial cities could apply for visas to visit the two Special Administrative Regions individually. The scheme was extended to all 21 cities of Guangdong province, and to nine other cities in Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Fujian provinces in July 2004. The permits, issued by the Public Security Bureau of PRC, were valid for seven days and could be applied for again upon return from Hong Kong to the Mainland. The scheme brought an immediate surge in the number of Mainland visitors, as is shown in Figure 2.1. In the short period from 28 July to 4 November 2003, more than 600,000 individuals in the Mainland applied for permits and 450,000 permits were issued. The number of Mainland visitors to Hong Kong reached 12 million in 2004 (HKTb, 2016b). Later, as a means of opposing the Global Financial Crisis of 2007-08, Hong Kong launched the “Multiple Entry Permit” towards Guangdong residents. This new permit allowed tourists from Guangdong province to stay in Hong Kong for a maximum of seven days per time without limitation of entry times within a single year (Shen, Luo, & Zhao, 2016). This policy has significantly stimulated tourist arrivals from Guangdong, many Guangdong residents going to Hong Kong more than 10 times per month.

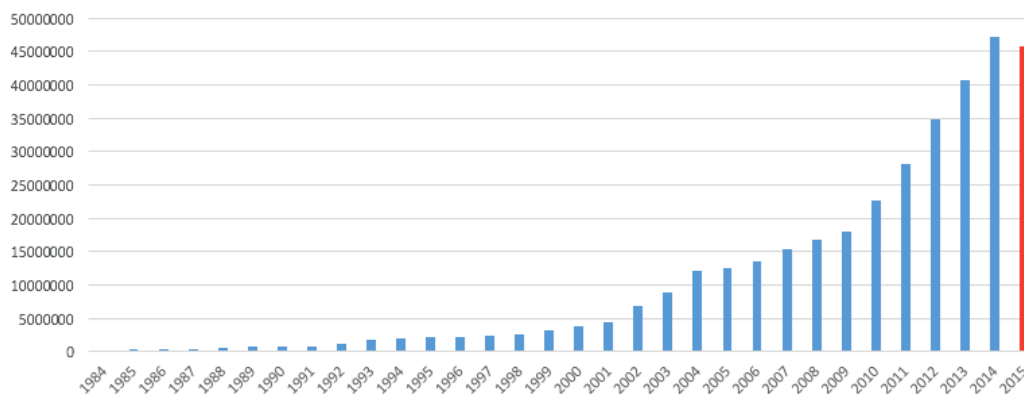


Figure 2.1. Mainland Chinese tourist arrivals in Hong Kong (1984-2015)

Note. Data is retrieved and adapted from Hong Kong Annual Digest of Statistics (HKCSD, 2016).

From January 2009 to December 2014, monthly Mainland tourist arrivals to Hong Kong went up sharply. The total number of visitors also kept on rising yearly and reached a peak of 47 million in 2014, which was almost four times more than that in 2004 and nearly seven times larger than the total Hong Kong population (HKTb, 2016b). Meanwhile, there were 107 million Chinese Mainlanders travelling

abroad in the same year (Chen, Li, Zhang, & Hu, 2016). In other words, almost half of the Chinese tourists went to Hong Kong that year.

The Visitor Profile Report 2015 published by the Hong Kong Tourism Board (2016a) draws the outline of Mainland Chinese tourists' characteristics. The following figure shows that Chinese Mainland tourists shared the biggest part of the total Hong Kong inbound tourism market, with a remarkable share of 77% (Figure 2.2).

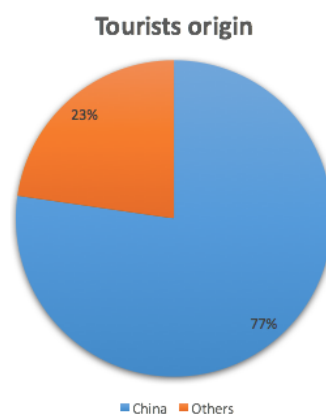


Figure 2.2. International tourist market share of Hong Kong.

Note. Data is retrieved and adapted from Hong Kong Annual Digest of Statistics (HKCSD, 2016)

Generally, Chinese female visitors favoured Hong Kong more than males (61:39). Compared with the worldwide level (57:43), Mainland Chinese female tourists are even more likely to visit Hong Kong (Figure 2.3).

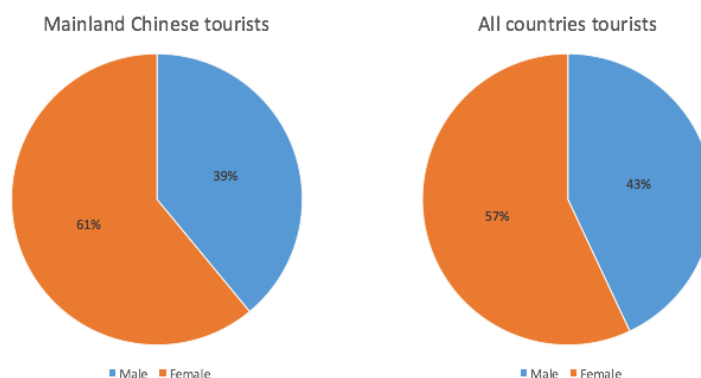


Figure 2.3. Gender distribution of tourists to Hong Kong (Mainland China vs All counties).

Note. Data is retrieved and adapted from Hong Kong Annual Digest of Statistics (HKCSD, 2016)

Tourists from Mainland China are relatively young. People aged 16-55 are the major components of Mainland tourists to Hong Kong. Besides, people aged 26-35 share almost one-third of the total number (Figure 2.4).

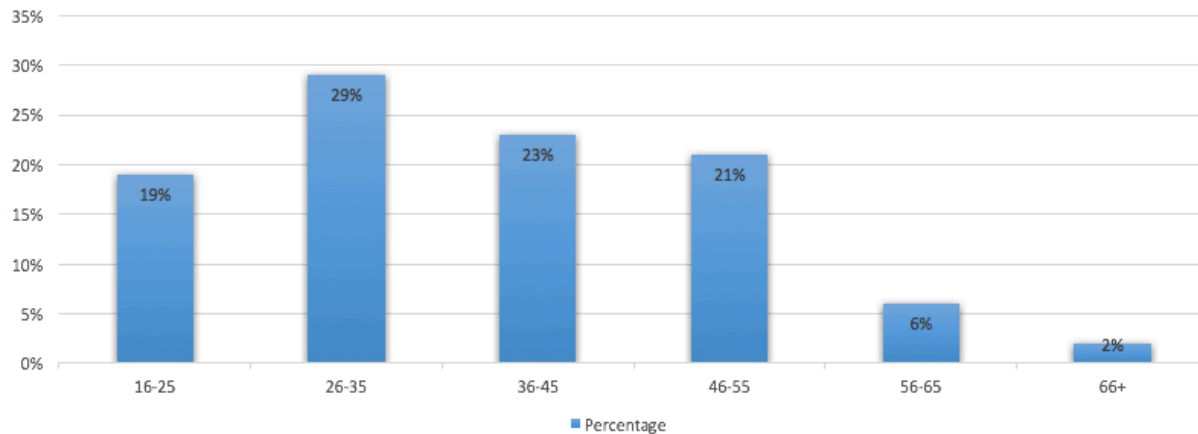


Figure 2.4. Age distribution of Chinese mainland tourists to Hong Kong.
Note. Data is retrieved and adapted from Hong Kong Annual Digest of Statistics (HKCSD, 2016)

The origin of Mainland tourists is quite extensive. Visitors to Hong Kong cover all the provinces of Mainland China. Figure 2.5 shows the general image of the geographic distribution of Mainland tourists to Hong Kong. The darker an area is, the more tourists are from that province. According to the figure, tourists from Guangdong comprise the biggest part of all visitors from Mainland China with a share of 55.3% (HKTB, 2016a). Other provinces make up the other half. Among all the other areas, the capital Beijing and the South-east part of China including Shanghai, Zhejiang, Jiangsu and Fujian have many more tourists than the rest of China, which is consistent with the priority of these provinces in terms of the IVS.

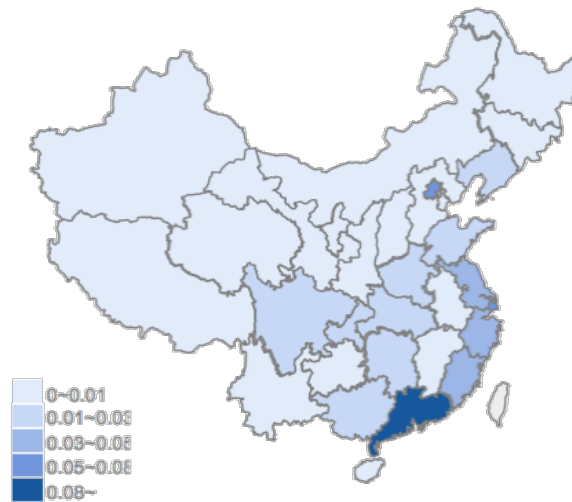


Figure 2.5. Geographic distribution of Chinese Mainland tourists to Hong Kong

Note. Data is retrieved and adapted from Hong Kong Annual Digest of Statistics (HKCSD, 2016). The darker an area is, the more tourists are from that province.

As for tourists' purchasing behaviour, Mainland tourists spent 7,924 USD on average for their trip to Hong Kong (HKCSD, 2016). Shopping is regarded as the most popular activity among Mainland tourists. According to the HK Annual Digest Statistics (2016), 88% of Mainland tourists have shopping experience in Hong Kong, spending 68.8% of all expenses on shopping, which is a bit higher than the overall average level. Compared to all counties, Mainland tourists are more likely to choose Hong Kong as a single destination (80% vs 67%). Mainland tourists spent 3.3 days in Hong Kong on average, and 80% of them are multiple visitors.

In short, ever since the return of Hong Kong to the People's Republic of China, Mainland visitor arrivals in Hong Kong had increased rapidly and steadily until 2015 (Figure 2.1). However, this picture of prosperity in tourism was turned around in 2015 and Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong has kept on dropping since the beginning of this year, and went even lower after a Mainland tourist was beaten to death in Hong Kong caused by forced shopping at the end of this year. Figure 2.6 presents a visual display of the trend of tourist arrivals from January 2012 to March 2016. It is clear to see that the overall monthly tourist arrival growth rate is going down, which means the growth of Mainland tourists to Hong Kong has slowed during the past years, and has stopped growing since 2015. In fact, from the beginning of 2015, overwhelming messages regarding the huge reduction of Mainland Chinese visitor numbers to Hong Kong during major Chinese holidays have been reported by the major renowned news

agencies including the BBC (2015b), CNN (2015) and Wall Street (2015). An identical theme within the reports indicates that Chinese tourists are losing confidence in Hong Kong. Although media discussed the phenomenon from different perspectives, they invariably cited the increasing number of Hong Kong-Mainland conflicts as the prime culprit.

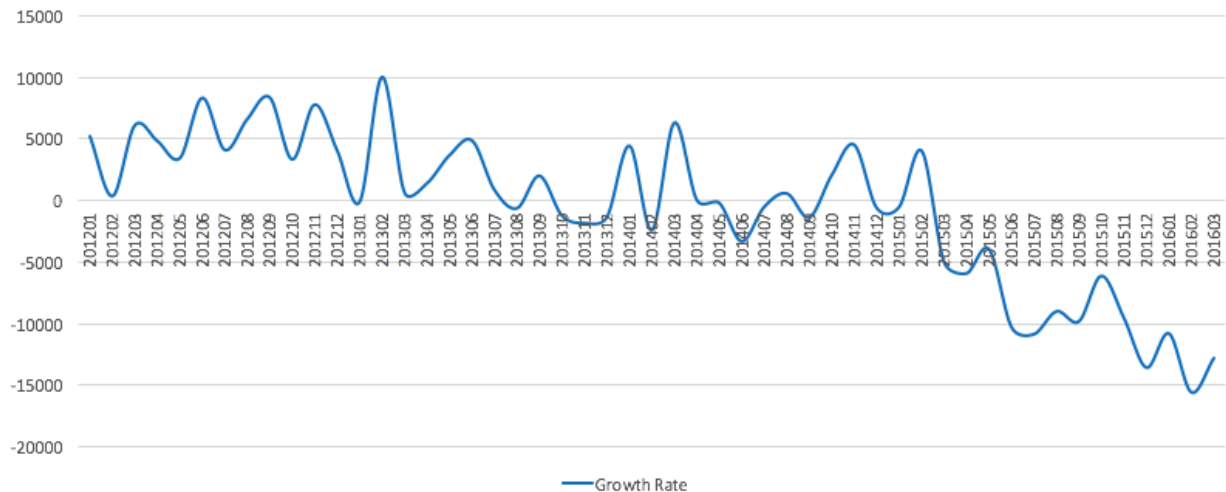


Figure 2.6. Monthly growth rate tendency of Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong
Note. Data is retrieved and adapted from Hong Kong Annual Digest of Statistics (HKCSD, 2016). Monthly tourist growth rate is calculated based on the current month arrivals and the arrivals in the same month of the previous year. Value Below zero means the current month arrivals are less than the previous year.

2.4 “One country, two systems” – The Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong

Gellner and Breuilly (2008) argued in their research that nationalism is always raised by conflicts in politics, economy, culture and society. Hong Kong is different from Mainland China in all four aspects. As more and more Mainland visitors came to Hong Kong, the differences gradually turned into conflicts between the two areas.

Politically speaking, Hong Kong used to be a British dependent territory located in southern China, with a population of approximately 6.5 million. Its total land area of 1076 km² is made up of three distinct parts: Hong Kong Island, ceded to the British in perpetuity in 1842; the Kowloon peninsula, ceded in 1860 and the New Territories, coming under British control according to the terms of a 99-year lease agreed with China in 1898. Each of the three parts of Hong Kong came under British control

following minor Sino-British wars and consequently the legitimacy of Britain's sovereignty has always been contested by China, although that country has never taken any concrete steps to retrieve control. The terms agreed between Chinese and British governments for the transfer of Hong Kong included a series of guarantees for the maintenance of Hong Kong's different economic, political and legal systems after the transfer, and the further development of Hong Kong's political system with a goal of democratic government. Initially, the Hong Kong people were enthusiastic about Hong Kong's return to China under the "One country, two systems" policy (Leung, 2016). Nevertheless, tension has arisen between Hong Kong residents and the Mainlanders since 1997. The Hong Kong government has implemented some controversial policies, such as the IVS and the Guangzhou-Shenzhen-Hong Kong Express Rail Link. Hung (2014) argues that since the Hong Kong government failed to force through legislation to implement Article 23 of the Basic Law, Beijing's relatively hands-off approach to Hong Kong changed dramatically. The PRC's strategy became aimed at trying to dissolve the city-state boundary of Hong Kong in the name of economic rejuvenation and ostensibly to strengthen socio-economic ties with the mainland. The Chinese government has adopted increasingly strong rhetoric perceived to be attacking Hong Kong's political and legal systems, such as releasing a report in 2014 asserting that Hong Kong's judiciary should be subordinate to, and not independent of, the government. The Basic Law and the Sino-British Joint Declaration guarantee the development of Hong Kong's electoral system towards universal suffrage, but the electoral system offered to Hong Kong by the central government in 2014-2015 was widely perceived as falling short of being genuinely democratic. On the economic front, both benefits and costs of the ever-increasing Mainland tourists are perceived by Hong Kong residents (Siu, Lee, & Leung, 2013). It is widely agreed that Mainland tourists generate significant revenues to the tourism-related industry including hotels, restaurants and especially the retailing industry. Meanwhile, they also help to create more employment opportunities in the relevant industries. Besides, Mainland tourists facilitate the improvement of the infrastructure and transportation network of the city, and indirectly offer more recreational facilities for locals. On the other hand, local residents also believe that the influx of Mainland tourists raises the cost of living for them. Thus, they

tend to blame Mainlanders for the loss of resources, as well as the loss of the Hong Kong cultural character and reputation of the city.

In the social-cultural field, Hong Kong has more international cultural values from its past as a British colony and international city, and at the same time has retained many traditional Chinese cultural values, putting it in stark contrast to the culture of many parts of Mainland China, where many international cultural values have never taken root and where many traditional cultural values have been lost. Hong Kong is also a multi-ethnic society with different cultural values in relation to race, languages and cultures to those held by the Chinese government and many Mainland residents. As a highly developed economy with a high standard of living, Hong Kong culture has different values in relation to hygiene and social propriety compared to some parts of Mainland China. In a research on Hong Kong residents' perceptions toward the Chinese tourists, Siu et al. (2013) argued that Hong Kong people hold no particular views on benefits brought by Mainland tourists in terms of social-cultural perspectives. In contrast, local residents believe tourists from Mainland China cause a series of negative impacts including negatively affecting the product availability for them, degrading their social status, lowering the pride of being local, negatively affecting the public order of the city and making local people frustrated with their improper manners.

In conclusion, it is clear that the increasing number of Mainland visitors has aggravated the conflicts caused by cultural differences between Mainlanders and Hong Kong people. Additionally, the central government policies and conflict associated with issues regarding the allocation of resources between Mainlanders and Hong Kong people in different sectors such as healthcare and education, have made this situation even more intense. Thus, a series of nationalistic incidents have occurred, and have been widely spread and discussed on the Internet of both sides.

2.4.1 “Dogs” vs “Locusts”

In March 2010, Lee Qiaozhen, a Hong Kong tour guide abused a “Lingtuanfei” (zero fee tour package) tour group on a bus after feeling dissatisfied with the group's shopping ability. She threatened to lock all the doors of the hotel rooms if the tourists refused to buy more in the next shop. Her behaviour was

camera shot by one of the tourists and the video was then put on a popular Chinese video-sharing website. The event was first only spread on the Internet, but four months later it got reported by Chinese television and became the headline of many Hong Kong newspapers. She was described as “Ugly Zhen” in many of the reports on both sides (Zhang & Chow, 2004). Coincidentally, on 5 February 2011, Lee Rurong, another Hong Kong tour guide, had a quarrel with three Mainland tourists. Lee verbally insulted the tourists for not buying at a jewellery store, referring to them as “dogs”. The tourists were dissatisfied and this eventually turned into a fight. Lee and the three tourists were arrested by the police for physical assault (China.com, 2011). This issue was widely reported by Chinese media including the official CCTV channel which commented on the incident as a “Tourism scandal”. Lee was recognised as “another version of Ugly Zhen” in the reports. The reports hugely harmed Hong Kong’s tourist-friendly image. However, this time, Hong Kong newspapers argued that the so-called victim Zhang Yong had threatened a local travel agency for compensation as much as RMB 120,000. Instead of condemning the tour guide, Hong Kong newspapers labelled the Mainland tourist as a “Travel bully” (Daily, 2011). This dramatic finding resulted in fierce arguments between Mainlanders and Hong Kong people.

Later in January 2012, Peking University professor Kong Qingdong made remarks on an Internet television talk show suggesting that many Hong Kong people were disloyal to China and still harboured a colonial mentality. Professor Kong called Hong Kong people “dogs” in response to an online video posted about a Mainland Chinese child eating on the subway, which is prohibited by MTR regulations. This prompted a series of campaigns against Kong Qingdong and Peking University on the Hong Kong internet. About 150 people gathered at the Central Government Liaison Office on 22 January to protest Kong's remarks (Shen et al., 2016). The protest took place as the backdrop of increasing tensions between native Hong Kong people and Mainlanders, including the release of a survey indicating that Hong Kong people felt increasingly separate from, and superior to, Mainland Chinese people. At the time of the protest, anti-Mainland Chinese sentiment in Hong Kong had been growing because of the large influx of Mainland Chinese mothers arriving in Hong Kong to give birth, largely for their children to receive the right of abode in Hong Kong and the social services that came with it (anchor babies). In

response to the “dog” insinuation, Hong Kong people used “locusts” to describe Mainlanders, mainly referring to the anchor babies issue.

2.4.2 Anchor babies in Hong Kong

In recent years till 2012, the number of anchor babies in Hong Kong had been increasing along with the fast growing Mainland visitors (pregnant Mainland women seeking to give birth in Hong Kong, specifically to benefit from the right of abode). Their parents came from the Mainland to give birth in Hong Kong, which resulted in their children gaining the right to abode and enjoy social welfare in the city. Hong Kong citizens expressed concerns that the pregnant women and anchor babies put a heavier burden on Hong Kong's medical system. Some of them even called Mainlanders "locusts" which take away Hong Kong's resources from locals. Over 170,000 new births in Hong Kong where both parents were Mainlanders happened between 2001 to 2011, of which 32,653 were born in 2010 (Sautman & Yan, 2015).

CY Leung's first public announcement on policy as Chief Executive-elect was to impose a 'zero' quota on Mainland mothers giving birth in Hong Kong. Leung further underlined that those who did may not be able to secure the right of abode for their offspring in Hong Kong. On 16 February 2014, Hong Kong netizens organised a “Drive the locusts away” rally. Hundreds of protestors holding protest signs saying “Reduce individual travel, let go of Hong Kong residents” and “Locusts come to Hong Kong to loot infant formula, Hong Kong babies have to eat flour”, crying that Mainland tourists occupied Hong Kong living space and resources (Sautman & Yan, 2015). While some of the Chinese were busy giving birth in Hong Kong, others were taking advantage by smuggling goods from Hong Kong to Mainland China.

2.4.3 Anti-parallel traders, Anti-individual visit

Since 2005, the exchange rate of the RMB moved up sharply in terms of the HKD and USD. The same imported goods in Hong Kong were sold much cheaper than those in Mainland China. This pushed Hong Kong to be a popular shopping destination to Mainlanders and also drove parallel trading. As

Mainland customs had a limitation of tax-free merchandise under the value of 5000 RMB, parallel traders carried popular merchandise from Hong Kong to the Mainland one by one, which was called “Ant moving” by the media (news, 2010).

In April 2009, the policy of unlimited travel permits to Hong Kong within a single year was officially issued and more and more Guangdong residents engaged in parallel trading as their job. Since 2012, there has been a vertiginous increase in Mainland parallel traders coming to the northern parts of Hong Kong to import goods and export them back to the Mainland. Products that are popular among these traders include infant formula, household products and electronic products. For example, a smuggler intercepted at the Chinese customs was found to be carrying 146 iPhones hidden under their clothes (news, 2015).

As a result of shortages of milk powder in Hong Kong for an extended time, the government imposed restrictions on the amount of milk powder exports from Hong Kong. Besides, the local prices in some districts close to the Hong Kong-Mainland border were boosted. This resulted in discontent from nearby residents and eventually caused the first anti-parallel trading protest – “Reclaim Sheung Shui” on 15 September 2012. This rally was initiated on Facebook. Around 50 protesters, angry at the influx of Mainland parallel traders, gathered outside Sheung Shui Station where a parallel goods distribution centre frequently operated. Similar protests took place frequently in the days and months that followed, until 2015. On 8 February 2015, hundreds of protesters chanted slogans at awaiting passengers at Tuen Mun B3X bus stop, and marched along the route of the B3X from Tuen Mun town centre to Shenzhen Bay border crossing. One month later, around one hundred protesters marched in shopping mall V City. They turned to the pharmacies along Yan Ching Street and pulled down the goods. Then, they went to the B3X bus stop and tried to use barriers to block the road. Some Mainland tourists were surrounded and scolded by protesters.

In Sha Tin, on 15 February 2015, around two hundred protesters gathered at the MTR Sha Tin Station and chanted their slogans at New Town Plaza. The tensions and scolding between the demonstrators and Mainland tourists and the intervention of police officers caused the protest to turn into a conflict. The protest was initiated by nativist activists and a related Facebook page called it “Reclaim Hong

Kong, Defend The Local" and aimed at expressing resentment towards parallel traders and inclinations of the shopping mall to Mainland tourists.

During the Tuen Mun and Sha Tin demonstrations, the initial protest slogans soon changed from anti-parallel traders to anti-Individual Visit Scheme. Protesters flocked to shopping malls and yelled "Chinese go back to China" to Mainland tourists (Figure 2.7). The events were widely reported by both Mainland and Hong Kong media, notably reproduced extensively by Chinese micro-blogs and BBSs, resulting in another round of disappointment towards Hong Kong among Mainlanders. On 1 March 2015, a new protest called "Liberate Yuen Long" occurred from MTR Long Ping Station to the downtown Yuen Long. The protest was launched by two nativist groups which demanded an abolition of the multiple-entry permit plan in the IVS.



Figure 2.7. Hong Kong protestor holding "Chinese go back to China!"

Note. Photo is retrieved from The sun (2015).

The series of protests have already significantly affected Mainland tourists' impression of Hong Kong, but a worse thing happened in late 2015. A 53-year-old Mainland tourist, Miao, was beaten to death in Hong Kong after becoming involved in a forced-shopping dispute (BBC, 2015a). On 18 October 2015, Miao and his female colleague Zhang arrived in Hong Kong with a tour group. The day after, the group was taken to a jewellery shop where they were expected to buy. Miao and Zhang did not spend money because they thought the jewellery was overpriced. The tour leader had an argument with them. Miao

was trying to mediate but they later got into a fight during which Miao was dragged outside and beaten unconscious by a gang of four men. Miao was certified dead after being sent to hospital.

Miao's death immediately prompted calls for a boycott of travel to Hong Kong on the Chinese internet. For example, two weeks before this, the tourist issue "Qsingtiao sky-high priced shrimp" became a hot topic on Chinese social media websites. After the death of Miao in Hong Kong, Chinese netizens compared the two disputes mocking "Qsingtiao only cheats tourist, Hong Kong kills tourist" and "In shopping paradise, shop or go to heaven". Some commented "Forced-shopping has long existed in Mainland China, but has never made a tourist dead. What's wrong with Hong Kong?" Thus, online protests against Hong Kong were widely supported by Chinese netizens. Cyber protests were carried out one by one on the Chinese internet through SNS and BBS websites, and the main stream was to boycott travelling to Hong Kong.

In summary, the return and opening of Hong Kong has attracted millions of Chinese Mainland visitors annually. The floods of visitors have not only brought benefits but also serious social-cultural conflicts between Mainlanders and Hong Kong residents. These conflicts had triggered strong dissatisfaction among Hong Kong residents which made Mainlanders the target for hatred, and resulted in mass nationalistic discussion in online communities which eventually turned into protests against Mainland visitors. In response, these conflicts, accompanied by the breakneck development of ICT, gradually evolved into extensive Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong. In other words, the Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong was mainly raised by the problems caused by the influx of Mainland tourists to Hong Kong. In return, the increase of this sentiment has begun to suppress the development of the Mainland tourist market. Nevertheless, the current situation of Hong Kong is not caused by accident. In fact, for a long time, the history of Chinese nationalism has proved its mighty power time after time.

2.5 The flourishing of Chinese cyber nationalism

The boycott of travelling to Hong Kong resulting from strong nationalistic sentiment in the Chinese online sphere was absolutely not the first time. Indeed, the concept of “Chinese cyber nationalism” first came to the public formally in 2003 (Di & Yuxi, 2006). It has never stopped making trouble between China and other countries, although the name has only been formally mentioned in recent years (Jun Wang, 2006). The origin of the Chinese cyber nationalism movement can be traced back to the 1990s when China first introduced the Internet. Since 1994, the rapid growth of the Internet has changed the ways of information sharing and communicating in China. The development of ICT makes it much easier for people to create and share ideas online while being anonymous. As nationalism is highly politically sensitive and China has long been seen as a nation with limited freedom of speech (Hyun & Kim, 2015), the Internet therefore provided a perfect venue for Chinese nationalists to make their voices heard and be safe meantime.

During the 1990s, Chinese nationalism was mainly pointed to the United States. In 1995, when Taiwan’s political leader Lee Teng-hui visited the United States, two of the most famous campus online bulletin board systems (BBSs) at that time, Peking University’s “Weiming BBS” and Tsinghua University’s “Shuimu Tsinghua BBS”, were filled with angry protests and belligerent rhetoric. In August 1996, such an inflammatory and infectious sentiment quickly reached its tipping point when a Japanese right-wing group erected a buoy on Senkaku Islands (Diaoyu Islands in Chinese), a disputed territory claimed by both China and Japan. The BBS discussants began to mobilise a nationalist demonstration against the Japanese aggression, in the face of official objection and the university’s persuasion (Qiu, 1999). An anti-ethnic Chinese riot occurred in May 1998 in Indonesia triggering the first large-scale online attack launched by Chinese nationalist groups. Under the guidance of a self-organized “Chinese Hacker Emergency Meeting Centre,” as many as 3,000 enraged Chinese hackers participated in massive trash e-mail attacks on Indonesia’s governmental websites at all levels (Min, 2005). The following stories show that Chinese cyber nationalism is always provoked by nationalistic incidents and gives immeasurable destructive power to the corresponding parties.

2.5.1 “No TOEFL, no GRE, concentrated on fighting back the U.S.”

On 7 May 1999, less than 12 hours after the NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation) bombing of the Chinese embassy in Belgrade, the website of the United States embassy in China had been hacked multiple times by Chinese hackers. Several days later, a spokesman for the U.S. National Security Council said that the White House site had been knocked out for the first time by the unusual volume of correspondence. It was estimated that a total of 700 American governmental, educational and military web sites fell prey to Chinese web hackers' nationalistic anger in the days following the embassy bombing (Min, 2005). On 9 May 1999, two days after the bombing, the Chinese Communist Party's (CCP) controlled news website, People.cn, created a new forum called “Outcry Against NATO's Outrage BBS”. It was then renamed as “Qiangguo Luntan” (strong China forum). This was the first official nationalistic forum founded in China and it soon gained huge attention among Chinese worldwide. Messages denouncing the USA were produced on BBS such as official Qiangguo forum and independent Tianya BBS, and then spread among the public through instant messaging software services like Tencent QQ. This has resulted in massive demonstrations against the USA in major Chinese cities. The demonstration lasted for four days until the Chinese government called a halt.

Later, in 2001, after the collision of an American spy plane with a Chinese fighter jet in the South China Sea, the cyber conflicts between the U.S. hacker groups and Chinese hackers once again reached a climax. An estimated 80,000 Chinese web users took part in this so-called “self-defence war,” an online conflict which The New York Times (2001) named the “World Wide Web War I.”

Despite the large scale cyber wars and massive demonstrations, no obvious boycott remarks regarding tourism were found in the events. This was mostly because outbound tourism in China was just at its infant stage at that time and travelling to America was quite a luxury that most people could not afford. However, the slogan of the protest “No TOEFL, no GRE, concentrated on fighting back the U.S.”, to some extent indicated the public thoughts of anti-visiting America (Nbweekly, 2008). Besides, the Chinese government also started to realise the unpredictable power of cyber nationalism, and had begun to strengthen information censorship on the Internet since then. In spite of the “barbaric” raid, after the 9/11 terrorist attacks on the United States, the Sino-US relationship improved at the beginning of the

21st century. Anti-USA sentiment was no longer the mainstream of Chinese nationalism. Instead, the main nationalistic sentiment has switched to two kinds of nations: countries that used to invade China and those supporting Tibet, Xinjiang and Taiwan independence. Among all this, anti-Japanese sentiment became the most predominant nationalistic theme in China's online sphere.

2.5.2 “Never travel to Japan, never be a Hanjian.”

Compared to the United States, the Sino-Japan relationship is much tenser because of Japan's invasion history since 1894. The invasion and the wars have outraged mass enmity among Chinese people and have generated popular nationalism towards Japan. Although the Sino-Japan relationship has returned to normal gradually with the development of the globalisation of the world economy, periodical historical incidents and disputes between the two countries make this relationship quite unstable.

Back to 2005, a series of Chinese demonstrations against Japan burst out in China. They were sparked off by a number of nationalistic issues, including the approval of a Japanese history textbook in which Japan denied the history of invading China, as well as the proposal that Japan be granted a permanent seat on the United Nations Security Council (He, 2007). From March to April, demonstrations were organised in sixteen cities in China. The most popular campaign on the Internet was “Patriotism is not a sin”, which can be seen as a response to the criticism of “Claiming patriotism but actually harming China” in the 2003 Shinkansen express railway argument. Meanwhile, online opinion leaders created seditious articles regarding the humiliating history of Japan's invasion to China, with the conclusion of boycotting Japanese products and expanded to Japan travel products. These articles were rapidly forwarded through QQ group chat and other online platforms, normally with the prefix title “Repost/forward this, or you're not Chinese”. News reports showed that the online anti-Japan sentiment has resulted in serious anti-travelling to Japanese activities. Very few tourists choose to go to Japan during the “May 1st Golden Week”, which is a long Chinese public holiday that is one of the busiest times for the travel industry (Sina News, 2005).

Later, in 2010, another round of demonstrations toward Japan arose in China. This was caused by the “Senkaku boat collision incident”. The Senkaku islands (Diaoyu islands in Chinese) are offshore islands

near Taiwan, and have been the subject of territorial dispute between China and Japan. The collision, and Japan's subsequent detention of the Chinese skipper resulted in a major diplomatic dispute between China and Japan. The voice of boycotting Japanese products flooded on the Internet again. At that time, social media had grown prosperously in China. The absolute eye catcher among them was a micro-blog named Sina Weibo released by Sina Company in 2009. People can post characters, photos and even videos on it, as well as forward others' posts and comment on. The most popular online slogan in this campaign was "Japan get out of Diaoyu islands". This time, Chinese cyber nationalism brought a huge impact on China's outbound tourism to Japan. For example, a large fast-moving consumer goods producer in China put a bold slogan on their website saying "Solemn statement: protest against Japan!! 10,000 tour group cancelled." They cancelled a large incentive trip (10,000 people) to Japan a month before the planned departure, although they had prepared this trip for more than a year and had paid millions in prepayments (Boxun B. News, 2010). On Tianya BBS, radical nationalists accused those who planned to travel to Japan as "Hanjian" (traitor to China), as they claimed "Patriotism is boycotting Japanese products and Japan tours" (Tianya, 2010).

Only two years later, in 2012, a new round of incidents related to the Senkaku islands occurred. Japan's Prime Minister, Yoshihiko Noda, expressed his consideration for the Japanese government to buy the disputed islands. In response to this, netizens in Mainland China called for a nationwide protest against Japan on August 19. On the Internet, Chinese netizens call for a boycott of all Japanese brands and travelling to Japan. This time, there were many more slogans and the nationalists were more extreme, such as "Diaoyu islands belong to China", "Kill all Japanese regardless of the price" and "Reclaim Diaoyu islands even if it takes China into barren land". The Chinese Academy of Social Science did research on Chinese public opinion on the Internet in 2012 (People.cn, 2012). They selected three Bulletin boards, two micro-blogs and two Social Network Services to analyse the hot online topics of 2012. The result shows that the most popular Chinese online event/topic of 2012 is "Diaoyu islands and anti-Japan demonstration" with more than 177 million posts, which is far more than the secondary topic "London Olympiad" that had about 75 million posts.

Following the boycott waves, Chinese tourists once again began to cancel trips to Japan. Moreover, this time, according to eTN Global Travel Industry news (2012), travel agents in China also started to boycott Japan by stopping organising tours to Japan. For example, China Comfort Travel Group Co Ltd, one of the leading Chinese travel agencies, announced that its 220 branches and 5,500 offices across the country had stopped organising tours to Japan since September. Most travel agencies in cities in Jiangsu province, such as Suzhou, Nantong and Jiangyin, had also suspended tours to Japan. A representative of Nanjing Youhao International Travel Service, said that the number of tourists choosing Japan as a travel destination during the National Day Holiday had dropped by 30 to 50 percent compared with the same period last year. A Japanese owned newspaper also claimed that Chinese people cancelled Japan tours mostly because they were worried about personal security. For instance, they interviewed a Chinese employee who gave up her travel plan to Japan in October. She said the reason was because her parents strongly disagreed. They told her “The television news report said it might cause a war. It is said that 90% of Japanese hate Chinese, what if some accidents happen...” The newspaper also quoted a large Shanghai-based travel agency’s concern saying “Although Chinese government didn’t ban travelling to Japan, we prefer to be more conservative in operating Japan tours because we can’t afford taking the risk. It can never be wrong to be more discreet in case of any unpredictable situation. So we will try to persuade our customers to give up travelling to Japan recently.” They insisted that nationalistic discussions in the Chinese network environment had built a popular impression that “Japan is very dangerous now”, which they believed was the main reason for the sudden drop in Chinese visitation (The Asahi Shimbun, 2012).

Again, the online and offline phenomena imply the significant influence of Chinese cyber nationalism on Chinese outbound tourists’ behaviour. Moreover, combined with the former Sino-Japan disputes, it is arguable that the longer Chinese cyber nationalism lasts, the more serious impact it might work on tourists’ pre-travel purchasing behaviour.

According to GFK (2015), Hong Kong used to be the most popular Chinese favoured destination. This position, unfortunately, was taken over by Japan in 2015. Instead, Hong Kong just ranked third. Japan is a country which has intricate issues with China. The recent notable disputes with China were the

“2010 Senkaku boat collision incident” and “2012 Senkaku islands purchasing incident”. Correspondingly, Japan was only ranked 6th on the “Top 10 Chinese favourite destination” list in both 2011 and 2012. However, after the intense period, Japan raised to third in both 2013 and 2014, and eventually topped the list in 2015. The ranking of the Chinese most favoured destinations somehow reflects the impact of Chinese nationalism on Chinese outbound tourist’s inclinations.

2.5.3 “Boycott French goods starting from Carrefour”

As mentioned above, the main targets of popular Chinese nationalism are countries which used to invade China and those supporting Tibet, Xinjiang and Taiwan independence. France was once targeted by Chinese cyber nationalists because of the liberate Tibet movements. In 2001, Beijing was awarded the Games of the XXIX Olympiad. This is the first time China had won on the bidding of the Olympic Games. The success greatly encouraged Chinese people and their national pride. However, seven years later, when all the Chinese were excited about the approaching summer Olympic Games and “one world, one dream” slogan, the world showed its evil side. The 2008 Summer Olympic torch relay, which was also called by the organisers the “Journey of Harmony” was never harmonious. From North America to Europe, the torch relay was constantly protested by advocates of Tibetan independence, human and animal rights, legal online gambling, etc. The path of the torch relay was forced to be changed or shortened on a number of occasions. The torch was even extinguished by Chinese security officials several times in Paris due to protest and other security concerns. Finally, the torch finished the relay by bus instead of being carried by athletes. Notably, on April 7, a disabled Chinese female athlete sitting on a wheelchair was assaulted several times by protestors while performing as the third torchbearer in the Paris leg. This event was widely reported by Chinese media, which eventually resulted in a series of protests against France.

On April 10, a Chinese netizen posted an article titled “Boycott French goods starting from Carrefour” on a popular Chinese online community website Maopu. In a very short time, the post gained tons of attention on the Internet and caused a wide discussion about boycotting French goods, and Carrefour – the most known French brand in China – became the main topic and target. Meanwhile, rumour online

alleged that Carrefour belonged to LVMH group which had sponsored Tibetan independence. Most of the netizens thereby expressed their support of the call for boycott of Carrefour. Three days later, the media started to report this widely discussed online topic, which made it more popular. Later on, the appeal of boycotting Carrefour viral-spread through both the Internet and mobile phone messages. From April 17, several onsite boycott protests toward Carrefour were carried in Hefei and Kunming. On the day after, more than one thousand protestors demonstrated in front of one Carrefour store in Hefei, forcing the supermarket to close earlier than scheduled. During the following two days, a large number of Carrefour stores in eight major Chinese cities experienced demonstrations from nationalists.

Despite the Chinese government's effort to control the situation by prohibiting students attending the demonstration, praising Carrefour publicly for its contribution in the Beijing Olympia and blocking a key words search for "Carrefour" on mainstream search engines, there were still several anti-Carrefour events on May1 in five cities in China. Additionally, netizens called for boycotting travelling to France, as France was one of the Chinese favoured destinations. Travel agencies stated that very few tourists bought France travel products in the golden week – the labour day holiday in May. Instead, tourists aborted French romance and went to Italy, Spain, the UK and Eastern Europe. Moreover, news reports also showed French foreign ministry officials referring to Beijing authorities to confirm there was no travelling ban to France.

2.6 Summary

As a special administration region, Hong Kong is independent but inseparable from Mainland China. The rapid economic development of China and the opening of Hong Kong has greatly facilitated Mainlanders visiting Hong Kong. The Mainland China tourist market can be viewed as a 'Double-edged sword' for Hong Kong. On the one hand, the open tourism policies including IVS have successfully attracted a steady flow of Chinese tourists to Hong Kong, which remarkably improved the development of Hong Kong's economy, especially in the retailing industry. On the other hand, the differences in terms of political ideology, culture and economy between the two regions have resulted in a series of conflicts and created Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong.

USA, Japan and France have witnessed the power of Chinese cyber nationalism on changing Chinese people's attitudes, their consuming behaviour and most commonly, their travel intentions. Hong Kong being part of China, Mainland China's response to Hong Kong is not as intense nor extreme as the other hostile countries. Notwithstanding, the loss of 'Chinese most favoured destination' (GFK, 2015), and the continuous drop in visitor numbers after 2015 indicate the effect of Chinese cyber nationalism on mainland tourists to Hong Kong. Considering the waves of voices boycotting travelling to Hong Kong in the Chinese cyber sphere, it is not only necessary but also realistic to investigate the relationship between increasing Chinese cyber nationalism and the fall of Mainland visitor arrivals in Hong Kong. In other words, when Chinese Mainlanders vent on the internet towards Hong Kong, would this affect their attitude and travel intentions to Hong Kong? Would this further affect their decision-making and result in the visitor arrivals drop in Hong Kong?

Chapter3 Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

As this study involves two major concepts: tourist behaviour and Chinese cyber nationalism, it requires the author to set up a theoretical bridge between the two topics which seem unrelated literally. Thus, apart from reviewing the literature regarding the two concepts separately, the author also explores studies in regard to both the two topics. However, due to the scant research on both nationalism and tourist behaviour, the author reviews nationalism in consumer behaviour, and integrates the ideas into studies of consumer behaviour in tourism. As stated by Webster and Watson (2002), procedures like this not only help to uncover areas where research is needed, but also facilitate theory development and assist in creating a firm foundation for advancing knowledge.

To be specific, this chapter starts with an overview of nationalism, and then narrows down to Chinese nationalism and Chinese cyber nationalism. By understanding the characteristics and the manifestation of Chinese cyber nationalism, the author then moves on to look at the studies of tourist behaviour, especially the pre-travel behaviour which includes tourists' attitudes, intentions and decision-making. Lastly, the author discusses limited existing studies regarding Chinese nationalism and tourism, as well as studies on consumer nationalism. Based on the literature review, by integrating the research insights in respect of tourist behaviour and consumer nationalism into Planned Behaviour Theory, the author was able to build a conceptual framework and identify the research gaps in terms of the study area.

3.2 Chinese cyber nationalism

3.2.1 Nationalism

As a formidable political ideology and social movement, nationalism has experienced ebbs and flows in the past centuries of world history. Notwithstanding, it has never faded away since it jumped onto the world political stage. In accordance with its multiple origins, nationalism can be broadly defined as

a historical, economic, cultural, political and ideological consequence that helps people to establish a collective identity, cultural cohesion, social solidarity and political autonomy (Wu, 2007).

There have been unremitting arguments about the origin of nationalism. Some have attributed it to historical/economic consequence (Greenfeld, 2009; Kohn, 1939; Smith, 2013). For example, Hans Kohn (1939), one of the so-called “twin founding fathers” of nationalism research (Wu, 2007), affirmed that nationalism is not a natural phenomenon. Instead, it came into being only through the effects of a historical development. Others have asserted nationalism was a cultural or ethnical consequence (Kohn, 1955; Shulman, 2002; Smith, 1991; Spencer & Wollman, 2002), as it contains almost all the cultural attributes, such as common languages, conventions and beliefs. Besides, some scholars argued nationalism is a product of military/political consequence (Gellner & Breuilly, 2008; Kennedy, 2010; Mann, 1995). For example, Tilly (1994) argued that war cultivates nationalism and nationalism cultivates war. The last popular opinion is that it is an ideological consequence (Hobsbawm, 2012; Marx, 1986; Munck, 1986; Smith & Smith, 2013; Turner, 2002). They believe that nationalism is derived from various philosophical frameworks and was influenced by different ideological thoughts. For example, the post-modernist Turner (2002) argues that nations can exist even without territory and nationalism can exist without the presence of nation because of globalisation.

Although every country’s nationalism has its own developing path and features, the following three common characteristics of nationalism are directly related to most of them. First of all, nationalism is a super-ideology. As Fukuyama (1989) argued nationalism will always be the first and foremost driving force as long as the nation-state is the dominant form in international politics. Besides, nationalism is not a status-quo ideology. When provoked by outer pressures, this unsatisfied desire can escalate, intensify and quickly turn into a social and political movement (Hoffmann, 1995). Secondly, nationalism is an exclusive ideology. Such exclusiveness has been cultivated and reinforced by those omnipresent national stimuli, such as a country’s name, national flag, national anthem and collective memory. As a result, the cultural and emotional life of the people has become closely integrated with the common good of their beloved nation and their fellow country-men. When two countries’ nationalists collide with each other over an antagonistic issue, the overheated rhetoric always leads to

uncompromising stance or irrational behaviours. As to foreign affairs, nationalism is widely recognised as a double-edged sword which can serve either as a rallying point, or as destructive venom (Jun, 2006).

Although commonly confused with patriotism, the consensus is that nationalism differs from patriotism in some substantial areas. For example, nationalism refers to people's love and emotional affiliation with a whole set of national symbols. In contrast, patriotism is more derived from and devoted to the existing political entity. In other words, patriotism loves the country as whatever it is, whereas nationalism loves the country as it was or as it should be. As argued by (Wu, 2007), patriotism is more triumphant and victory-oriented, whereas nationalism is more likely to be wounded and humiliation-driven.

3.2.2 Chinese nationalism

The present scholarship on Chinese nationalism is as diverse as it is on nationalism. For example, Lucian (1993) suggests that China's nationalism is at best a "formless nationalism" and the traditional "Han chauvinism should not be treated as the same thing as Chinese nationalism". Other China scholars, however, could not disagree more. As argued by Gries (2003), China, with four millennia of documented history, and two millennia of centralised rule, cannot be a "nation" just in the twentieth century. As to the current wave of nationalism sentiment and activities that have emerged since the 1990s, some attributed its origin to the CCP's intentional manipulation aimed to salvage its legitimacy crisis after the collapse of the Communism ideology (Downs & Saunders, 2012; Zhao, 2000), some suggested it was not the result of government propaganda, but a series of spontaneous reactions among the general public toward foreign hostility and pressure (Zhang, 1997), and others regarded this new nationalism tendency as a continuation and modification of China's century-long nationalistic movement (Chang, 2001; Gries, 2003).

With regard to the characteristics of Chinese nationalism, it has been defined as "defensive nationalism" (Shambaugh, 1996), "pragmatic nationalism" (Zhao, 2000), "formless nationalism" (Pye, 1993), "revanchist nationalism" (Friedman, 1997), "face nationalism" (Gries, 1999), "wounded nationalism" (Chang, 2001), "assertive nationalism" (Whiting, 1983), or "radical and reckless nationalism" (Gertz,

2013). However, as asserted by (Wu, 2007), the following two underpinning factors are important in understanding Chinese nationalism: Firstly, the state-led patriotism and the grass-roots spontaneous nationalism in China are two independent movements. Although they shared some common characters, they differ in origins, strategies and objectives. Secondly, nationalism is a result of collective self-identification formed in the process of one people interacting with another people. China is an old civilisation, but it is also a new member of the world community. China's final identity as a people, a nation and a civilisation depends not only on what China thinks it is, but also on what China thinks other countries think China is. Therefore, Chinese nationalism, like most nationalism in the world, is reactive and reciprocal. It is a result of China's integration process, but it is neither the only, nor the final result of this process.

3.2.3 Chinese cyber nationalism

Cyber nationalism is also called "online nationalism" or "nationalism on the net". As claimed by modernist Turner (2002), if the print media have the power to create nationalism, then the online media is absolutely entitled to redefine the whole concept of it. In China, the concept of cyber nationalism was first observed in a report in 2003 (Wang, 2006); however, as a social phenomenon, Chinese cyber nationalism can date back to the 1990s, when a bunch of Sino-Japan and Sino-US disputes occurred, and triggered nationalistic discussions among Chinese netizens.

The establishment of a "strong China forum" in 1999 is regarded as the symbol of the immobilisation of Chinese cyber nationalistic activities. Accompanied by the rapid development of ICT, the 2003 Sino-Japan issues raised the Chinese cyber nationalism to a new level. As one of the leading scholars in Chinese cyber nationalism, Wu (2007, p. 155) defines it as "a non-government sponsored ideology and movement that has originated, existed and developed on China's online sphere in the past decade, which is a natural extension of China's century-long nationalism movement, but different from the CCP's official version of patriotism." Compared with China's overall population, Chinese online users on average are younger, overrepresented by students and better educated (Wu, 2007).

Generally, there are mainly three types of Chinese cyber nationalism: mass nationalism (or the popular Chinese cyber nationalism), intellectual nationalism and official nationalism (Wang, 2006). The mass nationalists constitute the hard core spreading and consuming Chinese cyber nationalism. It is also the major group that expresses nationalistic sentiment online. They are normally called “fen qing” (angry youth) and are deeply influenced by the intellectual nationalists (Luo & Mao, 2006). Compared with the overall population of China, the “angry youth” on average are younger, well-educated, self-motivated and tend to resist anything orthodox, sequential or restrictive. They call for aggressive rhetoric, policy and action against both internal and foreign pressure through BBS, QQ, blog, email and other relevant online sites (Wu, 2007). The intellectual nationalists, however, are the producers of the articles relating to nationalism but not always containing strong nationalistic sentiment. Their articles are always quoted and spread by the mass nationalists, normally being misunderstood on purpose, which have the potential to result in extensive online nationalistic arguments (Li, 2009). The official nationalism advocates maintaining the national image, safeguarding the national benefits and fighting in a relevant ideological area. It is guaranteed by imposing political activities from a national level (Hyun & Kim, 2015). For instance, Xia and Pedraza-Jiménez (2015) indicate that CCP has adopted various legal, administrative and financial measures to control online information. However, computer-mediated communication proved itself a monstrous creature too resilient to be tamed. As Hachigian (2001, p. 129) suggested, “the Net cannot create rebellious social forces, of course, but it can nurture and empower those that exist”.

The current attitude of schoolers towards Chinese cyber nationalism can be classified as four views: the negative (Luo & Mao, 2006), the positive (Pu & Zhao, 2009), the neutral (Wu, 2007) and the combined (Wu, 2016). The negative view regards Chinese cyber nationalism as parochial Chinese nationalism. For instance, Zhao (2000) pointed out that online Chinese nationalistic statements and arguments are always extreme and radical. The positive opinion considers it as an extension of patriotism. For example, (Pu & Zhao, 2009) argued that Chinese cyber nationalism is a joint movement of both patriotism and anti-parochial nationalism based on the internet. The neutral partly agrees with both ideas and looks at it as a social phenomenon of venting nationalistic sentiment online which can be both positive and

negative. The last opinion towards Chinese cyber nationalism is that it is a combination of the internet and Chinese nationalism, a new form of Chinese nationalism in this information era.

In summary, taking advantage of the Internet as a communication centre, organisational platform and execution channel to promote nationalism causes among Chinese nationalists around the world, Chinese cyber nationalism has thrived in China since the 1990s. It aims primarily at those international disputes involving China and strives to retain China's historical position as a respectable power globally. The combination of China's distinctive culture and tradition, online technology's reach and power and nationalism's broad appeal and ideological approach made it a powerful and unpredictable factor in China's policy decision-making process.

3.3 Tourist behaviour

3.3.1 Overview of tourist behaviour

A marvellous amount of scholars have studied tourist behaviour, or consumer behaviour in tourism. As described by Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (1995, p. 4), consumer behaviour is "concerned with all activities directly involved in obtaining, consuming and disposing of products and services, including the decision processes that precede and follow these actions". Base on this concept, tourist behaviour can be explained as a process involved when tourists or tourist groups select, purchase, use or dispose of tourism products or services. Thus, tourist behaviour is naturally connected with the consumer decision-making process. According to the different periods of travel, there are mainly three branches in tourist behaviour study: the pre, post and future purchase behaviour. The pre-behaviour studies the influence of destination image, motivation and tourist attitude on tourist behaviour during the decision-making process (Ashworth & Goodall, 1988; Mansfeld, 1992; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005); the post-tourist behaviour studies normally examine tourists' expectations, perceptions and satisfaction after the actual travel (Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001; Chi & Qu, 2008; Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel, 1978); the future behaviour studies mostly explore the probability of repeat buying or revisiting (Lee, 2009; Lohmann & Danielsson, 2001; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998).

As this study aims to examine the relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and tourist behaviour, which is to investigate how the destination image of Hong Kong is perceived under Chinese cyber nationalism, how this perception influences the potential tourists' travel intention and how this intention is reflected on the actual purchase decision or tourist arrival, the theoretical approach of this study mainly focuses on the pre-visit behaviour including tourist attitude, tourist travel intention and the travel decision-making process.

3.3.2 Tourist attitude

Attitudes are widely agreed as a "person's degree of favourableness or unfavourableness with respect to a psychological object" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000, p. 2). It is a function of the consumer's perception and assessment of the main beliefs towards an object (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007). Therefore, tourist evaluation becomes the key component of attitudinal responses, as tourists evaluate based on their perceived concepts, images and behaviour along dimensions such as good–bad or like–dislike (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000).

Attitude plays a key role in the theory on tourist decision-making (Newholm & Shaw, 2007), as common views on attitude research suggest it predicts behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). The most popular attitudinal theory in explaining consumer behaviour is the Planned Behaviour Theory (Figure 3.1). The Theory of Planned Behaviour is a solid theoretical model to explain the relationship between consumers' attitudes, intentions and behaviours (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). It suggests that attitudes towards a behaviour lead to the behavioural intention. This theory has been applied in a large amount of tourism studies. For example, Lam and Hsu (2006) applied it to examine reference groups' influences on Chinese travellers travel intentions and describe the tourist travel decision-making process, arguing that the Planned Behaviour Theory offers a suitable model to explain Taiwanese travellers to Hong Kong. Thus, the attitudinal theory provides a sound foundation to understand travel intentions of tourists and underpins the research presented in this paper.

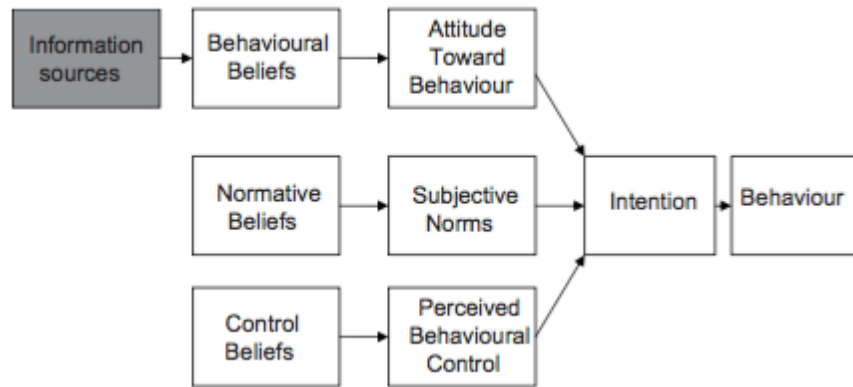


Figure 3.1. Model of Planned Behaviour theory

Note. Retrieved from Armitage and Conner (2001). Reprinted with permission.

3.3.3 Tourist decision-making

The understanding of the tourist decision-making progress is regarded as a cornerstone of marketing strategy. So far, a large amount of models have been created to understand the complexity of the consumer decision-making progress (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2016). The model of Planned Behaviour Theory which suggests a sequence from attitude to intention to behaviour remains one of the major models applied in literature (Decrop, 1999). Generally, tourist behaviour studies are dominated by those that are built on the assumption of rational decision-making. These causality studies are normally conducted by doing variance analysis, which investigates how much a dependent variable is affected by relevant independent variables (Smallman & Moore, 2010). Some investigated tourist decision making from a more comprehensive perspective with more sophisticated models. For example, Moutinho (1987) built a refined vacation tourist behaviour model, which consisted of three parts: the pre-decision and decision processes, post-purchase evaluation and future decision-making. In the pre-decision and decision processes, he pointed out the preference structure plays a decisive role in the overall process of decision making which, in essence, is consistent with the Planned Behaviour Theory.

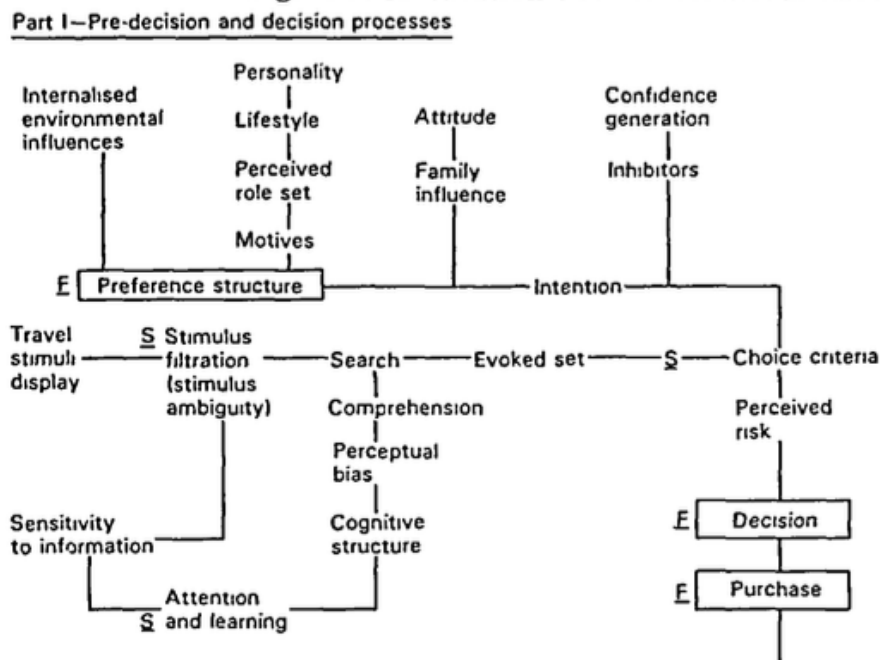


Figure 3.2. Pre-decision and decision process part of vacation tourist behaviour model
 Note. Retrieved from Moutinho (1987). Reprinted with permission.

Although the Planned Behaviour model continues to be criticised by several researchers, the main arguments around it focus on the capability to capture the complexity of decision-making in tourism (Hyde & Lawson, 2003). Opponents pointed out the fact that some travel decisions are mostly influenced by situational factors during or after travel because of the nature of the tourism product (Decrop & Snelders, 2005; March & Woodside, 2005). However, as this study only concentrates on the pre-travel stage, the Planned Behaviour Theory still fits this study.

3.4 Chinese nationalism in tourism

Political stability plays a significant role in the tourism industry (Causevic & Lynch, 2013), and the so-called commercial attribute of nationalism has been perceived as a means of creating and promoting a national brand, and this trend is most visible in the marketing of international tourism (Volcic & Andrejevic, 2011). Unlike its political importance, the role of nationalism in tourism has rarely been studied. By now, the study of nationalism and tourist behaviour staying at the infant stage, the majority of former studies have focused on integrating nationalism in heritage sites and other attractions.

However, considerable studies have been conducted in investigating the impact of Chinese nationalism on consumer behaviour, which can be guidance for the tourist behaviour research.

3.4.1 Consumer nationalism

The resistance in globalisation caused by nationalism has attracted scholars' eyes. Consumer nationalism is defined as "the 'invocation of individuals' collective national identities in the process of consumption to favour or reject products from other counties" (Wang, 2005). The construct of consumer nationalism was developed as an economic form of ethnocentrism and encompasses issues such as one's fear of economically harming his or her beloved country by buying foreign products, the morality of buying imported products and a personal prejudice against imports. Scholars have examined the relationship between nationalism and consumption from various disciplines (Good & Huddleston, 1995; Javalgi, Park, Oscar, Prasad, & Vernon, 2013; Newholm & Shaw, 2007; Shimp & Sharma, 1987). In respect to the significant role of nationalism in consumer behaviour, there are mainly two research trends: consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity (Cheah & Phau, 2015; Javalgi et al., 2013).

Two leading scholars, Shimp and Sharma (1987), developed a multi-item scale named the CETSCALE to capture consumer ethnocentric tendencies and argued that consumer nationalism explains why consumers prefer domestic over imported products. They emphasised that nationalism is strongly negatively correlated with consumer's attitudes, beliefs and purchase intentions toward foreign-made products, and it is negatively correlated with the actual consumer's purchasing behaviour. Besides, they pointed out that the correlations of the latter would not be as strong as the former because the actual purchase decision is determined by a variety of factors other than consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Following this, Herche (1992) argued that consumer nationalism can predict consumers' preferences to buy or own domestic as opposed to foreign products. Importantly, he demonstrated that ethnocentric tendencies are better predictors of import purchase behaviour than demographic and marketing mix variables. However, consumer ethnocentrism's predictive ability of buying intentions varies from country to country. For example, Good and Huddleston (1995) found it important for Poles' but not for Russians' intentions to buy foreign products. By employing the CETSCALE in their study of the Czech

Republic, Mueller and Melewar (2001) argued that nationalism has an influence on consumer ethnocentrism but the influence is not consistent unless being stimulated by nationalism continuously. Rawwas, Rajendran, and Wuehrer (1996) conducted research on both world-mindedness and nationalism's influence on consumer evaluation of domestic and foreign products. They generated a conceptual model and then tested it with Austria as a case study. Overall, the findings support the conceptual model (Figure 3.3).

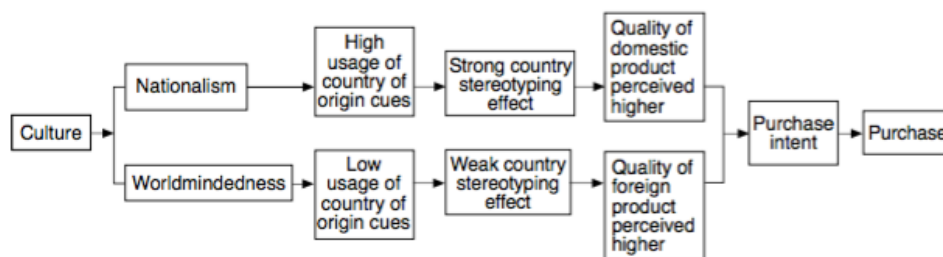


Figure 3.3. Model for assessing the influence of nationalism and world-mindedness on consumer evaluation of domestic and foreign products.

Note. Retrieved from Rawwas et al. (1996). Reprinted with permission.

Wang (2005) examines the linkages between a nationalistic consumer base and corporate susceptibility and the factors that influence these two variables, and proposes that a brand's perceived nationality, visibility and magnitude are positively related to consumer nationalism, while its likability functions as a deterrent. Wang also uses the concept of 'focusing events' by Birkland (1997) to describe unplanned sudden events that link a nationalistic consumer base to a transnational corporation. A nationalistic consumer base can be viewed either in consumer ethnocentrism that stresses the virtues of buying domestic products and the rejection of foreign products in general (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Wang, 2005) or in the animosity model that emphasises nationalism targeted at specific countries (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Moreover, Li (2009) in her research on marketing Japanese products in the context of Chinese cyber nationalism, emphasised that the Internet plays a significant role in organising and shaping consumers' nationalistic behaviour, for it is the only public space where Chinese citizens can express themselves with a limited sense of freedom.

3.4.2 Chinese nationalism and tourist behaviour

Despite the remarkable research on consumer nationalism, limited research has been conducted in terms of nationalism and tourism. Moreover, most of the current research in this area concentrates upon the integration of nationalism in tour attractions. For instance, a study on three American sites—Mount Rushmore National Memorial (monument), Wall Drug Store (private business) and Rapid City Dinosaur Park (science park), illustrates that a national identity can be built in any place as long as it presents the defining characteristics of nationhood and displays historical evidence of its existence (Pretes, 2003). Ioannides and Apostolopoulos (1999) concluded that the inability of government structures to agree on the tourism promotion of Cyprus was because nationalism dominated the discourse, making it almost impossible to come to an agreement as to what promotion strategy would be the most appropriate to support tourism development.

Apart from research on tourist attractions, others take an investigation about the role of nationalism in tourist-host relations. Griffiths and Sharpley (2012) took English tourists and Welsh hosts as a case study using the Q methodology, arguing that the tourist-host encounters are dynamic and dependent on differing types and intensities of nationalism held by both tourists and hosts. Yen (2014) studied nationalism and American sex tourism in postcolonial Taiwan, with the focus on expounding Foucault's insights that the body embodied the politics of power, implying that in postcolonial Taiwan, sex tourism is not simply the carrier of desire or the commodity of economic exchange but a political converter, through which the meanings and interests of the nation were embodied. Cheng and Wong (2014b), taking the 2012 Senkaku Islands Incident between China and Japan as a case study, adopted a qualitative interview method to explore the relationship between Chinese popular nationalism and tourists' travel intention, and established a nationalism dynamics model based on tourists' self-perceived level of nationalism. Despite the significance of the topic, relatively no published research has looked specifically at tourist pre-visit behaviour regarding Chinese cyber nationalism.

3.5 Summary

This chapter presented and discussed the existing studies on nationalism, nationalism in consumer behaviour and nationalism in tourism. Especially, it discussed the rapid growing Chinese cyber nationalism and summarised the difference of its three different types: mass nationalism, intellectual nationalism and official nationalism. It then reviewed studies in respect of Chinese nationalism and consumer behaviour and discussed the Planned Behaviour Theory, revealing that nationalism has an impact on consumers' intention of purchasing and also their purchasing behaviour. Following this, the author discussed studies in relation to nationalism in consumer behaviour and consumer tendencies, purchasing intention and behaviour, suggesting that nationalism is widely regarded as an important influential and predictive factor in consumer behaviour. Lastly, the author reviews the literature with regard to nationalism and tourism, and addresses the absence of academic study on Chinese cyber nationalism and tourist behaviour. By synthesising the theories discussed above, the author was able to develop a conceptual framework of this study (Figure 3.4). The figure shows that Hong Kong-Mainland incidents may evoke Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong. This information received by potential tourists might affect their attitudes and travel intentions to Hong Kong, and furthermore affect their travel decision, which will be reflected on Mainland visitor arrivals in Hong Kong.



Figure 3.4. The conceptual framework of this study

Note. Figure created by the author.

Additionally, the literature review reveals that no one yet has conducted research on the effect of Chinese cyber nationalism on tourists' behaviour, especially from a quantitative approach. Besides, although there exists literature implying Chinese popular nationalism's impact on tourists' travel intentions (Cheng & Wong, 2014a), it didn't go further to investigate the consequence of this impact. Whether Chinese nationalism is related to actual tourist purchasing behaviour remains unknown.

Chapter4 Methodology

4.1 Introduction

Methodology is a way to think about one's research objectives, research methods and the technique for collecting information. It can be conducted qualitatively or quantitatively, depending on the purpose of the researcher (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2013). Decrop (1999) stated that it is always important to adopt an appropriate research methodology in order to carry out a wide-ranging examination of all relevant areas.

The literature review of Chapter 3 highlights that, to date, there have only been scant studies in terms of nationalism and tourist behaviour; moreover, no specific study on the level of Chinese cyber nationalism's impact on tourists' travel intentions and corresponding visitor arrivals was found in the literature. As the current research needed to find both the impact of Chinese cyber nationalism on Chinese tourists' travel intentions, and the relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and Chinese outbound visitor arrivals, it was essential that an appropriate research methodology be used. In this chapter, the research paradigm and methodology of this study are identified and the content analysis, data collection and data analysis methods employed are presented and discussed.

4.2 Methodological approach

The definition of methodology is subject to the philosophical foundations for providing the context and theory in the research process, with regard to the position of ontology and epistemology. Sarantakos (2012) describes methodology as "a research strategy that translates ontological and epistemological principles into guidelines that show how research is to be conducted." Ontology is the nature of realities that researchers investigate, and epistemology is the relationship between the researchers and the realities being investigated (Lincoln & Denzin, 1994).

4.2.1 Research paradigm

Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) state that a paradigm is seen as the starting point of the research and could affect the way knowledge is studied and explained. Guba (1990) describes a paradigm as “a basic set of beliefs that guides action, whether of the everyday garden variety or action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry.” Mac Naughton, Rolfe, and Siraj-Blatchford (2010) suggest a paradigm has three elements, namely “a belief about the nature of knowledge, a methodology and criteria for validity”.

The main research paradigms include positivist and interpretive social science paradigms. Positivism is “an epistemological position which asserts that knowledge of a social phenomenon is based on what can be observed and recorded rather than subjective understandings” (Snape & Spencer, 2003). A positivist tradition of research views behaviours based on realities, and observations based on theories (Newman, 2011). Research within this framework considers phenomena from the independence of context and the researchers are supposed to be completely neutral and value-free (Finn, Walton, & Elliott-White, 2000). A positivist research usually commences with a hypothesis, which has been deductively derived and based on empirically validated facts. The data is collected in a deductive way and is principally based on quantitative results. The process of deduction involves the testing of theories about the way the natural and social worlds operate. Using a theory, the researcher will generate a hypothesis that is then tested to determine the veracity of the theory for explaining a specific behaviour or phenomenon. That is, theory is deduced and then tested in the empirical world (Jennings, 2010).

According to Wilson and Chaddha (2009), deductive reasoning works from the more general to the more specific. Sometimes this is informally called a ‘top-down’ approach. It might begin with thinking up a theory about the author’s topic of interest. The author then narrows that down into more specific hypotheses that can be tested. The author narrows down even further when he collects observations to address the hypotheses. This ultimately leads the author to be able to test the hypotheses with specific data – a confirmation or rejection of the original theories (Figure 4.1).

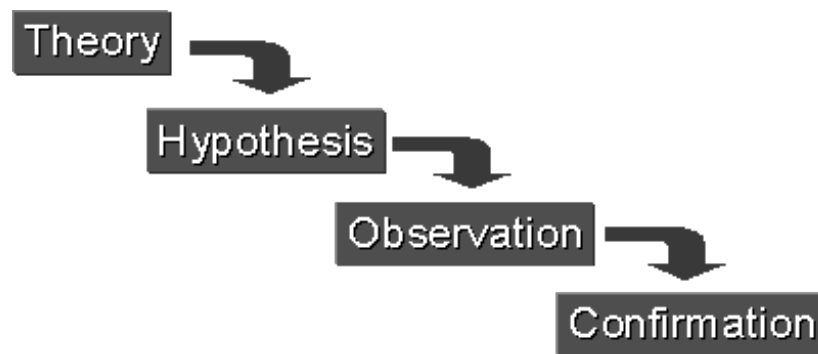


Figure 4.1. The deductive reasoning progress.

Note. Retrieved from Wilson and Chaddha (2009). Reprinted with permission.

On the contrary, an interpretive research paradigm attempts to understand realities from an emic perspective. It is relatively flexible and focuses more on the perspectives of the subjects being researched. The aim of theory building in the interpretive paradigm is to generate descriptions, insights and explanations; findings are then achieved in a collaborative and value-laden approach between the researchers and those being studied (Veal, 2006).

According to Becker, Bryman, and Ferguson (2012), each of the paradigms will determine the research subject purpose and methods of research. Considering the researcher's ontological, epistemological and axiological positions, this study employs a positivist research paradigm to investigate the research question.

4.2.2 Quantitative and qualitative methodology

Positivism is most commonly related to quantitative research projects and the use of scientific method, as well as an ontologically objectivist view (Bergman, 2008; Bryman & Bell, 2015; Gray, 2013). A quantitative methodology abstracts data from the participants into statistical representations rather than textual pictures of the phenomenon. The entire research process is objectively constructed and the findings are usually representative of the population being studied.

Quantitative research is used to quantify the problem by way of generating numerical data or data that can be transformed into useable statistics. It has been defined as “an inquiry into social or human problems, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analysed with

statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalisations of the theory hold true” (Creswell, 1994). It is used to quantify attitudes, opinions, behaviours and other defined variables and generalise results from a larger sample population. Quantitative research uses measurable data to formulate facts and uncover patterns in research. Quantitative data collection methods are much more structured than qualitative data collection methods. Given (2008) stated that quantitative research is “the systematic empirical investigation of observable phenomena via statistical, mathematical or computational techniques.” The researcher can use this approach to analyse words, report detailed views of participants, and carry out the study in its natural setting.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, is grounded in interpretive social science (Merriam, 1998). It is inductive in nature and is based on textual representations of the phenomenon under study. It is used to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions and motivations. It provides insights into the problem or helps to develop ideas or hypotheses for potential quantitative research. Qualitative research is also used to uncover trends in thought and opinions, and dive deeper into the problem (Jennings, 2010). Qualitative data collection methods vary using unstructured or semi-structured techniques.

As stated in the introduction, this study aims to investigate the relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and tourist arrival patterns. In order to do this, mass online data and statistical data are required to conduct the analysis. The author needs to utilise computer programmes to analyse text comments generated by Chinese netizens on nationalistic incidents reports. Thus, a quantitative approach rather than qualitative was adopted based on secondary data collected online in order to gather sufficient evidence to answer the research question: Is Chinese cyber nationalism related to Chinese outbound tourists’ pre-travel behaviour?

4.3 Research design

As De Vaus and de Vaus (2001, p. 9) argued, the function of a research design is “to ensure that the evidence obtained enables us to answer the initial question as unambiguously as possible.” In other words, the mission of designing a research is to figure out what type of evidence is needed to answer

the research questions in a convincing way. Hence, the core of this is to establish a rigorous logical system to carry out the research before conducting the sampling, data collection and data analysis. As suggested by Yin (2013), research design is more like a logical problem rather than a logistical problem.

In this study, the evidence needing to be obtained are the Mainland visitor arrivals in Hong Kong and the Chinese cyber nationalism's influence on potential tourists' attitudes and travel intentions towards Hong Kong. Therefore, the author designed the research following the procedure:

Firstly, the author collects the tourist arrival data from existing governmental statistics, for official statistics are normally comprehensive, compelling and accessible and can be regarded as an ideal secondary data source (Gray, 2013). Following this, the data is processed and analysed in two approaches. On one hand, the author calculates the monthly tourist arrivals growth rate in the study period, for the preparation of the following correlation analysis. On the other hand, by examining the patterns of mainland tourist arrivals, the author utilises a forecasting model to "forecast" the "estimated tourist arrivals" during the study period. As suggested by Song et al. (2003) in their study on forecasting the demand for Hong Kong tourism, the forecasting will take into consideration the periodicity and seasonality if observed in the pattern to ensure its validity, as Chinese outbound tourism presents strong seasonality. The real tourist arrivals and the "forecasted" ones will be presented in the same chart to compare and contrast on a monthly basis. This step will provide a directly visual image showing the difference in tourist arrivals with and without the Hong Kong-Mainland incidents, which strengthens the empirical evidence.

Secondly, the author moves on to the data of Chinese cyber nationalism. Since the Internet is the one and only shelter of Chinese cyber nationalism and the major battlefield of the "angry youth", the author chooses to collect the original discussions on the Internet regarding Hong Kong-Mainland incidents as Chinese cyber nationalism data, in order to uncover the online behaviour patterns of the "angry youth". That is to say, a large amount of Hong Kong-Mainland nationalistic events and the corresponding comments are to be derived from selected websites and analysed later.

For the nationalism data processing, the scholarship shares a consensus that Chinese cyber nationalism mainly comprises Chinese official nationalism, mass nationalism and intellectual nationalism (Jun, 2006). Thus, it is crucial to reclassify the types of collected events based on this theory for a more convincing and sophisticated result. As for the data analysis, the data of Chinese cyber nationalism derived online is mostly Chinese character text, so it is essential to employ a proper method for the text data mining. As an effective way of analysing text data, content analysis is widely used by scholars, for it enables researchers to dig emotions and opinions contained in the text (Zhang & Yang, 2015). The way of dealing with large-scale data content analysis is to employ proper techniques, among which computer-assisted tools are the most popular, utilised because of their efficiency and high accuracy.

However, as pointed out by Pang and Lee (2008), computer-assisted programmes have potential pitfalls in analysing online text. For example, the emoji contained in a text is a visual image indicating the users' emotion towards a certain topic, which can be easily read by humans but incomprehensible for computers in many cases. Besides, the computer tools are better at explaining plain words literally rather than interpreting the "text in context". For instance, in the comments on a newly released cell phone, the word "long" in the text "the battery of the cell phone lasts long" means positive feedback. While in another context, "long" may refer to negative response. For example, a review of "it takes long to charge the battery of the cell phone" cannot be regarded as positive, though, it is hard for the computer to judge the word "long" correctly when using the same dictionary.

Because of this, in this study, the author adopts a dual approach of both computer-assisted and human coding in a small-scale sample to compare and analyse the difference in the results and determine which one to employ for the following analysis. Although this process cannot completely ensure the validity of the results, it promises an increase in the validity of the methods employed.

Lastly, the processed data of both monthly Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong and the attitude to Hong Kong-Mainland incidents (Chinese cyber nationalistic sentiment data) will be put into a correlation test for analysis. Apart from the normal correlation test, the author takes another one in order to derive a more consistent signal of Chinese cyber nationalism. As implied, in a correlation study on consumer confidence and political opinion, and contemporaneous sentiment word frequencies in

Twitter posts by O'Connor, Balasubramanyan, Routledge, and Smith (2010), the sentiment ratio on social media is quite volatile, rising and falling each month. Thus, in this study the author smooths the sentiment ratio with one of the simplest and most popular temporal smoothing techniques, the simple moving average (SMA) over a window of the past period to measure the accumulated Chinese online nationalistic sentiment towards Hong Kong. The SMA sentiment data will be put into another correlation test in an identical way to the monthly sentiment data with contemporaneous tourist arrivals data, in order to discover if long-term accumulated Chinese cyber nationalism weights the temporary one in correlation with the actual tourist arrivals in Hong Kong.

Thus, the evidence for this study is obtained, processed, tested and analysed in a proper and reliable way, which enables the author to achieve the objectives. Research findings will also be acquired based on the underpinning of the research design.

4.4 Population and Sampling

The selection of sampling method is an important part of carrying out research (Shields & Twycross, 2008). A good sampling design should meet four broad criteria: goal orientation, measurability, practicality and economy (Kish, 1965).

The goal of this study is to investigate the relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and potential tourists' pre-visit behaviour. Therefore, the population should cover the mass Chinese cyber nationalists, in this study referred to as "fen qing". Besides, it also covers the potential tourists from the Mainland to Hong Kong. In other words, the population of this study is Mainland Chinese netizens who participate in nationalism discussions regarding Hong Kong-Mainland incidents, and are capable of travelling to Hong Kong. Hence, the Internet provides an ideal environment for sampling, for it is the major arena for mass nationalists "fen qing" to express and spread their nationalistic sentiment and opinions. Besides, as augured by Wu (2016), the mass nationalists are relatively young and well-educated, so are more likely to afford an overseas trip, which is consistent with the general profile of Mainland tourists to Hong Kong (HKTB, 2016a).

Moving on to measurability and practicality. So far, studies on tourists' behaviour on the Internet mainly focus on social media. The reason behind this is that the Internet has evolved from a broadcasting medium to a participatory platform which allows people to become the 'media' themselves for collaborating and sharing information. Apparently, the 'user democracy' culture and the ability to share information by means of social media have made substantial changes in information asymmetry and the bargaining power of consumers. Being one of the two "mega trends" that can significantly impact the tourism industry (the other one is the search engine) (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010), social media have been widely adopted by travellers to search, organize, share and annotate their travel stories and experiences through blogs and microblogs (e.g., Blogger and Twitter), online communities (e.g., Facebook, RenRen and TripAdvisor), media sharing sites (e.g., Flickr and YouTube), social bookmarking sites (e.g., Delicious), social knowledge sharing sites (e.g., Wikitravel), and other tools in a collaborative way. The newly released *World Travel Market 2011 Industry Report* announced that more than one-third of all leisure travellers in the United Kingdom choose their hotels on the basis of social media sites like TripAdvisor and Facebook (Koumelis, 2011). Thus, social media provides an extensive environment for studying potential tourists' behaviour in the online nationalistic sphere with large-scale data. Considerable research has used online data to study topics relating online issues, especially in the marketing research area. For example, several scholars examined the word-of-mouth (WOM) effect using online reviews and comments (Godes & Mayzlin, 2004). Besides, social media provides an anonymous environment where people are more relaxed to express their authentic feelings and opinions toward a specific topic, which makes it possible for nationalists to assemble in. The anonymity also improves the objectivity of the data. Moreover, data of social media is more accessible, less time-consuming and less costly compared to traditional data collection ways, such as survey and interview.

So far, the most popular social media in the Western world are Facebook and Twitter. However, both of these are blocked and unavailable in Mainland China (Bertot, Jaeger, & Grimes, 2010; Yu, Asur, & Huberman, 2011); consequently, Sina Weibo, the Chinese version of Twitter, which is the most popular social medium in China is chosen as the research site. It is the dominant online community in China,

founded in 2009 with more than 222 million monthly active users as of September 2015 (CIW, 2016), which will be valuable for generating data. The author chooses the user “Sina news” (namely toutiao xinwen in Chinese) as the study case. Firstly, Sina news is the most popular news account on Weibo.com, which has more than 50 million followers (Sina, 2016); hence, the opinions under Sina news are more objective and extensive. Secondly, Sina news describes itself as “24 hours broadcasting instant global news”, which make the news posts timely and with little bias. Moreover, it is a Sina verified official website, which is more reliable compared to other new accounts. As the Hong Kong-Mainland nationalistic incidents mainly occurred since 2012, and the latest month of which the monthly tourist arrival data can be obtained is March 2016, the data of Hong Kong-Mainland incidents on Sina news for correlation test will be collected from January 2012 to March 2016, covering 51 months in total. Accordingly, monthly tourist arrival data in the same period is collected for the correlation test, while the monthly tourist arrival data for “forecasting” the arrivals without Hong Kong-Mainland incidents will cover from January 2004 to December 2011, for better accuracy of the forecasting model.

4.5 Data collection

As mentioned in the former section, two sets of data are required to conduct this research: the Chinese cyber nationalism data and the data of Mainland arrivals in Hong Kong. The first one is collected from an official verified daily news report user of Sina Weibo – Sina news, which is also the most followed news report account on Sina Weibo with more than 50 million followers (Sina, 2016).

All the text contents including the reports and massive corresponding comments are captured by using an online tool named Weibo Events developed by Peking University (Ren, Zhang, Wang, Li, & Yuan, 2014), which was particularly designed to crawl efficient and complete data from Sina Weibo. The data derived from Sina news contains the original text posts regarding Hong Kong-Mainland incidents; all the comments of each post which are normally text but sometimes emoji; the count of total comment, “Like” and “Forward”; as well as the basic demographic characteristics of the commenters, such as gender and registered user location. Altogether 51 months of data from January 2012 to March 2016 is

collected for analysis. In total, 546 online reports relating Hong Kong-Mainland issues including 481,042 comments are collected as the database of Chinese cyber nationalism.

The mainland tourist arrival data is obtained from the most reliable and comprehensive source, the Hong Kong Tourism Board (2016b), which is commonly quoted in Hong Kong tourism studies (Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Liu & McKercher, 2014; Song et al., 2003). Monthly Chinese mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong are constantly monitored and recorded by them. To gain a more comprehensive idea of the development of Mainlanders visiting Hong Kong, the author collected tourist arrival data from January 1984 until March 2016.

4.6 Data analysis

Analysis of data is a process of inspecting, cleaning, transforming and modelling data with the goal of discovering useful information, suggesting conclusions and supporting decision making (Seale, 2004). In this study, the data to be analysed contains the tourist arrivals data and Chinese cyber nationalism data. For a clearer understanding, the author presents the procedures separately as follows.

4.6.1 ARIMA forecasting model for tourist arrivals analysis

The first set of data needed to be analysed is the tourist arrivals data of Mainland visitors to Hong Kong. The purposes of analysing this data are to acquire a general tendency interpretation of Mainlanders visiting Hong Kong, and to conduct “forecasting” to compare “estimated” and actual tourist arrivals with and without Hong Kong-Mainland incidents; and c. prepare monthly tourist arrivals data for the correlation test.

In order to achieve the purposes, I will adopt different instruments. Firstly, I will adopt a visual analysis method and employ various instruments to transform the numerical data into visual images to make it easier to be comprehended. Data involved in this starts from 1984 to 2016; thus most of the tourist arrival data would be presented as figures in the discussion chapter.

Secondly, I will collect monthly tourist arrivals data from January 2004 to March 2016 for ARIMA “forecasting” comparison. ARIMA is one of the most popular forecasting models that has been verified by scholars in tourism forecasting studies and proved to have high accuracy (Cho, 2003; Chu, 1998). As suggested by Song et al. (2003) in their study on forecasting the demand for Hong Kong tourism, the forecasting will take into consideration the periodicity and seasonality, if observed, in the pattern to insure its validity, as Chinese outbound tourism presents strong seasonality. To be more specific, data from January 2004 to December 2010 (84 months) will be used for ARIMA forecasting model training, which is then taken to forecast the “estimated” monthly tourist arrival data of 2011. The “estimated” data in 2011 is then to be compared with the actual arrivals data in the same year to check the accuracy of the forecasting model. Following this, the model is applied to “forecast” the monthly tourist arrivals from January 2012 to March 2016, and is compared to the actual arrivals data, in order to examine the difference with and without the Hong Kong-Mainland incidents from a statistical perspective.

4.6.2 Content analysis for attitude and intention

Moving on to the incidents data; this is presented mostly by means of texts. Thus, I will conduct a quantitative content analysis to achieve the objectives, as content analysis is the primary method used for large-scale and comparative studies of textual data, and potentially has a high degree of validity and reliability in terms of precise sampling and providing clear empirical evidence for research findings (Seale, 2004). Berelson (1952, p. 18) defined content analysis as "a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication." Holsti (1969, p. 5) affirmed that content analysis is "any technique for making inferences by systematically and objectively identifying specified characteristics of messages.", while Kerlinger (1986, p. 348) defined content analysis as "a method of studying and analysing communication in a systematic, objective, and quantitative manner for the purpose of measuring variables." More modern definitions have specifically included references to social media, sentiment analysis and big data approaches. Overall, quantitative content analysis in this way transforms observations of found categories into quantitative statistical data. As Finn et al. (2000) stated, content analysis is thus a quantitative means of analysing qualitative data.

In this study, the purpose of employing the content analysis method is to uncover the potential tourists' attitudes and travel intentions towards Hong Kong when exposed to the Hong Kong-Mainland incidents.

Firstly, as stated in the research design, the author adopted a bipolar sentiment analysis to determine if the attitude within a comment under a Hong Kong-Mainland incident report is negative or positive. Sentiment analysis (also known as opinion mining) is a branch of content analysis which refers to the use of natural language processing, text analysis and computational linguistics to identify and extract subjective information in source materials (Pang & Lee, 2008).

An online instrument named NLPIR (2016) is employed to analyse the massive text data derived from Sina news. This tool was developed and maintained by the nature language processing team for Beijing Institute of Technology. The main functions of NLPIR include key words frequency recording and sentiment analysis, especially for text written in Chinese characters. It justifies whether the sentiment of a text is positive or negative by comparing the positive words and negative words within the text. If the negative words are more than the positive ones, then it is a negative text. For example, a comment like "Hong Kong is not good as before, I will never go there again" contains one positive word "good" and two negative words "not" and "never", thus, the tool records it as a negative one. The total amount and percentage of the negative comments under an incident post reveal respondents' attitudes towards Hong Kong. The monthly total amount of the negative comments will be recorded as a variable for the following correlation test.

Besides, this tool automatically switches the traditional Chinese characters to simplified Chinese for analysing, which increases the effective samples of the comments, for many comments made on Sina Weibo are traditional Chinese. Moreover, it is capable of decoding and interpreting the emoji, which further improves the accuracy and validity of this tool. As Cheng and Edwards (2015) explained, comment on Sina Weibo is restricted to 140 Chinese characters, therefore comments are always short and sometimes filled with emoji. These functions of NLPIR ensure the text data to be analysed in a more accurate way. Despite the convenience and many other features, I will take a human coding approach to test the accuracy of the tool. I will follow the same principles as the computer, which is to decide the sentiment by comparing word counts of both positive and negative ones including the emoji.

The samples for testing will be selected from the most commented posts in terms of each type of Hong Kong-Mainland incident.

By conducting the bipolar sentiment analysis from a dual approach, the attitude of potential tourists under different types of Hong Kong-Mainland incidents will be revealed. Also, the incidents data for the subsequent correlation analysis is obtained.

Secondly, the author needs to examine the possible travel intention indicated by the respondents when they commented on the incidents. The principle of doing this is to identify expressions like “boycott Hong Kong”, “never go to Hong Kong” or “who will still go to Hong Kong” within the text comments. Compared to the attitude judgement, the criteria of judging the intention is much more complicated. For instance, as shown in the examples, the negative intention in terms of visiting Hong Kong is always expressed by a group of words rather than a single word, the word combination makes it rather difficult for the computer to determine the travel intention reasonably. Besides, the other problem is that intention is hard to tell in the “text in context” situation. E.g. “Hong Kong is such a good place, I really want to pay a visit” under a report of “Mainland tourist beaten to death in Hong Kong by forced shopping” definitely does not mean the commenter wants to visit Hong Kong, but the contrary. Again, the computer is helpless facing such a challenge. In fact, so far, there is no suitable computer tool to conduct such an analysis. The nature of language processing is quite a newly emerging study area and most of the current progress in this area remains in the sentiment analysis stage, especially for the Chinese language (Lu & Wang, 2012).

Additionally, when looking into the comments, there are different ways of expressing travel intentions to Hong Kong. Some indicated they would not visit Hong Kong anymore, while others called for boycotting travelling to Hong Kong, and some just hesitated about the visit. Thus, being limited by the techniques, budgets and time, I choose to code the comments data manually, in order to obtain an accurate and specific result in terms of the travel intention.

Consequently, by doing content analysis, the impact of Chinese cyber nationalism on tourists' attitudes and travel intentions towards Hong Kong is uncovered. Also, the processed incidents data for the Pearson correlation tests is properly prepared.

4.6.3 SPSS for Correlation analysis

Nowadays, most quantitative data are turned into a "machine-readable form, so that computers can read and manipulate the data" (Babbie, 2004). Jennings (2010) regards SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) as one of the most popular quantitative software packages in tourism, travel and hospitality research. As the name asserts, it is a software developed by IBM that enables the researcher to conduct statistical analyses of quantitative data. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) test is one of the featured functions of SPSS. A correlation coefficient is a simultaneous fluctuation occurring between two variables due to a direct or indirect cause. Pearson's r test is a measure of the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the two variables. The correlation coefficient, r , ranges from -1 to +1. Although the literature has different interpretations in terms of the r , a basic agreed principle is that the closer the value of r gets to zero, the greater the variation the data points are around the line of best fit (Green & Salkind, 2010).

After the previous data analysis steps, processed data of both monthly tourist arrivals and Hong Kong-Mainland incidents would then be put into the SPSS Statistics software for further correlation tests, to investigate the correlation between actual Mainland Chinese tourist arrivals in Hong Kong and both the instant and long-term Chinese cyber nationalistic sentiment respectively. The first group of data for the correlation test is the monthly tourist arrivals growth rate compared to the previous year and the negative comments count in the same month, which are calculated and recorded in the previous data analysis process. The second group of data to be tested is the simple moving average (SMA) monthly tourist arrivals growth rate compared to the previous year and the contemporaneous negative comments count.

As mentioned in the research design section, in order to derive a more consistent signal, I smooth the sentiment ratio with the simple moving average (SMA) over a window of the past period to measure the accumulated Chinese online nationalistic sentiment towards Hong Kong. SMA is commonly used

to measure the accumulated weight of variables (O'Connor et al., 2010). SMA is the unweighted mean of the previous n data. The formula is as below. Pn means the monthly negative nationalistic comments count by the month of n.

$$SMA = \frac{P1 + P2 + \dots + Pn}{n}$$

4.7 Summary

This chapter discussed the methodological ideas of conducting a research and explained the approaches adopted by this study due to its paradigm, research question and objectives. By figuring out the nature of this research, the author explained how the research design is carried out and adapted for this particular study topic. Following the research design, the author then addressed the methods of sampling, data collection and data analysis, as well as the instruments employed. Specifically, the author discussed the procedure of online data collection, the principle of processing both numerical and text data, and the reason for choosing the techniques when conducting content analysis. Due to the restriction of techniques, time and money, the author adopts the dual approach of conducting the content analysis including sentiment analysis.

Meanwhile, the author addressed the limitations of the methods employed. Firstly, the choice of using secondary data meant that the author was unable to acquire all the answers wanted from the respondents. Secondly, for the sentiment analysis, the computer-assisted tool is not perfect in justifying the emotion of a text with high accuracy. Thirdly, the human coding approach for intention analysing could only deal with a portion of the overall samples, which may cause bias in the result. Lastly, the correlation test could only reveal the statistical strength of the mutual relation between the study objects, but not the causation.

Chapter5 Findings and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis, followed by the discussion. This will begin with the interpretation of the Mainland tourist arrivals pattern in the past 13 years, revealing the distribution, development and tendency of Mainland visitors to Hong Kong. It then presents the content analysis results demonstrating tourists' attitudes towards Hong Kong under the nationalistic incident reports, as well as the travel intentions involved. Following this, the Pearson correlation test results in terms of Chinese cyber nationalistic sentiment strength and tourist arrivals are presented to imply a relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and tourists' actual purchasing behaviour. All the findings will be discussed thoroughly with the corresponding literature.

5.2 Mainland tourist arrivals pattern in Hong Kong

The Hong Kong Tourism Board (2016) publishes the tourist arrivals statistics monthly and publicly online, which offers an official channel to obtain continuous tourist arrivals data. In order to gain a comprehensive understanding of Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong, both of the monthly Mainland Chinese tourist arrivals in Hong Kong and monthly overnight tourist arrivals (stay for at least one night) during January 2002 to March 2016 are drawn as below (Figures 5.1 and 5.2).

Based on the data, the author discusses the patterns including seasonality, growth tendency and disorders, as well as the reasons behind. Besides, tourist arrivals data from 2002 to 2010 were used to build the ARIMA forecasting model to "estimate" tourist arrivals during the study period (2012-2016) without online nationalistic discussions, and were then compared to the actual arrivals. The accuracy test results of the model are presented and discussed, as well as the comparison between the "forecasted" arrivals and real arrivals record.

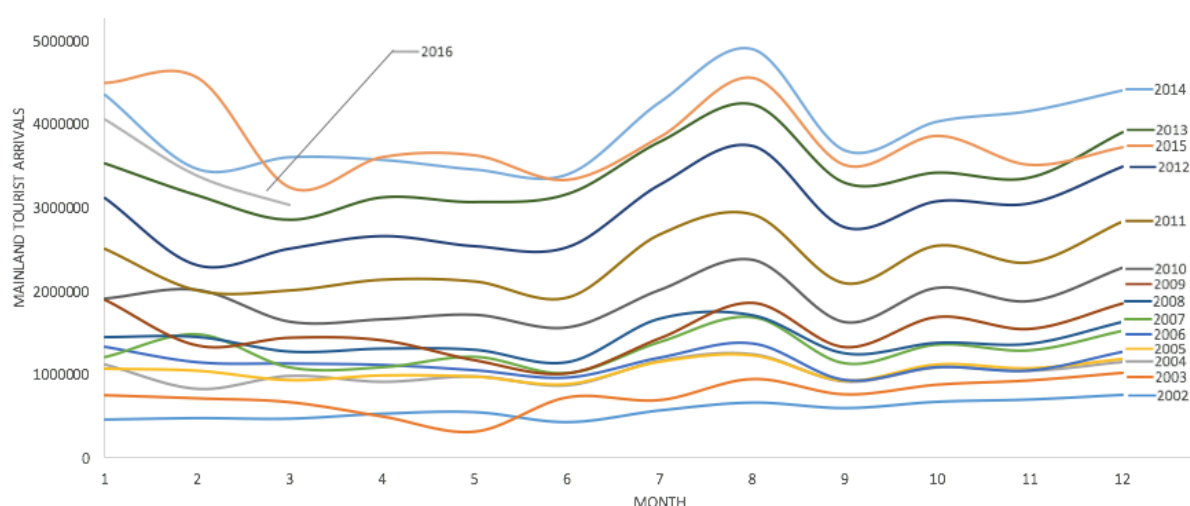


Figure 5.1. Monthly Mainland Chinese tourist arrivals in Hong Kong (2002.01-2016.03)

Source. Data retrieved and adapted from HKCSD (2016).

Note. For Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2, the horizontal axis refers to 12 months from January to December, the vertical axis means the tourist arrivals number of corresponding month. Each horizontal extended curve refers to a single year. Curves are marked by different colours meaning different years and the matchup is shown on the right of the figure.

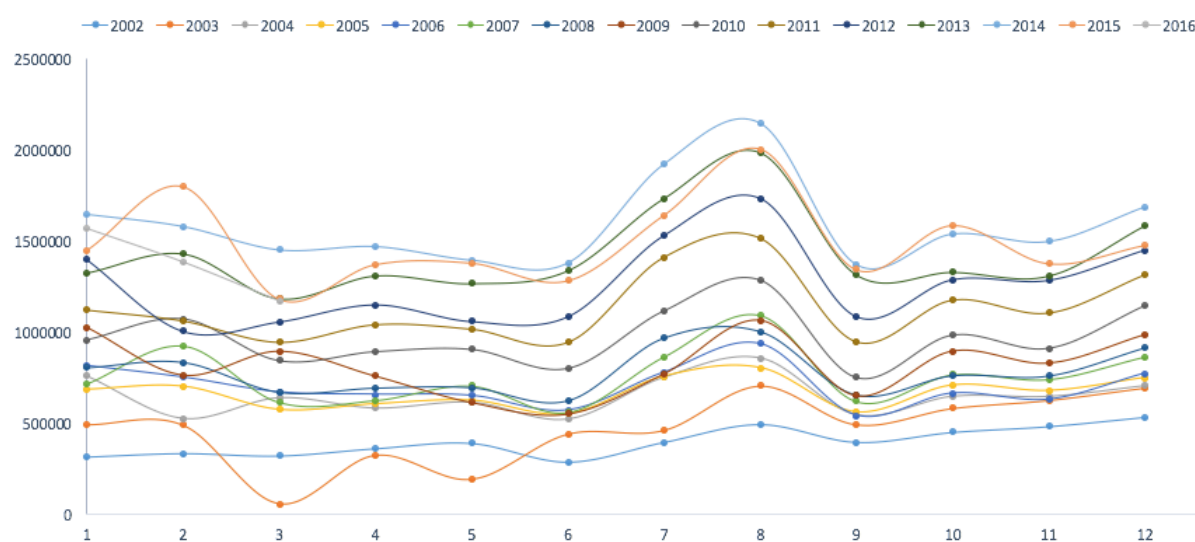


Figure 5.2. Monthly overnight Chinese tourist arrivals in Hong Kong (2002.01-2016.03)

Source. Data retrieved and adapted from HKCSD (2016).

5.2.1 Seasonality and growth tendency

According to the figures above, it is not difficult to find that both of the figures present clear regularity despite occasional disorders. Moreover, the patterns of the two figures are highly consistent.

Firstly, both the overall tourist arrivals and overnight arrivals show very strong seasonality. According to the figures, the number of Mainland Chinese tourist arrivals in Hong Kong normally has evidenced fluctuations in early spring of each year (January to March), and the crest moves back and forth between January and February. The appearance of the crest is mainly related to the Spring Festival, which is a national holiday for all Chinese people that is always in January or February, depending on the Chinese Lunar calendar. For most people, the holiday lasts for more than a week, and for students it normally lasts as long as a month because of the winter holiday, which is also the second longest school holiday. Thus, this period generates one of the biggest Chinese outbound travel waves.

The next season from April to June always shows a relatively gentle pattern. But the third season ushers in another big wave of mass tourists. This distinct fluctuation starts from June, reaches its peak in August and ends in September, which is also the period of the Chinese student summer holiday. As studied by Song and Witt (2006), the two months' summer holiday in July and August is the longest school holiday for students and could greatly stimulate Chinese outbound tourism, with Hong Kong as a destination being no exception.

Following this, another crest happens in August accompanied by the 7-day Oct 1st Chinese national holiday, which is popularly called the "Golden week" by Chinese media. After this wave, the curves once again bounce to a new crest in December, which is mainly because of the Christmas shopping season in Hong Kong when Mainlanders flood in for budget shopping (Song et al., 2003; Zhang & Lam, 1999).

Secondly, the figures show that both the overall tourist arrivals and the overnight arrivals present stable growth annually. The interval distance between two adjacent curves indicates the variation of the contemporaneous tourist arrivals between the two years. The greater the distance, the more tourist arrivals grow. The monthly growth in the first six years from 2002 to 2008 is not regular but still the annual tourist arrivals kept on growing gently. The second six years from 2009 presents a sharper

growth tendency, and the monthly growth shows a generally stable growth than the previous years. In other words, Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong have increased much faster after 2009. This is mostly caused by the “multiple-entry permit plan” released on 1 April 2009. This policy has greatly influenced the Mainland tourist visitation patterns in Hong Kong. As some of many who criticised this policy, Liu and McKercher (2014) argued that the policy was controversial as the increasing numbers of day visitors have proven to be voracious consumers of household products, outcompeting residents for such items as diapers, baby food and other basic consumer goods. Instead of going to attractions and/or remaining in tourist nodes, these tourists have entered residential shopping districts. They have created a range of adverse social impacts as their behaviour is unlike overnight tourists.

Lastly, as shown in Figure 5.3, the annual growth rate of Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong continues to go down since 2012, and it has become negative in 2015, which means tourist arrival numbers in 2015 were less than in 2014. The performance of the first season in 2016 indicates that this situation is getting worse. It is important to explore whether this might be related to the increasing Hong Kong-Mainland incidents and the popular nationalistic reports and discussions online. In order to make a comparison with and without the online spread of nationalism towards Hong Kong, the author created an ARIMA forecasting model to “estimate” the tourist arrivals in the next section.

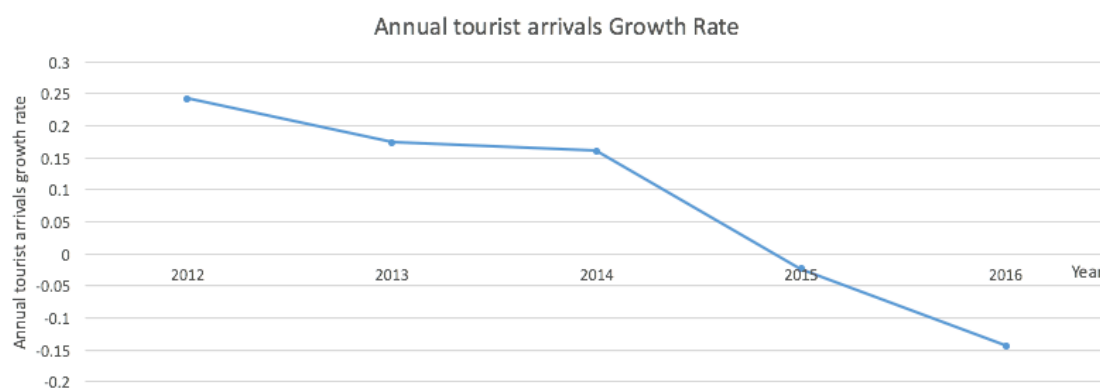


Figure 5.3. Annual growth rate of Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong

Note. The horizontal axis refers to 5 years from 2012 to 2016, the vertical axis means the annual tourist arrivals growth rate. The average growth rate of 2016 is calculated with the data of the first season. Data retrieved and adapted from HKCSD (2016).

5.2.2 ARIMA forecasting result

As mentioned in 4.6.1. the ARIMA forecasting model was built based on the monthly tourist arrivals from January 2004 to December 2010. The R-squared value is 0.85, indicating a good fit. In order to test the accuracy of the forecasting model, the author forecasted and compared the visitor arrivals in 2011. The result is shown in table 5.1:

Table 5.1 Comparison of forecasted tourist arrivals and actual arrivals in 2011

Month	2011 Actual arrival	2011 Forecasted arrival	Difference
1	2 503 151	2 530 820	1%
2	2 008 173	1 914 872	5%
3	2 009 130	1 996 814	1%
4	2 136 896	2 005 367	6%
5	2 115 413	1 975 711	7%
6	1 924 603	1 828 861	5%
7	2 677 326	2 583 449	4%
8	2 914 914	2 886 267	1%
9	2 094 360	1 956 254	7%
10	2 542 465	2 631 982	4%
11	2 343 939	2 155 580	8%
12	2 829 759	2 852 114	1%

Note. Created by the author. Data of actual Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong in 2001 is retrieved from HKCSD (2016).

The table shows that the forecasting model presents high accuracy of monthly tourist arrivals, with eight percent being the greatest deviance from actual arrivals. The author then applied this model into the forecasting from January 2012 to March 2016 during which cyber nationalistic incidents between HK and Mainland China were normally reported, the result is shown as below in Figure 5.4:

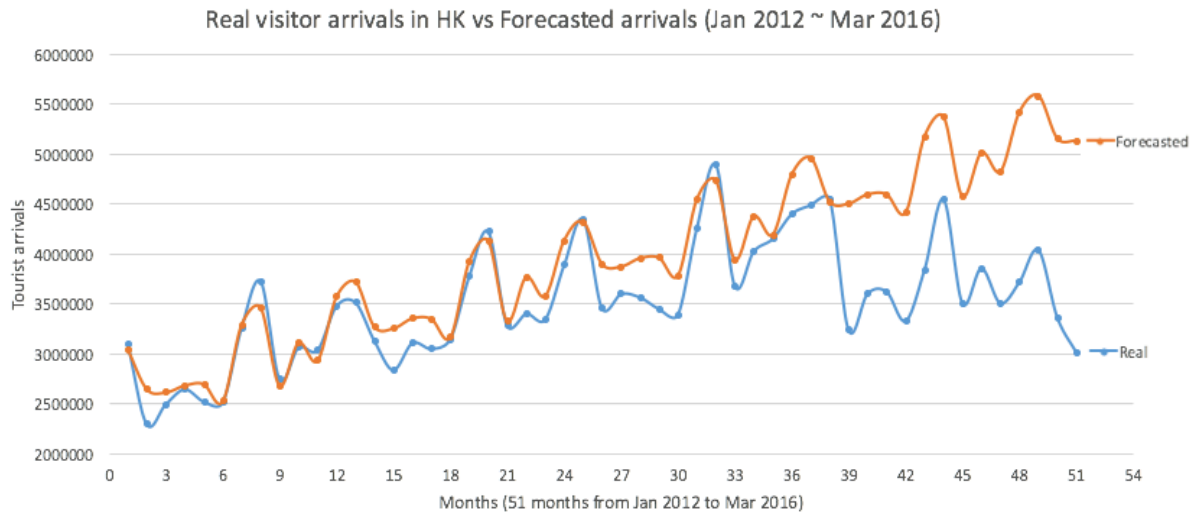


Figure 5.4. ARIMA forecasted monthly tourist arrivals vs actual arrivals (2012.01–2016.03)
Note. The horizontal axis refers to months from January 2012 to March 2016, the vertical axis means the tourist arrivals. The actual arrival data is retrieved and adapted from HKCSD (2016).

The figure above shows that during the study period, the monthly forecasted visitor arrivals are mostly greater than actual arrivals, which indicates that there might be more Mainland visitors had nationalistic conflicts not occurred. Moreover, the figure shows that as time goes on, the difference between the forecasted number and the real one becomes more distinct, implying that the impact of successive nationalistic incidents is having a cumulative effect.

5.3 Chinese cyber nationalism patterns on Weibo

As the pattern of Mainland Chinese tourists visiting Hong Kong is revealed in the former section, this section discusses the pattern of Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong. In other words, the section covers how the incidents in terms of Hong Kong and Mainland conflicts were spread and discussed online.

5.3.1 Manifestation of Chinese cyber nationalism

As suggested in the literature, there are mainly three kinds of Chinese cyber nationalism: official nationalism, mass nationalism and intellectual nationalism (Wang, 2006). However, in this particular

research context, by exploring the contents of all the posts, the author believed that these posts regarding Hong Kong-Mainland conflicting events cannot be simply classified by this categorisation. For example, the posts bearing official nationalism include both Chinese official speeches and Hong Kong official speeches. Although both kinds of posts were published by journalists of Sina news, they were originally made by officials from both sides who take different positions. As the two types of posts might initiate different attitudes towards Hong Kong, they are better to be analysed separately.

Similarly, posts carrying mass Chinese nationalism can be both political and non-political. Although they were all created by editors or journalists from Sina news, they may have different impacts on potential tourists' behaviour due to their different attributes. Thus, the author has also discussed them separately. Additionally, since one of the main topics of this study is tourists, the author furthermore divided the non-political posts into tourism-related and normal non-political ones. Based on this, the author reclassified the Hong Kong-Mainland incident posts on Sina news into five types:

Type 1. Hong Kong official speech. Reports within this range refer to those official speeches made by the members of the Government of Hong Kong toward Hong Kong-Mainland issues. They were collected and then edited by editors from Sina news. Reports of this type are always gentle and rational as the Hong Kong government is essentially attached to the CCP. To some extent, Hong Kong official speeches are more like balanced responses to the central government and local residents rather than the "Hong Kong nativism" which is mainly against Mainland China (Ip, 2015). For example, "Chief Executive of Hong Kong Leung Chun Ying: Hong Kong schools have the right to decide to implement Chinese national education or not." On one hand, the Hong Kong government tends to follow the wish of its people; on the other hand, it has to face the pressure applied by the China central government.

Type 2. Chinese official speech. These kinds of posts were created by journalists of Sina news but were originally made by the Chinese officials in public. The main idea of these kinds of reports serves to the Chinese official needs, dedicated to defending and safeguarding China and the Chinese government. Compared to the Hong Kong official speech, reports of this type always adopt a tougher tone. Most of these speeches are not responses to the Hong Kong government but initiatives to situations in Hong Kong. For some extent, as Zhao (2005) argued, Sina Weibo as a media is utilised by the Chinese

government as a “tool” for propaganda purposes. An example of this type is “Official from the Chinese People’s Political Consultative Conference claims saddened about Hong Kongers waving British national flag.”

Type 3. Political incidents. This kind of report refers to those political conflicts caused by Hong Kong residents, which suit mass nationalism. These posts were published by Sina news based on news events. For instance, posts like “Few Hong Kongers boycott donation to Sichuan earthquake, resulting in abortion of the 100 million Hong Kong Government donation plan” is classified under this type. According to the statistics (Table 5.1), this is the most reported type of Sina news (34% of the total).

Type 4. Incidents regarding tourists or tourism. As described by the name, this type of post involves Mainland tourists or tourist-related policies. Just like the political incidents, posts of this type were also published by Sina news based on news events in Hong Kong. This is the second most popular type of Sina news. For example, one notorious incident involved a Mainland couple who allowed their two-year-old to defecate on a Hong Kong street. The headline described the local response: “Around 30 Hong Kong protesters sat on yellow plastic poos in a crowded mall mocking the Mainlanders.”

Type 5. Non-political incidents excluding tourism. Posts of this type are normally social events related to Hong Kong residents excluding tourist-related issues, which is the least mentioned type on Sina news. For example, “Indian man swaggered away without being stopped after beating a Hong Konger in Hong Kong subway.” The same as the political incidents, posts of this type were also created by Sina news based on the news events that occurred in Hong Kong society. Although Mainland Chinese were normally not involved in this kind of post, they were quite enthusiastic in commenting on such posts because these posts always displayed the dishonourable side of the Hong Kong people which was despised by Mainlanders as “港怂” (gang song, Hong Kong people who bully Mainlanders but fear the foreigners), as mentioned in 1.1. Thus, this type of post is also potentially influential in terms of Mainland tourists’ attitudes and travel intentions toward Hong Kong.

Table 5.2 Statistics of different types of HK– Mainland conflict event posts on Sina news

Year	Type1 HK official	Type2 CN official	Type 3 Political incidents	Type 4 Tourist-related	Type 5 Non-political	Total
2012	15	7	1	15	22	60
2013	16	20	10	29	9	84
2014	33	43	139	25	20	260
2015	25	8	25	37	13	108
2016	8	5	10	3	8	34
Total	97	83	185	109	72	546

Source. Data retrieved and adapted from Sina news (2016)

According to table 5.2 above, it is clear to see the year 2014 has the most posts, especially for the Type 3 (Political), which shares more than half of the total posts (54%). According to the contents of the posts, this is mainly contributed by the large number of reports regarding the famous “Occupy Central with Love and Peace” campaign, which was part of the Umbrella Revolution (Ip, 2015). A series of protests burst in Hong Kong between 26 Sep 2014 and 15 Dec 2014. Protests including occupations of main roads, sit-ins, civil disobedience, mobile street protests, internet activism, hunger strikes and hacking were used during the prolonged demonstration. The cause of this was the Standing Committee of the National People’s Congress (NPCSC) decision on electoral reform regarding future Hong Kong Chief Executive and Legislative Council elections. Protestors called for genuine universal suffrage, which went against PRC’s policy and retraction of the NPCSC’s decision.

Apart from the increasing number of political issue posts, government speeches (types 1 and 2) kept a stable share of all the posts. Posts relating to tourism (type 4) remained a significant portion in all years. For instance, tourism related incident reports share the most in 2013 and 2015, with the biggest share of 34.5% and 34.3% respectively.

5.3.2 Response of “angry youth”

Moving on to the comments under the posts, the author listed the annual comments statistics in terms of each type of post as below (Table 5.3). This was done with the assistance of PKUVIS tool, which recorded the count of comments under the posts automatically when deriving data from Sina news.

After classifying all the posts based on the standard stated at the beginning of 5.3.1, the author then added the comment numbers together under each type of post respectively, and got the statistics of annual comment numbers. It is clear that the tourism-related posts (type 4) produced the most comments during the study period, with 187,333 comments in total, followed by the political ones (type 3) with a total of 147,881 comments. Non-political ones (type 5), Hong Kong (type 1) and Mainland Chinese official speeches (type 2) generated relatively fewer comments.

Table 5.3 Statistics of annual comments in terms of each type of posts on Sina news

Year	Type 1 HK official	Type2 CN official	Type 3 Political incidents	Type 4 Tourism-related	Type 5 Non-political	Total
2012	10099	14132	1034	11800	11738	48803
2013	7728	11862	28930	36069	10184	94773
2014	8883	18954	44199	53604	25383	151023
2015	13333	618	63155	77389	11729	166224
2016	7510	933	10563	8871	7111	34988
Total	47553	46499	147881	187733	66145	495811

Note. Created by the author. Data of 2016 only covers 3 months from January to March.

Additionally, Figure 5.6 below shows that the annual comments kept on growing during 2012 to 2015 (2016 is excluded because this research is done in 2016, and the data for this year is not complete). Especially, when compared to the annual count of posts, even though there were fewer posts in 2015 than the previous year, the comments continued to grow in 2015. The ever-increasing comments may imply the growing online Chinese cyber nationalistic sentiment regarding Hong Kong-Mainland incidents.

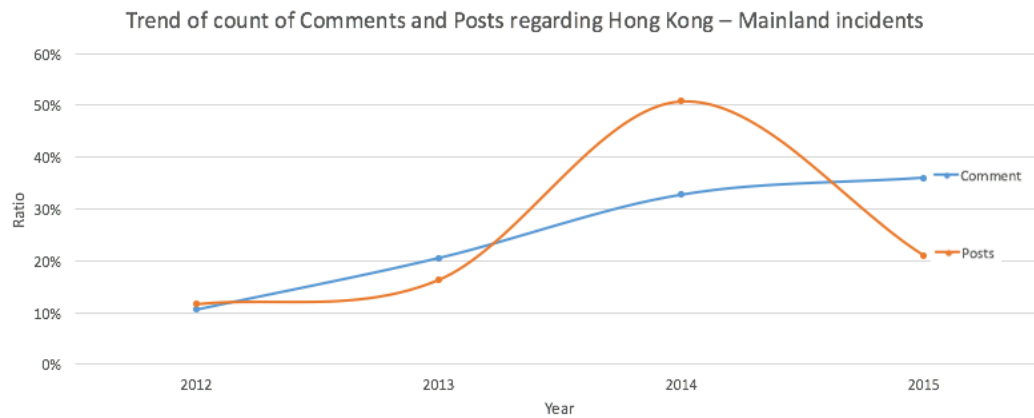


Figure 5.5. Trend of Comments and Posts regarding Hong Kong-Mainland incidents
Source. Data retrieved and adapted from Sina (2016).

Note. The horizontal axis refers to years from 2012 to 2015. The vertical axis shows the ratio of the count of the posts and comments during the period, in order to present the tendency of the two in one figure.

Apart from the comments, Sina Weibo has two other features: Forward and Like. Registered users can forward the original post on their own timeline, or simply click Like, indicating they like the original post. Counts of Forwards and Likes can be reference indicators of users' perception of a post (Cheng & Edwards, 2015). The statistics of the total amount of Like, Forward and Comment in terms of the five types of incidents is shown as below (Figure 5.7):

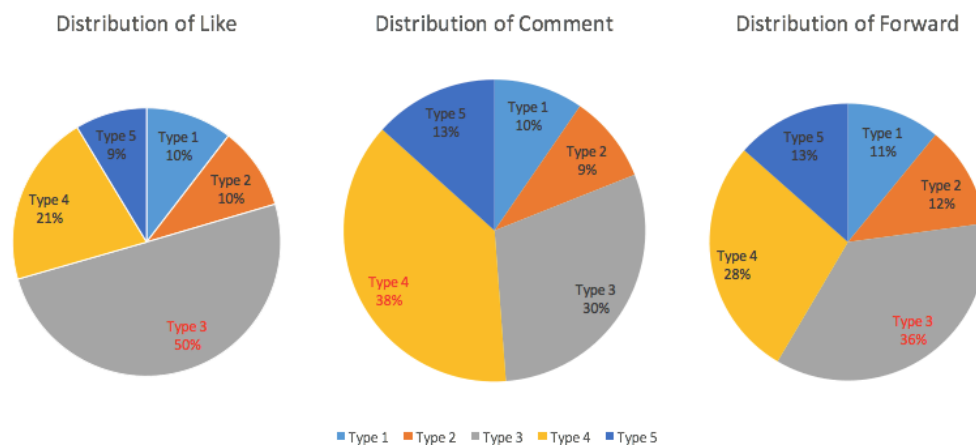


Figure 5.6. Overall distribution of Comment/Like/Forward under the reports
Note. Created by the author. Data retrieved and adapted from Sina (2016)

Overall, despite the quantity difference of Comment/Like/Forward in terms of each type of post, it is not difficult to find that political incidents (type 3) and tourism-related (type 4) are the dominant ones. Among all the five types of Hong Kong-Mainland incident reports, Chinese netizens preferred to “like” and forward political incident reports (type 3), and comment on tourism-related issues (type 4). This suggests that they were most concerned with tourism issues regarding Hong Kong-Mainland conflicts.

In order to gain a direct understanding of the geographic characters of the commenters, the author created marked maps to illustrate it (Figure 5.5). As introduced in the data collection section in 4.5, the tool PKUVIS utilised by the author can not only derive all the posts and comments from Sina news, but also the basic information of the commenters, such as registered gender and location. The data of gender was then put into another software to be visualised on the Chinese map. The five maps in Figure 5.5 represent the distribution of all participants under Hong Kong-Mainland conflict event reports. The shadows in the map refer to commenters from different provinces of China. The darker the shadow is, the more participants are from this area. Although the Internet is an anonymous space where netizens can create their profiles freely, this result indicates their general geographic characteristics.

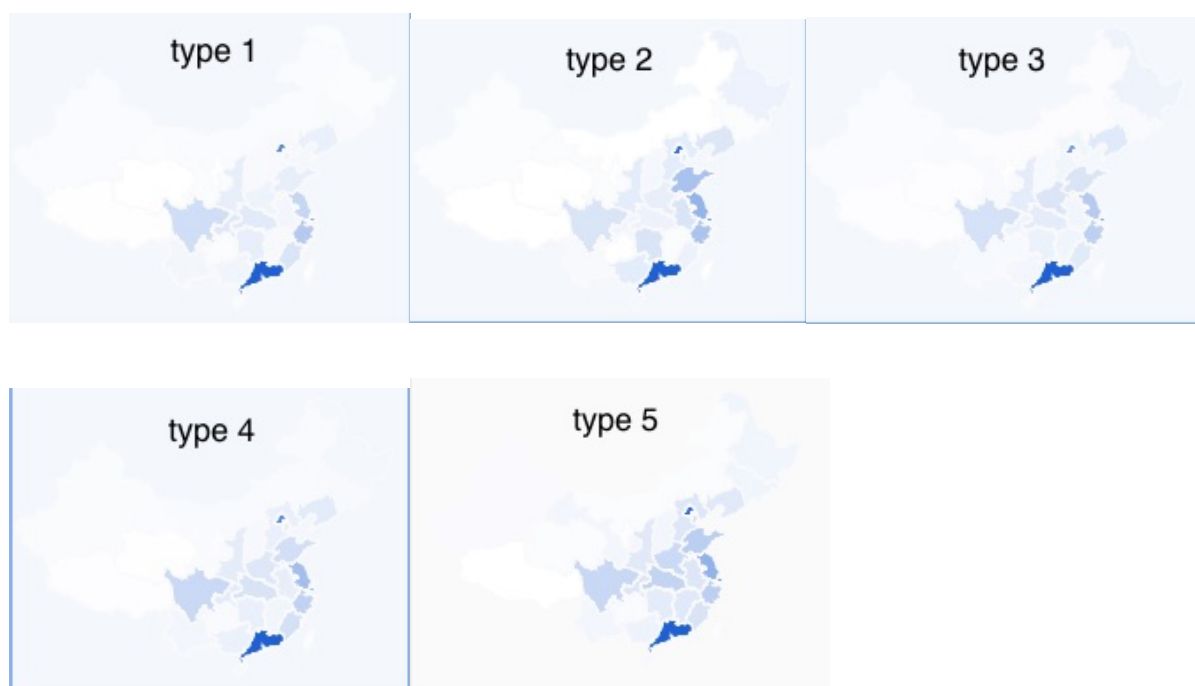


Figure 5.7. Geographic distribution of online commenters
Note: Created by the author. Data retrieved and adapted from Sina news (2016)

The maps show that most of the participants are from the South-east of China, especially the eastern coastal provinces, which are also more developed areas of China, among which Guangdong (the darkest part at the bottom of the maps) produced the most commenters. As stated by Wu (2016), Chinese cyber nationalists are those who are relatively young, educated, independent and have a good income. The geographic distribution result goes in accordance with this. Besides, as discussed in the Mainland tourists to HK section, tourists from Guangdong comprise the biggest part of all visitors from Mainland China with a share of 55.3%. Other provinces make up the other half. Coincidentally, the maps show that residents from Guangdong are much more concerned with the incident reports regarding Hong Kong-Mainland incidents than people from other provinces in China. Thus, the result of the respondents' geographical distribution is highly consistent with the distribution of Mainland tourists to Hong Kong.

Apart from the geographical characteristics, the author also presents the gender distribution as shown in Table 5.4. Overall, male users are much more active than females towards Hong Kong-Mainland disputes (type 1, 2, 3, 5) except when it comes to tourism-related incidents (type 4). Compared to the other four (type 1, 2, 3, 5), respondents' gender distribution in terms of tourism-related reports is similar to the pattern found in tourist statistics as shown previously in Figure 2.3 (male 39%, female 61%).

Table 5.4 Gender distribution of online commenters in terms of different types of incidents

Type	Male	Female
1. HK official	65%	35%
2. Chinese official	71%	29%
3. Political	75%	25%
4. Tourism-related	47%	53%
5. Non-political	73%	27%

Note. Created by the author. Data retrieved and adapted from (Sina, 2016)

In summary, the growing comments show that Chinese netizens are more and more enthusiastic about participating in online discussions in terms of Hong Kong-Mainland incident reports. These respondents are nation-wide, but most of them are located in the South-east of China, especially Guangdong province. Normally, men are more active than women except when the incidents are tourism-related. Tourism-related issues (type 4) are also the second most shown and the most commented on, compared to official speeches (type 1&2), mass political incidents (type 3) and other non-political ones (type 5).

The findings reveal that the demographic characteristics of Chinese cyber nationalism participants regarding Hong Kong-Mainland issues are highly consistent with those of Mainland tourists to Hong Kong. Additionally, their passion for online tourism-related posts implies that their travel behaviour may also be affected by those reports.

5.4 Attitude towards Hong Kong

To some extent, clicking “Forward” and “Like” reflects people’s attention toward the reports; however, as they only forward news as long as they think it is important or interesting, it is not possible to tell what kind of feelings they really have as they forward them (Hyun & Kim, 2015). Similarly, when people click “Like”, it is impossible to tell their real emotions. For example, as tourists hold different perceptions towards Chinese nationalism (Cheng & Wong, 2014a), when people read a post that shows that a Chinese tourist was beaten to death in Hong Kong caused by forced shopping and suspects have been arrested, they may “Like” simply because the suspects have been arrested, they may also “Like” because they think it is a scandal of the Hong Kong tourism industry and then are happy to see this. Therefore, it is not practical to determine their attitude toward the posts by measuring “Forward” and “Like”. The only feasible way of detecting their attitude is by digging the content of comments.

5.4.1 Comparison of Computer-assisted versus Human coding results

As explained in the research design section, in order to deal with the massive comments derived online, the author adopted the computer-assisted tool NLPIR (NLPIR, 2016) to help with the text sentiment analysis. The goal of this was to find and count the negative comments under the posts. Since various computer tools have been designed and applied in studies of sentiment analysis (Liu, 2012; O'Connor et al., 2010; Pang & Lee, 2008), before commencing with the computer analysis, the author also did a manual analysis to test the accuracy of NLPIR. The samples chosen for the test are the comments of the most commented upon posts in terms of each type of incident. The sample comments constitute 10% of the total. The comparison result of the two approaches is presented as below (Table 5.5):

Table 5.5 Comparison of computer tool and human coding on sentiment analysis

Type of post	Content of post	Negative comments ratio found by Computer	Negative comments ratio found by author
1. HK official	Chief Executive of Hong Kong Leung Chun Ying: Hong Kong schools have right to decide to implement Chinese national education or not.	40%	2%
2. CN official	Official from the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference claims saddening about Hong Kongers waving British national flag.	45%	37%
3. Political	Few Hong Kongers boycott donation to Sichuan earthquake, resulting in abortion of the 100 million Hong Kong Government donation plan.	51%	5%
4. Tourism-related	Around 30 Hong Kong protesters sat on yellow plastic poos in a crowded mall mocking the Mainlanders.	69%	64%
5. Non-political	Indian man left swaggering after beating a Hong Konger in Hong Kong subway.	67.5%	65%

Note. Created by the author. Data retrieved and adapted from Sina (2016).

The result shows that the computer-assisted tool presents high accuracy on analysis of three types of incidents: Chinese official speeches (type 2), tourism-related issues (type 4), and non-political ones (type 5). Among which, tourist-related reports (type 4) and non-political incidents (type 5) generate the most negative comments ratio towards Hong Kong. Both of the computer and human processing identified that more than 60% of the comments express negative attitudes towards Hong Kong. As the model of Planned Behaviour Theory explains, information acquired by consumers decide their perceptions of behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs, and would further affect their attitude toward behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control respectively (Armitage & Conner, 2001). In this case, non-political Hong Kong-Mainland incidents reflect the tourism policies and travel environment in Hong Kong that are closely connected with the commenters who are also potential tourists to Hong Kong. These reports strengthen the negative perception of Mainlanders of Hong Kong, and consequently result in their negative attitudes towards Hong Kong. Thus, the Chinese

cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong is more likely to be hastened by the posts of tourism-related incidents (type 4) and non-political issues (type 5) rather than political ones (type 3) and official speeches (type 1&2).

However, results with regard to Hong Kong official speeches (type 1) and political incidents (type 3) vary greatly between the computer and the author. For these two types, the computer generated many more negative comments than the author. As for Hong Kong official speeches (type 1), the computer produced 40% of negative comments, while the human coding only got 2%. The reason behind this is that the computer could only justify if there are more negative words than positive ones in a text, but was unable to tell whom the negative emotion was pointed to. For instance, the tested post reported that Chief Executive of Hong Kong Leung Chun Ying announced Hong Kong schools have the right to decide to implement Chinese moral and national education programme or not. When looking into the content of the comments, most of the Chinese netizens expressed support for Hong Kong as they believe it is wrong to force Hong Kong to accept the “brainwashing” of education. They condemn Chinese education systems and insist that Hong Kong people are entitled to make the decision themselves. Therefore, most of the negative comments that were justified by the computer were actually towards the Chinese government rather than Hong Kong. As a matter of fact, reports of Hong Kong official speeches (type 1) are always gentle, neutral and rational, which normally shows the strong democracy that the Chinese netizens yearn for. The reports never indicate any anti-China sentiment. Thus, this type of report is very unlikely to incite negative sentiment towards Hong Kong. This result also goes in accordance with the literature that the mass of Chinese cyber nationalists is those who are concerned more about the Chinese government’s controversial policies and tend to criticise them rather than care about other parties (Lei, 2011; Li, 2009). In other words, they’re more rational when facing official nationalism (Lei, 2011). As Wu (2007) argued, Chinese cyber nationalists are people who love their country in the way they wish it to be, while patriots are people who love the country whatever it is.

Meantime, both the computer and the human coding found strong negative sentiment towards Hong Kong within the Chinese official speeches (type 2). Unlike Hong Kong official speeches, the Chinese ones on Sina news are mainly official responses toward Hong Kong’s negative news which are filled

with strong Chinese official nationalism. For example, in this case, the report is about Chinese officials criticising the behaviour of some Hong Kong people holding up the British flag publicly as protesting the enforcement of Chinese Moral and National Education. Although Chinese netizens expressed sympathy to Hong Kong about the Moral and National Education issue, they were not likely to agree with the British flag behaviour, as stated by Balabanis et al. (2001) the basis of Chinese cyber nationalism is patriotism. Whenever they feel it violated, they tend to condemn the corresponding party.

Moving on to political conflict (type 3), the computer got 51% negative comments while the human coding only got 5%. The report is about the Hong Kong public voting to decline to donate for the devastating Sichuan (a province of China) earthquake in 2013, arguing that the notorious “Red Cross scandal” made Chinese officials untrustworthy and they were not confident to put money into the Red Cross Society. In addition, the Hong Kong public believe that China is rich enough to rebuild the disaster area and money from Hong Kong is not essential. Similar to the Chinese moral and national education issue in type 1, instead of condemning Hong Kong, the Chinese netizens criticised the Red Cross with one voice; moreover, they also blamed the media for misleading public opinion because the use of “few Hong Kongers”, arguing that “few” objections were impossible to overturn the donation plan. Once again, this result shows that the mainstream of Chinese cyber nationalists are grassroots who are well-educated and rational, and regard themselves as more righteous (Wu, 2016).

5.4.2 Tendency of monthly comments versus monthly visitation growth rate

According to the discussion above, it is clear to see that whether the negative sentiment is pointed to Hong Kong depends largely on the type of incident. For Hong Kong official speech (type 1) and political issues (type 3), Chinese netizens are very unlikely to express negative sentiment towards Hong Kong, while Chinese official speech (type 2), tourism-related incidents (type 4) and non-political ones (type 5) are highly likely to generate negative attitudes towards Hong Kong. Both the computer and the human coding approaches have successfully identified the negative sentiment contained within the comments in terms of these three types of reports. Based on this, the author input only the comments under the latter three types of reports (types 2, 4 and 5) into the computer tool for monthly negative comments

statistics. To gain a visual understanding of the connection between the Chinese cyber nationalistic sentiment towards Hong Kong and the contemporaneous Mainland tourist arrivals, the author presents the tendency of both monthly online negative comment counts regarding Hong Kong and monthly Mainland visitor arrivals growth rate as below (Figure 5.8). It is interesting to see that the monthly Mainland visitor arrival growth rate goes against with the online negative nationalistic sentiment towards Hong Kong. For instance, a crest of the sentiment is normally accompanied by a trough of the tourist growth rate. That is to say, the stronger the Chinese cyber nationalism, the fewer Mainlanders travel to Hong Kong.

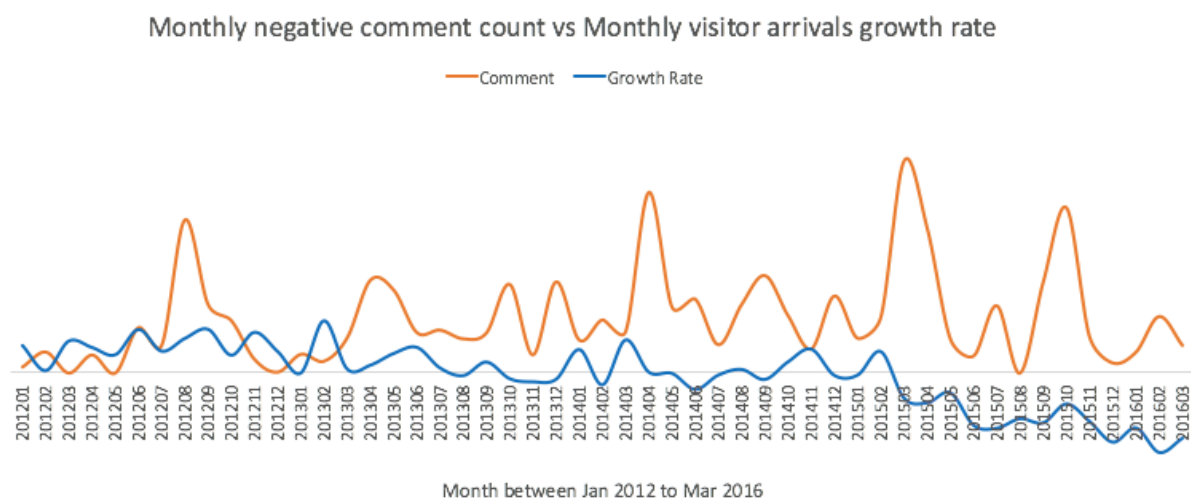


Figure 5.8. Monthly negative comment count vs Monthly Mainland tourist growth rate in HK
Note. The curves show the tendency of the negative comment count (orange) and the monthly Mainland tourist arrival growth rate (blue). Created by the author. Tourist arrivals data are retrieved and adapted from HKTb (2016b); Comments data are retrieved and adapted from Sina (2016).

In summary, the findings show that on Sina news, Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong is most likely to be evoked by tourism-related (type 4) and non-political (type 5) Hong Kong-Mainland incidents posts, rather than the political ones (type 3) and official speeches (type 1&2). Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong can affect potential tourists' travel attitudes towards Hong Kong. The impact varies by different types of incidents. Chinese cyber nationalism generated by tourism-related (type 4) and non-political incidents (type 5) has considerable negative impact on tourists' attitudes, while the political ones (type 3) and Hong Kong official speeches (type 1) generated little impact on

tourists' attitudes. Besides, Chinese cyber nationalism evoked by Chinese official speeches (type 2) can also affect tourists' attitudes negatively, although not as strongly as the tourism-related and non-political ones. The comparison of the tendency regarding netizens' negative comments and tourist arrivals data also implies that Chinese netizens' attitudes towards Hong Kong are negatively related with Mainland tourist's visitations in Hong Kong.

5.5 Travel intention

According to (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Bigné et al., 2001; Horner & Swarbrooke, 2016), tourist's attitudes are consistent with their travel intentions. As explained in the research design section, due to the limitation of computer techniques and the restriction of time and money, the author chose a relatively small sample to conduct the travel intention study. Although the Hong Kong official speech (type 1) and the political incidents (type 3) proved to be of little significance in terms of netizens' negative attitudes towards Hong Kong, the author put these two in the intention study in case of any bias. The sample is comprised with 48,484 comments under five different types of Hong Kong-Mainland incident reports. Each comment was read and recorded if negative intention towards travelling to Hong Kong was observed. As mentioned in 4.6.2, this was done by identifying key words and expressions indicating negative intentions of visiting Hong Kong within the comments. The negative intention here includes claims of 'not go to Hong Kong' or 'not want to go', boycotts of anti-Hong Kong travel, and hesitations about visiting there. Meanwhile, the attitude contained within the comments is also detected and compared with the travel intention. The result of the investigation is shown as below (Table 5.6):

Table 5.6 Content analysis result of respondents' travel intentions towards HK

Type	Comments count	Negative comments ratio	Negative intention ratio
1. HK official	2735	2%	0%
2. CN official	8292	37%	0%
3. Political	10636	5%	0%
4. Tourism-related	19264	64%	12%
5. Non-political	7557	65%	0%

Note. Created by the author. Data retrieved and adapted from Sina (2016).

The result of respondents' travel intentions under Hong Kong official speech (type 1) and political events (type 3) shows that the tourists' travel intention is in line with their attitude towards the destination. When there is no evident negative attitude towards Hong Kong, there is no sign indicating negative travel intention. This is also consistent with Planned Behaviour Theory. Apart from these two, despite obvious negative attitudes towards Hong Kong being observed in Chinese official speech (type 2) and non-political events excluding tourism-related (type 5), no negative travel intention is found within the two. Tourism-related (type 4) is the only type that has generated negative travel intentions towards Hong Kong with a high ratio of 12% over the total comments. This result is possibly related to the method adopted in this study. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, in order to conduct this study from a completely objective perspective, the author collected all existing comments data from the Internet. Since all the text data was generated spontaneously by online users in a free environment without being monitored nor guided by the research, the author had no control over the data and was unable to get all the answers from the respondents. This is regarded as one of the disadvantages of using secondary data (Saunders, 2011; Thomas & Heck, 2001). On the other hand, due to the non-interference, the result of potential tourists' response towards Chinese cyber nationalism can be seen as authentic and reliable.

Additionally, the human coding process helped to find another phenomenon with respect to the impact of Chinese cyber nationalism on potential tourists' travel intention. That is, netizens expressed their

travel intentions to Hong Kong with different levels of degree. Some of them said they would not travel to Hong Kong. Others, however, called for friends and relatives not visiting Hong Kong. While the rest hesitated whether to travel or not. For instance, a comment like “Those who’re still visiting Hong Kong is shameful” is much more intense than “I’d better not go there” and “Oh my, should I cancel my trip to Hong Kong next month?”. This result is consistent with the findings of Cheng and Wong (2014a) in their interview-based study on Chinese tourists’ travel intentions under Sino-Japan disputes. Their nationalism dynamics model illustrates that Chinese popular nationalism has a different influence on Chinese tourists’ travel intentions, depending on the level of nationalism perceived by them. They argued that the more Chinese nationalism is perceived by tourists, the less they intend to visit Japan. Cheng and Wong (2014a) studied this based on primary data generated from interviews and from the tourist perspective, while this study takes the secondary data and investigates the relationship from the view of nationalism itself. In essence, both the two studies reveal Chinese nationalism’s negative impact on Chinese outbound tourists’ travel intentions to relevant destinations.

In brief, the results demonstrate that Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong has a negative impact on netizens' travel intentions to Hong Kong only if and when nationalistic incidents are tourism-related. On one hand, it goes in accordance with the findings in Cheng and Wong (2014a) research that Chinese nationalism has a negative impact on Chinese outbound tourists’ travel intentions. On the other hand, the case of Sino-Japan disputes in their study is more related to official speeches and political incidents, which are found invalid in affecting tourists’ travel intentions in this study. The difference is partly contributed by the methods employed in the two studies. This study was based on online secondary data with some limitations, while they did onsite interviews which allowed them to ask whatever questions they wanted. The other possible reason is that their study object is Japan, a country that has a long history of feuds and enmity with China. However, in this study, it is Hong Kong, a special region of China, which means that the Chinese nationalism studied in the two researches are different.

5.6 Correlation

5.6.1 Correlation between attitude and tourist arrival

Following the investigation of attitude and travel intentions, the study moves on to the relationship between the Chinese cyber nationalism and actual tourist arrival. To be more specific, monthly negative comment counts and contemporaneous monthly tourist arrivals growth rate were put into a correlation test. As suggested by Sarantakos (2012), the precondition of doing a correlation test is to ensure the variables comply with normal distribution. The author drew a normal Q-Q plot to test the normal distribution of selected variables. The result showed that both the two variables follow the normal distribution (Figure 5.9), indicating the reasonableness of assuming a linear association between the two variables.

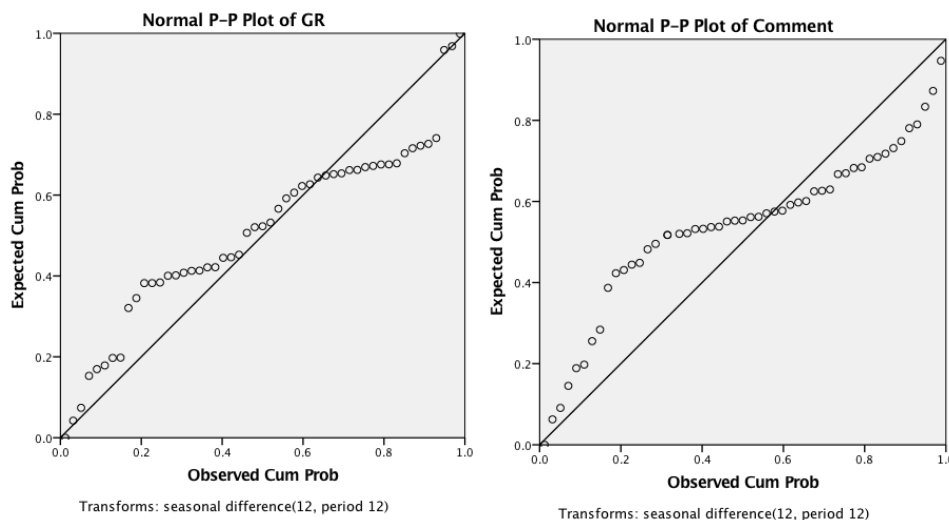


Figure 5.9. SPSS Q-Q plot of normal distribution results

Note. Created by the author. Tourist arrivals data is retrieved and adapted from HKTB (2016b); Comments data is retrieved and adapted from Sina (2016).

The result of the Pearson r test is shown in Table 5.7. The correlation coefficient is -0.461, indicating that the two variables are negatively correlated. According to Pallant and Manual (2001), when $0.3 \leq |r| < 0.5$, the correlation is moderate. P value (Sig.) is .000 means the result is highly significant, and the sample provides enough evidence that the null hypothesis can be rejected for the entire population. Hence, the result shows that the strength of Chinese cyber nationalistic sentiment is moderately and negatively correlated with Mainland visitor arrivals in Hong Kong.

Table 5.7 SPSS Pearson correlation test result I

Correlations		GR	C2
GR	Pearson Correlation	1	-.461**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	1.010	-31297.735
	Covariance	.020	-625.955
	N	51	51
C2	Pearson Correlation	-.461**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-31297.735	4.568E+9
	Covariance	-625.955	91356096.3
	N	51	51

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Note. Created by the author.

This result is not contrary to expectation. As discussed above, although all Hong Kong-Mainland nationalistic incidents would influence potential tourists' attitude towards Hong Kong, only tourism-related ones have an apparent impact on tourists' travel intentions. As tourism-related incidents did not occur every month, the impact of overall Chinese cyber nationalism on tourists' travel intentions may not be significant in each month accordingly. Besides, the secondary data approach makes it hard to tell the real intention in respondents' minds without asking them precise questions. Thus, the author was unable to capture the actual intention in the mind of "fen qing" if they didn't express it in the comment text spontaneously, which may influence the result.

5.6.2 Correlation between SMA attitude and tourist arrival

Following the Pearson correlation test between the monthly negative comment count and contemporaneous monthly tourist arrivals growth rate in Hong Kong, the author took another correlation test with regard to accumulated Chinese cyber nationalism and actual tourist arrivals in Hong Kong. As stated in the research design section, the author applied a Simple Moving Average (SMA) method into the measurement of long-term accumulated Chinese cyber nationalism. The test result shown in Table 5.8 indicates the accumulation of Chinese online nationalistic sentiment is significantly

and negatively correlated with the growth rate of mainland tourist arrival in Hong Kong ($r = -0.84$). Meanwhile, the Sig value shows the result is significantly different from zero ($P = 0$).

Table 5.8 SPSS Pearson correlation test result II

Correlations		GR	MAC
GR	Pearson Correlation	1	-.840**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	1.010	-47643.505
	Covariance	.020	-952.870
	N	51	51
MAC	Pearson Correlation	-.840**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-47643.505	3.185E+9
	Covariance	-952.870	63706328.1
	N	51	51

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Note. Created by the author.

Longitudinal studies regarding long-term nationalism and consumer behaviour are rarely found in the literature. However, the thought of long-term impact can be observed from the comparison of the patterns in terms of Chinese cyber nationalistic sentiment and actual tourist arrivals growth rate. According to Figure 5.8, the overall trend of the monthly visitor arrival growth rate keeps going down and fell below zero after Mar 2015. However, despite several crests, the online nationalistic sentiment towards Hong Kong tends to be smooth. This suggests that the frequently occurring nationalistic incidents between Hong Kong and Mainland China may have a cumulative effect on Mainland visitor arrivals in Hong Kong. The result of the correlation test implies that the accumulated Chinese cyber nationalistic sentiment towards Hong Kong is more closely correlated with Mainland tourists' decision-making towards visiting Hong Kong.

5.7 Summary

This chapter presented the findings by the analysis process, followed by discussion. Firstly, the general tendency of Mainland visitation to Hong Kong is adverse to the development of Chinese cyber nationalism. Statistics of posts and comments on Sina news show that Mainland Chinese netizens became more and more enthusiastic in participating in Hong Kong-Mainland incidents discussions during the study period. The monthly Mainland visitation to Hong Kong during the period, however, presents a continued momentum of decline. Additionally, the ARIMA forecasting result shows that there might have been many more Mainland tourists to Hong Kong without the frequent Hong Kong-Mainland incidents.

Secondly, the findings of content analysis reveal that manifestation of Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong on Sina news contains five main types: The Hong Kong official speeches, the Chinese official speeches, the non-political incidents, the tourism-related incidents and the non-political ones. All five types of posts would negatively impact Mainland netizens' attitude towards Hong Kong, and the level of impact varies by the type of post among which, tourism-related and non-political incidents are most likely to provoke negative attitudes towards Hong Kong, followed by the Chinese official speeches. Hong Kong official speeches and political incidents are not likely to incite Chinese netizen's nationalistic sentiment. Besides, posts on Sina news regarding Hong Kong-Mainland incidents are found to be influential on Mainland netizens' intentions of visiting Hong Kong. However, among all the five types of posts, only tourism-related posts have proved to have an evident negative impact on Mainland netizens' travel intentions to Hong Kong. The other four types were not found to be influential according to the content analysis results. Nevertheless, it is more precise to say that Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism, born in these four types, is not strong enough to stimulate Mainland netizens to claim weak intentions of visiting Hong Kong spontaneously, rather than affirming that it has no impact on their travel intention.

Lastly, the correlation tests revealed that Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism is negatively and moderately correlated with Mainland visitations in Hong Kong. Moreover, the tests showed that the accumulation of Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism is significantly correlated with Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong. Although the findings did not reveal the causality between the two, they offer a

clear view of the relationship between Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism and potential tourists' pre-travel behaviour, as well as the reasons behind it.

Chapter6 Conclusion and Suggestions

6.1 Recapitulation

This study set out to investigate the relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and Chinese outbound tourists' pre-travel behaviour in the context of Mainlanders visiting Hong Kong. To be more specific, it is dedicated to examining the impact of Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism on Mainland tourists' attitudes and travel intentions to Hong Kong and the relationship between short-term/long-term Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism and Mainland visitations in Hong Kong.

Chinese cyber nationalism has played a significant role in politics and economics in China, and is widely regarded as “double-edged sword” for its function of safeguarding PRC sovereignty and its power of inciting social contradictions (Wu, 2016). Since 2012, the succession of Hong Kong-Mainland incidents caused by rapidly growing Mainland visitors resulted in increasing Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism towards Hong Kong. The increase of this sentiment among the “angry youth” and the drop of mainland visitor arrivals in Hong Kong formed a striking contrast. Considering the vital role of nationalism in consumer behaviour, it is essential to study the relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and tourists' pre-travel behaviour. In spite of what is often reported about the influence of Chinese cyber nationalism on the social economy including the tourism industry, the general theoretical literature on this subject and specifically in the context of Hong Kong-Mainland is inconclusive on several vital questions within the nationalism discourse. By deriving secondary data from the Internet and adopting a quantitative content analysis, the study examined all the above research problems based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

6.2 Summary of research findings

The main empirical findings are chapter specific and were summarised within the respective empirical chapter: Findings and Discussion. This section will synthesise the empirical findings in response to the study's research question.

a. Visualisation of the data showed that the monthly growth rate of Mainland visitors to Hong Kong tends to fall as the Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism sentiment rises. Statistics showed that the geographic distribution of the “angry youth” was consistent with that of Mainland visitors to Hong Kong. Besides, the online comment count kept on growing during the studied period, implying the increasing enthusiasm of Chinese netizens participating in the nationalistic discussions of Hong Kong-Mainland incidents. Meanwhile, the ARIMA forecasting results showed that the overall tendency of the monthly growth rate of Mainland visitations was adverse to that of the strength of online negative attitude towards Hong Kong. Additionally, tourism-related and other non-political issues are more likely to incite Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism, compared to the official speeches and political events.

b. Sentiment analysis revealed that Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism has a negative impact on Mainland netizens’ attitudes towards Hong Kong. All types of the online posts regarding Hong Kong-Mainland incidents could trigger Mainland tourists’ negative attitudes towards Hong Kong. The degree of this influence varies by different types of online posts. Specifically, political and governmental issues cause little hostile attitude towards Hong Kong, while the non-political issues tend to evoke large-scale anti-Hong Kong sentiment, especially when they are tourism-related. Also, male tourists’ attitudes are more likely to be influenced by the incident posts except for tourism-related incidents.

c. Content analysis results suggested that Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism also had an impact on Mainland netizens’ travel intentions to Hong Kong. The results showed that tourism-related events would directly weaken Chinese tourists’ travel intentions to Hong Kong. About 12% of the total comments under tourism-related posts contained words or expressions claiming or implying not to visit Hong Kong. Other types of nationalistic posts were not found influential in terms of commenters’ travel intentions to Hong Kong. However, the impact of other types on netizens’ travel intentions cannot be denied due to the secondary data approach adopted in this study, as not all the answers wanted can be acquired through data mining.

d. The SPSS correlation tests show that Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism was negatively correlated with Mainland visitations in Hong Kong. Additionally, the instant Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism

was moderately and negatively correlated with contemporaneous Mainland visitations in Hong Kong, while the moving average of accumulated Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism was significantly and negatively correlated with Mainland visitations in Hong Kong. The correlation coefficient of both the two test results was highly significant.

6.3 Practical implication

The background of conducting this study is that Mainland tourist arrivals in Hong Kong present an abnormal dropping trend in recent years, accompanied by the increasing arguments between Hong Kong and Mainland residents on the Internet. By investigating the online arguments and analysing Mainland visitation data, this study revealed the negative impact of Chinese cyber nationalism on Mainland tourists' behaviour towards Hong Kong.

As mentioned in the background chapter, the Hong Kong government, especially the Hong Kong Tourism Board, has been working on regaining Mainland tourists' favour. Entrepreneurs of the Hong Kong tourism industry even started to protest Hong Kong nativists and claimed welcoming Mainlanders to visit Hong Kong. Thus, the findings of this study offered a new view for both the governmental and private sectors in the Hong Kong tourism industry to look at this situation. Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism was more defensive rather than offensive, and was not likely to affect Mainland tourists' travel intentions of visiting Hong Kong if it was not invoked by tourism-related issues. As aggravated Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism was significantly and negatively correlated with the monthly Mainland visitation growth rate, ignorance of it might result in even worse consequences. Therefore, it is crucial for the Hong Kong Tourism Board to adopt measures toward Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism to turn the scale, as well as take precautions against it in the future.

Besides, unlike most of other hostile countries/regions of China, the Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism raised by tourism-related issues was mainly contributed by the increasing number of Mainland tourists in Hong Kong, which in return contained the subsequent tourist arrivals. Thus, the tourist intake capacity of Hong Kong and the current visiting permit policy for Mainland tourists remain

questionable. The Tourism department of the Hong Kong government is encouraged to research these problems.

Additionally, although this study emphasised tourist behaviour, the content analysis of potential tourist behaviour under different types of nationalistic incidents revealed some interesting characteristics of Chinese cyber nationalists. The “angry youth” were not just angry with the countries/regions that had nationalistic disputes with China; they could also be angry with their own country in many situations. Nevertheless, the majority of former research on Chinese cyber nationalism mostly concentrated on the application and management of Chinese cyber nationalism due to its uncontrollable force of inciting extreme behaviour and destruction towards foreign countries. However, this study implied that Chinese cyber nationalism is called a “double-edged sword” not only because it is a bolted horse that is uncontrollable once being incited, but because it has a potential direct hazard to China as it does to the hostile countries/regions. In other words, Chinese cyber nationalism can be anti-China rather than merely anti-foreign countries. Therefore, the findings are also significant for the Chinese government, especially the Internet monitoring department.

6.4 Theoretical implication

This study focused on tourists’ pre-visit behaviour, and was conducted based on some of the prevalent phenomena in the tourism industry: big data, social media and “angry youth”. Thus, politics, computer science and tourism were all involved in this interdisciplinary research. The idea of integrating relevant subjects into tourism research provides several implications:

Firstly, prior to this, studies involving large-scale data analysis were mainly carried out by professionals in computer science, which seldom came down to tourism issues. Although nature language processing study is still at its infant stage, large-scale online sentiment analysis has already emerged in marketing research. For example, the stock market or election prediction and consumers’ attitude towards specific products or events. The thought of doing large-scale sentiment analysis enables researchers to set an extensive sample with most updated data. Despite the efficiency and convenience of such a method in

this Internet era, the trend has not come down to tourism. This study has therefore provided a reference of introducing computer-assisted sentiment analysis to deal with attitude studies in tourism research.

Secondly, this study shed a light on studying the mighty power of cyber nationalism on tourists' behaviour. As an emerging study topic, Chinese cyber nationalism has only attracted Chinese scholars' attention. Most of the current studies stay on a political perspective to discuss the political function of Chinese cyber nationalism itself. Few have extended the topic to diplomatic relationships and economic impacts. Besides, even tourism studies involving nationalism merely discussed the negative impact of nationalism on tourism. Instead, most of them examined the positive side of nationalism in tourism, such as integrating the nationalistic symbols into tourist attractions. However, sizable studies on consumer nationalism have revealed the dark side of nationalism. So far, scant tourism studies regarding nationalism have been carried out. A significant study was conducted by Cheng and Wong (2014a). The similarity of results in their study and this one proved that Chinese (cyber) nationalism can negatively affect potential tourists' attitudes and travel intentions. Furthermore, this study showed that Chinese cyber nationalism is negatively correlated with corresponding tourist arrivals, implying that Chinese cyber nationalism might result in a reduction in tourist arrivals. Besides, the difference in the two studies suggested that Chinese cyber nationalism may have different levels of negative impact on tourist behaviour when it is provoked by a different country/region.

Lastly, the findings of this study can be applied to tourist arrival forecasting studies. Tourist arrival forecasting has long been a popular study area. Scholars have applied various forecasting models such as exponential smoothing, the ARIMA and the Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) model. Despite the difference of the model applied, influential factors considered in these models were mainly demographic characteristics, the economic situation and seasonality, as well as some considerable events. The ARIMA model employed in this study not only enhanced the validity of the results, but also provided a new perspective of forecasting tourist arrivals by taking cyber nationalism as an influential factor, which may help make the models more accurate and convincing.

6.5 Limitations of the study

The study has offered an evaluative perspective on the relationship between Mainland Chinese cyber nationalism and Chinese tourist behaviour. It was conducted in an online sphere through sampling Sina Weibo users. As a direct consequence of this methodology, the study encountered a number of limitations which need to be considered. On one hand, the study was conducted within the context of Sina Weibo. Although this is the largest online community in China, there might be bias due to the user group difference. As Sina Weibo itself cannot represent the overall China online sphere, more research in other online communities needs to be done to enrich the study in this area. On the other hand, computer-assisted tools were utilised to code and process the massive text data derived online and inevitable errors may exist in the data coding process, which may cause minor errors in the final result. Besides, although this study was based on Planned Behaviour Theory and has uncovered the relationship between Chinese cyber nationalism and corresponding tourist arrivals, the findings cannot prove that Chinese cyber nationalism has a negative impact on the actual tourist arrivals. Instead, it only proved that Chinese cyber nationalism has a negative impact on tourists' attitudes and travel intentions, and revealed that Chinese cyber nationalism is negatively correlated with tourist arrivals in Hong Kong. Also, the impact on tourists' attitudes and travel intentions may not be applied to other countries or destinations, as nationalism varies from country to country.

6.6 Suggestions for Future Research

The scale of this debate is extensive and multifaceted even at the online level. To generate achievable strategies and management targets with regards to nationalism and tourism, there is a need for more case studies to allow further assessment of different dimensions of the subject. Exploring the following as future research strategies can facilitate the attainment of this goal: A causality study between Chinese cyber nationalism and Chinese outbound tourist arrival patterns; Nationalism as a factor in tourist arrival forecasting; Integrated tourist decision-making processes under the impact of Chinese cyber nationalism. Besides, scholars interested in Chinese cyber nationalism can also investigate nationalists' behaviour towards different types of nationalistic disputes with different countries/regions.

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