Tourist social media behaviour, and its effect on emotion and satisfaction: A study of Chinese outbound tourists

By

Yanxi Zhang

Bachelor of Arts

Master of Media Practice

A thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

UniSA Business

University of South Australia

December 2020

Table of Contents

Chapter one: Introduction 1

1.1 Research background 1

1.1.1 Social media and tourism 1

1.1.2 Social media in China 3

1.1.3 Chinese outbound tourism 4

1.1.4 Tourist emotions toward the destination and tourist satisfaction 6

1.2 Purpose and objectives of the study 6

1.3 Research design 7

1.4 Research significance 8

1.5 Research outline 9

1.6 Definition of key terms 11

Chapter two: Literature review 13

2.1 Introduction 13

2.2 Social media and tourism 13

2.2.1 Social media 13

2.2.2 Tourist use of social media 14

2.3 Tourist social media behaviour in the destination 22

2.3.1 Social support 22

2.3.2 Self-presentation 25

2.3.2.1 Online self-presentation in the tourism context 26

2.5 Tourist emotions 28

2.5.1 Consumer emotions 28

2.5.2 Tourist emotions toward destination 29

2.6 Tourist satisfaction 33

2.7 Chinese outbound tourism 37

2.8 Research framework 39
2.9 Chapter summary 41
Chapter three: Methodology 42
3.1 Introduction 42
3.2 Research paradigm 42
3.3 Research strategies 44
3.3.1 Mixed methods approach 44
3.3.2 Mixed methods design 45
3.4 Research methods of the study 49
3.4.1 Phase 1: Qualitative study 49
3.4.1.1 Semi-structured interviews 49
3.4.1.2 Semi-structured interview sample selection 50
3.4.1.3 Interview protocol 51
3.4.1.4 Data analysis 52
3.4.2 Phase 2: Quantitative study 55
3.4.2.1 Questionnaire design 55
3.4.2.2 Data collection 62
3.4.2.3 Data analysis 65
3.5 Ethical considerations 67
3.6 Chapter summary 67
Chapter four: Qualitative results 69
4.1 Profile of interview participants 69
4.2 Social media use in the destination 71
4.3 Tourist social media behaviour in the destination 73
4.3.1 Online self-presentation 73
4.3.2 Seeking social support 76
4.3.3 The effects of social media use on emotion and satisfaction 78
4.4 Chapter summary 79
Chapter five: Quantitative results 80

5.1 The demographic profile of respondents 80
5.1.1 WeChat use behaviour in everyday life 82
5.1.2 WeChat use behaviour while travelling in Japan 83
5.2 Data normality 84
5.3 Scale reliability analysis 87
5.4 Measurement of tourist social media behaviour 89
5.4.1 Exploratory factor analysis of tourist social media behaviour 91
5.4.2 Confirmatory factor analysis of tourist social media behaviour 95
5.5 Measurement of tourist emotion 101
5.5.1 Exploratory factor analysis of tourist emotion 102
5.5.2 Confirmatory factor analysis of tourist emotions 103
5.6 Measurement of tourist satisfaction 107
5.6.1 Exploratory factor analysis of tourist satisfaction 108
5.6.2 Confirmatory factor analysis of tourist satisfaction 109
5.7 Testing the overall measurement model 110
5.8 Testing the structural model 115
5.8.1 Path analysis and hypotheses testing 119
5.9 Chapter summary 122
Chapter six: Discussion and conclusion 123
6.1 Research overview and review of the research findings 123
6.2 Discussion 125
6.2.1 Social media behaviour 125
6.2.2 Tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotion toward the destination 131
6.2.3 The effect of tourist emotion on tourist satisfaction 134
6.3 Research objectives 137
6.4 Theoretical contribution 138

6.5 Practical implications 143
6.6 Study limitations 145
6.7 Recommendations for future study 146
6.8 Chapter summary 147
Appendices 166
Appendix 1 Participant information sheet for interview (English) 166
Appendix 2 Participant information sheet for interview (Chinese) 169
Appendix 3 Consent form for interview (English) 172
Appendix 4 Consent form for interview (Chinese) 174
Appendix 5 Interview guide (English) 176
Appendix 6 Interview guide (Chinese) 181
Appendix 7 Participant information sheet for questionnaire (English) 185
Appendix 8 Participant information sheet for questionnaire (Chinese) 188
Appendix 9 Questionnaire survey (English) 191
Appendix 10 Questionnaire survey (Chinese) 198
Appendix 11 Descriptive sample statistics 205

List of Figures

Figure 1: Volume of Chinese outbound tourism from 2010 to 2019 4

Figure 2: Volume of Chinese outbound tourism volume to Japan from 2010 to 2019 5

Figure 3: Research design 8

Figure 4: Structure of the thesis 10

Figure 5: The conceptual framework 40

Figure 6: Types of mixed method research 46

Figure 7: Explanatory sequential design 47

Figure 8*: Exploratory sequential design* 48

Figure 9: Tourist social media behaviour measurement model (n=262) 97

Figure 10: Tourist emotions measurement model (n=262) 105

Figure 11: Overall measurement model (n=524) 111

Figure 12: Structural model (n=524) 116

Figure 13: Structural model with estimated path coefficients (n=524) 120

List of Tables

Table 1: Definition of key terms 11

Table 2: Features of post-positivism, constructivism and pragmatism 43

Table 3: Methodological study design 48

Table 4: Refined codebook 54

Table 5: Initial and revised measurements 58

Table 6: Measures for tourist emotions toward destination 61

Table 7: Measures for tourist satisfaction 62

Table 8: Profile of interview participants 70

Table 9: Demographic profile of respondents 81

Table 10: Total number of respondents' WeChat friends 82

Table 11: WeChat use behaviour at home and in Japan 83

Table 12: WeChat access methods in Japan 84

Table 13: Univariate and multivariate normality test results (51items, n=524) 84

Table 14: Reliability of measurements of the major constructs (n=524) 87

Table 15: Means and standard deviation for tourist social media behaviour items (n=524) 90

Table 16: EFA output of tourist social media behaviour (sub-sample one, n=262) 93

Table 17: Confirmatory factor analysis of tourist social media behaviour in the destination (sub-sample two, n=262) 98

Table 18: Model fit summary of tourist social media behaviour measurement model ... 99

Table 19: Composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and correlation of tourist social media behaviour 101

Table 20: Means and standard deviations of tourist emotion items (n=524) 101

Table 21: EFA output of tourist emotion (sub-sample one, n=262) 103

Table 22: Confirmatory factor analysis on tourist emotions (sub-sample two, n=262) 106

Table 23: Measurement model fit summary of tourist emotions 106

Table 24: Composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and correlation of tourist emotion 107

Table 25: Means and standard deviations of tourist satisfaction items (n=524) 108

Table 26: EFA output of tourist satisfaction (sub-sample one, n=262) 108

Table 27: Confirmatory factor analysis of tourist satisfaction (sub-sample two, n=262) 109

Table 28: Measurement model fit summary of tourist satisfaction 109

Table 29: Overall measurement model fit (n=524) 112

Table 30: Overall measurement model fit summary 114

Table 31: Composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and correlation matrix of latent variables in the overall measurement model 115

Table 32: Proposed structural model fit (n=524) 117

Table 33: Overall structural model fit summary 119

Table 34: Hypotheses testing results 121

Abstract

The social media behaviour of tourists is an essential part of the tourism experience. With the wide use of smartphones and the development of telecommunications infrastructure and policies, tourist social media behaviour is changing, particularly in the during-trip stage. While in the destination, tourists now use social media to search for information, to make short-term travel-related decisions, and to share their travel stories in real-time; social media activities previously associated with the pre-trip or post-trip stage within existing literature. Since tourists use social media in the destination, it is important to understand tourist social media behaviour in the during-trip stage. Tourist social media behaviour in the during-trip stage also provides a new source of data with which to examine tourist emotions and overall satisfaction in relation to a destination. Although tourists frequently use social media in the during-trip stage, research on tourist social media behaviour in the destination and its effects on emotions and satisfaction remain largely unexplored. This study therefore aims to investigate tourist social media behaviour in the destination and its effects on tourist emotions toward the destination and their overall satisfaction with the experience. The research uses outbound Chinese tourists, who are an important emergent market in international tourism, as the sample population.

A mixed-method approach consisting of two phases was employed in this study. The first phase was a qualitative study which focused on exploring tourist social media behaviour in the destination. In this phase, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 Chinese tourists who used social media in their daily life and during their recent outbound travels. The qualitative study not only identified different types of tourist social media behaviour among Chinese outbound tourists, but also guided the development of a questionnaire for the second phase of the study. The second survey phase provided statistical evidence with which to test the hypothesised structural relationships among tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions toward the destination and overall tourist satisfaction with their travel experience. In total, 524 valid questionnaires were returned by Chinese outbound tourists at the end of their trips to Japan. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was applied for statistical analysis.

The results from the qualitative phase reveal that tourists use social media to seek informational social support, emotional social support, instrumental social support and to engage in online self-presentation in the destination. The quantitative results confirm four

hypothesised dimensions of tourist social media behaviour. The quantitative results also reveal that informational social support seeking, instrumental social support seeking, and self-presentation positively influence tourists' positive emotions, and have no significant impact on tourists' negative emotions. Emotional social support has no effect on tourists' positive emotions, but positively influences tourists' negative emotions. Additionally, tourists' positive emotions had a significant impact on tourist satisfaction, while tourist satisfaction is not influenced by tourists' negative emotions.

The findings provide a comprehensive understanding of tourists' social media behaviour during travel within a destination and prove its impact on tourists' positive emotions and tourist satisfaction. Tourist social media behaviour is an indispensable part of the tourist destination experience. The findings of this study therefore improve existing understandings of tourism-related social media behaviour which have previously been concerned primarily with the pre-trip and post-trip stages of travel. The findings provide practical implications to help industry practitioners design social media strategies that can enhance the travel experience.

Declaration

I declare that:

this thesis presents work carried out by myself and does not incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university; to the best of my knowledge it does not contain any materials previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; and all substantive contributions by others to the work presented, including jointly authored publications, is clearly acknowledged.

Yanxi Zhang



Acknowledgments

I used to think that I would be very excited when I finished my PhD journey. However, I feel quite peaceful now that it is completed. Although the journey might be lonely for much of the time, without the support and encouragement of people around me I could never have made it. Therefore, I would like to take this opportunity to express my gratitude to all those who assisted me in this journey.

Firstly, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisors, Dr Sunny Son, Professor Sam Huang, and Dr Robert van der Veen. Sunny, just like her name, is a ray of warm sunshine shining throughout my PhD journey. Sunny always provided timely feedback on my research and encouraged me to overcome difficulties. Thank you for your kindness, patience and trust in me. My sincere gratitude is also owed to Sam. Sam is an active and rigorous researcher who guided me through the world of tourism research. I would also like to thank Robert for helping me to revise the thesis and for inspiring me to improve the discussion of the results. All of you are so important to me. Without your support and supervision this thesis would not have been possible. My research experience with you will become an invaluable treasure for me in the future.

I would also like to thank the UniSA Research Committee and UniSA Business School for granting me the opportunity to start my PhD journey. Thank you to Cathie Bloxham for helping me solve many administrative problems throughout my PhD. And thanks must also go to Dr Wendy Bastalich for helping me with the English language expression in the final version of the thesis. I would also like to extend my thanks to the staff at the China Youth Travel Agency for helping me with the data collection. Without your support, the data collection process might not have been successful.

In addition, I would like to extend thanks to my friends, Dr Jin Yin, Dr Hailian Gao and Dr Xianrong Luo. Your friendship and advice helped me go through the stressful PhD journey. Additional thanks to Dr Jin Yin for sharing your PhD experience with me and helping me to overcome difficulties.

Last, but not least, my heartfelt thanks go to my family. To my Mum, Fang Liu, and my Dad, Yumen Zhang, who always gave me unconditional and endless support. Their love is the shield that I carry through all hardships in life. I would also like to thank my husband Dr

Qingshi Meng. Thank you for your love, understanding and support. For my lovely kids, Xier Meng and Fanxing Meng, you have filled my life with happiness and challenges. I enjoy and cherish the time I have with you. I love you all!

Chapter one: Introduction

The emerging popularity of social media has had a significant impact on the tourism industry and has triggered great interest among tourism scholars. This study aimed to explore the social media behaviour of outbound Chinese tourists within a tourism destination and to understand its effect on their emotions toward the destination and their overall satisfaction. In the past decade, there has been a rapid increase in the number of Chinese outbound tourists, as well as an increase in total outbound Chinese tourism expenditure. Understanding the social media behaviour of outbound Chinese tourists within the destination can provide valuable information for destination management.

This first chapter introduces the research background and research context of the study. The aim of the research and the specific objectives of the study are then reported, followed by an outline of the research methods adopted in the study. The theoretical and practical contributions of the study are then discussed. The last part of the chapter provides definitions of major terms used in the study.

1.1 Research background

1.1.1 Social media and tourism

According to the online statistical portal, Statista (2020), by the end of October 2020, the number of global social media users increased to 3.6 billion. Social media has become a part of everyday life and it has changed the way business and marketing is conducted (Christodoulides et al., 2012; Kwahk et al., 2017). Tourism is one of the industries that has been most impacted by social media use. Over the past decade, destination marketing organizations (DMOs) within the tourism industry have increasingly adopted social media, recognising that it is a powerful tool in the promotion and marketing of tourism destinations (Baggio, 2020; Lim et al., 2012; Uşaklı et al., 2017). Since its emergence, tourism researchers have also sought to gain insight into the role of social media in the travel context (Buhalis and Law, 2008; Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014; Perez-Vega et al., 2018). Social media has become integrated into the entirety of the travel process. The role of social media in the pre, and post trip stages particularly has attracted significant attention from both the travel industry and academia.

Social media plays a vital role in searching for travel information and making decisions about the destination in the pre-trip stage (Chung and Koo, 2015; Hudson and Thal, 2013a; Munar and Jacobsen, 2013; Schroeder and Pennington-Gray, 2015; Xiang and Gretzel, 2010; Xiang et al., 2015). Social media helps tourists to search for potential travel desinations, transportation options, accommondation, as well as to identify lesiure activities at the destination (Cox et al., 2009). Since the information available on social media is generally based on the experience of previous tourists, tourists consider it to be more trustworthy and reliable than information gained from more traditional media forms. Meanwhile, the popularity of social media among tourists has prompted DMOs and travel businesses to use social media for marketing purposes (Denizci Guillet et al., 2015; Hays et al., 2013). In the post-trip stage, tourists' sharing behaviour has been widely examined (Bae et al., 2017; Kang and Schuett, 2013; Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017; Munar and Jacobsen, 2014; Oliveira et al., 2020; Sotiriadis, 2017b). It is argued that tourists' use of social media decreases in the during-trip stage and reaches a peak in the post-trip stage (Cox et al., 2009). Tourists use social media to share their experience, and the reviews, comments, and photos they post when they return home reveal their level of satisfaction with the experience (Leung et al., 2013). DMOs and tourism businesses therefore make use of user-generated content to improve their destination marketing.

Due to the widespread use of smart phones, and improvements in telecommunications infrastructure and policies, social media is now an indispensable aspect of tourism, including during travel at the destination. In an effort to respond to the needs of tourists, many providers encourage connectivity through free Wi-Fi. Although DMOs, tourism operators and destination managers are aware that tourists increasingly use social media during their stay, knowledge of tourists' use of social media in the during-trip stage is relatively limited. Actual social media behaviour and its impact on emotional responses towards the destination, as well as on overall satisfaction with the travel experience, also remains unclear. This research, therefore, aims to enhance knowledge of tourists' social media use during their travel in the destination, providing both theoretical and empirical evidence to support the links between tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions toward the destination, and tourist satisfaction, thereby offering an instrument for use by DMOs and tourism marketers.

1.1.2 Social media in China

Although social media applications that are widely used in other parts of the world, such as Facebook, YouTube and Twitter are blocked in China, equivalent Chinese social media platforms have expanded dramatically. Usage of social media in China has been identified to be one of the most intense in the world. According to the *45th Statistical Report on Internet Development in China* released by China Internet Network Information Centre (CNNIC) in March 2020, 99.3% of all Internet users access the Internet through mobile phones. Almost all the smart phone users (99.2%) utilized instant messaging applications (CNNIC, 2020) such as WeChat. WeChat (*Wei Xin* in Chinese) is a multi-purpose digital platform which integrates a variety of features including text messaging, voice and video individual and group calls, photo and video sharing, real-time sight capturing and sharing, location sharing, mobile payment services, gaming, shopping, taxi bookings, and ticket reservations. And WeChat functionalities continue to expand. The application is essentially free of charge despite the cost of Internet data consumption, and WeChat is compatible with most operating systems, including iOS, Android and Windows. WeChat is highly integrated in daily life in China, and several public and government services are now connected to WeChat. WeChat can therefore be considered to have become 'super-sticky' in Chinese society (Chen et al., 2018b). WeChat has the advantages of combining features of various types of social media, such as instant messaging, microblogs and social networking sites, and has thereby become the most popular social media platform in China with more than 1.2 billion active users as of July 2020 (Statista, 2020). With the increase of WeChat users, users of other social media applications that provide more limited social media features have gradually decreased. For instance, the number of users and the utilization rate of microblogs (such as *Weibo* which is similar to Twitter) and social networking sites (like *Renren* which is similar to Facebook) continue to decline with grim prospects of resurgence (CNNIC, 2020). In July 2020, WeChat was the fifth most popular social media app used worldwide, but it remains largely unknown to the West (Statista, 2020). Since WeChat has been so fully integrated in people's lives, it would be difficult to 'survive' without it. However, current understandings of the impact of this technology upon travel remain inadequate. Previous studies which show that social media has mainly been used in the pre-trip and post-trip stages are now outdated. Since social media has become so much more entwined in the activities of everyday life, it is necessary to recognise the impact of social media on travel experience and to understand how tourists interact with social media during their travels in order.

1.1.3 Chinese outbound tourism

This research is conducted in the context of Chinese outbound tourism. In the 1980s, outbound Chinese tourism was subject to a range of Chinese government passport and visa regulations (Arlt and ebrary, 2006). The situation greatly improved with the introduction of the Approved Destination Status (ADS) scheme in China in 1995. The ADS scheme enabled bilateral tourism arrangements between the Chinese Government and destination authorities, and, as a result, Chinese tourists were permitted to travel in groups to authorised destinations (Airey et al., 2011). In 1997, the 'Provisional Regulation on the Management of Outbound Travel by Chinese Citizens at Their Own Expense' policy was approved (Arlt and ebrary, 2006). With the application of this policy, bureaucratic procedures were simplified thereby boosting the development of Chinese outbound tourism reflected in a dramatic increase in the volume of international trips taken by Chinese travellers (Figure 1). Rapid economic growth and development in China has also seen the Chinese become the fastest-growing source of tourists globally, and, since 2012, China has also become the largest origin country for tourists globally (CTA, 2019).

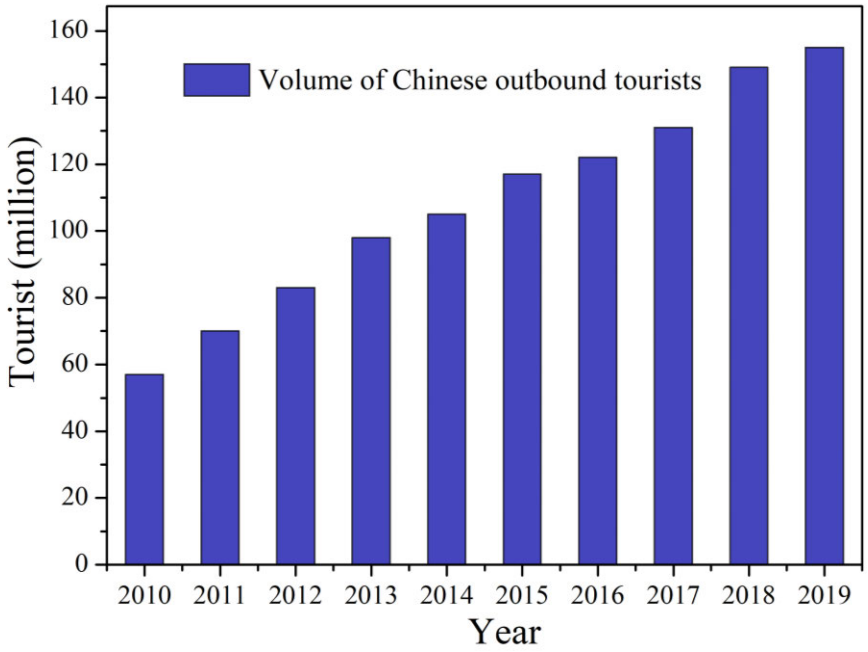


Figure 1: Volume of Chinese outbound tourism from 2010 to 2019

Source: Adapted from *Annual Report of China Outbound Tourism Development 2019* (CTA, 2019)

According to the *Annual Report of China Outbound Tourism Development 2019*, released by the Chinese Tourism Academy (CTA), outbound tourist visits by Chinese nationals reached 149 million, a 14.7% increase over the year 2017 (CTA, 2019). Meanwhile expenditure on outbound tourism amounted to 130 billion USD in 2018, an increase of 13% compared with the previous year. It is not surprising that both the tourism industry and academia have shown an interest in this emerging market. Asia is the major continental destination among Chinese outbound tourists, accounting for 89.03% of the total number of Chinese outbound tourists in 2018 (CTA, 2019). Japan, with its attractive culture, restaurants, shopping areas and theme parks, is one of the most popular destinations for Chinese tourists (Lin et al., 2017; Zeng and He, 2018). As shown in Figure 2, the number of Chinese tourists who visited Japan has significantly increased over the years since 2015. According to the Japan National Tourism Organisation (JNTO, 2020), in 2015, the number of Chinese visitors to Japan doubled from the year before. This growth in Chinese visitors was attributed to the depreciation of the Japanese currency and the easing of visa restrictions. The popularity of Japan among Chinese tourists makes it an appropriate destination to serve as a representative case for this study.

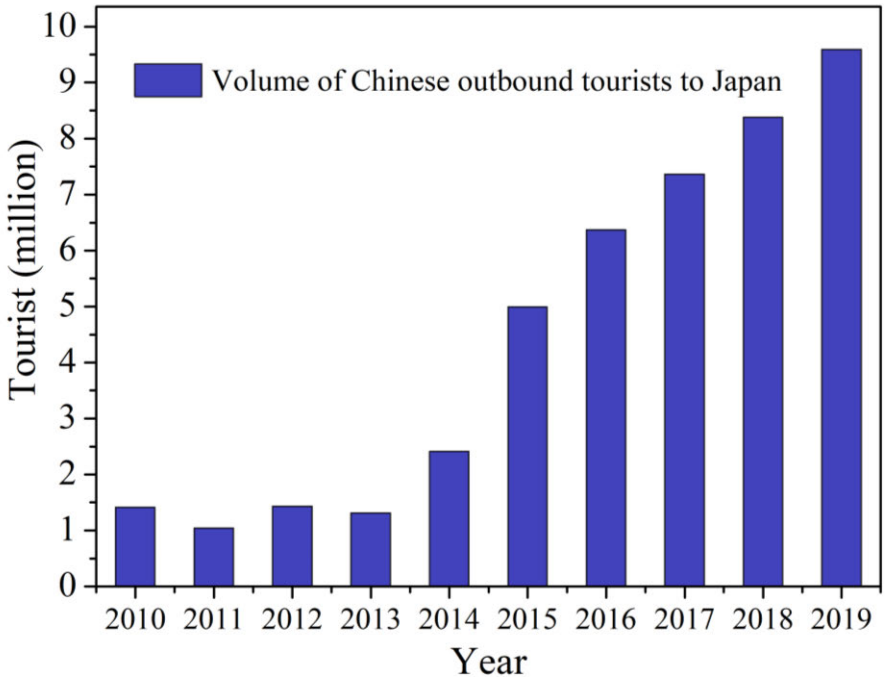


Figure 2: Volume of Chinese outbound tourism volume to Japan from 2010 to 2019

Source: Adapted from *Report of Tourist Arrivals to Japan from 2003-2020* (JNTO, 2020)

Outbound Chinese tourists are valued as an important market in many destination countries (Lai et al., 2013; Li et al., 2011b; Sparks and Pan, 2009). However, notwithstanding the

prospective size of this market, little is known about the social media behaviour of outbound Chinese tourists to most destination countries. Existing studies on Chinese outbound tourists mainly focus on travel motivations and constraints (Huang and Hsu, 2009; Lai et al., 2013; Li et al., 2011a), attitudes, and travel characteristics (Sparks and Pan, 2009) among other concerns. Given that Chinese social media usage is one of the highest rates in the world (Crampton, 2011), it can be expected that Chinese tourists will continue to use social media during their outbound travels. Additionally, social media is recognized to be a key factor in influencing tourists' travel experience (Bosangit et al., 2015). This research will therefore investigate the social media behaviour of Chinese tourists in the outbound context, with the aim of contributing to current understandings of Chinese outbound tourism.

1.1.4 Tourist emotions toward the destination and tourist satisfaction

Many destination service providers are investing in building technological infrastructure such as free Wi-Fi facilities to adapt to the concept of smart tourism. They aim to ensure tourists can access the Internet to increase tourists' satisfaction and their positive feelings about the destination, which they hope will then lead to positive 'word of mouth' (WOM) marketing and revisit intentions. There are, however, limited empirical studies to justify DMOs efforts to invest in this area. This study aims to provide insights that can inform DMOs and the wider tourism industry on the question of whether it is important to build infrastructure to provide tourists with easy access to the Internet. In order to do so, it is necessary to understand the relationship between tourist social media behaviour in the destination and tourist emotions toward the destination.

Additionally, previous studies have shown that tourist positive emotions significantly influence tourist satisfaction (Al-Msallam, 2020; Chang et al., 2020; Io, 2017; Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007). However, tourist negative emotions toward the destination have been largely neglected by DMOs and tourism scholars (Nawijn and Biran, 2019). This research therefore attempts to add knowledge about tourist negative emotions and their impact on tourist satisfaction.

1.2 Purpose and objectives of the study

This study aims to explore tourist social media behaviour in the destination and to offer insights about the role of social media during travel in the destination. By building a theoretical model of tourists' emotional responses and satisfaction toward the destination, this

study attempts to investigate the relationships between tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction toward the destination. The study highlights on examining the role of tourist emotion in mediating tourist social media behaviour and tourist overall satisfaction. The research is conducted in the context of Chinese outbound tourism and aims to understand the experience of outbound Chinese tourists. The specific research objectives are as follows:

1. explore tourist social media behaviour during travel in the destination;
2. examine the relationship between tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotions toward the destination;
3. investigate the impact of tourist emotions toward the destination on tourist overall satisfaction toward the destination.

1.3 Research design

To achieve the aim of the research objectives, this research employs a mixed methods approach. The research includes two phases. First, a qualitative phase was conducted to explore tourist social media behaviour in the outbound destination. The results of the qualitative study were then analysed using thematic analysis to obtain and verify dimensions for the second quantitative phase of the study which aimed to test the research hypotheses. An overview of the research design is illustrated in Figure 3 below.

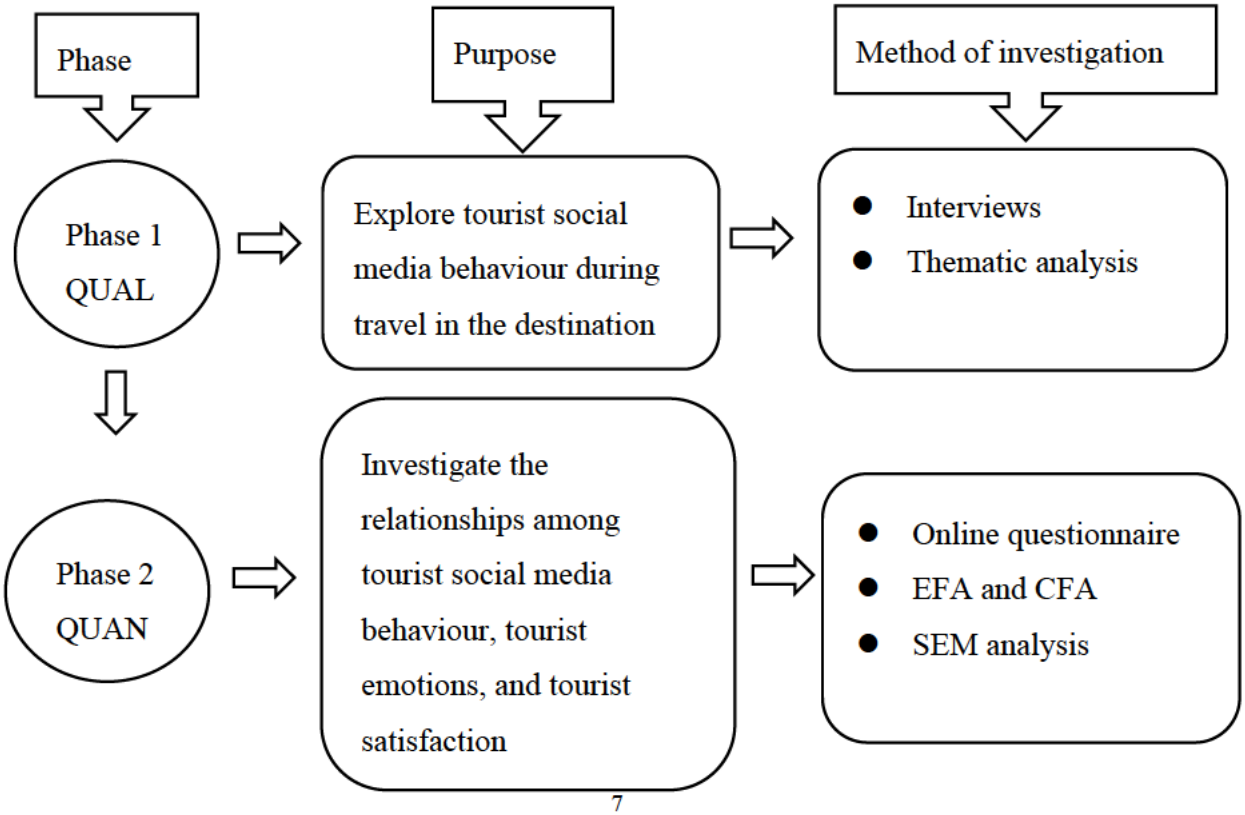


Figure 3: Research design

QUAL: Qualitative, QUAN: Quantitative

In the first phase, an exploratory study was conducted to understand Chinese tourists' social media behaviour in an outbound destination. Exploratory studies have been increasingly used in social science studies, particularly in relation to new research themes or a new perspective within an existing field of research (Mason et al., 2010). Although some studies have been conducted to understand smartphone usage among travellers (Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014). In this study, eligible interviewees were recruited through the snowball sampling technique. Twenty semi-structured interviews were conducted with Chinese outbound tourists who used WeChat during travel in the previous six months to explore Chinese outbound tourists' social media behaviour. The interviews data was analysed using thematic analysis. The findings were categorised and compared with previous studies and then used to guide the development of the measurement instrument for the quantitative phase of the study.

A model examining the structural relationships between tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotions and satisfaction was developed and empirically tested as part of the quantitative theory testing component of the research project. The quantitative stage aimed to investigate how tourist social media behaviour affects tourist emotions toward the destination and their overall satisfaction with the destination experience within the outbound Chinese tourism context. All measurement items were contextualised to the study and revised based on the findings of the qualitative study. In the quantitative stage, a self-administered online questionnaire was administered among Chinese outbound tourists to Japan who have used WeChat at home and within the destination. The questionnaires were distributed and collected by tour guides in Japan at the end of the trip. Altogether, 524 valid questionnaires were collected, and the survey data were analysed using SPSS 24 and Amos 26. A preliminary analysis included descriptive analysis and scale reliability analysis. The measurement of tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotion, and tourist satisfaction was subjected to an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) respectively, and then to a confirmative factor analysis (CFA) to confirm the latent structure of each construct. Finally, path analysis using structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed for hypotheses testing.

1.4 Research significance

This research is significant in three aspects. Firstly, the study will contribute knowledge to existing understandings of tourist social media behaviour during travel in the destination.

With the rapid development of social media, tourist social media behaviour is also changing. In the past, tourists shared their travel experiences when they returned home from the destination. Recently, researchers have confirmed that tourists share their experiences within the travel process in the destination (Yu et al., 2018). This study will provide a comprehensive understanding of tourist social media behaviour within a destination.

Secondly, the study takes a new approach to the examination of tourist emotion and satisfaction using tourist social media input. Tourist emotions and especially tourist satisfaction have been extensively investigated in tourism research (Chang et al., 2020; Io, 2017; Lee et al., 2008). Tourism scholars have explored various factors affecting tourist emotions and satisfaction, such as service fairness (Su and Hsu, 2013) and personality (Faullant et al., 2011; Gao et al., 2017). This study will contribute to understandings of how tourist emotions and satisfaction are impacted upon by social media behaviour. An improved understanding of this aspect of travel could assist DMOs and service providers in decisions about investing in, building and facilitating the development of Internet facilities to improve the tourist experience.

Thirdly, the study will provide industry-relevant knowledge about the emerging Chinese outbound tourism market within international tourism and could have practical use in tourism marketing and management to outbound Chinese tourists. Both the tourism industry and academia have shown an interest in the emergent and rapidly developing Chinese outbound market. Research related to this prosperous market will generate invaluable insights and industry-relevant knowledge to DMOs and tourism business operators. However, despite an increasing number of studies on Chinese outbound tourism, there is little understanding of Chinese tourist social media-using behaviour. The study thus aims to advance the general understanding of Chinese outbound tourists by exploring their social media behaviour.

1.5 Research outline

The structure of the thesis consists of six chapters illustrated in Figure 4 below. Chapter one provides the research background and identifies the research objectives, research design, and the significance of the research. Chapter two reviews previous literature related to the aims of the research and presents the theoretical framework and hypotheses. The chapter draws upon the literature not only in tourism studies, but also in social psychology. The literature review begins by providing an understanding of social media and its influence on tourism. Next, the

chapter discusses the findings of previous studies and identifies research gaps in social media related tourism research.

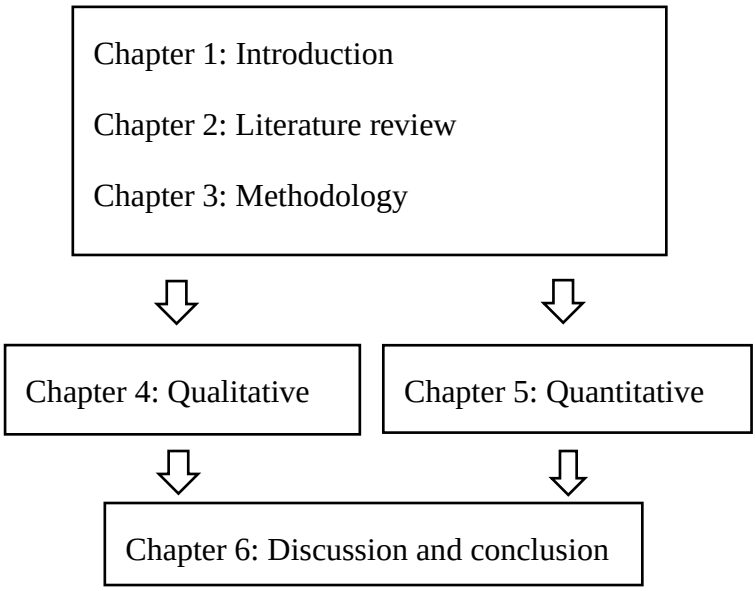


Figure 4: Structure of the thesis

Chapter three provides a discussion of the research design, the data collection methods, and the data analysis techniques for the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study. Firstly, the mixed methods approach, together with the guiding paradigm, is described in the chapter. Next, a detailed description of the data collection and analysis procedures for the first qualitative phase of the study is presented. In the last part of the chapter, the data collection and analysis process for the second quantitative phase is elaborated.

Chapter four presents the findings of the qualitative phase of the study which aimed to understand tourist social media behaviour within the outbound destination. Chapter five provides the results of the quantitative phase of the research. The results of EFA and CFA are reported to verify the reliability, validity and the fit of the measures adopted. Path analysis results are discussed in relation to whether they support or reject the hypotheses.

Chapter six presents the discussion and conclusions arising from the research. The first part of this chapter provides a summary of the findings from the two phases and reviews of the findings in relation to the research objectives. Next, a discussion of the nature of tourist social media behaviour is presented, followed by a discussion of its effect on tourist emotions toward the destination. The chapter then provides a discussion of the effect of tourist emotions on tourist satisfaction. The implications of the findings from theoretical and

practical perspectives for academia and for the tourism industry are then presented. In the final section, the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are outlined.

1.6 Definition of key terms

Table 1: Definition of key terms

Term	Definition
Social media	Social media refers to a group of Internet-based applications that allow the creation and sharing of user-generated content (UGC) within online networks (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010).
Tourist social media behaviour	Tourist social media behaviour refers to tourist social media activities during the travel process.
Informational online social support	Informational online social support refers to tourists' perceived support from the use of social media in terms of information resources that help them to better understand and deal with issues arising in the travel process (Chen and Choi, 2011; Gottlieb and Bergen, 2010b).
Emotional online social support	Emotional online social support refers to tourists' perception of the psychological support they receive from their social media contacts, which is characterized by other users' sympathy and intangible help which can reduce feelings of stress, depression and uncertainty within travel (Gottlieb and Bergen, 2010b; Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013).
Instrumental online social support	Instrumental social support refers to tourists' perceptions about tangible and enacted support from their social media contacts which can help them to solve actual problems (Chen and Choi, 2011; Stefanone et al., 2012).
Online self-presentation	Online self-presentation refers to activities related to presenting information designed by tourist social media users to give certain impressions of themselves to other users (Goffman, 1971).
Tourist positive emotions toward destination	Tourist positive emotions toward destination are defined in terms of individuals' positive emotional responses, including joy, love and positive surprise (Hosany and Gilbert, 2009).
Tourist negative emotions toward destination	Tourist negative emotions toward destination are defined in terms of individuals' negative emotional responses such as unhappiness and displeasure (Hosany and Prayag, 2013).

Tourist satisfaction	Tourist satisfaction is a psychological outcome derived from reaction to tourist experience and quality of service in a destination (Love and Crompton, 1995; Spreng et al., 1996).

Chapter two: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a critical review of relevant literature on tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotion, tourist satisfaction, and the relationship among these aspects which forms the basis of the framework of this study. The chapter starts by discussing social media behaviour in the tourism context in recent studies, and points to the lack of understanding of tourist social media behaviour in the destination. In the next section, the chapter reports previous studies on tourist emotions and the relationship between tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotion. Finally, the chapter provides a critical review of tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction studies. Based on the gaps identified within the relevant literature, research hypotheses and the conceptual framework are proposed.

2.2 Social media and tourism

2.2.1 Social media

In this era of social media, people are directly engaged in, and become the 'media' themselves. Social media refers to a group of Internet-based applications that allow the creation and sharing of user-generated content (UGC) among online networks (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Social media is characterised by the enhancement of information, and by the collaboration and sharing of information online (Cooke and Buckley, 2008). Within social media studies in tourism journals, researchers have also adopted terms such as online community, on-line social networking site, and Web 2.0.

The online community is also called a virtual community, a computer-mediated community, or an e-community. The online community refers to a virtual social space where people come together to find and to give information or support, and to learn or to find company (Preece, 2001). The term Web 2.0 was created to distinguish contemporary Internet functionality from Web 1.0 which refers to traditional static and passive web pages. Web 2.0 provides all users with a set of basic functionalities to enable dynamic interaction on the Internet (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Shang et al., 2011). The term UGC gained broad popularity in 2005, referring to different forms of publicly available media content created by users (Kaplan and

Haenlein, 2010). Vickery and Wunsch-Vincent (2007) observe three major characteristics of UGC: 1) the publication requirement—it is published on a publicly accessible website or on a page of a social networking site accessible to a select group of people; 2) the creative requirement—it needs to include a certain amount of content with creative effort; and 3) the creation of content should not have an institutional or commercial market context (Vickery and Wunsch-Vincent, 2007). The first recognisable social networking site is www.sixdegrees.com launched in 1997. According to Ellison's definition (2007, p.211) of social networking sites, web-based services enable users to 1) construct a public or semi-public profile on the website; 2) select other users with whom they share a connection, and 3) view and access their list of connections and those made by others on the website. The core value of social networking sites is that they enable users to create personalised individual profile pages which include a profile photo and the users' basic information—like age, location, interests and preferences—as well as an articulated list of connections.

The four concepts: online community, Web 2.0, UGC, and online social networking site, appear at various times with different features during Internet development. The term online community focuses on the interaction of users in the virtual world. The terms Web 2.0 employs a technical perspective to describe the advancement of the Internet. UGC adopts a social capital perspective and emphasises the collective intelligence of Internet users. Online social networking sites enable the exploration of social identity on web pages. Different terms are used to encapsulate specific dimensions and characteristics of social media (Xiang and Gretzel, 2010). This study adopts the more general term 'social media' which is widely used both by academics and practitioners.

2.2.2 Tourist use of social media

In the past three decades, Information Communication Technologies (ICTs) have transformed tourism globally (Buhalis and Law, 2008). Social support and self-presentation are two significant motivations for the use of social media applications (Kim and Lee, 2011). Social media has fundamentally altered the travel behaviour of individuals (Hudson and Thal, 2013b; Xiang and Gretzel, 2010). For example, tourists now obtain detailed information about a destination from social media and organise their travels based on this information. Social media is also an important tool for sharing travel stories and experiences. Gretzel (2011) describes intelligent systems as those next-generation information systems that promise to supply tourism consumers and service providers with more relevant information,

greater decision-making support, greater mobility, and, ultimately, more enjoyable tourism experiences. The acceleration and synergistic interaction of the relationship between technology and tourism in recent times has brought fundamental changes to the travel industry as well to perceptions of its nature. According to a review by Sotiriadis (2017), only 11 tourism journal articles were published on the subject of social media before 2010. Since then, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of publications on the subject. By the first half of 2016, 140 tourism journal articles were published that discuss the implications of social media in the tourism context (Sotiriadis, 2017a). This indicates that social media has drawn significant attention from tourism academics.

Tourism researchers study social media from both consumer and provider perspectives. From the suppliers' perspective, the use and impact of social media on tourism marketing (Huang, 2012) and tourism management (Goldsmith and Litvin, 2008) has been studied. Social media allows tourism suppliers to interact directly with their customers via various social media platforms and to monitor travellers' opinions and evaluations of their services (Hvass and Munar, 2012). Researchers also point out that many national tourism organizations (NTOs) have not been aware of the potential or the opportunities offered by social media, and there is considerable room for improvement in the strategic use of social media for NTOs with a social media presence (Alizadeh and Isa, 2015). From the customer perspective, researchers have investigated the use of social media by tourists at different stages of a trip including pre, during and after the trip. In the following section, literature based on the use of social media in these different stages of travel will be discussed.

Tourist use of social media in the pre-trip stage

Among the various stages of a trip, the role of social media in searching for information and making decisions in the travel planning process has been widely investigated (Bronner and de Hoog, 2011; Chung and Koo, 2015; Leung et al., 2013; Parra-López et al., 2011; Xiang and Gretzel, 2010). Using information-processing theory, Bae et al. (2017) found that the recommendations other tourists provide on hotels, restaurants, activities, attractions and events is the main source of information tourists use in the pre-trip planning and problem solving stage of their travel. Compared with traditional forms of tourism information and advertising, social media based travel information is easier to find and more credible and useful than the information distributed by tourism marketers and it can better support travel planning and decision-making (Ho et al., 2012; Papathanassis and Knolle, 2011; Xiang and Gretzel, 2010). Scholars observe that the reviews shared by direct and indirect friends on a

social media platform can enhance the problem-solving capabilities of tourists, decrease trip uncertainty, and increase purchases (Bae et al., 2017). Since shared experiences provide tourists with more detailed information, they are more confident in accepting this information and are therefore more likely to refer to the information in making travel decisions.

While there is considerable research on the role of social media in searching for information in the pre-trip stage, few studies explore its role in information searching during the period of consumption. Social media enables tourists to collect information and prompts them to adjust short-term decisions during travel (Wang et al., 2012). For example, Yu et al. (2017) observe that tourists search for information online and make decisions when there is a dilemma among family members during a family vacation. Yu et al. adopted a qualitative approach in a limited context suggesting the need for more empirical evidence to ascertain the role of social media in searching for information during a trip in a wider range of contexts.

Tourist use of social media in the post-trip stage

This section reviews the relevant literature on the role of social media in the post-trip stage before going on to discuss tourists' use of social media during travel in a destination. With regard to the post-trip stage, previous studies have focused primarily on investigating the sharing aspect of tourists' social media behaviour (Bae et al., 2017; Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017; Oliveira et al., 2020; Tussyadiah and Zach, 2012). According to Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier (2009), tourist experience is composed of three phases: anticipatory, experiential and reflective. The major social media related activity in the last, reflective phase, is tourists' evaluation of their completed trip and the sharing of their experience on social media. Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier (2009) argue that social media use provides tourists with new experiences by reinforcing the meaning of their trip as well as potential reinterpretations of their trip. The shared experience then becomes an important source of information for future users. Moreover, Bae et al. (2017) found that tourists evaluate their past experiences by making comparisons with the experiences shared by others and with their actual experience during the trip, which then further affects tourists' decisions regarding future sharing of their own experiences. Social media users who took advantage of shared information in the pre-trip stage are more likely to share their own experiences after the trip (Bae et al., 2017). Kim and Fesenmaier (2017) argue that sharing tourism experience in the post-trip stage leads to positive overall evaluations, regardless of whether positive or negative experiences were shared. Due to the widespread use of smart phones and developments in telecommunications infrastructure, particularly free Wi-Fi, tourists can access social media anywhere, therefore,

sharing experience is no longer limited to the post-trip stage. This research aims to contribute understandings of the sharing behaviour of tourists on social media while in the destination.

What motivates tourists to share experience on social media platforms after a trip has also been explored (Bae et al., 2017; Kang and Schuett, 2013; Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017; Munar and Jacobsen, 2014; Oliveira et al., 2020). For example, Munar and Jacobsen (2014) suggest that altruistic and community-related motivations are most important in information sharing on social media. In their study, altruistically motivated tourists aimed to help others and prevent them from having a bad experience. Community-related motivations in the study refer to the expectations of tourists about the possible impact of sharing their online experiences within virtual communities (Munar and Jacobsen, 2014). Oliveira et al. (2020) observe that perceived enjoyment is the predominant motive for tourists who share their travel experience. A study by Ma and Chan (2014) reveals that perceived online attachment motivation and perceived online relationship commitment may positively impact upon individuals' knowledge sharing behaviour. It is clear then that sharing travel experiences is an important post-trip activity for tourists. This study attempts to explore whether sharing is also a common practice among tourists during travel in the destination. Motivational studies on the use of social media in the tourism context are discussed further in the following sections.

Tourist use of social media in the destination

Studies that look at tourists' social media use in the destination is less developed than the more comprehensive research base on the role of social media in the pre-trip and post-trip phases. According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO, 1995), tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in a place outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business or other purpose. The usual environment of a person consists of the area around his or her place of residence as well as all the places they frequently visit. White and White's study (2007) found that easy and frequent contact with friends and family members that is enabled by social media while on the move is associated with feeling simultaneously at 'home', by connecting to their usual environment, and 'away', by physically travelling to a place outside their usual environment. They further suggest that the benefits of ongoing engagement with established relationships during travel, and the 'sense of feeling together' that this proffers, are key motivators for tourists' social media use in the destination (White and White, 2007). White and White (2007) concentrate primarily on the social benefits that tourists perceive they will gain by using social media in the destination. Other research (Parra-López et al., 2011) suggests that tourist social media

behaviour within the destination is more complicated, involving functional, psychological, emotional and hedonic benefits. However, the study focuses only on the anticipatory and reflective phase, thereby ignoring the experiential phase of travel.

The use of social media during a crisis in the travel destination has also been investigated (Schroeder et al., 2013b; Schroeder and Pennington-Gray, 2015). According to the findings of Schroeder and Pennington-Gray (2014), Indian, Brazilian, Australian and South Korean tourists are more likely to use social media to search for information during a crisis in the destination than tourists from China. The more international travel experience tourists have, the higher the likelihood of their using social media to seek information in the event of a crisis in the travel destination (Schroeder and Pennington-Gray, 2015). However, this research is confined to social media use for information seeking purposes during a crisis, and ignores other important factors like the use of social media for emotional support.

Tourists have been found to obtain information and to make short-term decisions based on this information in the pre-trip phase, and to share experiences in the post-consumption stage (Parra-López et al., 2011; Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014). However, tourist social media use during travel is changing due to the development of the smartphone, improvements in social media application functions, and the development of telecommunications infrastructure in many destinations. Therefore, changes in how tourists use social media need to be considered by tourism studies. Researchers have explored the mediation of the travel experience by smartphones, examining travellers' accounts of their use of smartphones (and associated applications) for travel. The results reveal that the smartphone can change tourists' behaviour and emotional state by addressing a wide variety of information needs. In particular, the instant information provided by smartphones enables tourists to more effectively solve problems, share experiences, and 'store' memories (Wang et al., 2012). Apart from the role of social media at different stages of travel, the various types of social media tourists adopt and their motivations for using social media have attracted attention from tourism scholars and will be discussed in the following sections.

Various types of social media used by tourists

According to the classification by Kaplan and Haenlein (2010), there are six types of social media, including blogs, social networking sites, virtual social worlds, collaborative projects, content communities and virtual game worlds. Since various types of social media differ in level of social interaction, temporal structure, reach of communication, amount of social cues,

and content richness (Munar and Jacobsen, 2014), tourist social media behaviour may differ in each. Most previous studies are designed in the context of open access social media platforms which are accessible to the public. For instance, online videos shared on YouTube (Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier, 2009), travel blogs, such as www.travelblog.org (Bosangit et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2016) and online travel communities like TripAdvisor (Arsal et al., 2008; Choi et al., 2019; Chung and Buhalis, 2008) have been identified as platforms for the sharing and searching of travel information. The development of UGC, and specifically the use of web logs or blogs, can provide tourism organizations and enterprises with valuable market intelligence and ongoing research opportunities (Akehurst, 2009). Microblogging sites, such as Twitter, are another popular social media type usually conducted via mobile phone text messages currently restricted to just 140 characters.

Facebook has also been widely studied from a demand and supply perspective in the travel context. Facebook users are more likely to access a DMO's Facebook page rather than go to the actual DMO's website for travel-related information. Therefore, DMOs pay attention to their use of Facebook in the promotion and marketing of a tourism destination (Ben-Shaul and Reichel, 2018; Mariani et al., 2018; Önder et al., 2019; Villamediana et al., 2019). Notably, previous research on tourist social media behaviour is conducted mainly on Western-based social media platforms, most of which are officially blocked in China. Unlike Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and other UGC platforms, WeChat is a multi-purpose platform that provides a free, instant communication service as well as offering functions such as WeChat pay. Moreover, WeChat posts are not visible to the public only allowing access to invited friends. Studies which focus on interaction with a public audience based on Facebook social media types may not therefore be appropriate in understanding the social media behaviour of tourists among close friends and relatives on a Chinese social media platform like WeChat.

Motivations of social media behaviour

The motivational and influential factors that underpin social media behaviour are another widely researched area in tourism. Yoo and Gretzel (2011) find that tourists' personality is influential in predicting social media behaviour. They investigated the influence of personality on travel consumer-generated media, and found that personality traits significantly influence perceived barriers to content creation, motivation to engage in customer-generated media (CGM), and specific creation behaviours.

Motivational studies on the adoption of social media in the travel context has been explored by many scholars using social cognitive theory, social capital theory, social influence theory and social identity theory. Based on social cognitive theory, which claims that self-efficacy and outcome expectation determines a person's cognition, Hsu et al. (2007) report that tourists are more likely to adopt social media when the perceived benefits outweigh the cost of self-efficacy. Similarly, Parra-López et al. (2011) argue that a tourists' intention to use social media is directly influenced by the benefits they perceive they will accrue from using it, including functional, psychological, hedonic and social benefits. Huang, Basu, and Hsu (2010) also use social cognitive theory and identify three motivating factors for travel knowledge sharing among young social media users', namely, obtaining travel information, information dissemination, and personal documentation.

Social capital theory has been adopted by scholars interested in the social aspects of social media use (Chang and Chuang, 2011; Choi and Scott, 2013; Chung et al., 2016; Steinfield et al., 2008). Social capital generally refers to the resources and benefits people receive from social relationships, or relationships within communities, networks or the wider society (Chang and Chuang, 2011). Social capital can be divided into two categories: 1) bridging social capital which is gained through external relationships involving the exchange of information without emotional bonds (weak tie), and 2) bonding social capital which is gained within internal relationships, or relationships with family and friends (strong tie) (Ellison, 2007). Ellison et al. (2007) reveal that the frequency of Facebook use has a positive effect on bridging social capital, bonding social capital, and on the maintenance of social capital. The study suggests that individuals who use Facebook utilize more bridging social capital than bonding social capital. Choi and Scott (2013) found that the relationship between individuals and their connection with the community motivates users to exchange knowledge on social media. Chung, Nam, and Koo (2016) argue that network externality, social interaction, the enjoyment gained from helping others, and the expression of a self-image are significant motives in sharing behaviour on social media platforms.

Social influence has also been found to be an influential factor in social media behaviour in the tourism context. Social influence is defined as the extent to which people believe that other people who are important to them want them to perform a particular behaviour (Kang and Schuett, 2013; Venkatesh et al., 2002). Even after individuals have made rational choices, social influence can change the mind set of tourists with regard to travel purchase decisions (Tanford and Montgomery, 2015). Researchers further conclude that social

influence is prevalent in tourism and stronger through word-of-mouth communication (Hvass and Munar, 2012; Sweeney et al., 2014; Yoo et al., 2015). And the social influence of family and friends is particularly strong in travel related decisions (Hui et al., 2007).

Participation in social media also increases the social influence of users (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2002; Hvass and Munar, 2012; Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014). Social influence theory suggests that alterations in psychological status is the result of compliance, or the desire to obtain approval or support from significant others, internalization, or acceptance of the beliefs of others, and identification, or the desire to establish and maintain a satisfying and self-defining relationship (Kelman, 1958). It has been argued that identification and internalization are critical determinants of, and positively related to the use of social media, while compliance has a negative impact upon the adoption of social media (Kang and Schuett, 2013). Recently, based on social influence theory and its three constructs (internalization, identification, and compliance), Oliveira, Araujo, and Tam (2020) identified perceived enjoyment as the most important factor motivating travellers to share travel experiences on social media, while security and privacy are the top latent reasons.

Social identity is another theory adopted by researchers to explore the motives underpinning social media use in the tourism domain. Social identity theory refers to the sense of belonging linked to a particular social category or group, and proposes that a person establishes his or her identity in relation to their membership of a group or via their place in the social universe (Hogg and Terry, 2000; Stets and Burke, 2000). Social identity theory suggests that a sense of belonging is gradually developed through an identification process which is influenced by perceptual self-categorization as well as emotional attachment to the social group (Ellemers et al., 1999; Qu and Lee, 2011; Stets and Burke, 2000). Studies indicate that social identification has particular relevance in explaining tourists' motivation to share information on social media platforms (Qu and Lee, 2011).

Uses and gratifications theory (UGT) has also informed a number of empirical studies which investigate the motives that underpin social media use in the tourism context (Hur et al., 2017; Joo and Sang, 2013). UGT explores the social and psychological origins of needs in order to explain why and how individuals use the mass media. Several studies based on UGT investigate motivations for using social media. For instance, researchers have identified relaxing entertainment, expressive information sharing, companionship, professional advancement, and social interaction as key motivating factors for Facebook use (Smock et al.,

2011). Hur et al (2017) report that the need for entertainment and relationship maintenance motivates information seeking.

The factors that motivate people to use social media cannot then be explained with a single theory. Some researchers argue that applying a single theory to investigate the motivations underlying social media use represent a major limitation of current motivational studies on the subject (Munar and Jacobsen, 2014). Nevertheless there is agreement that tourists use social media to exchange information (Chung and Koo, 2015; Kim et al., 2013; Munar and Jacobsen, 2014), for sociability and emotional support (Zhenshan et al., 2019; Sharma and Nayak, 2018; Prayag et al., 2013), and to share experience (Kang and Schuett, 2013; Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017). It can be concluded that tourist social media behaviour can best be understood in terms of collecting and exchanging information, accessing social support, and sharing travel experience.

2.3 Tourist social media behaviour in the destination

The concept of social support and self-presentation are reviewed in the following section in order to provide a theoretical foundation for tourist social media behaviour in the destination. The review draws upon tourism studies and social psychological studies.

2.3.1 Social support

Social support is broadly defined as the perception that available resources or supportive social ties can be acquired through social interaction and that engaging with others will improve the well-being of the individual (Tardy, 1985). According to the social psychology literature, social support is critical in making social environments less stressful or more conducive to effective adaptations to stress (Mikal, 2011; Mikal et al., 2013). Most studies conceptualise social support as a construct that consists of multiple dimensions (Lu and Hampton, 2017). Social support can be classified in different ways, such as by the degree of subjectivity or disposition, by direction, or by content (Barrera, 1986; Tardy, 1985). The degree of subjectivity or disposition is divided into perceived social support and enacted social support. Perceived social support refers to an individuals' beliefs regarding whether they can turn to others for support (Sherbourne and Stewart, 1991), while enacted social support refers to assessments of actual supportive behaviours or actions (Barrera, 1986). Scholars suggest that perceived social support is the strongest indicator of social support, although actual supportive behaviours are a less subjective indicator, and social support is

essentially a bi-directional process of social exchange that includes receiving and giving social support (Barrera, 1986; Tardy, 1985). With regard to content, House (1981) identifies four basic types of support: emotional support (actions that enhance esteem), appraisal support (feedback about an individual's views or behaviour), informational support (advice or information that facilitates problem solving), and instrumental support (tangible assistance).

With the development of information and communication technology (ICT), the boundary for social support is expanding from the traditional face-to-face communication context to the computer-mediated communication context (Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013). Since obtaining social support is one of the major motives for adopting social media (Kim et al., 2011), the implications of social media for social support has generated significant attention among researchers. Social media can eliminate barriers related to time and distance and draw a greater number of participants than traditional face-to-face communication contexts (Indian and Grieve, 2014). It has been argued that online social support is particularly useful for those who lack face-to-face social support (Chen and Choi, 2011). Moreover, social media facilitates social interaction and support and is an alternative to traditional face-to-face support networks. More importantly, social media enables users to reach out to a larger network of contacts, providing them with support that is tailored to their needs (Ellison et al., 2007). Given these benefits, social media has gradually become a popular means by which to seek support and there is now visible discussion on topics ranging from medical issues to daily stress on social media (Frison and Eggermont, 2016; Liu and Wei, 2018; Steinfield et al., 2008).

Some studies investigate the implications of social media behaviour for the type of social support categorized according to degree of subjectivity (perceived and enacted social support) and by direction (received and given social support). For example, scholars have found that interaction on social media does not have a significant impact on perceived social support in general, while it has a strong positive impact on actual received support from friends. A few studies have investigated the implications of using social media to obtain social support by content. Chen (2011) examined computer-mediated social support (CMSS) among international migrants and found that CMSS has become an efficient and valuable supplement to migrants' traditional or offline social support, and that migrants actively seek CMSS, especially in the early migration stage (Chen and Choi, 2011). In Chen and Choi's study of online social support among Chinese migrants in Singapore (2011), four dimensions of social media support are explored. These dimensions include informational support

(seeking information to better understand a situation, seeking advice about a crisis, and seeking suggestions about how to deal with a personal problem); emotional support (seeking encouragement, sharing private worries and fears, and seeking someone to listen to you); tangible support (seeking articles or materials form others, seeking free copies of software, movies or CDs from others, and asking others to help with the completion of work); companionship support (having a good time with someone, getting together with someone for relaxation, and doing something enjoyable with someone).

In the tourism context, social support is known to be a moderator of stressful travel experience and its psychological outcomes (Huang and Hsu, 2010; Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013). Some research shows that tourists can receive social support from either weak ties, like fellow tourists, or from close ties, like friends and family (Huang and Hsu, 2010). There are also studies which look at social support by the degree of subjectivity in a tourism context. For instance, Kim and Tussyadiah (2013) focus on received social support and perceived social support and note that there is a positive relationship between the social media use of tourists for both received and perceived social support. However, research which distinguishes among the different purposes of social support is lacking. In order to fill this gap, this study focuses on examining the various types of social support tourists receive from using social media. In the following section social support, categorized by different contents, including informational, emotional and instrumental social support, is discussed.

Informational social support

Informational online social support refers to tourists' perceptions of the support they gain from social media information exchanges which help them to better understand and deal with stressors relating to travel (Chen and Choi, 2011; Gottlieb and Bergen, 2010a; Wang et al., 2012). The role of social media in informational social support has been extensively studied in the pre-trip stage. At the preparation stage of a trip, tourists can collect the information and advice necessary to reduce fears and risks about an unknown destination (Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013). Several studies discuss the use of social media for informational social support in the destination. Wang et al. (2012) for example highlight that tourists might change their plans and select different tourism activities based on the information provided by social media users during travel. They also emphasize that instant access to information might be particularly important in addressing emergent information needs. Meeting these information needs improves the efficiency of the travel process and can maximise the value of the trip. This study will further explore the role of social media in providing informational

social support while travelling, and as such aims to provide a more nuanced perspective on the social support garnered from social media use.

Emotional social support

Emotional online social support refers to the psychological support tourists perceive they gain from their online social networking, as characterized by sympathy and assistance from other users that reduces feelings of stress, depression and uncertainty during travel (Gottlieb and Bergen, 2010a; Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013). Some scholars (Chun and Lee, 2017) suggest that emotional social support, especially esteem support and social companionship in times of stress, is the most important aspect of social media interaction. Social media use for emotional social support has been widely examined in social psychology and in health-related contexts (Drouin et al., 2018; Jacobson et al., 2017; Lakey and Orehek, 2011; Luo et al., 2017). Since social media can support the close ties that provide tourists with a sense of place (Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013), tourists often turn to their friends and family for emotional support while they are away from home. Thus, this research aims to provide insight into the role of social media in emotional social support within the tourism setting.

Instrumental social support

While few studies focus on the role of social media for informational and emotional social support in the tourism context, instrumental social support, especially in the consumption stage, has been even more rarely touched upon. Instrumental social support refers to perceived tangible and enacted support gained from online social networking that helps tourists to solve problems (Chen and Choi, 2011). The use of social media for instrumental social support has seldom been discussed in the tourism context. It is important to note that instrumental support aims at solving problems. Tourists might encounter problems both in their home environment and in the destination during travel. For example, tourists may ask their social media friends for help to complete some of their work at home or fill in for them to solve some personal problems such as collecting a parcel when they are traveling in the destination. This study aims to contribute to a better understanding of the social media behaviour of tourists for instrumental social support during travel in the destination.

2.3.2 Self-presentation

Self-presentation is a significant motivation for using social media (Kim and Lee, 2011). People believe that the impression they make upon others may influence how others behave

towards them. Even when individuals do not intentionally attempt to deliver certain images of themselves through appearance or behaviour, the impression they make will impact upon how they are defined and treated by other people (Bazarova et al., 2013). Therefore, self-presentation is considered to be a fundamental and powerful psychological process that influences everyday social interactions (Leary et al., 2011). Goffman in his classic work, *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life* (1971), conceptualized self-presentation as a process of information management, in which presenting favourable and appropriate images in order to impress others is the motivating factor that guides and controls behaviour. Self-presentation is described as an 'information game' that individuals practice to control the information they present in order to ensure others form the impression of themselves they wish to convey (Goffman, 1971; Papacharissi, 2002). Leary and Kowalski (1990) identify two determinants of self-presentational concerns, namely impression motivation and impression construction. Impression motivation refers to concern about the impressions generated within a particular context and the motivation to manage self-presentational appearance and behaviour, while impression construction refers to implicit or explicit decisions about the type of impressions an individual wishes to convey (Leary and Kowalski, 1990).

The emergence of Web 2.0 provides individuals with a platform for self-presentation. In addition, social media users have more control over their self-presentation than in face-to-face communication because it provides the opportunity to think about what aspects of their personalities should be presented or which photos convey their best images (Ellison et al., 2007; Kimmerle and Cress, 2008; Schwämmlein and Wodzicki, 2012; Sun and Wu, 2012). Previous studies reveal that users tend to emphasize the positive aspects of their lives and seek to create an idealized version of themselves (Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013; Vogel and Rose, 2016). In the following section, several studies of online self-presentation in a tourism context will be reviewed.

2.3.2.1 Online self-presentation in the tourism context

Online self-presentation has been investigated in online dating (Ellison et al., 2006), and with regard to subjective well-being and identity formation among college students and teenagers (Kim and Lee, 2011). Although the importance of self-presentation is well recognized in the social psychology literature, studies on the routinised self-presentation behaviour of tourists is limited. Those studies which have been undertaken on self-presentation in the tourism context are discussed in this section.

Tourist social media sharing is regarded as an extension of everyday self-presentations (Dinhopl and Gretzel, 2016; Lyu, 2016). In Kim and Tussyadiah (2013), self-presentation is divided into two types: positive self-presentation and honest self-presentation. Positive self-presentation refers to selectively sharing positive aspects of oneself on social media, while honest self-presentation refers to the honest sharing of thoughts, feelings and life events on social media (Kim and Lee, 2011; Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013). Since social media users aim to develop identities and roles and to gain social rewards through self-presentation, scholars claim that the use of social media is motivated by a need for positive self-presentation (Nadkarni and Hofmann, 2012). Tourists also use self-presentation to highlight the positive aspects of their travel and to thereby receive attention and feedback from social media friends (Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013).

Moreover, with the widespread use of smartphones, taking a selfie, and especially posing in front of a landmark, has become a ritualistic and routinized practice among tourists attracting attention from tourism scholars (Lo and McKercher, 2015; Lyu, 2016; Stylianou-Lambert, 2012). Lo and McKercher (2015) claim that tourists deliberately post satisfactory photographs on social media platforms to convey desirable impressions to others. Lyu (2016) investigated the underlying nature of strategic self-presentation behaviour characterized by efforts to edit and package travel selfies posted on social media among a group of Korean female tourists. The study identified several elements of self-objectification typical of the self-presentation patterns of female tourists who post travel selfies, including appearance surveillance and dissatisfaction.

Essentially, tourism allows tourists to travel from the ordinary world (their familiar home environment) to the non-ordinary world (tourism destinations) which may lead to behavioural and cognitive changes among tourists (Jafari, 1987). Self-presentation on social media has become a common practice among tourists today. Self-presentation strategies are greatly influenced by perceptions of social norms as well as by the expected audience (Goffman, 1971). Tourist destinations have been identified as liminal zones where daily social norms and values are suspended (Wang, 1999). As a consequence of experiencing a change of social context, self-presentation strategies and behaviours may be altered in the tourism destination (Qiu et al., 2019). Therefore, this study aims to observe self-presentation behaviour in the destination and to provide new insight into the effects of self-presentation on the emotional tone of tourists experience of a travel experience toward the destination, as will be discussed in the following section.

2.5 Tourist emotions

2.5.1 Consumer emotions

The terms affect, emotion and mood are used interchangeably within psychology and consumer behaviour research (Beedie et al., 2005) and it is necessary to clarify the meaning of these terms. Affect is an umbrella term that refers to a range of psychological processes including emotions and moods (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Moods are mild affective states that are generally unintentional, with causes that are difficult to locate, and which do not lead to immediate responses (Beedie et al., 2005). Emotions refer to responses to external stimuli that usually last for a short time, and which are different from moods which are longer lasting and lower in intensity than emotions (Beedie et al., 2005). Emotions are triggered by a particular environment, event or object and motivate individuals to take actions (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Since emotions can explain variations in consumer responses beyond rational cognition, and play a critical role in defining consumption experience, they have also received attention from researchers seeking to understand consumer behaviour and satisfaction (Dube and Menon, 2000; Lee and Shea, 2015; Yu and Dean, 2001). Many researchers suggest that consumer behaviour cannot be adequately explained without taking emotion into account (Lee et al., 2008). In summary, the term emotion is adopted in this study to investigate emotional responses to a destination.

The literature on psychology has adopted two major conceptual approaches to the study of emotion. One is a categorical approach. The other is a dimensional approach. The categorical approach groups emotions into a set of idiosyncratic affective states, such as joy, anger, sadness (Izard, 1977). Using this approach, Izard (1977) developed the differential emotions scale (DES). Izard proposes 10 basic emotions with two positive emotions (interest and joy), seven negative emotions (anger, disgust, contempt, sadness, fear, shame and guilt), and one neutral emotion (surprise). Notably, since the DES emphasizes negative emotions, researchers adopting the DES have generally modified it to reach a balance between positive and negative emotions (Cohn et al., 2009; Fredrickson, 2001).

The dimensional approach uses the affective dimensions of valence and level of arousal to distinguish between emotions like pleasure or arousal (Russell, 1980) or positive and negative (Watson et al., 1988). The pleasure arousal and dominance (PAD) scale is a popular measure used to examine the impact of emotional responses on shopping behaviour and

restaurant consumption experiences (Jang and Namkung, 2009). Positive and negative emotions are two dominant dimensions of affect that have been applied in studies of emotion (Watson et al., 1988). There are two 10-item mood scales in the positive and negative affect schedule scales (PANAS). Positive affect reflects the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active and alert. High positive affect is a state of high energy, full concentration and pleasurable engagement, whereas low positive affect is characterized by sadness and lethargy. Negative affect is a general dimension of subjective distress and non-pleasurable engagement that subsumes a variety of aversive mood states, including anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, fear and nervousness, with low negative affect being a state of calmness and serenity. The PANAS has been widely used in studies relating to consumer satisfaction and post-purchase behaviour (Pelegrín-Borondo et al., 2020). In comparison to the categorical approach, the dimensional approach provides a more parsimonious account of emotional experience that influence satisfaction and behavioural intention (Grappi and Montanari, 2011). For this reason, tourism scholars are more likely to adopt the dimensional approach (Lin et al., 2014). This study also takes a dimensional approach. The following section reviews the relevant literature on tourist emotions in general before discussing tourist emotions toward the destination.

2.5.2 Tourist emotions toward destination

Emotional reactions to the consumption experience are fundamental for the determination of satisfaction (del Bosque and Martín, 2008) and post-consumption behaviour (Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007). Accordingly, understanding the emotions evoked by tourism experiences is an important aspect in the investigation of tourist behaviour. Previous studies on the role of emotion within tourism tend to focus on positive emotions (Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous, 2013; Gable et al., 2004; Hosany, 2012; Huynh Anh Thu et al., 2018; Sharma and Nayak, 2018). For instance, a study by Mitas et al. (2012) adopted the modified differential emotion scale (mDES) and found that positive emotions increase before a trip, peak during the trip and decline after the trip. Research also highlights the importance of the richness of experiential attributes in evoking emotion within a travel experience (Otto and Ritchie, 1996). Previous studies reveal that positive emotions have a significant effect on tourist satisfaction (Al‐Msallam, 2020; Chang et al., 2020; Io, 2017). Therefore, in order to capture peak emotional experience, it is important to investigate the during-trip travel phase.

Many tourism scholars have adopted emotion measures that were originally developed from psychology (Izard, 1977; Watson et al., 1988). Hosany and Gilbert (2010) argue that these measures fail to take into account tourism and destination-specific characteristics. In response, Hosany and Gilbert (2010) have developed the destination emotion scale (DES) which includes joy, love and positive surprise. The joy dimension consists of emotion items related to positive outcomes such as getting or achieving something desired or desirable. The love dimension refers to the significance of love in tourists' representations of their emotional experiences. The dimension of positive surprise is associated with items describing an unexpected occurrence such as amazement and astonishment. Since the original DES (Izard, 1977) excludes a dimension for negative emotion, researchers have added an unpleasantness dimension to ensure a balanced range of tourist emotional responses toward the destination are captured by the measure (Hosany and Prayag, 2013).

Emotions reveal a temporary state of pleasant or unpleasant disposition (Oliver et al., 1997). The significant role of positive emotion in tourism has been widely discussed in previous studies, however there is a lack of research investigating the impact of the negative emotions of tourists. From a traditional point of view, the main purpose of the consumption of tourism products is to seek pleasure and to avoid pain (Higgins, 2012). This perhaps explains the limited number of studies on the negative emotions of tourists. Negative emotions are an indispensable part of human experience and might have an even stronger impact on human behaviour than positive emotions. For instance, scholars in social psychology claim that negative affect has a stronger impact on outcomes than positive affect in many areas of life such as close relationships, interpersonal interactions, and major life events (Baumeister et al., 2001). Negative emotion might then be expected to have a stronger impact on tourism experience than positive emotion. This study will therefore consider both positive and negative emotions.

Although the study of emotion within tourism research has become increasingly popular in recent years, little research has related emotion to the use of social media. Recently, there has been an interest in the role of smartphones in the tourism context, and research has shown that the use of smartphones has a substantial influence on the tourism experience (Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2018). For example, Wang et al. (2012) found that the information services provided by smartphones elicit hedonic pleasure by providing novel information to tourists. They also suggest that smartphone apps can make otherwise long and weary waiting times more fun and enjoyable and can help tourists to recognize hedonic

aspects of an experience, leading to higher overall satisfaction. More recently, Yu et al. (2018) explored the impact of smartphones on the family vacation experience. They suggest that the ease of information sharing enabled by smartphone apps helps tourists to stay informed and to keep their families and friends informed. Updated information eliminates worries and concerns caused by the uncertainty of travel. However, research on tourist emotion and social media use during travel is sparse. The following sections will propose the hypotheses that will be tested in this research.

The link between social support and emotions has been well examined in the psychology literature (Lakey et al., 2002; Lakey and Orehek, 2011). In the psychological literature, social support is usually conceptualised as a moderator in emotional regulation (Karaer and Akdemir, 2019; Woods-Jaeger et al., 2016). The main-effect model has played a foundational role in shaping research and theory on the effect of social support on stress buffering (Cohen and Wills, 1985; Lewandowski et al., 2011). From a social-psychological perspective, the main-effect model suggests that social support is beneficial because it provides a large social network and regular positive experiences regardless of the level of stress that a person is experiencing (Cohen and Wills, 1985). Cohen and Wills (1985) describe the stress buffering mechanism involved in social support in two ways: 1) support can intervene between the stressful event and the reaction to stress by preventing a stress appraisal response; 2) adequate support can intervene in or prevent a stress response from producing an irrational response and outcome by providing a solution to the problem. Stress buffering occurs when social support protects tourists from a stressful experience. Based on the stress buffering theory, people who perceive more social support from social networks are in better mental and physical health than those who perceive less social support from social networks (Sarason and Sarason, 1985). Consequently, it can be argued that emotions, which are important factors in mental health, are influenced by social support.

In this study, social support is conceptualised as a direct predictor of emotion. As discussed earlier, the need for social support is a major motivator for adopting social media. Therefore, seeking social support is assumed to be a predominant social media behaviour during travel in the destination. In addition, this study focuses on investigating how the social media behaviour of tourists impacts upon their emotions during travel, rather than regarding social support as a moderator that regulates emotions. According to Lakey and Orehek (2011), people with high social support have more positive emotions than those with low social support. Therefore, it is assumed that the relationship between offline social support and

emotion can be transferred to the online context. On the other hand, it can be assumed that various kinds of social support influence the positive and negative emotions of tourists in the travel context.

Tourism is increasingly regarded as an information-intensive industry. With the emergence of smartphones, tourists can collect information with fewer time and space constraints. Wang et al. (2012) argue that the availability of immediate access to information on social media has had a significant impact on the behaviour of tourists. In the pre-trip stage, searching travel-related information to support the travel decision-making process is an essential activity. In the during-trip phase, tourists are more likely to use social media to seek information when they encounter problems (Schroeder et al., 2013a). Tourists make short-term decisions based on the information they collect from social media (Wang et al., 2012). By helping tourists to solve problems and avoid potential crises social media information supports more positive emotional responses toward the destination. On the other hand, if tourists fail to collect useful information to manage stress, they may experience more negative emotional responses to the destination. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H1a: Informational online social support will increase tourist positive emotions.

H1b: Informational online social support will decrease tourist negative emotions.

Essentially, tourism refers to people travelling from their familiar home environment to an unfamiliar environment where they are physically separated from friends and family members. Social media allows tourists to bring their social network with them while traveling in an unfamiliar destination and provides them with a sense of connection to the familiar. Tourists may identify friends whom they are able to rely on and turn to for emotional support when facing difficulties or problems (Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013). Based on the points discussed above, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H2a: Emotional online social support will increase tourist positive emotions.

H2b: Emotional online social support will decrease tourist negative emotions.

Seeking instrumental social support through social media has rarely been investigated in the tourism context. Some researchers argue that instrumental support depends largely upon receiving physical goods which are less likely to be related to social media based social support. In this study, the definition of instrumental social support is more focused on enacted support, or support that helps tourists to solve actual problems at home or during travel at the

destination. Therefore, instrumental social support may or may not involve receiving physical goods. Previous research indicates that support seeking is directly related to psychological outcomes (Frison and Eggermont, 2016). Hence, the study proposes the following hypotheses.

H3a: Instrumental online social support will increase tourist positive emotions.

H3b: Instrumental online social support will decrease tourist negative emotions.

Self-presentation is a key aspect of emotional expression (Bazarova et al., 2013). Several studies have examined the association between self-presentation and emotion. Researchers argue that positive self-presentation contributes to happiness and sustains positive emotions by obtaining positive feedback from others (Diener, 2000). On the other hand, sharing negative experiences can reduce the intensity of negative emotions by evoking social support from others (Skowronski et al., 2004). Previous studies also conclude that individuals with higher levels of negative emotion use self-presentation more often (Sadler et al., 2010). In the travel context, tourists manage their online self-presentation through uploading images, sharing stories about themselves, and revealing their feelings. The process of presenting oneself online influences the emotional states of tourists. For instance, tourists may gain positive emotions such as pleasure after they post a picture of charming scenery at a destination. At the same time, negative emotions, like feeling unhappy, worried or disappointed, are likely to be subdued. Previous literature seldom discusses the relationship between tourist online self-presentation behaviour and tourist emotions toward the destination. In the study, the following hypotheses are therefore proposed.

H4a: Online self-presentation will increase tourist positive emotions.

H4b: Online self-presentation will decrease tourist negative emotions.

2.6 Tourist satisfaction

Since tourist satisfaction has a notable effect on behavioural intention, including the intention to revisit and willingness to recommend the destination, it has been extensively studied within the field of tourism (Chen et al., 2016; Chi, 2012; McDowall, 2010; Wang and Hsu, 2010). Previous studies reveal that destinations receive a range of positive benefits from satisfied tourists (Prayag et al., 2017; Sharma and Nayak, 2018; Suhartanto et al., 2016; Tsai, 2015; Zhenshan et al., 2019). Satisfied tourists are likely to pay more and to stay longer at a destination. They also tend to share their experience in positive terms on social media and the

information they provide becomes an important source of information for others. Dissatisfied tourists are more likely to generate negative comments and to have a negative influence on the competitiveness and growth opportunities of the destination. Tourist satisfaction is commonly considered to be a one-dimensional concept, deployed along a bipolar continuum with the extreme points showing the highest satisfaction and the highest dissatisfaction, while the midpoint indicates neutrality or indifference.

Some satisfaction studies focus on the overall satisfaction level or on an evaluation of the entirety of a consumer's experience of a product or service. Pai, Wang, and Chen (2017) conducted an empirical study to investigate the effect of Macau's ubiquitous access to the Internet on tourists' evaluation and overall satisfaction with their travel to Macau. The results of the study indicate that ubiquitous Internet access in Macau has a positive impact on its perceived value as a travel destination, and indirectly enhances overall tourist satisfaction with the destination (Pai et al., 2017). Since the overall tourist experience is a sum of individual experiences of a destination, some research on satisfaction focuses on investigating the quality of a single aspect of a tourist service or product. Other research considers overall customer satisfaction to be more relevant and meaningful in predicting customer behaviour than responses to a particular attribute of the destination and recognise that perceptions of single attributes often determine overall customer satisfaction. Some researchers argue that overall customer satisfaction needs to be differentiated from attribute-level customer satisfaction (Chi and Qu, 2008; Chi, 2012). Therefore, some studies apply measures of both attribute-based and overall levels of satisfaction. For example, to examine tourist satisfaction with souvenir shopping and its impact on tourist post-purchase behaviour, Suhartanto (2018) employed measures of both attributes and overall level of satisfaction. At the attribute level, the study identified store and collectability attributes as crucial factors in determining tourist satisfaction with their souvenir shopping experience. At the overall level, the study revealed that tourist satisfaction with the souvenir shopping experience had a significant influence on their perception of the destination as a whole and on their loyalty toward the destination (Suhartanto, 2018).

Several established theories are evident within tourist satisfaction studies. Firstly, the expectancy disconfirmation model postulates that customer satisfaction is determined by the difference between expectation and performance (Oliver and Westbrook, 1993). Comparing tourists' expectations about certain destinations or services with tourists' post-trip perceptions can reveal whether the destination or the services offered exceeded, met or fell short of pre-

trip expectations. If the actual travel experience exceeds pre-trip expectations, the result is a satisfied tourist. If not, tourists are likely to be dissatisfied. The expectancy disconfirmation model has received some criticism. It has been observed that the model may not illustrate high levels of tourist satisfaction due to low expectations or superior quality of service (Fuchs and Weiermair, 2004). The model is however one of the few theoretical models of satisfaction available and is frequently adopted by tourism researchers (Bowen and Clarke, 2002; Zehrer and Crotts, 2011). Recently researchers employed the expectancy disconfirmation model, and developed a 4Q methodology (four open-ended questions including positive expectations, negative expectations, positive perceptions, and negative perceptions) to measure tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Oliveri et al., 2019). As mentioned above, for the most part, tourist satisfaction has been understood to be a one-dimensional construct. A few studies argue that a focus purely on positive attributes tends to overestimate satisfaction and therefore examine tourist satisfaction as a dual construct including both tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Oliveri et al., 2019).

Secondly, the cognitive-affective model has been widely acknowledged in satisfaction studies (del Bosque and Martín, 2008). The cognitive-affective model adds an emotional determinant to the study of tourist satisfaction which previously focused primarily on cognition, and has consequently gained in popularity (del Bosque and Martín, 2008). Since the 1970s there has been a trend to extend research on emotion into consumer behaviour studies (Bowen and Clarke, 2002).

Thirdly, the latest development in tourist satisfaction research is the index approach which shares a common theoretical foundation with expectancy-disconfirmation framework (Song et al., 2012; Saayman et al., 2018). The American customer satisfaction model (ACSM) has been broadly applied in tourist satisfaction research (Lee and Mills, 2010). For example, Lee and Mills (2010) adapted the ACSM to mobile commerce in the tourism industry and found that the reliability of mobile technology is a significant predictor of satisfaction among tourists who use mobile devices during travel. Consumer satisfaction indexes, such as the ACSM, have mostly been applied to domestically purchased consumer products and not the full range of tourism services and facilities, particularly for international destinations (Song et al., 2012). Some overall consumer satisfaction indexes have been used only to cover paid goods and services, excluding free-of-charge services and facilities from evaluations of tourist satisfaction (Song et al., 2012). Given these limitations in previous consumer satisfaction indices, Song and his colleagues (2012) developed a tourist satisfaction index

(TSI) which includes a variety of service sectors in tourism and provides a more systematic assessment of tourist satisfaction. The TSI framework includes a two-stage tourist satisfaction evaluation starting with a sectoral-level assessment and then aggregating overall destination-level satisfaction. Adoptions of the TSI framework found that tourist satisfaction has a significant impact on sense of well-being and that the higher the impact of the trip on tourist sense of well-being the higher the loyalty towards the destination (Saayman et al., 2018).

It is recognized that satisfaction can be influenced by the social-psychological state the tourist brings to a site including their mood, disposition, and needs. For instance, using path analysis, Gao and colleagues point to both direct and indirect effects of personality and mood on tourist ratings of satisfaction within each trip stage (Gao et al., 2017). There is growing interest in tourist emotion in the field of tourism studies. How tourist emotion affects tourist experience and satisfaction has been investigated (Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous, 2013; Hosany and Gilbert, 2010). And the impact of cultural diversity and social context on tourist emotion have also been explored (Jui Chi, 2008; Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007). Prior studies have also examined the relationships among tourist emotion, perceived value, and behavioural intentions (Yang et al., 2011). However, in these studies, tourist emotions are generally defined in terms of emotional responses toward a tourism experience. In this study, tourist emotion refers to tourist emotional responses towards the destination.

It is widely accepted that tourist satisfaction can be understood in terms of the emotional state of tourists after an experience, and that this then has a significant influence on behavioural intention (del Bosque and Martín, 2008). However, the role of tourist emotion in the formation of overall tourist satisfaction has not been well established in the literature. Generally, studies exploring the role of emotion in the formation of customer satisfaction have adopted a dimensional approach, classifying emotions into positive and negative states (Oliver et al., 1997). Previous research demonstrates that while positive emotions increase customer satisfaction, negative emotions reduce customer satisfaction (Lee et al., 2008; Liljander and Strandvik, 1997). Researchers have also examined whether risk perception within the shopping context affects tourist emotions, their judgments about satisfaction and expressed loyalty intentions (Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007). In addition, since satisfaction itself indicates the presence of positive emotions, it has been argued that positive emotions have a stronger link with consumer satisfaction than negative emotions (Dubé et al., 1996) and positive emotions have been found to be a strong driver of customer satisfaction (Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous, 2013).

Based on the existing literature, it can be posited that tourist emotions have a significant influence on tourist satisfaction. The relationship between tourist positive and negative emotions and tourist satisfaction is hypothesised as follows.

H5a: Tourist positive emotions will increase tourist satisfaction.

H5b: Tourist negative emotions will decrease tourist satisfaction.

2.7 Chinese outbound tourism

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2017), since 2012, China has become the top spender on international tourism. It is not therefore surprising that outbound Chinese tourism has drawn the attention of researchers and practitioners. Chinese outbound tourism developed in three stages. The first stage began from the early 1980s following the implementation of the 1978 open-door policy and the rapid economic growth that increased the wealth of Chinese citizens. The Chinese government allowed a limited number of organised tours to Hong Kong and Macao, former colonies of the UK and Portugal respectively, for leisure purposes under the Approved Destination Status (ADS) policy (Law et al., 2016). Before the implementation of the ADS policy, the Chinese were allowed to travel overseas only for official reasons, such as attending diplomatic and athletic events (Arlt, 2013). The second stage started in the early 1990s, during which time the government signed bilateral agreements with Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand. It was considered to be a breakthrough development of the ADS policy since it allowed the Chinese to use their personal income to travel to the three approved countries (Law et al., 2016). The third stage started in 1997. At that time, the Chinese Government signed the first bilateral agreements with the non-Asian countries of Australia and New Zealand, which was generally marked as the real birth of international Chinese tourism. From then on, the volume of Chinese outbound tourists increased dramatically. The incredible growth rate of China's outbound tourism is also reflected in tourism studies. Studies on outbound Chinese tourism began in the mid-1990s and gained intensive attention from around 2010 with the rapid increase in the number of Chinese outbound tourists annually.

Most previous empirical studies on outbound Chinese tourism has focused on particular destinations (Law et al., 2016). For example, Huang and Gross (2010) employed a multi-faceted image assessment (MIA) framework to explore Australia's destination image among mainland Chinese tourists. The findings show that past visitors and non-visitors share a similar image of Australia and view the country as a relaxing holiday destination (Huang and

Gross, 2010). Similar research had been conducted on the destination image of popular Chinese destinations including America (Li and Stepchenkova, 2012; Stepchenkova and Li, 2012), Europe (Andreu et al., 2014), Macau (Liu et al., 2015) and North Korea (Li et al., 2018a).

Existing studies on outbound Chinese tourism can be classified by the three stages of travel, namely pre-trip, during-trip and post-trip. The motivations and constraints of outbound Chinese tourists in the pre-trip stage is a commonly investigated topic (Law et al., 2016). Jiang et al. (2015) adopted means-end chain theory to investigate the travel motivations of Chinese outbound tourists at the hierarchical levels of attribute, consequence and values. The findings suggest that outbound Chinese tourists have two major travel motivations—the desire for enjoyment and pleasure, and the wish to experience cultural difference and to be enriched by knowledge and experience of cultural difference (Jiang et al., 2015). Travel constraints are the key barrier affecting Chinese outbound tourists. For example, Lin et al. (2017) examine the constraints of Chinese tourists to Japan by adopting a qualitative approach. They point out that the decision-making process of outbound Chinese tourists is strongly influenced by domestic nationalist sentiment, followed by current political factors, product quality and service, and social environment (Lin et al., 2017). Jin and Sparks (2017) interviewed 20 Chinese outbound tour operators to investigate the factors that drive or hinder the development of special interest tourism (SIT) activities to the Chinese outbound group market. They identified four intertwining factors that act as barriers, including operational constraints, physical and financial risks, lack of market demand, and lack of cognitive and affective attributes (Jin and Sparks, 2017). In addition to travel motivation and constraints, tourist expectations and information searching behaviour has been investigated (Guszkiewicz and Nessel, 2017; Kasabov, 2016; Maghrifani et al., 2019; Wong et al., 2013).

Many studies focus on travel behavior within the consumption stage, and on shopping in particular, as well as onsite experience of food, accommodation and transportation consumption. Recently, Jin, Moscardo, and Murphy (2020) analyzed shopping-related posts within 40 travel blogs from two popular online Chinese travel communities. The findings suggest that outbound Chinese tourists present their shopping experience in terms of four interconnected aspects including materials, competence, meaning and the setting (Jin et al., 2020). Tourist experience in the destination is generally affected by key areas like dining, accommodation, transportation, attraction, shopping and entertainment (Chan et al., 2015; Su and Hsu, 2013). For example, Lin et al. (2020) examine the eating habits and food

consumption behaviour of Chinese tourists in Spain. The findings indicate that Chinese tourists only sample local food during their travels and that unfamiliar ingredients, strange tastes, different quantities of food served, different dining times and duration, and different cultural concepts about what constitutes healthy food, hinder their consumption of Spanish food (Lin et al., 2020).

Tourist satisfaction and behavioural intention are often discussed during the post-trip stage. Liu et al. (2015), for example, adopted a multiple group cause-and-effect analysis and concluded that different travel arrangements have a significant impact on the relationships among tourist satisfaction, destination image and revisit intention.

The social media behaviour of Chinese tourists has recently also attracted attention from tourism scholars. Among the different types of social media platform in use, travel blogs are a popular research focus (Sun et al., 2015; Wu and Pearce, 2016). Travel blogs play an important role in planning an international trip in the pre-trip stage and in sharing tourist experience in the post-trip stage. Wu and Pearce (2016) explore the motives of Chinese tourists who created information-rich, influential, and interactive online travel blogs. The study generated six motive categories for this behaviour: 1) positive self-enhancement through online social connection; 2) altruism or being helpful to fellow travelers; 3) social status; 4) personal status and achievement; 5) self-documentation and sharing; 6) hedonic enjoyment of blogging. However, the social media behavior of Chinese outbound tourists during the consumption stage remains under explored. This study therefore examines the social media behavior of Chinese outbound tourists in the destination.

2.8 Research framework

The aim of this research is to explore tourist social media behaviour during travel in the destination and to offer insights into the role of social media during travel in the destination upon tourist emotions toward the destination and tourist satisfaction. The specific objectives of the research are as follows:

1) explore tourist social media behaviour while travelling in the destination,
2) examine the relationship between tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotions toward the destination,
3) investigate the impact of tourist emotions toward the destination on overall tourist satisfaction toward the destination.

The proposed theoretical framework was developed based on the review of literature. The main constructs in the theoretical framework include tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions, and tourist satisfaction. The review of literature reveals that the social media behaviour of tourists is multidimensional comprising the dimensions of informational social support, emotional social support, instrumental social support, and online self-presentation. By exploring and testing a social support and an online self-presentation scale in the qualitative and quantitative stages of the research, this study aims to identify the range and frequency of different tourist social media behaviours.

Tourist emotions are utilised as a dual-dimensional construct, including both positive and negative emotions. Tourist satisfaction is conceptualized as a unidimensional construct. The relationships indicated by the arrows in the figure below are investigated in the quantitative stage to achieve research objectives 2 and 3. The conceptual framework underpinning objectives 2 and 3 in the quantitative phase of the study is presented in Figure 5 below.

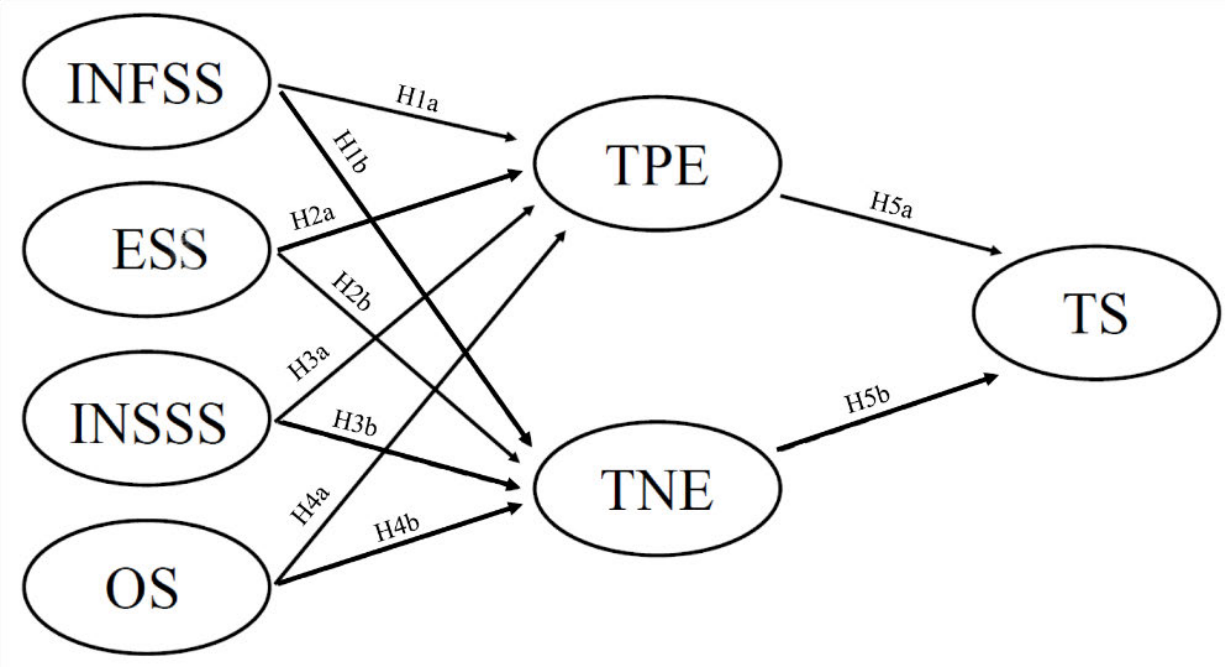


Figure 5: The conceptual framework

Note: INFSS=informational social support, ESS=emotional social support, INSSS=instrumental social support, OS=online self-presentation, TPE=tourist positive emotions, TNE=tourist negative emotions, TS=tourist satisfaction

The ten hypotheses developed are as follows.

H1a: Informational online social support will increase tourist positive emotions.

H1b: Informational online social support will decrease tourist negative emotions.

H2a: Emotional online social support will increase tourist positive emotions.

H2b: Emotional online social support will decrease tourist negative emotions.

H3a: Instrumental online social support will increase tourist positive emotions.

H3b: Instrumental online social support will decrease tourist negative emotions.

H4a: Online self-presentation will increase tourists' positive emotions.

H4b: Online self-presentation will decrease tourists' negative emotions.

H5a: Tourist positive emotions will increase tourist satisfaction.

H5b: Tourist negative emotions will decrease tourist satisfaction.

2.9 Chapter summary

In this chapter, a comprehensive review of relevant literature in tourism social media studies, tourist emotions, and tourist satisfaction was presented. The discussion revealed that the interrelationships among tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions and tourist satisfaction have not received adequate attention from researchers. A conceptual framework was developed to show the structural relationships among the constructs within the study. A total of 10 hypotheses were formulated based on the conceptual framework derived from the review of previous literature.

Chapter three: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the research design adopted in this study. A research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data (Bryman, 2012). Crotty (1998) classifies four levels of methodology involved in the conduct of a research study. The first is the paradigm worldview, followed by the theoretical lens, methodological approach, and methods of data collection (Crotty, 1998). Based on Crotty's suggestions, in the first section of the chapter the philosophical paradigm is discussed. Later, the mixed methods approach adopted in the research is addressed. In the last section, the specific research methods adopted in the data collection and analysis stages are described respectively.

A mixed methods approach is adopted in the study to investigate the proposed research questions from both qualitative and quantitative perspectives. Phase 1 is qualitative and is followed by the quantitative study in Phase 2. In Phase 1, semi-structured interviews were conducted with Chinese outbound tourists who used WeChat during international travel in a variety of destinations. In Phase 2, survey data was collected to measure the effect of tourist social media behaviour on tourist emotions and satisfaction for outbound Chinese tourists travelling in Japan.

3.2 Research paradigm

It is important to understand the theoretical paradigm informing the process of research design (Jennings, 2010). Paradigm, also known as worldview, refers here to a basic set of beliefs that guide action (Guba, 1990). Jennings (2010) distinguishes a paradigm from a methodology and from the methods used in a study. Jennings defines a paradigm as a set of beliefs; methodology as a set of guidelines for conducting a research project; and methods as the tools used for empirical data collection, interpretation and construction or analysis (Jennings, 2010). Post-positivism, constructivism and pragmatism are the three major paradigms that have influenced the social and behavioural sciences. The features of each paradigm are summarized in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Features of post-positivism, constructivism and pragmatism

	Post-positivism	**Constructivism**	**Pragmatism**
Ontology (refers to the nature of reality)	Singular reality	Multiple reality and multiple participant meanings	Real-world problem-centred
Epistemology (refers to the relation between the researcher and the research?)	Distance and impartiality	Close relation between the researcher and the research	Practicality
Methodology (refers to the process of research)	Deductive, empirical observation and measurement, theory verification	Inductive, social and historical construction, theory generation	Real-world practice oriented, mixed method, uses quantitative and qualitative research methods in a single study

Source: adapted from Bryman (2012), Creswell (2009), Creswell and Plano Clark (2007)

As an important philosophical movement, pragmatism holds that answers to traditional questions in epistemology, ethics and metaphysics can be found by assuming that humans are endowed by their creator with common sense (Gross, 2018). Pragmatism is therefore argued to be the best paradigm to provide a philosophical foundation for mixed methods research and it is extensively adopted in social, historical, political and other research contexts (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Within the philosophical precepts of pragmatism, researchers are free to choose research methods, techniques and procedures from both quantitative and qualitative research designs to best meet their research questions, to test hypotheses, and to provide multiple perspectives to interpret results (Creswell, 2009). The pragmatic paradigm mixes inductive and deductive approaches connecting the theory and data generation methods used in qualitative and quantitative approaches to resolve research problems (Morgan, 2007). A pragmatic approach is also adopted to investigate the factors that affect whether existing knowledge is adequate to explain a new environment or set of conditions (Morgan, 2007).

In this study, tourist social media behaviour is understood to occur within a socio-cultural context influenced by both objective surroundings (technical skills, cognitive beliefs) and subjective perceptions and attitudes (emotional responses, social identities). The research

aims to provide an in-depth understanding of the nature and characteristics of tourist social media behaviour; to investigate the effect of tourist social media behaviour on tourist emotions; and to examine the influence of tourist emotions on tourist satisfaction. To achieve the research objectives, it is necessary to obtain a qualitative conceptualization of tourist social media behaviour which can provide constructs to examine in the quantitative phase, as well as to deliver perspectives to explain the quantitative results. Thus, a pragmatic paradigm is adopted as the guiding paradigm for this study.

3.3 Research strategies

3.3.1 Mixed methods approach

Mixed-methods research is defined as research which 'combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration' (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner 2007, p. 129). Mixed-methods are also known as the third methodological movement and can be dated back to the 1980s (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Mixed methods evolved following the developments of first quantitative and then qualitative research, positioning itself in the middle of the quantitative and qualitative continuum, and adopting elements of both (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Creswell, 2009; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010).

Understanding the differences between quantitative and qualitative research is helpful in the research design process. Quantitative and qualitative research have a different orientation to the role of theory in research (Bryman, 2012). That is to say, qualitative research typically holds an inductive view of the relationship between theory and research, which means that theory is generated from research (Bryman, 2012). Quantitative research, on the other hand, typically holds a deductive view of the relationship between theory and research, and provides a general understanding of a problem through testing of theory (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Quantitative and qualitative research differ with respect to their epistemological foundations (Bryman, 2012). Quantitative research combines the practices and norms of the natural science model and holds a positivist point of view, while qualitative research typically rejects the practices and norms of the natural scientific model and is guided by constructivism (Bryman, 2012). Quantitative and qualitative research also differ in terms of ontological orientation (Bryman, 2012). Quantitative research views social reality as external to the

subject and as objective in its nature, while qualitative research views social reality as a constantly shifting, and as an emergent property of subjective creation (Bryman, 2012).

All research methods have limitations, however, researchers have found that mixed methods approaches can neutralize or remove the biases inherent in any single method making the overall strength of a study greater than either qualitative or quantitative research on their own (Creswell, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Creswell (2009) observes several situations that are suited to mixed methods research—when one data source is insufficient to explain initial results; to generalize exploratory findings; to enhance a study with a second method; to employ a theoretical stance; and to understand a research objective through multiple research phases. Since the manner in which WeChat is used among Chinese outbound tourists during travel in the destination is a new research topic, qualitative data is required to learn more about Chinese outbound tourist social media behavior and to generate related variables and theories. A quantitative study is then required to generalize and to test the relationships among the variables that emerge in the qualitative phase. Therefore, a mixed methods approach is an ideal way to pursue the research objectives of this study.

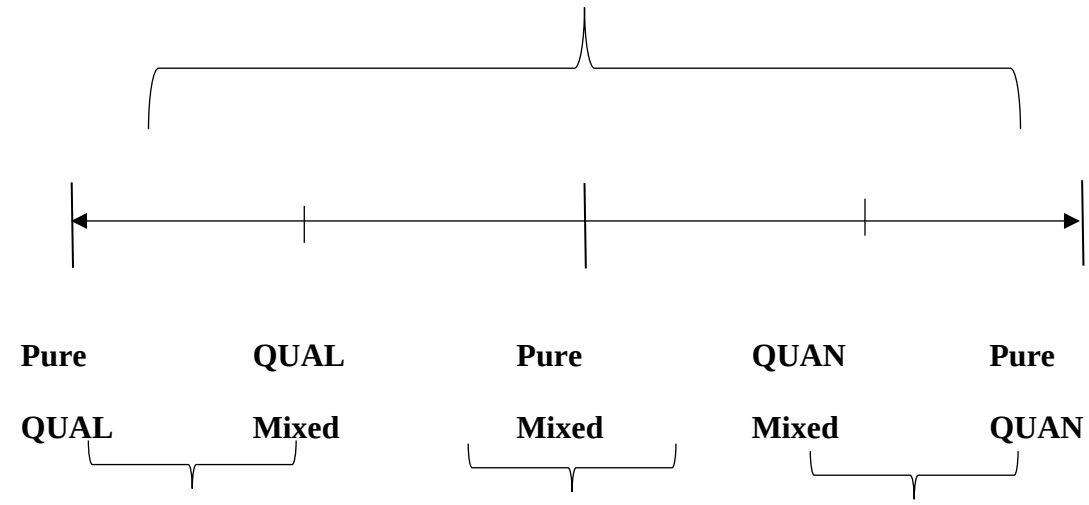
3.3.2 Mixed methods design

Research design refers to all the issues involved in developing and implementing a research project, including collecting, analysing, interpreting, and reporting data (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Jennings, 2010). Research design refers to the plan that connects the research questions to the data collection process, and includes a framework for the collection and analysis of data (Bryman, 2012; Punch, 2005). In the study of tourism, qualitative research is generally used to describe and explain the experiences, feelings and views of tourists in their own words (Veal, 2006). Qualitative research is often conducted among a few individuals and explores their perspectives in great depth, while in a quantitative stage, studies examine a large number of people and assess responses in relation to a few variables (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). To construct a mixed methods design, researchers need to consider the timing, the weighting, and the level of mixing of the two approaches (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2009).

3.3.2.1 Different approaches to mixed methods research

Understanding different types of mixed methods research helps researchers to know how different methods can be combined and how to plan the research (Guest, 2013). A variety of types of mixed methods research have been in use since the late 1980s (Creswell and Plano

Clark, 2007; Greene et al.; Guest, 2013). Two major types of mixed methods research are the mixed-model, which mixes qualitative and quantitative approaches within or across the stages of the research process; and mixed-method, which includes a quantitative phase and a qualitative phase within an overall research study (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007) have developed a qualitative-quantitative continuum which illustrates the subtypes of mixed methods research. The continuum divides studies into those that give qualitative and quantitative components equal status and those that make one of them dominant. The continuum is shown in Figure 6 and places the equal status approach in the center and pure qualitative and pure quantitative research types on the outer edges in both directions.



QUAN: Quantitative; QUAL: Qualitative

Figure 6: Types of mixed method research

Source: adapted from Johnson et al. (2007)

Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) categorise mixed methods design into four types: convergent parallel design, explanatory sequential design, exploratory sequential design, and embedded design (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Among them, explanatory design and exploratory design are commonly adopted in the field of tourism and are discussed below.

Explanatory sequential design starts with the collection and analysis of quantitative data and follows with the collection and analysis of qualitative data, as shown in Figure 7 below (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Within an explanatory research design, researchers make

use of the qualitative results to interpret the initial quantitative results. Qualitative results are used to explain how or why things are as they are and to predict outcomes. Explanatory design is usually adopted when the research problem is more quantitatively oriented and researchers want to assess trends and relationships within quantitative data (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).

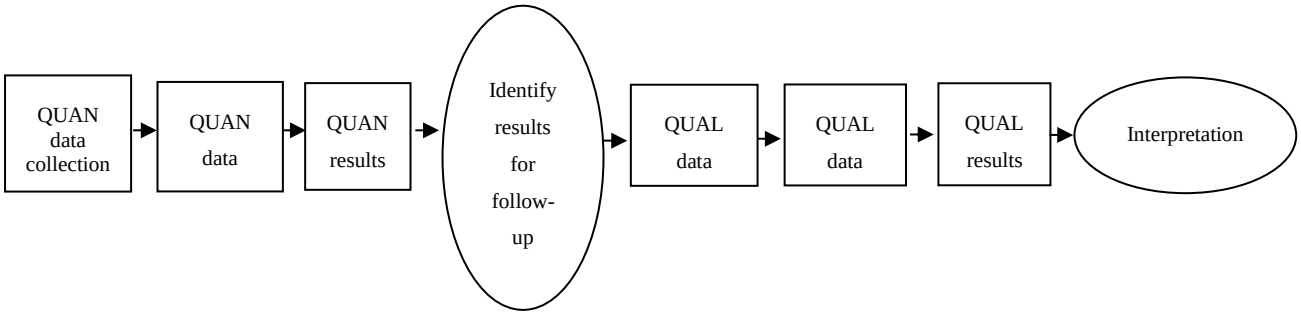


Figure 7: Explanatory sequential design

QUAN: Quantitative; QUAL: Qualitative
Source: adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2007)

Exploratory studies have been increasingly used in the social sciences, particularly in relation to new research themes or perspectives in the field (Mason et al., 2010). Exploratory design begins with a preliminary qualitative stage which is typically used to plan a larger study. Based on the results of the qualitative research phase, researchers develop a survey instrument, identify variables of interest, and test or generalize the initial findings in the following quantitative stage (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). See Figure 8 for an illustration of the sequence of exploratory design. To give an example, in Lee, Noh, and Kim's study (2013) on the factors affecting electronic word of mouth (eWOM) in the open market context, an exploratory research design was adopted in which the results of qualitative interviews with experienced eWOM customers were used to explore the potential factors affecting eWOM in the open market. The exploratory findings then formed the basis for the research model that was developed in the following quantitative study (Lee et al., 2013).

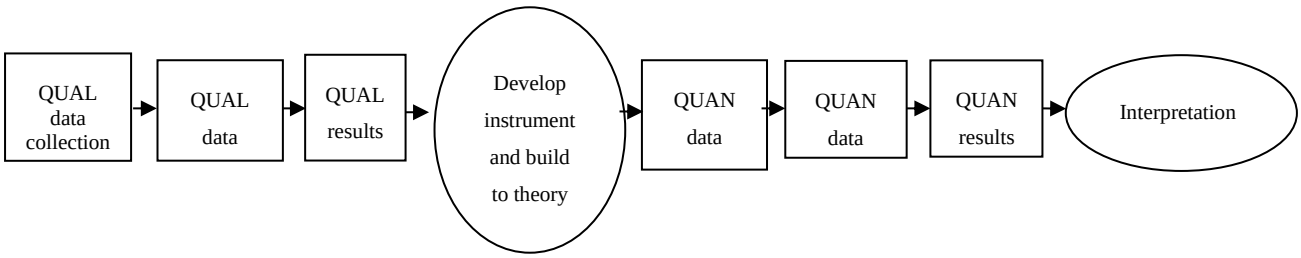


Figure 8*: Exploratory sequential design*

QUAL: Qualitative; QUAN: Quantitative
Source: adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2007)

Exploratory design has been used in tourism studies on service quality, tourism destination quality, tourist satisfaction, and destination image (Mason et al., 2010; Veal, 2006). Since knowledge of the social media behaviour of tourists in the destination and its influence on tourist emotion and satisfaction is limited, an exploratory research design is most suitable for this study.

In the first stage of this study, a qualitative method was used to collect and analyse data to explore the social media behaviour of Chinese outbound tourists on WeChat during their travels in international destinations in the past six months. Since some of the dimensions from previous literature are not from tourism study, the qualitative study aims to confirm the dimensions in tourism context. For example, the dimension of getting emotional social support is adopted from Kim, Sohn and Choi's study (2011) which examined the motives and patterns of using social network sites among college students from different cultural background. Similarly, the dimensions of seeking informational social support and instrumental social support are adopted from Chen and Choi's study (2011) which investigated the computer-mediated social support among Chinese migrants in Singapore.

Based on the qualitative results, the quantitative study was carried out to collect numerical data to examine the relationships among tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction. The methodological design of this study is shown in Table 3. The two stages of this research are closely linked to one another. The survey instrument and related measurement scales are based broadly on previous studies and were further refined based on the findings from the qualitative stage. The results from the first phase provide more contextual information with which to interpret findings from the quantitative stage.

Table 3: Methodological study design

	Mixed method research design	**Data collection methods**	**Data analysis methods**
Phase 1	Qualitative stage	Semi-structured interview	Thematic analysis

Instrument development ⇩			
Phase 2	Quantitative stage	Questionnaire	Structural equation modelling

3.4 Research methods of the study

As illustrated above, this research employed a mixed methods exploratory design. In the data collection process, semi-structured interviews were employed in the first phase and a questionnaire was carried out in the second phase.

3.4.1 Phase 1: Qualitative study

3.4.1.1 Semi-structured interviews

Qualitative researchers in tourism generally employ the following techniques: interviews, focus groups, participant observation, longitudinal studies, Delphi techniques, case studies, action research, and documentary methods (Jennings, 2010). Since interviews are regarded as an effective method to minimize the influence of pre-judgment and pre-supposition, it is widely adopted by researchers in explorations of the underlying mechanisms involved in travel phenomena (Filieri, 2016; Wang et al., 2014). The exploratory qualitative phase in this study employed semi-structured interviews to identify social media behaviour among Chinese outbound tourists.

Within semi-structured interviewing, a general schedule of interview questions is prepared in outline form before the interviews. Semi-structured interviewing techniques enable interviewers to decide the sequence and wording of questions that will be asked during the interviews. The list of prescribed questions cover the topics that are of relevance to the proposed research objectives and ensure the interviews are conversational and situational (Veal, 2011). Unlike structured interviews, the flexibility of semi-structured interviews allows interviewers to probe more deeply on topics of interest, thereby increasing the comprehensiveness of the data (Veal, 2011). The semi-structured interview approach is adopted by many researchers because it allows for the collection of rich information from research participants. For instance, Yu et al. (2018) utilized semi-structured interviews to investigate how family members interpret the influence of smartphone use on family vacations.

3.4.1.2 Semi-structured interview sample selection

Based on a review of available literature on social media use within tourism, a list of questions was designed to be used as a guide for the semi-structured interview. Generally, qualitative studies emphasize the quality of data rather than large sample size (Jennings, 2010). To understand the experience of a group of relatively homogeneous individuals, 12 interviews have been deemed to be an adequate starting point (Guest et al., 2006). In this study, however, interviews were conducted until no further new insights were obtained and saturation was achieved. Altogether, 20 participants were involved in the qualitative study. Participants were asked to focus on their most recent outbound travel.

The targeted participants were Chinese outbound tourists who are residents of mainland China and who had travelled to an international destination in the previous six months. Four qualifications were used to select participants: 1) they were Chinese citizens currently living in mainland China; 2) they travelled overseas in the previous six months; 3) they used WeChat during travel in the destination. The reason for keeping the time frame to six months was to ensure that participants still had fresh memories of their WeChat use during their outbound travels.

Eligible interviewees were recruited through the snowball sampling technique. The researcher's personal network was used to make initial contact with potential participants and to set up an interview time. The snowball technique was then applied whereby participants were encouraged to recommend another qualified participant. The interviews were conducted between July 17, 2014 and August 14, 2014. A total of 20 interviews were conducted, five of which were conducted face-to-face in a quiet environment in Shenyang, with the remaining interviews being carried out by telephone. Each interview was from 30 minutes to an hour in duration.

Before the interview, the researcher introduced herself and expressed her appreciation to the participants for participating in the project. This was followed by a brief introduction to the background of the research, including the aims, objectives, and major research methods. A consent form was presented or sent to participants prior to interview to ensure they understood the anonymous, confidential, and voluntary nature of their participation in the project. Along with a consent form, an information letter was given or sent to the participants before the interviews. Interview consent forms in both English and Chinese are presented in Appendix 3 and 4.

3.4.1.3 Interview protocol

A list of interview questions was designed around four main questions: 1) how do Chinese tourists access WeChat in the destination? 2) What do they do with WeChat? 3) Why do they want to use WeChat in the outbound destination? 4) How do they use WeChat to present themselves? Although the information sheet was sent to participants before interview, in many cases, it was necessary to restate the introductory statement in spoken form prior to interview (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, before each interview, a short introductory statement to interviewees was made including the following content: (1) the purpose of the interview; (2) the methods of the interview; (3) the approximate duration of the interview; (4) assurance that participation is voluntary, anonymous and confidential; and (5) the researcher's contact details. After ensuring that interviewees did not have any questions about the research, the actual interview was begun.

The formal interview began by breaking the ice with questions regarding recent outbound travel, and more importantly, by asking the interviewee whether they had attempted to clarify how to access WeChat in the destination before travel. These responses provided general information about social media use at home. In the following part of the interview, participants were asked how they accessed WeChat, what they did with it, and why they would like to use WeChat during their outbound travelling. As discussed in the literature review in Chapter Two, previous research suggests that receiving social support and self-presentation are the main activities within social media. Therefore, questions were asked about the kind of social support they received from using WeChat and how they presented themselves on WeChat. Because the participants might not be familiar with the term 'social support' and 'self-presentation', the researcher explained the terms to the respondents by providing illustrative examples. As an exploratory study, there was also an open-ended section within the interview in which respondents were asked to talk about whatever they wanted to share with regards to the research topic.

At the end of the interview, socio-demographic information, including gender, age, educational qualification, marital status and occupation, was collected. Socio-demographic information was collected with the use of a form. For telephone interviews, the researcher filled out the demographic form for the interviewees by asking for the information verbally. Copies of the interview protocol in English and Chinese are included in Appendix 5 and 6.

Five interviews were conducted face-to-face in different locations in Shenyang, China. The remaining 15 interviews were carried out via telephone. Mixing the two techniques was deemed appropriate because past studies found no significant differences in findings produced from a face-to-face versus a telephone interview (Sturges and Hanrahan, 2016). Telephone calls were made from Shenyang to interviewees in different cities in China. Compared to a face-to-face interview, a telephone interview may miss some visual cues, such as facial expressions and body language (Novick, 2008). In practice, in this research, few differences of critical substance were found between face-to-face interviews and telephone interviews, in concordance with the findings of Sturges and Hanrahan (2004). Telephone interviewing is less costly and can reach geographically distant participants and is therefore more efficient than face-to-face interviewing. The interviews were conducted in Mandarin and, with the permission of the participants, all interviews were simultaneously voice-recorded by a digital and a laptop audio recorder.

3.4.1.4 Data analysis

Qualitative data analysis involves the following steps: (1) organize and prepare the data for analysis; (2) read through all the data; (3) begin detailed analysis with a coding process; (4) use the coding process to generate a description of the setting or of the people and produce categories or themes for analysis; (5) determine how the description and themes will be presented in the qualitative narrative; (6) and finally, interpret the data (Creswell, 2009).

All the interviews were transcribed before analysis. The interviews were firstly transcribed in Mandarin and the transcripts were sent to the interviewees for cross-checking. Once confirmed with the interviewees, the transcripts were translated into English for further data analysis. Since reading transcripts is the basic activity in qualitative analysis, the researcher read through the transcripts a couple of times to obtain a general sense of the information and to reflect on its overall meaning (Creswell, 2009; Veal, 2006). Thematic analysis was then employed to analyse the interview transcripts to explore how Chinese outbound tourists had used WeChat during their overseas travel.

Thematic analysis is considered to be a foundational method for qualitative analysis and a method for identifying, analysing and reporting themes within data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Unlike conversation analysis, discourse analysis or narrative analysis, which are based on particular theoretical or epistemological position, thematic analysis is characterised by its flexibility and compatibility and is used in conjunction with essentialist, constructionist and

pragmatic paradigms (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Themes within data can be identified in one of two primary ways in thematic analysis—inductive and deductive (Braun and Clarke, 2006). An inductive approach indicates that the themes identified are strongly linked to the data; therefore it is a process of coding the data without trying to fit it into a pre-existing theoretical framework (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Patton, 2002). By contrast, in a deductive approach, codes are developed based on a pre-existing theoretical research framework (Patton, 2002). There has been a trend to combine both inductive and deductive approaches in thematic analysis (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2016). Much research begins with a deductive approach in a preliminary coding stage and is followed by an inductive approach to identify and assign new themes. The hybrid approach establishes solid theoretical grounds for the data analysis and can provide new insights. For this reason, it has become a popular method.

For instance, Rishi and Joshi (2016) used the hybrid approach for thematic analysis, exploring the expectations and challenges faced by customers and hospitality managers of branded budget hotels in India. They first generated a code based on previous literature, and then developed a code based on the qualitative research data (Rishi and Joshi, 2016). In this study, the qualitative phase aims to explore the dimensionality of tourist social media behaviour. To achieve the goal, tourist social media behaviour is first generated from the existing literature and then new perspectives are captured from participants' descriptions. Thus, the hybrid approach is adopted in the analysis of the qualitative data for this study.

Qualitative data analysis involves coding the data, dividing the text into smaller units, assigning a label to each unit, and then grouping the codes into themes. Of these, coding is the key process and the core feature of qualitative data analysis (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Coding is the process of organizing the material into chunks or segments of text before bringing meaning to information (Creswell, 2009). In the coding process, NVivo 10, a qualitative analysis software tool, was used. NVivo is one of the most widely used computer-aided qualitative data analysis software tools and enables the researcher to create code, filter, index, assort and evaluate data (Veal, 2006).

Given the hybrid prior-research-driven and data-driven approach (Boyatzis, 1998) used in this study, possible codes were first summarised based on the review of existing literature and then utilised within the first round of coding of the interview transcripts. The codes were matched with segments of data to identify meaningful units within the text and to generate new codes. In the process, as many relevant codes as possible were identified in order to

avoid overlooking any important information. At the end of the first round of coding, a refined codebook with additional codes was generated as presented in Table 4. A second round of coding was then conducted a week later to ensure the codes were consistent throughout the transcripts.

According to Braun and Clarke (2006), when the coding process is complete, the next step is to collate codes into potential themes and to categorise the relevant coded data extracts into the identified themes. Braun and Clarke claim that at least two thematic levels should be identified in the analysis process. First level themes are sub-themes that are directly formed by a group of codes (e.g. informational social support in Table 4). Second level themes are supported by the themes in the first level to reflect overall patterns or to respond to the research questions (e.g. online social support in Table 4). Both coding and theming are an iterative and reflexive processes requiring several rounds of back-and-forth revisions. Therefore, the final themes in this study were carefully examined to ensure their distinctiveness and coherence and to ensure they reflect the meanings inherent to the entire data set.

Table 4: Refined codebook

Online social support	Informational social support • Search information • Get advice • Share information Emotional social support • Express emotions • Share worries and fears • Relieve tension • Find comfort • Entertainment Instrumental social support • Complete work at home • Solve personal problems at home • Solve personal problems in destination
Online self-presentation	• Post photos • Record travel experience • Express emotions

3.4.2 Phase 2: Quantitative study

The quantitative phase is a core part of this study. This phase aimed to understand tourist social media behaviour during travel in the destination, and to reveal its effect on tourist emotion. It also aimed to understand the impact of positive and negative tourist emotion on tourist satisfaction. The following sections illustrate the process of survey development, data collection and data analysis for the quantitative phase of the study.

Based on the previous literature, it was assumed that tourist social media behaviour in the destination and tourist emotions are best captured using multidimensional constructs. Tourists use social media to seek social support (including informational support, emotional support and instrumental support) as well as to present themselves online during travel. Tourist emotions comprise both positive and negative aspects. Following the qualitive stage of the study, a self-administered survey method was employed to test the reliability and validity of tourist social media behaviour as constituted in seeking informational support, emotional support, instrumental support and in presenting oneself online. In addition, survey data was collected to test the proposed hypotheses in the conceptual framework of the study.

3.4.2.1 Questionnaire design

To ensure content validity, measurement items were based on the review of previous literature, and modifications were made to fit the context of this study. The questionnaire consisted of 69 questions across six sections: (1) WeChat using behaviour in everyday life, (2) WeChat using behaviour in the destination, (3) social support and presenting oneself online via WeChat, (4) tourist emotions about the destination, (5) tourist satisfaction, and (6) demographic information (see Appendix 9 for a copy of the questionnaire).

The survey was written in English initially and then translated into Chinese by the researcher. A certificated professional translator then translated from Chinese back to English. To ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, 10 research students were invited to complete the questionnaire before the survey was conducted. Feedback and suggestions were sought regarding the time needed to complete the questionnaire and to ensure the clarity of survey items thereby improving the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. A pilot test for the questionnaire was then conducted. The purpose of the pilot test was to ensure that the survey questions function effectively and to identify possible issues with the questionnaire (Bryman, 2012; Jennings, 2010; Veal, 2006). The pilot survey was conducted among the same target

participants as the main survey, that is, Chinese outbound travellers to Japan who used WeChat while travelling. The results of the pilot survey were discussed later in this chapter.

Respondents were asked four screening questions before proceeding with the questionnaire: 1) Do you use WeChat in your everyday life? 2) Did you use WeChat while travelling in Japan? 3) Are you a resident in China holding Chinese citizenship? 4) Are you over 18 years old? If a respondent replied 'no' to any of these questions, the survey automatically closed as the respondent did not meet the selection criteria for this study.

Section 1 and 2: WeChat usage in everyday life and in the destination

Measures of WeChat usage intensity were adopted from Ellison et al (2007) which uses Facebook to measure usage intensity. The scale was modified in this study by asking how many friends respondents had, how much time they spent using WeChat, and how frequently they post on WeChat Moments. The items were also adapted to make them more appropriate for a tourism context.

Section 3: Tourist social media behaviour in the destination

To capture tourist social media behaviour in the destination, a measurement scale of online social support and online self-presentation was adapted from Chen and Choi (2011), Kim et al. (2011), and Kim and Tussyadiah (2013). Chen and Choi (2011), classify the different types of online social support behaviour of Chinese migrants to Singapore. Kim et al. (2011) investigated cultural differences in motivations among social media users. They found that Korean college students are more likely to seek social support from existing social relationships on social media than American college students. Notably, social support in their study refers to emotional support drawn from existing social ties. Therefore, this study adopted the measurement of emotional social support used in Kim et al. (2011). Kim and Tussyadiah (2013) focus on the moderating role of selective online self-presentation strategies for social networking and social support in a tourism context. They differentiate between positive and honest online self-presentation strategies in their study. In their study, social support is also examined by the degree of subjectivity involved, including dimensions for perceived social support and received social support. In this study, self-presentation is identified as a unidimensional construct and social support is categorised by its different aspects (informational, emotional, instrumental).

Since the studies above have different contexts and different foci than the present study, the measurements used here are carefully selected and modified based on the findings of the

qualitative phase to suit the context of this study. The original and modified measurements are presented in Table 5 below. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement on each of the 27 statements in the pilot test. A 7-point Likert response scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used for each item.

Table 5: Initial and revised measurements

Construct	Literature	Initial measures	Revised measures
Informational social support	Chen and Choi (2011)	1. Seek information to better understand a situation 2. Seek advice about a crisis 3. Seek suggestions about how to deal with a personal problem	1. I turned to one of my WeChat friends for advice I really wanted when I was travelling. 2. I got information from my WeChat friends to help me to understand things when I was travelling. 3. My WeChat friends shared useful information about the travel when I was travelling. 4. I got necessary information about the destination from my WeChat friends while I was traveling. 5. I got advice from my WeChat friends about a crisis while I was travelling. 6. I got suggestions from my WeChat friends about how to deal with problems that happened during my travel.
	Kim and Tussyadiah (2013)	1. I can count on the people listed as 'friends' on my SNS page for helping me understanding things. 2. I think I can count on the people listed as 'friends' on my SNS page for helping me with my questions.	
Emotional social support	Kim, Sohn and Choi (2011)	1. Let out my emotions easily to others who will 2. Express my anger to others who will sympathize 3. Talk out my problems and get advice 4. Let others know I care about their feelings	7. I expressed my emotions easily to my WeChat friends when I was travelling. 8. I expressed my anger to my WeChat friends and received sympathy. 9. I shared my personal worries and fears with my WeChat friends and got advice. 10. My WeChat friends helped to relieve tension I felt when I was travelling. 11. My WeChat friends helped me to get my mind off my worries when I was travelling. 12. I could always find someone to listen to me when I needed to talk when I was travelling.

			13. I got sincere comfort from my WeChat friends when I was feeling bad while travelling. 14. I felt that my WeChat friends were concerned about my condition when I was travelling. 15. I got comfort from my WeChat friends whenever I felt I was far away from home when I was travelling. 16. I spent time chatting with my WeChat friends whenever I felt bored while traveling.
Instrumental social support	Chen and Choi (2011)	1. I seek articles or materials from others. 2. I seek free copies of software, movies or CDs from others. 3. I ask others to help me to complete some work.	17. I asked my WeChat friends to help me to do something. 18. I asked my WeChat friends to fill in for me when I was unable to do something. 19. I asked my WeChat friends to help me to complete some of my work when I was travelling.
	Kim and Tussyadiah (2013)	1. I think I can count on the people listed as 'friends' on my SNS page to help me to do something. 2. I think I can count on the people listed as 'friends' on my SNS page to fill in for me if I am unable to do something.	20. I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some work-related problems when I was travelling. 21. I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some personal problems at home when I was travelling.
Online self-presentation	Kim and Tussyadiah (2013)	1. I post photos that only show the happy side of my travel on SNS. 2. I post photos that show the true side of my travel on SNS. 3. For my SNS page, I selectively post photos in which I look good on my travel. 4. I don't mind posting photos in which I do not look good on my travel.	22. I posted photos that showed I was travelling on WeChat. 23. I posted photos in which I looked good on WeChat during my travel. 24. On my Moments, I wrote messages that portrayed me as a tourist during my travel. 25. I wrote about travel experiences that happened to me when I updated my Moments on my WeChat.

	5. On my SNS page, I only write messages that portray me as a happy tourist regardless of my actual feelings. 6. When I use SNS, I use smiling emoticons/smiles such as J, :), or :-) in the messages I write regardless of my actual feelings. 7. I don't mind writing about bad things that happen to me when I update my status on my SNS page. 8. I freely reveal negative emotions I feel on my SNS page. 9. I avoid writing about negative things that happen to me when I update my status on my SNS page. 10. When I update my status on SNS, I only reveal positive feelings; I do not show negative feelings. 11. I freely reveal negative emotions I feel when I update my status on my SNS page. 12. I don't mind writing about bad things that happen to me on my SNS page when I update my status.	26. When I updated my Moments on WeChat, I revealed my feelings during my travel. 27. I didn't mind writing about the bad things that happened to me during travel on my Moments.

Section 4: Tourist emotional responses toward destinations

The measure used for tourists' positive emotional responses toward the destination was adapted from Hosany and Gilbert (Hosany and Gilbert, 2010). Hosany and Gilbert developed the 'destination emotion scale' (DES) to measure positive tourist emotions toward destinations. Prayag, Hosany, and Odeh (Prayag et al., 2013), then included negative tourist emotions in the DES. The original DES consists of three dimensions representing the positive emotional responses of tourists toward destinations, namely joy, love and positive surprise. Joy was measured using five items (cheerfulness, delight, enthusiasm, joy and pleasure). Love was measured using five items (affection, caring, love, tenderness and warm-heartedness). Positive surprise was measured using five items (amazement, astonishment, fascination, inspiration and surprise). The adapted version by Prayag, Hosany, and Odeh includes tourists' negative emotion, specifically unpleasantness, to realize a balanced sample of tourists' emotional responses (Prayag et al., 2013). Unpleasantness was measured using four items (unhappiness, displeasure, regret and disappointment). In the survey for this study, participants were asked to indicate their agreement on each of 19 statements (shown in Table 6 below). A 7-point Likert response scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used for each item.

Table 6: Measures for tourist emotions toward destination

Joy	1. I felt a sense of joy toward the destination. 2. I felt a sense of pleasure toward the destination. 3. I felt cheerful toward the destination. 4. I felt a sense of delight toward the destination. 5. I felt a sense of enthusiasm toward the destination.
Love	6. I felt a sense of affection toward the destination. 7. I felt a sense of love toward the destination. 8. I felt a sense of tenderness toward the destination. 9. I felt warm-hearted toward the destination. 10. I felt a sense of caring toward the destination.
Positive surprise	11. I felt fascinated about the destination. 12. I felt a sense of inspiration toward the destination. 13. I felt a sense of surprise toward the destination.

	14. I felt a sense of astonishment toward the destination. 15. I felt a sense of amazement toward the destination.
Unpleasantness	16. I felt a sense of regret toward the destination. 17. I felt a sense of unhappiness toward the destination. 18. I felt a sense of disappointment toward the destination. 19. I felt a sense of displeasure toward the destination.

Source: adapted from Hosany and Gilbert (2010) and Prayag, Hosany, and Odeh (2013).

Section 5: Overall tourist satisfaction

The measures used for overall tourist satisfaction were adopted from the previous literature (Assaker et al., 2011; Fornell et al., 1996; Lee and Gretzel, 2014). In this section, participants were asked to indicate their agreement on each of the five statements (shown in Table 7 below). A 7-point Likert response scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used for each item.

Table 7: Measures for tourist satisfaction

Tourist satisfaction	1. Overall, I am satisfied with the tour experience in Japan. 2. I feel very good about my visit to Japan. 3. I am satisfied with my decision to visit Japan. 4. I think the overall tour experience in Japan exceed my expectation. 5. The overall tour experience in Japan is close to the ideal tour experience.

Section 6. Demographic information

The last section of the questionnaire was designed to collect demographic information about the respondents, including gender, age, educational qualifications, marital status, occupation and monthly income.

3.4.2.2 Data collection

Participant selection and procedure

The target sample for the quantitative survey were Chinese outbound tourists who purchased the same tour package to Japan from a Chinese tour company, and who used WeChat throughout the tour. There are several reasons for this sample selection. First, group travellers were chosen as Chinese outbound tourists prefer group travel over independent travel because

the former has less complicated visa regulations (Jin and Sparks, 2017). Second, people from the same package tour were chosen to control for other possible factors that might influence tourist emotions toward the destination and their overall satisfaction with the trip. The second phase of the study aims to examine the hypothesised relationships among tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotion toward the destination, and overall tourist satisfaction. Emotions about the destination and overall satisfaction may be influenced by many factors, such as accommodation, transportation, experiences on different days of the tour, or attractions visited. By surveying people from the same tour, who are likely to have similar experiences, the study aimed to control for these factors thereby improving the credibility of the data and findings. Third, Japan was chosen as the travel destination since it is one of the most popular destinations among Chinese outbound tourists, and Japan has experienced a significant increase in the number of Chinese tourists since 2015 (CTA, 2019; JNTO, 2020).

Given time and budget constraints, a convenience sampling method was adopted in this study. With regards to sample size, Hair et al. (2010) suggests that a sample size between 200 and 400 is usually adequate. Since structural equation modelling (SEM) will be used in the data analysis, the study was designed to collect a minimum of 500 questionnaires (Hardy and Bryman, 2009). Altogether 524 valid questionnaires were collected.

Pilot test

The pilot questionnaires were distributed among tourists consuming the same tour package product as participants in the main survey. Data from the pilot test was collected from 30th March 2017 to the 18th May 2017. Altogether 158 participants were recruited for the pilot test. Tour guides from the Chinese tour company based in Shenyang, China, shared the link of the online questionnaire with tourists on the way to the airport to catch their return flight to China.

The pilot tested the relevance of the measurement items on tourist social media behaviour (27 items) and tourist emotion (19 items). Specifically, the pilot confirmed whether the descriptions of tourist social media behaviour and emotional responses toward the destination which were adapted from the literature and from the qualitative results, were consistent with their actual behaviour and feelings. Since the scale for the measurement of overall tourist satisfaction is well-established and was only slightly modified, it was not included for the relevancy test. Among all the measurement items with a ‘not relevant’ option (46 items), only six items received ‘not relevant’ from more than 20% (20.9% - 27.8%) of respondents. These

six items referred to the descriptions on positive surprise and unpleasantness. The problem may have been caused by a translation issue since those items indicate negative tones in Chinese. But since most of the respondents still considered those items to be relevant, it was decided to keep the six items in the main survey to be confirmed in the subsequent analysis. Moreover, reliability analysis using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was applied to confirm the reliability of the measurements and no item was excluded in this stage. The Cronbach's alpha for tourist social media behaviour was 0.959; for tourist emotions it was 0.954; and for tourist satisfaction it was 0.951, indicating that the internal consistency of the measurement scales is satisfactory (Hair et al., 2012).

Finally, feedback from the pilot test was used to revise the Mandarin wording and expression for the final questionnaire. After participants submitted their questionnaires, the tour guides asked them if there were any expressions or wording they could not understand. The tour guides then collected respondents' comments on the questionnaire. The two professional translators then revised problematic expressions in the final Chinese-version of the questionnaire. For instance, one of the items measuring tourists' negative emotions toward the destination use the word 'regret'. In Chinese 'regret' could be translated into a few different words each with a different meaning. Based on the participant feedback and suggestions from the professional translators, the Chinese translation was altered. Previously 'regret' was translated as *houhui*, indicating that the outcome is not satisfactory and that the person hopes never to make the same decision again. After the modification it was translated as *yihan* suggesting that the person feels disappointment and may want to do something in the future to make up for it.

Data collection procedure

An online social survey was adopted for the quantitative phase. Generally, online social surveys are more efficient in terms of time and money and can reach large numbers of participants and gather data very quickly (Bryman, 2012). The survey questionnaire was initially registered on *Wenjuanxing* (https://www.wjx.cn/), a free website for online surveys in Chinese. The questionnaires were then distributed via WeChat which was the most convenient and economic method available. More importantly, since the research aims to explore WeChat use in the destination, completing the questionnaire through WeChat guaranteed that participants were WeChat users in daily life and in the destination and therefore qualify as participants for this study.

Before posting the survey, the researcher arranged a time with the general manager of the participating tour agency to discuss the survey and survey procedure. Information regarding the tour and the distribution procedure was then collected from the ten tour guides in charge of the package tour to Japan. Data collection started on 11th August 2017 and finished on 29th January 2018. It took nearly six months to finalise data collection. With regard to ensuring the reliability of tourists' overall satisfaction, it was confirmed that all of the respondents took part in a similar journey. For instance, they visited the same scenic spots and had the same accommodation quality. The questionnaires were in effect distributed among outbound tourists who purchased the same package tour, offering the same itinerary, by the same travel agent. The selected package tour was a six-day tour, visiting Tokyo and Osaka in Japan.

The ten tour guides from the participating travel agency helped to distribute the questionnaires. The tour started from the airport in China and ended upon arrival at the home airport. When the tourists first met at Shenyang Taoxian International Airport in China, the tour guides created a group chatroom on WeChat for communication during the tour and added all the tourists to the chatroom. During their stay in Japan, this chatroom played an important role in sending and collecting information. On the bus to catch the return flight to China from Kansai International Airport in Osaka the tour guides briefed eligible participants and posted the questionnaire link to the group chatroom on WeChat. The online survey allowed the participants to complete the survey anytime and anywhere without the presence of the tour guides. Also, the tour guides informed the potential participants that once they had submitted the questionnaires, only the researcher could access to the results. All these methods allowed to avoid the potential for respondent bias. Each participant got a WeChat 'red envelope' from the tour guide as a reward for completing the questionnaire. The WeChat red envelope, also called WeChat red packet, is one of the most popular functions of the WeChat application and is based on the Chinese tradition of putting money in a red envelope and giving it to family or to friends as a gift. In the data collection process, the tour guides put 50 to 100 RMB (about 10 to 20 Australian dollars) in the red envelopes and the participants received about 5 to 10 RMB (or about one to two Australian dollars) as a token of appreciation.

3.4.2.3 Data analysis

The data analysis process included three parts: 1) preliminary analysis, 2) model testing, and 3) hypothesis testing. SEM is the major statistical technique used for data analysis. SPSS 24

and Analysis of Moment Structure 26 (AMOS) were the statistical software tools that were used.

The data analysis process started with a screening examination to identify the data to be used for analysis. Some questionnaires were excluded due to incomplete or inconsistent answers. Among the 550 questionnaires collected, 524 questionnaires could be used for further analysis. The demographic profile was then examined to identify the general sample characteristics.

Reliability testing was then applied before proceeding to SEM analysis. Covariance-based SEM is a statistical procedure used to test various types of theoretical models and is widely adopted in tourism research (Bagozzi and Yi, 2012; Nunkoo et al., 2013). SEM enables assessment of latent (unobservable) variables or constructs at the observation level (measurement model) and tests hypothesized relationships among latent variables at the theoretical level (structural model) (Hair et al., 2012). SEM has many advantages including: (1) precision in specifying hypotheses and operationalising constructs; (2) accounting for the reliability and validity of measures in testing hypotheses; (3) guiding exploratory and confirmatory research which combines self-sight and modelling skills with theory; (4) and use in both experimental or survey research, cross-sectional or longitudinal studies (Bagozzi and Yi, 2012). In this study, informational social support, emotional social support, instrumental social support, online self-presentation, positive tourist emotion and negative tourist emotion, and tourist satisfaction are the latent variables. Therefore, SEM was adopted to test the relationships between these constructs.

In order to test the measurement model, the data was randomly split into two sub-samples. One sub-sample was used for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and the other sub-sample was used for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In the early phase of data analysis, EFA and reliability testing were conducted. EFA was applied to identify dimensionality and to test the internal consistency of the constructs in the proposed model before proceeding to SEM analysis. To consolidate all of the variables, CFA was performed in the later phase of data analysis. After consolidation of the constructs, all latent variables were incorporated into one complete measurement model for overall assessment. Once the overall measurement model was deemed satisfactory, the structural model was tested with the entire sample. Finally, the hypotheses proposed in the theoretical framework were tested by examining the statistical significance of path coefficients among the variables.

3.5 Ethical considerations

Ethical research conduct was adhered to throughout the research process, including the design and conduct of the research and the reporting of results. Ethics approval was granted by the Human Research Ethics Committee at the University of South Australia before data collection commenced. Before participating in an interview or completing the survey, participants were provided with an information sheet (see appendix 1 and 7) and a consent form (appendix 3).

Participants were informed that their participation in the study was completely voluntary and that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time. Since the survey was conducted online it is impossible to identify individuals in the data, and participants were notified that once they submitted the survey, their responses could not be deleted. The confidentiality of the data was also carefully considered. The raw data are stored securely and are only accessible to the researcher and the supervisors. The data will not be used for any purpose other than the completion of this study.

3.6 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the mixed methods research design adopted in this study. After a brief introduction of the research paradigm guiding the study, the research design of the study was illustrated in detail. The study consists of two phases. In Phase 1, an exploratory qualitative study was conducted to understand social media behaviour among Chinese tourists to outbound destinations. In Phase 2, a quantitative study was conducted to examine the effects of tourist social media behaviour on tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction, and the effect of positive and negative emotion on tourist satisfaction following the hypothesised relationships proposed in the conceptual framework.

In the qualitative phase, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 Chinese social media users who travelled to an outbound destination in the past six months. The procedures used in the data collection process were illustrated in the chapter, including the design of the interview protocol, the sampling process, and the interview implementation process. The interview data was analysed using a thematic coding approach. The results of the qualitative study then guided the development of the survey in the next quantitative study. Detailed results from the qualitative phase are discussed in the next chapter.

In the quantitative phase, self-administered online surveys were used to investigate the hypothesised relationships among tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions and tourist satisfaction. The data collection procedures were also elaborated in this chapter, including the development of the research instrument and survey distribution. The study adopted SEM to test the hypotheses. Quantitative results are discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter four: Qualitative results

The aim of the first qualitative phase of the study was to understand the social media behaviour of Chinese tourists in an outbound destination. In this chapter the dimensionality of tourist social media behaviour during travel is reported. The chapter starts with a preliminary discussion of the fundamental characteristics of tourist social media behaviour, followed by an exploration of the dimensions of tourist social media behaviour.

4.1 Profile of interview participants

Of the 20 participants interviewed, 70% were female (n=14) and 30% were male (n=6). The majority of the participants are in the age group 30 to 39 (n=18) and two of the participants are aged from 19 to 29. This is consistent with the statistics released in Kantar's 2018 Chinese social media impact report (Guo, 2018), which reveals that females are more active social media users than males and that more than 80% of social media users are between 15 to 44 years of age. All of the interviewees are well-educated with at least a bachelor's degree or a higher qualification. As for marital status, 11 of the participants were single, three participants were married with children, and six participants were married with no children. More than half (n=11) were employed in a professional occupation. Half of the participants had at least four other outbound travel experiences in the past five years. During the interviews, participants were asked to share their experience of their most recent overseas travel. Eighteen of the participants had travelled overseas for leisure purposes and two had travelled overseas for business purposes. Sixteen participants attended a group tour and four participants had travelled independently. Table 8 presents the details of participant profiles.

Table 8: Profile of interview participants

No.	Gender	Age Group	Education	Marital Status	Occupation	Monthly income (RMB)	Residential city	Frequency of outbound travel	Purpose of last travel	Destination of last trip
1	F	30–39	Master or higher	M without children	Accountant	10001-15000	Shenyang	4 times or above	Leisure	America
2	F	30–39	Master or higher	Single	Editor	10001-15000	Beijing	1 time	Leisure	Korea
3	M	30–39	Bachelor	Single	Media	5001-6000	Xi'an	3 times	Leisure	France
4	M	30–39	Bachelor	Single	Lawyer	5001-6000	Guangzhou	4 times or above	Leisure	Thailand
5	F	19–29	Bachelor	Single	Editor	7001-8000	Beijing	3 times	Leisure	New Zealand
6	F	30–39	Master or higher	M without children	Procurement	10001-15000	Xi'an	3 times	Leisure	Thailand
7	F	30–39	Bachelor	M with children	Secretary	6001-7000	Shanghai	1 time	Leisure	Japan
8	F	30–39	Bachelor	M with children	Manager	15001 or above	Dalian	4 times or above	Leisure	Switzerland
9	F	30–39	Master or higher	M without children	Teacher	7001-8000	Beijing	4 times or above	Business	Canada
10	F	30–39	Master or higher	M without children	Teacher	5001-6000	Shenyang	3 times	Leisure	Australia
11	M	30–39	Master or higher	Single	Personnel	15001 or above	Guangzhou	4 times or above	Leisure	Thailand
12	M	30–39	Bachelor	M without children	Accountant	15001or above	Beijing	3 times	Leisure	Thailand
13	F	30–39	Bachelor	M with children	Manager	15001 or above	Beijing	4 times or above	Leisure	Japan
14	M	30-39	Bachelor	Single	Administrative	15001 or above	Shanghai	4 times or above	Business	America
15	F	30–39	Bachelor	Single	Marketing	4001-5000	Xi'an	1 time	Leisure	Thailand
16	F	19–29	Bachelor	Single	Accountant	15001 or above	Beijing	4 times or above	Leisure	Korea
17	F	30–39	Bachelor	Single	Technical	10001-15000	Shanghai	4 times or above	Leisure	Japan
18	F	30–39	Bachelor	Single	Teacher	3001-4000	Shenyang	3 times	Leisure	Thailand

19	M	30–39	Master or above	M without children	Engineer	10001-15000	Shenyang	4 times of above	Leisure	America
20	F	30–39	Bachelor	Single	Real estate agent	6001-7000	Shenyang	1 time	Leisure	Malaysia

4.2 Social media use in the destination

WeChat is a popular communication tool used by Chinese outbound tourists to connect to their home environments while they are away. All the interviewees were WeChat users at home and in the destination. Most of the participants (n=15) reported using WeChat as an alternative to international phone calls to stay in touch with friends and family in China while travelling. One of the main reasons that tourists choose WeChat to stay in touch with friends, family and colleagues at home is economic. Nearly half of the participants (n=9) said that compared to the expense of making international phone calls, the cost of using WeChat is negligible. The following quote illustrates the economic benefits of using WeChat:

> *I did not have an international roaming service because I knew international roaming would be quite expensive. I asked the tour guide before the travel and he told me that the hotel would provide free Wi-Fi. #20*

Some features of WeChat enable the app to replace the traditional communication function played by telephones. The walkie talkie function in WeChat is a popular feature among users. This feature is used to communicate with friends back home as well as with other tourists. In addition to being able to make free telephone calls or video calls, users can send text messages or voice messages instantly via WeChat. The following quote explains:

> *Although I travelled by myself a few times during my college life, the journey to New Zealand was the first time I travelled overseas independently by myself. My parents were very worried about me… They asked me to contact them every day and let them know that I was safe and happy. Therefore, I usually left text messages or voice messages to them via WeChat several times per day during my travel. It was really convenient and economic. #5*

Moreover, the instant messenger function on WeChat is convenient for outbound travellers given international time differences. Some of the participants (n=4) explained that it was not convenient to make direct telephone calls because of the time difference between the destination and home. By using WeChat, participants could leave text or voice messages without interrupting their friends at inappropriate times and then wait for their responses.

Accessibility of social media in the destination

Chinese outbound tourists consider access to WeChat in the destination to be important. All participants said that they wanted to know how to access the Internet and how to use WeChat before they travelled to their destinations. The analysis suggests that Chinese outbound tourists use four common-methods to log in to WeChat: purchasing a local mobile sim card, accessing free Wi-Fi, purchasing or renting a portable Wi-Fi router, and accessing an international roaming service. Among them, purchasing a local mobile phone sim card with data was found to be the most popular way to access WeChat. The participants further explained that they preferred to buy a temporary phone card with data service online before their overseas travel or to purchase a local sim card as soon as possible upon arrival at the destination. The following interview comment explains how WeChat is typically accessed in the destination:

> *I contacted the tour guide and was told I could purchase a local phone card with data service. Therefore, I bought a local cell phone sim card in the airport after we landed in Thailand. #4*

And again:

> *I ordered a European phone card online in advance. If you search on Taobao* [the largest e-commerce website in China], *you can find many shops selling temporary international phone cards. My friends told me that some hotels in European countries do not offer free Wi-Fi. They suggested I buy a phone card before I travelled to Europe. #3*

Almost one third of participants (n=6) accessed WeChat only if they could connect to the free Wi-Fi provided by transport services, hotels, restaurants or public place. Participants reported that most public areas in the destination provided free Wi-Fi. It was therefore economic and convenient for them to access WeChat via the free Wi-Fi service. This is illustrated in the participant comment below.

> *My travel agent sent me a document with travel schedules and some information about Korea before travelling to Korea. It showed that all the hotels we were going to stay with during the travel would provide Wi-Fi. Therefore, I wasn't worried about whether I could use WeChat. I was pretty sure that I could use it. #16*

A portable Wi-Fi router was another means tourists used to access WeChat in the destination, although it was less popular than purchasing a local mobile sim card or accessing free Wi-Fi. Two of the participants reported that they accessed WeChat through a portable Wi-Fi router which was purchased or rented online and picked up and returned at the service desk in the destination. The device charges by days of use with unlimited data and multiple access. Portable Wi-Fi routers have gained in popularity because they provide an unlimited data flow, and enable multiple users to share data at the same time.

> *It is important for us to have Wi-Fi when travelling. We booked a Wi-Fi device called hot spots online before we visited Japan. We picked it up and returned the Wi-Fi router at the airport. Therefore, I can use WeChat … I feel very satisfied when I can use the WeChat freely on the whole journey. #7*

Finally, it was found that although an international roaming service was used to access WeChat, as a result of its high cost, it was not frequently used in the destination. Only one participant (#8) indicated that she accessed WeChat via an international roaming service when she could not access free Wi-Fi in the destination. This example shows the importance tourists place upon access to WeChat; it is so important that they are willing to pay the high fees associated with an international roaming service.

4.3 Tourist social media behaviour in the destination

4.3.1 Online self-presentation

This study reveals that WeChat users frequently share travel experiences on Moments while in the destination. Indeed, engaging in online self-presentation was more commonly mentioned by participants than social support related social media use. Tourists' travel sharing behaviour is strongly related to their online sharing behaviour during daily life. All participants reported browsing Moments content regularly both at home and during travel. The data suggests that tourists share by uploading photos or short videos or by writing about their travel experiences. Most participants (n=19) said they enjoyed the experience of showing friends they were travelling abroad, and of sharing their travel stories and their feelings on Moments. Moreover, the frequency of online sharing activity increases while travelling and is greater than the amount of time spent social networking in daily life. Twelve participants reported having more free time to manage their self-presentation on Moments and said they felt they had more interesting experiences to share when travelling in a foreign

country. Among these twelve participants, four of them specifically pointed out that they share less during their daily lives at home and more during travel.

Regarding the type of WeChat content tourists prefer to share, it was found that photos of exotic food and charming scenic spots are the most popular items shared on Moments. Seventeen participants pointed out that they share photos about the food they enjoyed at the destination, and 16 participants indicated that they uploaded photos of the views they had seen. Participants commented that they were more willing to share aspects of the culture that represent something exotic or different from what they find at home. Sharing selfies is also a common practice of tourists. Six of the participants indicated that they always shared selfies, while three participants revealed that they did not like to share selfies. This is demonstrated in the following excerpts from the data.

> *I am a foodie. I really enjoy tasting local food when I travel to new places. Trying different kinds of food is one of the most important parts of my travel experience. I usually share my travel experiences on Moments. Actually, most of the photos I shared on Moments were the meals or snacks I had during the travel. #14*
>
> *On my last trip to Korea, I went to some famous places. One of the highlights was the N Seoul Tower. There was a very hot Korean drama and one of the climaxes of the drama was shot at the N Seoul Tower. The tower represents love and it is a very romantic place. When I got to the tower, I took a lot of photos and uploaded them on Moments immediately. When I did the posting, I attached the location tag. I received lots of likes from my friends who also knew the drama. #2*
>
> *I usually post some photos on Moments in WeChat when I travel in a foreign country. Generally, I like to post some photos I took in front of scenic spots. I also like to share selfies with the scenic spots in the background. #3*

Moreover, tourists share interesting travel experiences and the emotions they feel about them by writing stories about them. More than half (n=11) of the participants indicated that they wrote about special experiences or circumstances or commented on their travel experience in WeChat. Sharing emotions or moods while travelling was mentioned by some participants (n=6) who further explained that they preferred to present themselves with reference to positive emotions rather than negative emotions. Participants believed that positive emotions resonated better with friends. This perspective was reported in the following terms:

When I was in a relaxing environment during outbound travel, especially when I travelled to places with pleasant natural scenery, I felt relaxed in that kind of environment. I usually share photos and write about my feelings about relaxing environments on Moments… I should admit I am a sentimental person and willing to express my emotions whenever, in my daily life or during travel. #13

One day in Thailand, we encountered a storm. All the trees waved fiercely, and lightning flashes and thunder rumbles lasted for a long time… I was very scared and felt the atmosphere of terror … and I wrote down the experience and shared it on Moments. My friends expressed their concern for me in the comments. It felt really good to be cared for. #15

The study findings reveal three reasons for tourists' online self-presentation social media behaviour. Being more connected with others was found to be the predominant reason tourists share travel experience on WeChat. WeChat provides a platform to interact and communicate with friends. Most of the participants (n=19) emphasized experiencing enjoyment when reading and replying to comments from friends after sharing something about their travel. One male participant (# 14) explained that travelling is a happy experience and the interactions and communication with friends about travel experience adds to the fun of travel itself. The following quotes from the interviews are illustrative of this sentiment:

I just considered posting on Moments as a way of shortening the distance with my friends. Some of my friends live in other cities. We are usually busy with our own work and life. And we don't have much time to communicate or get together. #2

I presented myself and shared my travel experience on Moments… I received comments from my friends immediately. In this way, the communication and interaction became more frequent… I didn't need to call my friends on purpose to keep the friendship. #8

The second key point that emerged from the data with regard to self-presentation is that tourists consider sharing on Moments to be a means by which to record their travel experience. This was mentioned by several participants (n=13) who commented that the content they shared on Moments reminded them of the travel experience when they had returned home. Participants stated their reasons for posting on Moments in the following terms:

The reason I presented myself was to make a memo of my travel experience. After I came back from my travel, I probably looked back on the shared content on Moments. It

would remind me of my travel experience, such as what I did when I visited some places. #17

But in reality, I would like to share the photos just to keep my memory of the travel. Maybe eight years or ten years later… it would remind me of my precious memories about the trip and my emotions at that moment. #18

Thirdly, tourists believe that the content they share on Moments is a trustworthy source of travel information for their friends. Participant #19, for example, said that the travel information he posted is based on his own travel experience and was much more reliable than the advertisements of the destination and that he was happy that his friends could feel a foreign culture through his eyes and plan their travel schedule according to the content he had shared on Moments.

The content I shared on Moments could also provide much information to my friends for when they planned their next vacation. They could collect travel information from my travel experience and make use of the information. In this sense, presenting myself on Moments also had a practical function. #15

4.3.2 Seeking social support

Seeking social support on WeChat was identified to be the most common reason for use among the Chinese outbound tourists who participated in the study. For smartphone users in China, WeChat is an important channel through which to receive and to spread information in everyday life. The findings of this research reveal that WeChat is an important tool while travelling in a foreign country, and Chinese smartphone users use WeChat during their travels. Nearly all the participants (n=19) in the study contacted their family and friends through WeChat while travelling in the destination. The study found that the participants contacted different groups of people for different purposes. It was found that respondents sought informational support, instrumental social support, and emotional support through WeChat during travel.

Of these, locating information was the most commonly mentioned social support behaviour on WeChat while in the destination. The participants confirmed that they usually accessed WeChat to contact friends, to search for information, and to seek advice about the destination while travelling. In some instances, they sought travel information, for instance, by asking for assistance in locating scenic spots or speciality food venues and commodities in the locale

from friends who were familiar with the destination. In other circumstances, tourists published a specific enquiry on Moments in order to get advice from their friends.

> *Last trip, we went to Thailand Koh Samet. When we got to the wharf of Koh Samet, we found that the situation was totally different from our travel plan. And then we contacted one of my friends who had visited Koh Samet before through WeChat … and then rescheduled our travel plan according to his information. #4*

It was also found that tourists contact friends and colleagues via WeChat to seek instrumental social support while travelling abroad. The participants mentioned that when they needed help to solve a personal problem or to complete some work at home while travelling in the destination, they would ask WeChat friends for help. For instance, participants provided details about how they used WeChat to contact colleagues to deal with work left to be done at home while they were travelling abroad. Tourists not only receive instrumental social support from contacts in their home country, but also receive support from fellow tourists in the destination as demonstrated in the following quotes.

> *When I travelled abroad, the HR staff contacted me through WeChat to collect some of my personal information for filling some forms. I also used WeChat to send back the information and let him help me to finish the form. #19*

> *Although we attended a tour group, we were given some free time for shopping during our stay in Thailand… I was really upset when I got on the wrong bus and lost connection with my fellow tourists. I shared my location with them and asked the tour guide to help me to find the right bus through WeChat. I felt greatly relieved when I got connected with them again. # 18*

Lastly, tourists seek and receive emotional support on WeChat by communicating with friends or family. The participants reported that they had shared emotions, such as worry, fear and anger, on WeChat and felt relieved and relaxed after expressing their emotions to their WeChat friends. One female participant (#2) said she had contacted her friends on WeChat when she was not satisfied with the friends travelling with her. Another female respondent (#1) sent voice messages to her close friends when she had a quarrel with her husband during her travel abroad. Both respondents said that the emotional interaction with friends on WeChat helped them to release tension during travel and strengthened the emotional ties between them and their friends and family.

I encountered … some emotional problems in my relationship with my partner during our trip to the US, and I tried to seek help and support from my friend… I think it relieved the tense mood for the whole journey. #1

4.3.3 The effects of social media use on emotion and satisfaction

The findings of this research show that tourists who use WeChat during outbound travel experience positive emotions in doing so. The analysis of the interview data revealed that all participants described using WeChat in the destination with expressions that suggest positive emotions, such as 'happy', 'comfortable', 'relaxed', 'relieved', 'pleasant', 'satisfied' and 'excited'. Participants noted that the feeling of distance between the destination and their homes was greatly reduced by using WeChat to connect with friends, family or colleagues whenever there was a need. Also, the use of WeChat helped the tourists to reduce any negative emotions and to relieve tension experienced during their outbound travels. On the one hand, the participants indicated that they felt anxious and upset if they could not access WeChat because they had become accustomed to using WeChat as their major communication tool in daily life. On the other hand, the participants revealed that their friends and family would worry about them if they failed to contact them on WeChat, especially while they were travelling overseas.

It took me more than 20 hours to fly from Beijing to Auckland and I stayed in New Zealand for more than 20 days. But I just felt that I was not too far away from home since I contacted my parents every day through WeChat… Also, I chatted with my friends through WeChat during my stay in New Zealand. Although I didn't have any acquaintances in New Zealand, I felt relaxed and comfortable. #5

Using WeChat during travel influenced tourists' overall level of satisfaction with the travel experience. Travelling is a pleasant experience in most situations and participants reported that communication and interaction with friends on WeChat increased the fun of travel. Seven participants mentioned that the available options for communicating with friends and family becomes more limited during travel due to distance and time difference in the outbound destination. They further explained that they felt close to their friends and families even though they were far away from home. Access to WeChat was seen to be 'convenient', 'economic', 'direct', 'real-time' and 'efficient'. It was hard for participants to describe how WeChat experience influenced tourist satisfaction. However, they noted that they felt 'upset', 'anxious', 'annoyed' and 'unsatisfied' when they were not able to use WeChat in the

destination. For instance, participant #8 reported a higher level of satisfaction due to the easy accessibility of WeChat. In addition, participant #9 recalled her past travel experiences before WeChat was widely used, and contrasted this with how satisfied she was with her most recent destination experience in which she had enjoyed the convenience of using WeChat.

> *I had higher satisfaction of the trip in France and Italy compared to the visit to Switzerland due to the different accessibility of WeChat. The Wi-Fi access fee was very expensive in Switzerland and it was very inconvenient to access WeChat in the country. #8*

> *WeChat is an important work tool for me. I can contact my friends and colleagues at anytime and anywhere. I still remember a few years ago when I travelled to Thailand, Malaysia and Singapore. At that time, I could only communicate by text messages or phone calls. But now I can use WeChat which is so convenient. I felt very satisfied with my recent travel to Canada since I could easily contact with my WeChat friends. If I could not use WeChat, I would feel very upset because I am afraid of losing contact with my work partners. #9*

4.4 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the results of the qualitative study. The chapter opened with a brief illustration of the demographic profile of the interview respondents, followed by an interpretation of the characteristics of social media behaviour among Chinese outbound tourists. It revealed that tourists regard the social media platform WeChat as the major communication tool for seeking social support and for self-presentation in the outbound destination. The findings of the qualitative study provided useful information for the second quantitative stage of this research. A discussion of the qualitative results is presented in Chapter 6, together with a discussion of the quantitative findings.

Chapter five: Quantitative results

The aim of this chapter is to present a detailed description of the data analysis and the statistical results of the quantitative stage of the study. Data analysis was guided by the research objectives and aimed to test the influence of social media behaviour on tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction. The research objectives are: 1) to explore Chinese tourist social media behaviour while traveling in an outbound destination, 2) to examine the relationship between Chinese tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotion, 3) to investigate the impact of tourist emotion toward the destination on overall tourist satisfaction with the travel experience. The data analysis process started with a descriptive analysis to identify the general characteristics of the sample. The results of the reliability test results for all measurement scales is then reported. This was followed by an EFA and CFA test of all the individual constructs. Finally, the structural model was analysed to test the hypotheses.

5.1 The demographic profile of respondents

Altogether 550 Chinese tourists who travelled to Japan and used WeChat during their travels were recruited to the quantitative study. In the initial step of the data analysis process, 26 questionnaires were excluded due to careless completion, for example, answering the same score for reversed coded items. A total of 524 valid questionnaires were utilised for data analysis.

The demographic profile is shown in Table 9. Among the 524 respondents, 359 were female (68.5%), twice as many as male tourists (n=165, 31.5%). This breakdown is consistent with previous studies which suggests that females are more active social media users than males (Guo 2016). There are also more female tourists than male tourists among Chinese outbound tourists in general. There were 24.6% more female than male Chinese outbound tourists in 2017 (CTA, 2019). Although the gender difference in the number of Chinese outbound tourists is narrowing, the female market is still larger than the male (CTA, 2019). Nearly half of the respondents (n=243, 46.4%) were in the 25–34 age group, followed by 26.9% in the 35–44 age group, and 11.6% in the 18–24 age group. This is consistent with the age group statistics released by the Chinese Tourism Academy, which indicates that the largest age group among Chinese outbound tourists is 25–34 and the second largest age group is 34–44 (CTA, 2019). The majority of respondents (88.6%) had completed tertiary education

including two to three years of college (n=111, 21.2%), a bachelor's degree (n=265, 50.6%) or postgraduate degree or higher (n=88, 16.8%). As to marital status, half of the respondents (n=271, 51.7%) were married with children while 170 of respondents (32.4%) were unmarried. The two most identified occupational categories were business owner (n=124, 23.7%) and private company white-collar (n=118, 22.5%). In terms of income level, more than half of the respondents (n=193, 58.7%) reported a monthly income below 5000 RMB, with 27.3% of respondents (n=143) reporting a monthly income between 5001 RMB and 10000 RMB, and 13.9% (n=73) reporting a monthly income over 10001 RMB.

Table 9: Demographic profile of respondents

	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Gender		
Male	165	31.5%
Female	359	68.5%
Age		
18–24 years	61	11.6
25–34 years	243	46.4
35–44 years	141	26.9
45–54 years	39	7.4
55 years or above	40	7.6
Highest educational qualification		
Primary/elementary school or below	5	1.0
Middle school (junior high school)	11	2.1
High school/professional high school	44	8.4
2–3 years college	111	21.2
Bachelor	265	50.6
Postgraduate or higher	88	16.8
Marital status		
Single	170	32.4
Married with children	271	51.7
Married without children	83	15.8
Occupation		
Government employee/civil servant	75	14.3

Teacher	38	7.3
Researcher	34	6.5
Private company white-collar	118	22.5
Foreign company white-collar	41	7.8
Student	20	3.8
Business owner	124	23.7
Retired	32	6.1
Unemployed	19	3.6
Other	23	4.4
Personal monthly income (RMB)		
3000 and below	144	27.4
3001–5000	164	31.3
5001–8000	101	19.3
8001–10000	42	8
10001–15000	28	5.3
15001 or above	45	8.6

5.1.1 WeChat use behaviour in everyday life

As reported in Table 10, half of the respondents (n=270, 51.5%) had more than 250 contacts on WeChat. Less than 5% (n=26) of respondents had less than 50 WeChat friends. As Table 11 shows, 317 respondents (60.5%) claimed that they used WeChat for more than two hours per day. As for the frequency of posting activity on Moments, 32.6% of respondents (n=171) preferred to post once every few weeks or less often, followed by the second largest group of 21.2% of respondents (n=111) who preferred to post several times a day.

Table 10: Total number of respondents' WeChat friends

	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Total WeChat friends		
10 or less	7	1.3
11–50	19	3.6
51–100	43	8.2
101–150	66	12.6
151–200	74	14.1
201–250	45	8.6

More than 250	270	51.5

As shown in Table 11, the results indicate that the respondents spent less time using WeChat in Japan than they did at home. The respondents who spent more than two hours using WeChat in Japan were the largest group (at 37.2%), although the time spent on WeChat was 23.3% less than their use at home (at 60.5%). However, the frequency of posting on Moments increased during the stay in Japan. Over a third of respondents (32.6%) posted once every few weeks or less often at home, whereas 16.8% of respondents posted at the same frequency in the destination. Meanwhile, 26.3% of respondents reported that they posted about once per day during their travel, but only 13.7% of respondents had the same posting frequency at home.

Table 11: WeChat use behaviour at home and in Japan

	At home		In Japan	
	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Time spent using WeChat per day				
Less than 10 minutes	18	3.4	46	8.8
10–30 minutes	44	8.4	97	18.5
31–60 minutes	61	11.6	90	17.2
1–2 hours	84	16	96	18.3
More than 2 hours	317	60.5	195	37.2
Frequency of posting on Moments				
Once every few weeks or less often	171	32.6	88	16.8
1–2 times a week	108	20.6	143	27.3
3–5 times a week	62	11.8	50	9.5
About once per day	72	13.7	138	26.3
Several times a day	111	21.2	105	20

5.1.2 WeChat use behaviour while travelling in Japan

This study also asked survey respondents about their WeChat use while travelling in Japan as a tourist. Respondents choose more than one method to access WeChat. The results for different ways of accessing WeChat in Japan are presented in Table 12. Accessing free Wi-Fi (44.7%) and purchasing or renting a portable Wi-Fi router (46.6%) were the main methods

used to access WeChat during travel in Japan. Nearly a quarter of respondents (24%) reported purchasing a local SIM card to access WeChat, and 15.6% of respondents said they used an international roaming service when they travelled abroad.

Table 12: WeChat access methods in Japan

	Percent (%)
Purchasing or renting a portable Wi-Fi router	46.6
Accessing free Wi-Fi	44.7
Purchasing a local mobile phone subscriber identity module (SIM) card	24
Accessing an international roaming service	15.6
Other	4.4

5.2 Data normality

In this phase, the Amos 26 program was used to test the univariate and multivariate normality of the 51 variables selected to measure tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotion, and tourist satisfaction. Kline (2011) recommends that data appear to be normally distributed when the absolute value of skewness is less than 3 and kurtosis is less than 10. In this study, the univariate skewness ranged from -0.859 to 0.315, and kurtosis ranged from -0.794 to 0.635 (see Table 13). Both indices were within the range of Kline's cut-off criteria, indicating that the data met the assumption of univariate normality. Conventionally, when using SEM analysis, multivariate normality is required (Nunkoo et al., 2013), but in reality it is difficult to achieve. As reported in Table 13, the value was 178.196, suggesting that the data is multivariate non-normal. Despite this, the maximum likelihood estimation procedure is fairly robust against moderate departures of data normality (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Moreover, since the online survey tool ensured all questions were answered before submission, no missing values were identified in the data set. Therefore, the original data set was used for subsequent analysis and data transformation was not necessary in this study.

Table 13: Univariate and multivariate normality test results (51items, n=524)

Description	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	statistic	CR	statistic	CR

	Tourist social media behaviour				
C1:	I turned to one of my WeChat friends for advice I really wanted when I was travelling.	-.597	-3.942	.635	2.097
C2:	I got information from my WeChat friends to help me to understand things when I was travelling.	-.820	-5.419	.595	1.967
C3:	My WeChat friends shared useful information about the travel when I was travelling.	-.571	-3.775	.414	1.367
C4:	I got necessary information about the destination from my WeChat friends while I was traveling.	-.381	-2.515	.282	.932
C5:	I got advice from my WeChat friends about a crisis while I was travelling.	-.143	-.946	-.154	-.510
C6:	I got suggestions from my WeChat friends about how to deal with problems that happened during my travel.	-.644	-4.253	.450	1.486
C7:	I expressed my emotions easily to my WeChat friends when I was travelling.	-.273	-1.805	-.490	-1.619
C8:	I expressed my anger to my WeChat friends and received sympathy.	-.118	-.777	-.779	-2.575
C9:	I shared my personal worries and fears with my WeChat friends and got advice.	-.350	-2.311	-.326	-1.076
C10:	My WeChat friends helped to relieve tension I felt when I was travelling.	-.500	-3.305	-.467	-1.542
C11:	My WeChat friends helped me to get my mind off my worries when I was travelling.	-.564	-3.726	-.143	-.473
C12:	I could always find someone to listen to me when I needed to talk when I was travelling.	-.427	-2.821	-.402	-1.329
C13:	I got sincere comfort from my WeChat friends when I was feeling bad while travelling.	-.761	-5.028	.138	.456
C14:	I felt that my WeChat friends were concerned about my condition when I was travelling.	-.856	-5.656	.101	.334
C15:	I got comfort from my WeChat friends whenever I felt I was far away from home when I was travelling.	-.439	-2.901	-.523	-1.729
C16:	I spent time chatting with my WeChat friends whenever I felt bored while traveling.	-.615	-4.062	-.284	-.939
C17:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to do something.	-.093	-.614	-.713	-2.357
C18:	I asked my WeChat friends to fill in for me when I was unable to do something.	-.417	-2.756	-.315	-1.042
C19:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to complete some of my work when I was travelling.	-.337	-2.227	-.114	-.376

C20:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some work-related problems when I was travelling.	-.052	-.342	-.358	-1.182
C21:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some personal problems at home when I was travelling.	.050	.333	-.248	-.820
C22:	I posted photos that showed I was travelling on WeChat.	-.614	-4.059	-.424	-1.402
C23:	I posted photos in which I looked good on WeChat during my travel.	-.660	-4.364	-.480	-1.585
C24:	On my Moments, I wrote messages that portrayed me as a tourist during my travel.	-.397	-2.623	-.686	-2.265
C25:	I wrote about travel experiences that happened to me when I updated my Moments on my WeChat.	-.440	-2.908	-.554	-1.830
C26:	When I updated my Moments on WeChat, I revealed my feelings during my travel.	-.451	-2.982	-.401	-1.324
C27:	I didn't mind writing about bad things that happened to me during travel on my Moments.	-.334	-2.206	-.794	-2.624
	Tourist emotions				
D1:	I felt a sense of joy toward the destination.	-.633	-4.183	.229	.758
D2:	I felt a sense of pleasure toward the destination.	-.481	-3.181	-.452	-1.493
D3:	I felt cheerful toward the destination.	-.435	-2.875	-.431	-1.423
D4:	I felt a sense of delight toward the destination.	-.567	-3.749	-.111	-.367
D5:	I felt a sense of enthusiasm toward the destination.	-.414	-2.735	-.332	-1.096
D6:	I felt a sense of affection toward the destination.	-.299	-1.979	-.523	-1.728
D7:	I felt a sense of love toward the destination.	-.376	-2.482	-.402	-1.328
D8:	I felt a sense of tenderness toward the destination.	-.226	-1.496	-.436	-1.442
D9:	I felt warm-hearted toward the destination.	-.339	-2.238	-.504	-1.667
D10:	I felt a sense of caring toward the destination.	-.465	-3.073	-.032	-.105
D11:	I felt fascinated about the destination.	-.335	-2.216	-.268	-.885
D12:	I felt a sense of inspiration toward the destination.	-.100	-.659	-.552	-1.825
D13:	I felt a sense of surprise toward the destination.	-.238	-1.570	-.602	-1.988
D14:	I felt a sense of astonishment toward the destination.	-.176	-1.161	-.537	-1.775
D15:	I felt a sense of amazement toward the destination.	-.212	-1.398	-.352	-1.163
D16:	I felt a sense of regret toward the destination.	.206	1.364	-.152	-.503
D17:	I felt a sense of unhappiness toward the destination.	.315	2.082	-.321	-1.060
D18:	I felt a sense of disappointment toward the destination.	-.052	-.343	-.444	-1.468
D19:	I felt a sense of displeasure toward the destination.	.112	.738	-.258	-.852
	Tourist satisfaction				

A1:	Overall, I am satisfied with the tour experience in Japan.	-.550	-5.144	-.062	-.291
A2:	I feel very good about my visit to Japan.	-.423	-3.958	-.253	-1.181
A3:	I am satisfied with my decision to visit Japan.	-.609	-5.693	.088	.410
A4:	I think the overall tour experience in Japan exceed my expectation.	-.489	-4.570	-.120	-.560
A5:	The overall tour experience in Japan is close to the ideal tour experience.	-.597	-5.576	.202	.945
Multivariate				178.196	34.347

Note：CR=Critical ratio

5.3 Scale reliability analysis

Reliability analysis with Cronbach's alpha was conducted to measure the level of internal consistency within the measurement scales for tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotion, and tourist satisfaction. The results of the reliability analysis are reported in Table 14. The Cronbach's alpha for tourist social media behaviour was 0.933, for tourist emotion it was 0.901, and for tourist satisfaction it was 0.915. For a reliable scale, Cronbach's alpha should be above 0.70 (Hair et al., 2012). All measurements for the three constructs showed a reliability coefficient above 0.90, indicating that the internal consistency of the measurements was satisfactory. The results of the reliability analysis are presented in Table 14. Moreover, the item-total correlations broadly fall within the expected range for tourist social media behaviour (0.375 to 0.667), tourist emotion (0.060 to 0.700), and tourist satisfaction (0.688 to 0.864).

Table 14: Reliability of measurements of the major constructs (n=524)

Item	Description	Item-Total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
	Tourist social media behaviour (Cronbach alpha = 0.933)		
C1:	I turned to one of my WeChat friends for advice I really wanted when I was travelling.	.553	.931
C2:	I got information from my WeChat friends to help me to understand things when I was travelling.	.510	.931
C3:	My WeChat friends shared useful information about the travel when I was travelling.	.563	.931
C4:	I got necessary information about the destination from my WeChat friends while I was traveling.	.535	.931

C5:	I got advice from my WeChat friends about a crisis while I was travelling.	.375	.933
C6:	I got suggestions from my WeChat friends about how to deal with problems that happened during my travel.	.581	.930
C7:	I expressed my emotions easily to my WeChat friends when I was travelling.	.510	.931
C8:	I expressed my anger to my WeChat friends and received sympathy.	.518	.931
C9:	I shared my personal worries and fears with my WeChat friends and got advice.	.498	.931
C10:	My WeChat friends helped to relieve tension I felt when I was travelling.	.577	.930
C11:	My WeChat friends helped me to get my mind off my worries when I was travelling.	.598	.930
C12:	I could always find someone to listen to me when I needed to talk when I was travelling.	.586	.930
C13:	I got sincere comfort from my WeChat friends when I was feeling bad while travelling.	.575	.930
C14:	I felt that my WeChat friends were concerned about my condition when I was travelling.	.649	.929
C15:	I got comfort from my WeChat friends whenever I felt I was far away from home when I was travelling.	.646	.929
C16:	I spent time chatting with my WeChat friends whenever I felt bored while traveling.	.667	.929
C17:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to do something.	.543	.931
C18:	I asked my WeChat friends to fill in for me when I was unable to do something.	.560	.931
C19:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to complete some of my work when I was travelling.	.506	.931
C20:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some work-related problems when I was travelling.	.526	.931
C21:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some personal problems at home when I was travelling.	.482	.932
C22:	I posted photos that showed I was travelling on WeChat.	.624	.930
C23:	I posted photos in which I looked good on WeChat during my travel.	.561	.931
C24:	On my Moments, I wrote messages that portrayed me as a tourist during my travel.	.609	.930
C25:	I wrote about travel experiences that happened to me when I updated my Moments on my WeChat.	.640	.929
C26:	When I updated my Moments on WeChat, I revealed my feelings during my travel.	.626	.930

C27:	I didn't mind writing about the bad things that happened to me during travel on my Moments.	.611	.930
	Tourist emotions (Cronbach Alpha = .901)		
D1:	I felt a sense of joy toward the destination.	.582	.894
D2:	I felt a sense of pleasure toward the destination.	.656	.892
D3:	I felt cheerful toward the destination.	.671	.892
D4:	I felt a sense of delight toward the destination.	.695	.891
D5:	I felt a sense of enthusiasm toward the destination.	.685	.891
D6:	I felt a sense of affection toward the destination.	.691	.891
D7:	I felt a sense of love toward the destination.	.685	.891
D8:	I felt a sense of tenderness toward the destination.	.700	.891
D9:	I felt warm-hearted toward the destination.	.686	.891
D10:	I felt a sense of caring toward the destination.	.593	.894
D11:	I felt fascinated about the destination.	.654	.892
D12:	I felt a sense of inspiration toward the destination.	.669	.892
D13:	I felt a sense of surprise toward the destination.	.654	.892
D14:	I felt a sense of astonishment toward the destination.	.572	.895
D15:	I felt a sense of amazement toward the destination.	.599	.894
D16:	I felt a sense of regret toward the destination.	.151	.906
D17:	I felt a sense of unhappiness toward the destination.	.060	.909
D18:	I felt a sense of disappointment toward the destination.	.136	.906
D19:	I felt a sense of displeasure toward the destination.	.079	.907
	Tourist satisfaction (Cronbach Alpha = .915)		
A1:	Overall, I am satisfied with the tour experience in Japan.	.688	.915
A2:	I feel very good about my visit to Japan.	.775	.897
A3:	I am satisfied with my decision to visit Japan.	.864	.879
A4:	I think the overall tour experience in Japan exceed my expectation.	.808	.890
A5:	The overall tour experience in Japan is close to the ideal tour experience.	.781	.896

5.4 Measurement of tourist social media behaviour

Descriptive statistics were retrieved for all tourist social media behaviour items using SPSS 24, followed by EFA and CFA for each construct. The minimum value was 1 indicating 'strongly disagree', and the maximum was 7 indicating 'strongly agree'. Table 15 shows the means and standard deviations for all items. The mean values of the 27 items ranged from 4.06 to 5.16 with standard deviations ranging from 1.067 to 1.624. This indicates that respondents generally agreed with the tourist social media behaviour statements in the questionnaire and rated all items positively. The four items with the highest mean value of

over 5.0 for tourist social media behaviour were ‘I felt that my WeChat friends were concerned about my condition when I was travelling’ (M=5.16), ‘I posted photos that showed I was travelling on WeChat’ (M=5.07), ‘I posted photos in which I looked good on WeChat during my travel’ (M=5.06), and ‘I got sincere comfort from my WeChat friends when I was feeling bad while travelling’ (M=5.03). These four items indicated the most popular responses to questions designed to capture social media behaviour in the destination. The item displaying the lowest mean value was ‘I asked my WeChat friends to help me solve some personal problems at home when I was travelling’(M=4.06), which suggested that seeking help for personal problems is the least common tourist social media behaviour in the destination.

Table 15: Means and standard deviation for tourist social media behaviour items (n=524)

Item	Description	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
C14:	I felt that my WeChat friends were concerned about my condition when I was travelling.	1	7	5.16	1.404
C22:	I posted photos that showed I was travelling on WeChat.	1	7	5.07	1.578
C23:	I posted photos in which I looked good on WeChat during my travel.	1	7	5.06	1.624
C13:	I got sincere comfort from my WeChat friends when I was feeling bad while travelling.	1	7	5.03	1.281
C16:	I spent time chatting with my WeChat friends whenever I felt bored while traveling.	1	7	4.98	1.499
C24:	On my Moments, I wrote messages that portrayed me as a tourist during my travel.	1	7	4.88	1.528
C12:	I could always find someone to listen to me when I needed to talk when I was travelling.	1	7	4.84	1.334
C25:	I wrote about travel experiences that happened to me when I updated my Moments on my WeChat.	1	7	4.72	1.613
C15:	I got comfort from my WeChat friends whenever I felt I was far away from home when I was travelling.	1	7	4.71	1.491
C1:	I turned to one of my WeChat friends for advice I really wanted when I was travelling.	1	7	4.69	1.069
C27:	I didn’t mind writing about the bad things that happened to me during travel on my Moments.	1	7	4.68	1.616

C26:	When I updated my Moments on WeChat, I revealed my feelings during my travel.	1	7	4.67	1.529
C18:	I asked my WeChat friends to fill in for me when I was unable to do something.	1	7	4.66	1.459
C17:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to do something.	1	7	4.58	1.511
C5:	I got advice from my WeChat friends about a crisis while I was travelling.	1	7	4.55	1.067
C11:	My WeChat friends helped me to get my mind off my worries when I was travelling.	1	7	4.55	1.279
C10:	My WeChat friends helped to relieve tension I felt when I was travelling.	1	7	4.52	1.286
C2:	I got information from my WeChat friends to help me to understand things when I was travelling.	1	7	4.45	1.016
C7:	I expressed my emotions easily to my WeChat friends when I was travelling.	1	7	4.44	1.345
C3:	My WeChat friends shared useful information about the travel when I was travelling.	1	7	4.43	1.037
C4:	I got necessary information about the destination from my WeChat friends while I was traveling.	1	7	4.42	1.126
C6:	I got suggestions from my WeChat friends about how to deal with problems that happened during my travel.	1	7	4.38	1.129
C19:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to complete some of my work when I was travelling.	1	7	4.38	1.414
C8:	I expressed my anger to my WeChat friends and received sympathy.	1	7	4.37	1.436
C9:	I shared my personal worries and fears with my WeChat friends and got advice.	1	7	4.35	1.254
C20:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some work-related problems when I was travelling.	1	7	4.34	1.409
C21:	I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some personal problems at home when I was travelling.	1	7	4.06	1.355

Scale: 1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree

5.4.1 Exploratory factor analysis of tourist social media behaviour

Before running the test, the data were randomly split into two sub-samples using SPSS to test cross validity (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006). Each sub-sample had 262 cases and was named sub-sample one or sub-sample two. Sub-sample one was used for EFA and sub-

sample two was used for CFA. EFA is a widely used data reduction technique and is usually applied in the early phases of a study to identify the underlying constructs that explain the correlations among a number of items and detect the dimensionality of the measured variables (Fabrigar and Wegener, 2012). In this study, items measuring tourist social media behaviour were mostly adopted from previous literature and were adjusted for the present research context based on the qualitative findings. To ensure the adjustment did not affect reliability, EFA was applied to explore the dimensional structure and to obtain a reliable item pool for further analysis.

A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and a Bartlett's test of Sphericity were first applied to check the suitability of the data for EFA. Data is considered to be suitable for EFA testing when the KMO test result is above 0.5, and the Bartlett's test of Sphericity returns a significant result (Hutcheson and Sofroniou, 1999). The KMO value for tourist social media behaviour was 0.896 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at 0.000, which indicates a satisfactory result for the purposes of factor analysis. When implementing an EFA, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was selected as the method of extraction and VARIMAX rotation was used. Factors were extracted with eigenvalue being greater than 1.0. The statistical results reveal a four-factor structure (Table 16). As a ground rule, items with a loading below 0.40 on any factor, and items with a 0.40 or higher loading on two or more factors were removed (Hair, 2010). In addition, any item with a communality below 0.40 was removed to improve clarity (Hair, 2010).

All the items used to measure tourist social media behaviour had loadings of over 0.50 indicating significant correlations between measurement items and the latent variables (Hair et al., 2013). To identify a robust factor structure, a four-factor underlying structure was found and the following seven items were removed sequentially during the data reduction process due to high cross loadings:

- 'I got suggestions from my WeChat friends about how to deal with problems that happened during my travel'.
- 'I expressed my emotions easily to my WeChat friends when I was travelling'.
- 'I could always find someone to listen to me when I needed to talk when I was travelling'.
- 'I got sincere comfort from my WeChat friends when I was feeling bad while travelling'.

- ‘I felt that my WeChat friends were concerned about my condition when I was travelling’.
- ‘I got comfort from my WeChat friends whenever I felt I was far away from home when I was travelling’.
- ‘I spent time chatting with my WeChat friends whenever I felt bored while traveling’.

Some of the items reflected negative feelings and appeared to be poor measures of Chinese social media behaviour because they might more likely express positive emotions during outbound travel.

The four extracted factors identified with the 20 items explained 65.26% of the total variance. The four factors and their contained items, the item loadings and the accumulated variance are presented in detail in Table 16. To show a clear interpretation, the items are sorted by their loading size. Further, updated reliability test results of the factors following calculation of the Cronbach’s alpha value are shown in the table.

The first factor is labelled online self-presentation. It is measured by six items, explaining 35.95% of the total variance. The second factor is informational online social support and is measured by five items, explaining 13.16% of the total variance. The third factor is instrumental social support, measured by five items, explaining 9.56% of the total variance. The last factor was labelled emotional online social support and was measured by four items, explaining 6.57% of the total variance. The Cronbach alphas for the four factors were 0.906, 0.903, 0.791, and 0.810 respectively, all above the 0.70 indicating satisfactory reliabilities for all the extracted factors. These factors complied with the findings from the qualitative stage which identified four tourist social media behaviours in the destination—informational online social support, emotional online social support, instrumental online social support, and online self-presentation.

Table 16: EFA output of tourist social media behaviour (sub-sample one, n=262)

Latent and observed variables	Factor loadings	Eigen value	Variance explained %	Cronbach’s alpha
Factor 1: Online self-presentation		7.191	35.95	.906
C24: On my Moments, I wrote messages that portrayed me as a tourist during my travel.	.829			
C25: I wrote about travel experiences that happened to me when I updated my Moments on my WeChat.	.816			

C26: When I updated my Moments on WeChat, I revealed my feelings during my travel.	.811			
C23: I posted photos in which I looked good on WeChat during my travel.	.788			
C22: I posted photos that showed I was travelling on WeChat.	.707			
C27: I didn't mind writing about the bad things that happened to me during travel on my Moments.	.645			
Factor 2: Informational online social support		2.634	13.16	.903
C4: I got necessary information about the destination from my WeChat friends while I was traveling.	.873			
C2: I got information from my WeChat friends to help me to understand things when I was travelling.	.869			
C3: My WeChat friends shared useful information about the travel when I was travelling.	.832			
C1: I turned to one of my WeChat friends for advice I really wanted when I was travelling.	.819			
C5: I got advice from my WeChat friends about a crisis while I was travelling.	.722			
Factor 3: Instrumental online social support		1.913	9.56	.791
C20: I asked my WeChat friends to help me solve to some work-related problems when I was travelling.	.756			
C19: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to complete some of my work when I was travelling.	.739			
C17: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to do something.	.653			
C18: I asked my WeChat friends to fill in for me when I was unable to do something.	.601			
C21: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some personal problems at home when I was travelling.	.552			
Factor 4: Emotional online social support		1.314	6.57	.810
C10: My WeChat friends helped to relieve tension I felt when I was travelling.	.825			
C11: My WeChat friends helped me to get my mind off my worries when I was travelling.	.791			
C9: I shared my personal worries and fears with my WeChat friends and got advice.	.772			

C8: I expressed my anger to my WeChat friends and received sympathy.	.623
KMO=0.896 Bartlett's test of sphericity (sig.000) Extraction Method: principal component analysis (CPA) Rotation method: VARIMAX rotation with Kaiser Normalization	

5.4.2 Confirmatory factor analysis of tourist social media behaviour

A key feature of SEM is to explicitly distinguish between observed variables and latent variables. To ensure the soundness of the measurement model for the construct tourist social media behaviour, CFA was performed to evaluate whether the observed variables reflected the latent variables in this study.

Model fit indices

The most commonly reported fit indices as recommended by Hair et al (2010) are the chi-square test (x^2), its degrees of freedom (*df*), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean squared residual (standardized RMR), and the comparative fit index (CFI).

Chi-square

The chi-square (x^2) statistic is a traditional method used to test the fit of a CFA model. The chi-square value should not be significant with a *p*-value greater than 0.01. However, the x^2 is very sensitive to sample size and model complexity, it is usually hard to have an insignificant x^2 when the sample size is larger than 200. Therefore, the use of a normed chi-square (x^2/df) is introduced to adjust for model complexity. Generally, normed chi-square values below 2.0 indicate a good fit (Carmines and McIver, 1983).

CFI

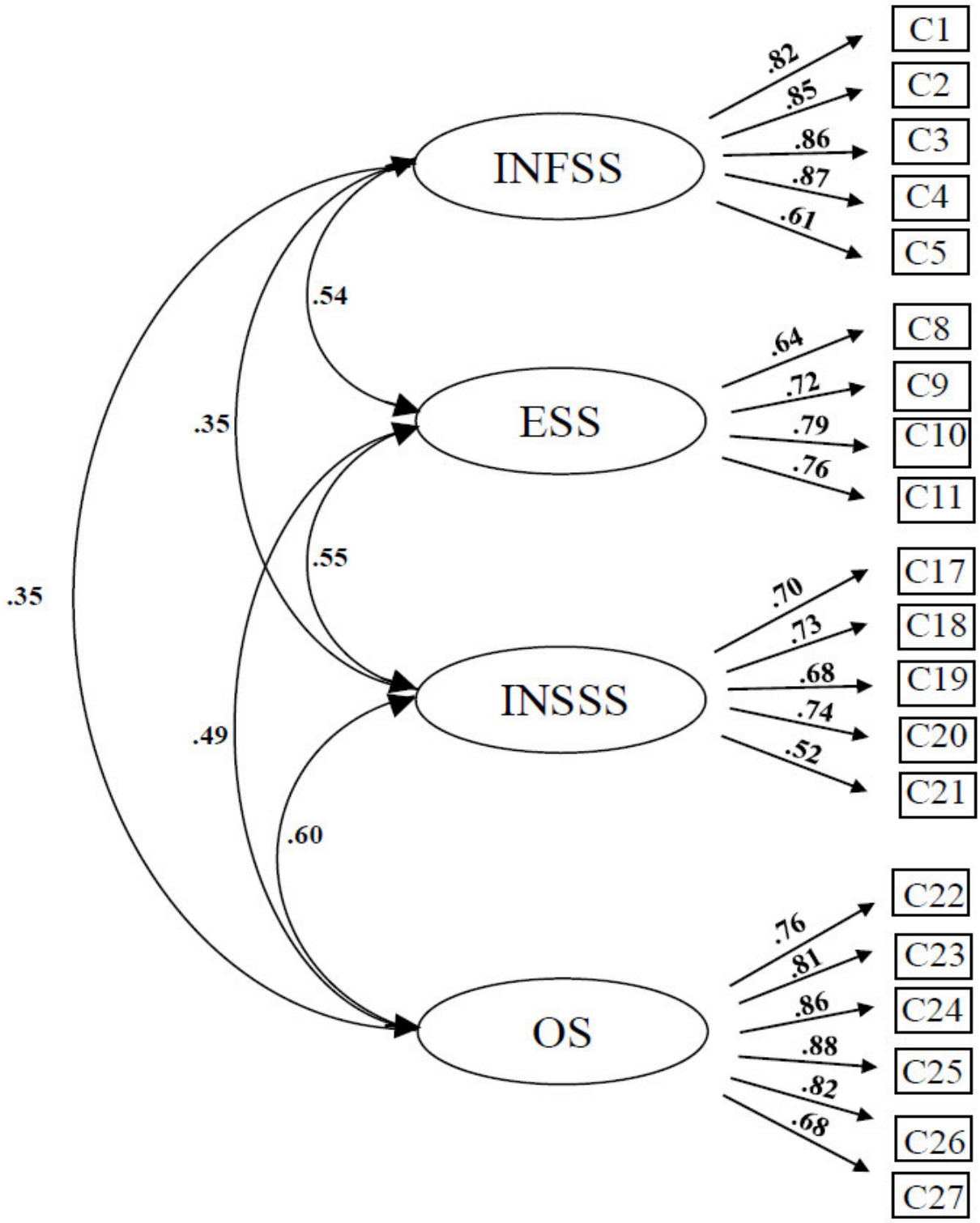
The CFI is a revised form of NFI which performs well even with a small sample size (Byrne, 2010). Like NFI and NNFI, the statistical value of CFI ranges between 0 and 1.0 with a value over 0.9 suggesting a good fit (Byrne, 2010).

RMSEA and Standardized RMR

The RMSEA reflects a goodness of model fit by measuring the discrepancy between the model fitted covariance matrix and the population covariance matrix. Since RMSEA takes into account the complexity of the model and is not sensitive to sample size, it has become one of the most informative fit indices available (Byrne, 2010; Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). Generally, a RMSEA value of less than 0.05 indicates a good fit; a value ranging between 0.05 and 0.08 indicates a reasonable fit; and a value above 0.10 indicates a poor fit (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). The standardized RMR tells us the square root of the difference between the residuals of the sample covariance matrix and the hypothesised covariance model. A standardized RMR value below 0.05 indicates an acceptable fit (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000).

Measurement model

All fit indices (x^2/df =1.723, RMSEA=0.053, standardized RMR=0.045, CFI=0.959) indicate a good fit between the CFA model and the observed data (Table 18). Factor loadings and their critical ratios (also known as *t*-values) are presented in Figure 9 and Table 17. All the factor loadings in the CFA model are slightly different from their loadings in the EFA model, ranging from 0.515 to 0.882. The largest gap between a latent variable's CFA loading and its EFA loading is 0.129. Among all 20 items used to measure tourist social media behaviour in the destination, 16 have loading variations of less than 0.05 indicating that the CFA loadings generally correspond to the EFA loadings. The critical ratio (CR) associated with the CFA loadings show the statistical significance of loading coefficients. As reported in Table 17, the CR scores are all above 3.29 with *p*-values less than 0.001 indicating that the CFA results in this phase confirm the four-factors underlying the structure identified by the EFA.



Note: INFSS=informational social support, ESS=emotional social support, INSSS=instrumental social support, OS=online self-presentation

Figure 9: Tourist social media behaviour measurement model (n=262)

Table 17: Confirmatory factor analysis of tourist social media behaviour in the destination (sub-sample two, n=262)

Factor/item	Standardized. factor loading	CR	Squared multiple correlation (R^2)
Informational social support			
C1: I turned to one of my WeChat friends for advice I really wanted when I was travelling.	.818		.670
C2: I got information from my WeChat friends to help me to understand things when I was travelling.	.846	16.009	.715
C3: My WeChat friends shared useful information about the travel when I was travelling.	.858	16.330	.735
C4: I got necessary information about the destination from my WeChat friends while I was traveling.	.875	16.797	.765
C5: I got advice from my WeChat friends about a crisis while I was travelling.	.607	10.352	.369
Emotional social support			
C11: My WeChat friends helped me to get my mind off my worries when I was travelling.	.761		.580
C10: My WeChat friends helped to relieve tension I felt when I was travelling.	.794	11.938	.631
C9: I shared my personal worries and fears with my WeChat friends and got advice.	.723	10.985	.522
C8: I expressed my anger to my WeChat friends and received sympathy.	.638	9.688	.407
Instrumental social support			
C21: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some personal problems at home when I was travelling.	.515		.265
C20: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some work-related problems when I was travelling.	.737	7.609	.543
C19: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to complete some of my work when I was travelling.	.681	7.326	.464
C18: I asked my WeChat friends to fill in for me when I was unable to do something.	.730	7.577	.533
C17: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to do something.	.702	7.436	.492

Online self-presentation			
C27: I didn't mind writing about the bad things that happened to me during travel on my Moments.	.677		.458
C26: When I updated my Moments on WeChat, I revealed my feelings during my travel.	.822	11.976	.675
C25: I wrote about travel experiences that happened to me when I updated my Moments on my WeChat.	.882	12.708	.778
C24: On my Moments, I wrote messages that portrayed me as a tourist during my travel.	.859	12.437	.738
C23: I posted photos in which I looked good on WeChat during my travel.	.813	11.865	.661
C22: I posted photos that showed I was travelling on WeChat.	.757	11.138	.572

Table 18: Model fit summary of tourist social media behaviour measurement model

Chi-Square statistic (x^2)	*df*	x^2/df	*p* value	CFI	RMSEA	Standardized RMR
282.582	164	1.723	.000	.959	.053	.045

Construct validity

Since the CFA model fits the data reasonably well, the construct validity of the proposed measurement model was then investigated. Construct validity was conducted to measure the accuracy of measurement items reflecting the theoretical latent construct (Hair et al., 2012). Convergent and discriminant validity are the two major types of construct validity. Convergent validity is tested by reviewing the average variance extracted (AVE), which shows the extent to which two measures of the same construct are theoretically correlated (Hair et al., 2012). The value ranges between 0 and 1.0, with higher values indicating higher convergent validity of the measurement. Normally, the minimum value of AVE should be over 0.5 indicating adequate convergence (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The AVE value was calculated with the following formula:

$$\mathrm{AVE} = \frac{(\sum \lambda^2)}{[(\sum \lambda^2) + \sum \theta]}$$

Where：

AVE=Average Variance Extracted

λ=standardised regression weights

θ=variance

∑=summation

Discriminant validity investigates the extent to which a construct is distinct from other constructs by examining their correlations. Generally, low correlations among latent variables indicate discriminant validity, and a correlation value over 0.80 indicates a problematic level of inter-correlated constructs (Hair et al., 2011). A more rigorous way to examine discriminant validity is to compare the square root of the AVE values with the correlations between any two constructs (Hair et al., 2013). As Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggest, when the square root of the AVE is larger than the correlation of two constructs it indicates the discriminant validity of the measurement model.

In this study, the AVE values were 0.651 for tourist informational social support, 0.535 for tourist emotional social support, 0.460 for tourist instrumental social support, and 0.647 for tourist online self-presentation. The AVE value of tourist instrumental social support is slightly below the recommended value of 0.5. All the other AVE values for the latent factors meet the convergent validity requirement. In addition, as shown in the following table, correlations among the latent factors are all below 0.8, ranging from 0.354 to 0.601, suggesting the latent factors are valid.

Reliability

Squared multiple correlations (SMC) and composite reliability (CR) examine the overall reliability of similar items. Three items (C5, C8 and C21) have relatively low SMC values, while all the other items had SMC values very close to or above 0.5, indicating that the latent variables could reasonably explain the item's variance. Normally, composite reliability should be higher than 0.70 and it is suggested that 0.60 to 0.70 is acceptable in exploratory research (Hair et al., 2011). The CR value was calculated with the following formula:

$$\mathrm{CR} = \frac{(\sum \lambda)^2}{[(\sum \lambda)^2 + \sum \theta]}$$

Where：

CR=composite reliability

λ=standardised regression weights

θ=variance

∑=summation

The composite reliability values were 0.902 for tourist informational social support, 0.820 for tourist emotional social support, 0.807 for tourist instrumental social support, and 0.916 for tourist online self-presentation (Table 19). The values are all above 0.7 and indicate reliable measurement scales. Thus, the SMC values and the CR values suggest that the factors are reliable.

Table 19: Composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and correlation of tourist social media behaviour

	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE	INFSS	ESS	INSSS	OS
INFSS	.903	.902	.651	*.806*			
ESS	.810	.820	.535	.539	*.731*		
INSSS	.791	.807	.460	.354	.548	*.678*	
OS	.906	.916	.647	.354	.486	.601	*.804*

Note: Numbers in italics show the square root of the AVE, and numbers below the diagonal represent construct correlations. INFSS=informational social support, ESS=emotional social support, INSSS=instrumental social support, OS=online self-presentation

5.5 Measurement of tourist emotion

Means and standard deviations of the 19 items used to describe tourist emotion were examined. As shown in Table 20, 15 of the 19 items had a mean value over the middle score of 4 (ranging from 4.42 to 5.17). Among these 15 items, 5 had a mean value of over 5.0 indicating a great sense of 'delight' (M=5.17), 'pleasure' (M=5.16), 'joy' (M=5.09), and 'cheerfulness' (M=5.07) toward the destination. Four of the 19 items had a mean value below the mid-point (4.0), indicating that respondents generally disagreed with these items. It is likely that tourists did not experience any significant sense of disappointment, displeasure, unhappiness, or regret toward the destination.

Table 20: Means and standard deviations of tourist emotion items (n=524)

Item	Description	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
D4:	I felt a sense of delight toward the destination.	1	7	5.17	1.319
D2:	I felt a sense of pleasure toward the destination.	1	7	5.16	1.331
D1:	I felt a sense of joy toward the destination.	1	7	5.09	1.355
D3:	I felt cheerful toward the destination.	1	7	5.07	1.367
D5:	I felt a sense of enthusiasm toward the destination.	1	7	5.03	1.284
D7:	I felt a sense of love toward the destination.	1	7	4.99	1.363
D9:	I felt warm-hearted toward the destination.	1	7	4.98	1.354
D6:	I felt a sense of affection toward the destination.	1	7	4.96	1.405
D8:	I felt a sense of tenderness toward the destination.	1	7	4.89	1.350
D10:	I felt a sense of caring toward the destination.	1	7	4.88	1.160
D11:	I felt fascinated about the destination.	1	7	4.75	1.242
D12:	I felt a sense of inspiration toward the destination.	1	7	4.70	1.283
D13:	I felt a sense of surprise toward the destination.	1	7	4.67	1.355
D14:	I felt a sense of astonishment toward the destination.	1	7	4.48	1.189
D15:	I felt a sense of amazement toward the destination.	1	7	4.42	1.178
D18:	I felt a sense of disappointment toward the destination.	1	7	3.44	1.177
D19:	I felt a sense of displeasure toward the destination.	1	7	3.35	1.191
D17:	I felt a sense of unhappiness toward the destination.	1	7	3.33	1.294
D16:	I felt a sense of regret toward the destination.	1	7	3.27	1.257

Scale: 1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree

5.5.1 Exploratory factor analysis of tourist emotion

Using PCA with VARIMAX rotation, EFA was conducted on the sub samples. Three items, tourist's sense of 'astonishment', 'amazement', and 'displeasure' were removed sequentially during the data reduction process. The first two items were deleted due to cross-loadings, while the latter one was removed because of a lower than 0.40 communalities score.

The KMO value of the data is 0.939 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant at the 0.000 level, which indicated a satisfactory result upon which to conduct the factor analysis.

All the items measuring tourist emotions have loadings of over 0.40 indicating they are satisfactory and support further analysis. The two factors explain 56.65% of the total variance representing the 16 items. The two factors and their contained items, the item loadings, the accumulated variance, and the Cronbach's alpha value are presented in detail in Table 21.

The first factor was labelled 'tourist positive emotion' and was measured with fifteen items, explaining 45.49% of the total variance with a reliability coefficient of 0.933. The second

factor was identified as 'tourist negative emotion'. It was measured by 3 items, explaining 11.15% of the total variance with a reliability coefficient of 0.601.

Table 21: EFA output of tourist emotion (sub-sample one, n=262)

Latent and observed variables	**Factor loadings**	**Eigen value**	**Variance explained %**	**Cronbach's alpha**
Factor 1: Tourist positive emotion		7.279	45.49	.933
D8: I felt a sense of tenderness toward the destination.	.814			
D6: I felt a sense of affection toward the destination.	.802			
D9: I felt warm-hearted toward the destination.	.788			
D4: I felt a sense of delight toward the destination.	.770			
D7: I felt a sense of love toward the destination.	.764			
D5: I felt a sense of enthusiasm toward the destination.	.763			
D3: I felt cheerful toward the destination.	.756			
D2: I felt a sense of pleasure toward the destination.	.742			
D12: I felt a sense of inspiration toward the destination.	.735			
D11: I felt fascinated about the destination.	.729			
D10: I felt a sense of caring toward the destination.	.716			
D13: I felt a sense of surprise toward the destination.	.667			
D1: I felt a sense of joy toward the destination.	.655			
Factor 2: Tourist negative emotion		1.785	11.15	.601
D16: I felt a sense of regret toward the destination.	.772			
D18: I felt a sense of disappointment toward the destination.	.751			
D17: I felt a sense of unhappiness toward the destination.	.725			

KMO=0.939

Bartlett's test of sphericity (sig.000)

Extraction method: principal component analysis (PCA)

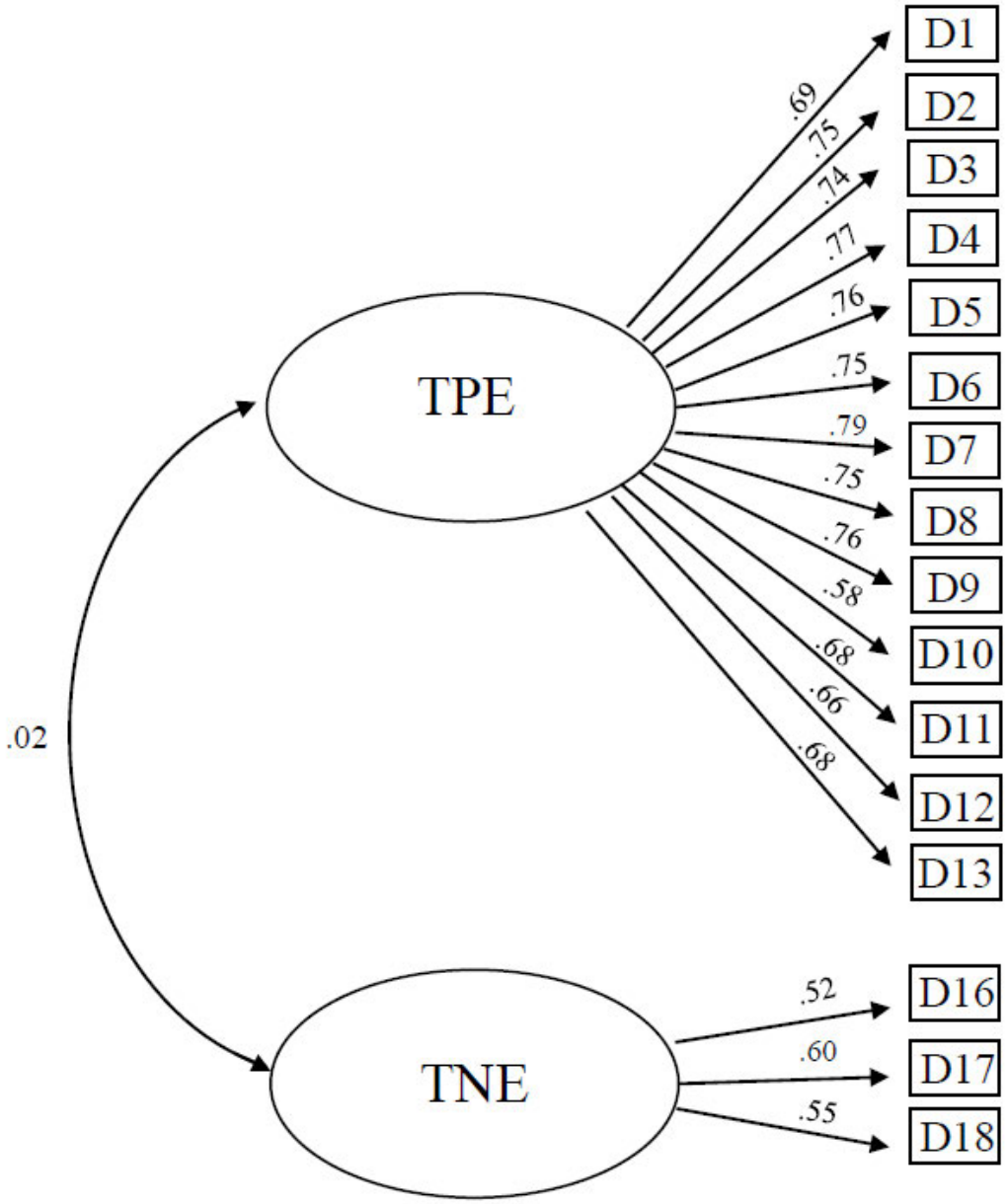
Rotation Method: VARIMAX rotation with Kaiser normalization

5.5.2 Confirmatory factor analysis of tourist emotions

Measurement model

After identifying the two-factor structure of tourist emotions, a CFA was conducted to test whether the structure is confirmed to be a valid sample. The results of the CFA show that the measurement model generally fits the observed data indicating an acceptable model fit (x^2/df

= 2.018, RMSEA = 0.062, Standardized RMR = 0.043, CFI = 0.947) (Table 23). As shown in Table 22 and Figure 10, the factor loadings in the CFA model range from 0.517 to 0.791. All the factor loadings in the CFA model vary slightly from their loadings in the EFA model. The largest gap between a latent variable's CFA loading and its EFA loading is 0.225. Among all 16 items that measure tourist emotion, 9 have loading variations of less than 0.05 indicating the CFA loadings generally correspond with the EFA loadings. The critical ratio (CR) associated with the CFA loading indicates whether loading coefficients are statistically significant. The CR scores are all above 3.29 and with *p*-values under 0.001 indicating that the CFA results in this phase confirm the two-factor underlying structure identified by the EFA.



Note: TPE=tourist positive emotions, TNE=tourist negative emotions

Figure 10: Tourist emotions measurement model (n=262)

Table 22: Confirmatory factor analysis on tourist emotions (sub-sample two, n=262)

Factor/item	Standardized. factor loading	CR	Squared multiple correlation (R^2)
Tourist positive emotions			
D1: I felt a sense of joy toward the destination.	.689		.475
D2: I felt a sense of pleasure toward the destination.	.749	11.325	.562
D3: I felt cheerful toward the destination.	.740	11.195	.548
D4: I felt a sense of delight toward the destination.	.770	11.619	.593
D5: I felt a sense of enthusiasm toward the destination.	.763	11.515	.582
D6: I felt a sense of affection toward the destination.	.748	11.311	.560
D7: I felt a sense of love toward the destination.	.791	11.906	.626
D8: I felt a sense of tenderness toward the destination.	.745	11.257	.554
D9: I felt warm-hearted toward the destination.	.755	11.411	.571
D10: I felt a sense of caring toward the destination.	.578	8.852	.334
D11: I felt fascinated about the destination.	.681	10.359	.464
D12: I felt a sense of inspiration toward the destination.	.661	10.069	.437
D13: I felt a sense of surprise toward the destination.	.683	10.375	.466
Tourist negative emotions			
D16: I felt a sense of regret toward the destination.	.517		.267
D17: I felt a sense of unhappiness toward the destination.	.602	4.216	.362
D18: I felt a sense of disappointment toward the destination.	.554	4.345	.307

Table 23: Measurement model fit summary of tourist emotions

Chi-square statistic (x^2)	*df*	x^2/df	*p* value	CFI	RMSEA	Standardized RMR
207.806	103	2.018	.000	.947	.063	.043

Construct validity

The construct validity of tourist emotion was assessed by examining convergent validity and discriminant validity with AVE values. The results are provided in Table 24. After calculation, the AVE values are 0.521 for tourist positive emotions, and 0.312 for tourist negative emotions. Obviously, the AVE value for tourist negative emotions does not meet the minimum requirement of 0.5.

The correlation between tourist positive emotions and tourist negative emotions was -0.022, far below 0.8, indicating the discriminant validity of the latent factors.

Reliability

Squared multiple correlations (SMCs) and CR coefficients were employed to test the reliability of the measurement model for tourist emotion. The SMC values for items D10, D16, D17 and D18 are below 0.4, indicating that these items are not highly reliable indicators of tourist emotion, while the SMC values of the other items are close to or over 0.5. Items D16, D17 and D18 describe tourist negative emotions. It has been suggested that any changes in a model need to be in accordance with the underlying theory and should not be based on the statistical output (Kline, 2010). The items are based on previous literature and were treated as necessary indicators of tourist emotion. The composite reliability value for tourist positive emotion is 0.934, which is over 0.7 indicating a reliable measurement. However, the CR value for negative tourist emotions (D16, D17 and D18) is 0.576 and does not meet the level required for reliability (Hair et al., 2011). Since the study has an exploratory component and negative emotion is a natural part of human emotion, all the items for negative tourist emotion are retained for subsequent tests despite their relatively low reliability.

Table 24: Composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and correlation of tourist emotion

	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE	TPE	TNE
TPE	.933	.934	.521	.721	
TNE	.601	.576	.312	-.022	.558

Note: Numbers in italics show the square root of the AVE, and numbers below the diagonal represent construct correlations. TPE=tourist positive emotions, TNE=tourist negative emotions

5.6 Measurement of tourist satisfaction

Descriptive statistics were calculated for items measuring tourist satisfaction using SPSS. The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 25. All items were found to have a mean score of over 5.0, indicating that respondents were generally satisfied with their experience in the destination.

Table 25: Means and standard deviations of tourist satisfaction items (n=524)

Item	Description	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
A3:	I am satisfied with my decision to visit Japan.	1	7	5.39	1.195
A2:	I feel very good about my visit to Japan.	1	7	5.33	1.190
A4:	I think the overall tour experience in Japan exceed my expectation.	1	7	5.26	1.232
A1:	Overall, I am satisfied with the tour experience in Japan.	1	7	5.23	1.283
A5:	The overall tour experience in Japan is close to the ideal tour experience.	1	7	5.23	1.196

Scale: 7=strongly agree, 1=strongly disagree

5.6.1 Exploratory factor analysis of tourist satisfaction

Using CPA with VARIMAX rotation, EFA was conducted on each of the sub samples. The KMO value of the data was 0.877 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at the 0.000 level, indicating a satisfactory result upon which to conduct the factor analysis. When implementing the EFA, a PCA was selected as the method of extraction. All the items measuring tourist satisfaction have loadings of over 0.40 which indicates a satisfactory level warranting further analysis. The factor explained 75.49% of the total variance and represents five items. Table 26 provides the factors, item loadings, accumulated variance, and the Cronbach's alpha.

Table 26: EFA output of tourist satisfaction (sub-sample one, n=262)

Latent and observed variables	**Factor loadings**	**Eigen value**	**Variance explained %**	**Cronbach's alpha**
Factor: tourist satisfaction		3.775	75.497	.918
A3: I am satisfied with my decision to visit Japan.	.922			
A4: I think the overall tour experience in Japan exceed my expectation.	.887			
A5: The overall tour experience in Japan is close to the ideal tour experience.	.866			
A2: I feel very good about my visit to Japan.	.850			
A1: Overall, I am satisfied with the tour experience in Japan.	.816			

KMO=0.877

Bartlett's test of sphericity (sig.000)
Extraction Method: PCA
Rotation Method: VARIMAX rotation with Kaiser Normalization
Note: TS=tourist satisfaction

5.6.2 Confirmatory factor analysis of tourist satisfaction

Table 27 presents the standardized factor loadings for tourist satisfaction in the CFA model which ranges from 0.678 to 0.914. The CFA loadings are similar to their corresponding EFA loadings, and the gap between a latent variable's CFA loading and its EFA loading ranges from 0.04 to 0.003. All fit indices are shown in Table 28. The CFI value is 0.969 and the standardized RMR value is 0.043 indicating an acceptable fit.

Table 27: Confirmatory factor analysis of tourist satisfaction (sub-sample two, n=262)

Factor/item	Standardized. factor loading	C.R.	Squared multiple correlation (R^2)
Tourist satisfaction			
A1: Overall, I am satisfied with the tour experience in Japan.	.678		.459
A2: I feel very good about my visit to Japan.	.810	11.867	.657
A3: I am satisfied with my decision to visit Japan.	.914	13.104	.835
A4: I think the overall tour experience in Japan exceed my expectation.	.877	12.697	.770
A5: The overall tour experience in Japan is close to the ideal tour experience.	.834	12.168	.696

Table 28: Measurement model fit summary of tourist satisfaction

Chi-Square statistic (x^2)	*df*	x^2/df	*p* value	CFI	RMSEA	Standardized RMR
609.813	391	1.560	.000	.969	.040	.043

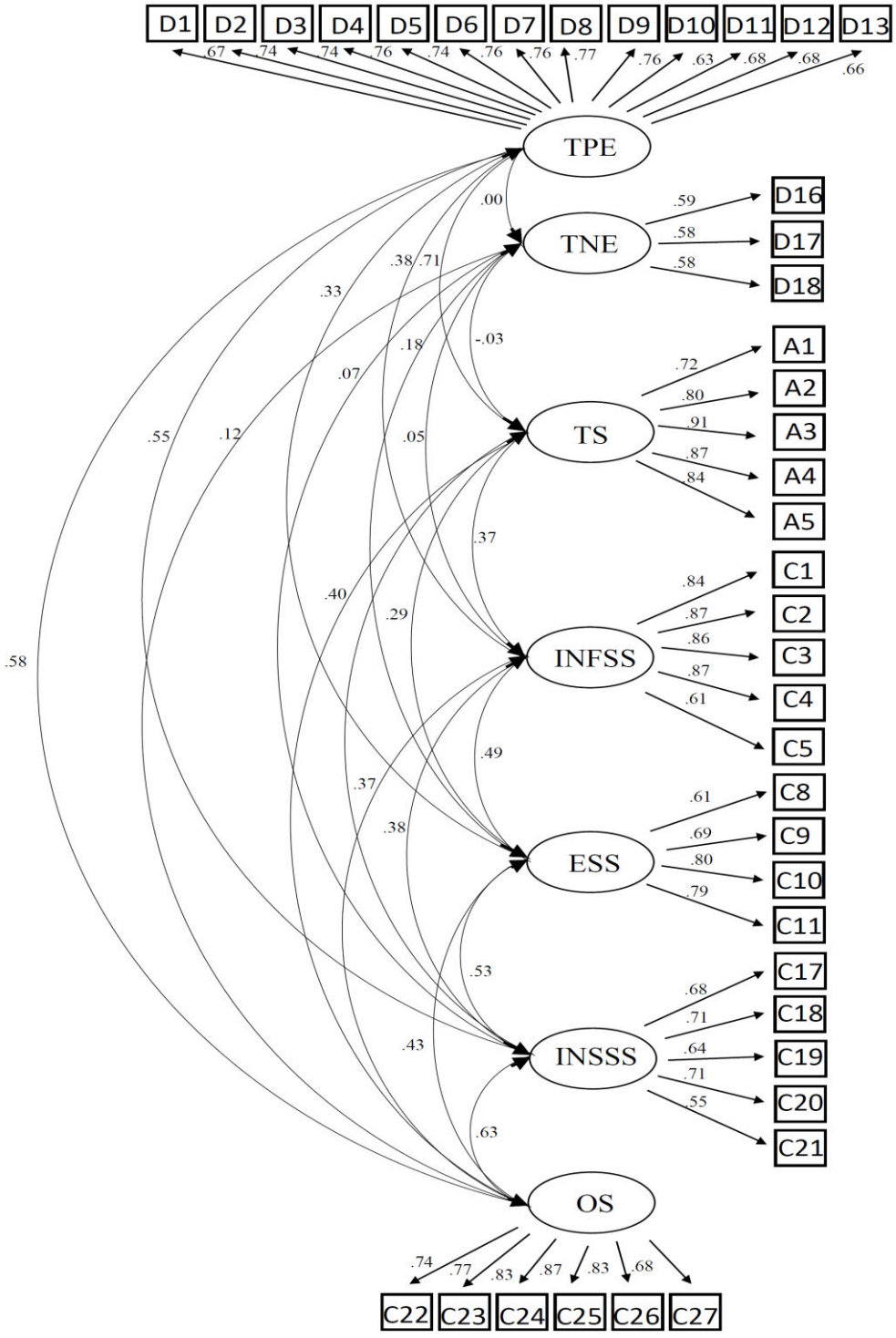
Construct validity and reliability

The calculated AVE value for tourist satisfaction is 0.683, which meets the construct validity requirement of more than 0.5. And the CR value is 0.914, suggesting the measurements are reliable being above 0.8.

5.7 Testing the overall measurement model

Following consolidation of the tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotion measurement models, all latent variables were incorporated into one complete measurement model for an overall assessment based on all the observed cases (n=524) (Figure 11 and Table 29). The overall chi-square value was found to be 1561.245, with 758 degrees of freedom. Both standardized RMR and RMSEA values are below 0.05. CFI and TLI values are all above 0.90, indicating a good fit with the data. GFI and NFI values are 0.866 and 0.881 respectively, which is close to 0.90, indicating an acceptable fit between the overall measurement model and the data (Table 30).

Standard factor loadings range from 0.545 to 0.911, all above 0.5, and are deemed significant with an associated critical ratio value above 3.29 (p<.001). All the factor loadings in the overall measurement model show a slight variation between their standardized values and the values in the individual measurement model. The gap between the standardized factor loading values in individual model and the overall model range from 0.001 to 0.068. As for the critical ratio values (t-values), the comparison between the overall model and the individual model show that all the values of critical ratio are higher than the corresponding values in the individual models.



Note: INFSS=informational social support, ESS=emotional social support, INSSS=instrumental social support, OS=online self-presentation TPE=tourist positive emotions, TNE=tourist negative emotions, TS=tourist satisfaction

Figure 11: Overall measurement model (n=524)

Table 29: Overall measurement model fit (n=524)

Factor/item	Standardized. factor loading	CR	Squared multiple correlation (R^2)
Informational social support			
C1: I turned to one of my WeChat friends for advice I really wanted when I was travelling.	.841		.516
C2: I got information from my WeChat friends to help me to understand things when I was travelling.	.868	24.850	.644
C3: My WeChat friends shared useful information about the travel when I was travelling.	.857	24.364	.829
C4: I got necessary information about the destination from my WeChat friends while I was traveling.	.874	25.140	.758
C5: I got advice from my WeChat friends about a crisis while I was travelling.	.606	14.940	.706
Emotional social support			
C11: My WeChat friends helped me to get my mind off my worries when I was travelling.	.792		.627
C10: My WeChat friends helped to relieve tension I felt when I was travelling.	.802	17.506	.643
C9: I shared my personal worries and fears with my WeChat friends and got advice.	.693	15.309	.480
C8: I expressed my anger to my WeChat friends and received sympathy.	.608	13.326	.370
Instrumental social support			
C21: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some personal problems at home when I was travelling.	.545		.297
C20: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some work-related problems when I was travelling.	.711	11.092	.505
C19: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to complete some of my work when I was travelling.	.643	10.486	.414
C18: I asked my WeChat friends to fill in for me when I was unable to do something.	.708	11.067	.501
C17: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to do something.	.679	10.822	.461

Online self-presentation			
C27: I didn't mind writing about the bad things that happened to me during travel on my Moments.	.676		.457
C26: When I updated my Moments on WeChat, I revealed my feelings during my travel.	.829	16.964	.687
C25: I wrote about travel experiences that happened to me when I updated my Moments on my WeChat.	.872	17.693	.761
C24: On my Moments, I wrote messages that portrayed me as a tourist during my travel.	.830	16.974	.688
C23: I posted photos in which I looked good on WeChat during my travel.	.773	15.963	.597
C22: I posted photos that showed I was travelling on WeChat.	.743	15.414	.551
Tourist positive emotions			
D1: I felt a sense of joy toward the destination.	.666		.443
D2: I felt a sense of pleasure toward the destination.	.739	15.306	.547
D3: I felt cheerful toward the destination.	.738	15.283	.545
D4: I felt a sense of delight toward the destination.	.761	15.688	.579
D5: I felt a sense of enthusiasm toward the destination.	.744	15.386	.553
D6: I felt a sense of affection toward the destination.	.764	15.742	.583
D7: I felt a sense of love toward the destination.	.764	15.744	.583
D8: I felt a sense of tenderness toward the destination.	.768	15.819	.590
D9: I felt warm-hearted toward the destination.	.761	15.700	.580
D10: I felt a sense of caring toward the destination.	.629	13.271	.396
D11: I felt fascinated about the destination.	.683	14.271	.466
D12: I felt a sense of inspiration toward the destination.	.683	14.282	.467
D13: I felt a sense of surprise toward the destination.	.662	13.881	.438
Tourist negative emotions			
D16: I felt a sense of regret toward the destination.	.585		.342
D17: I felt a sense of unhappiness toward the destination.	.576	6.822	.332
D18: I felt a sense of disappointment toward the destination.	.576	6.822	.332
Tourist satisfaction			
A1: Overall, I am satisfied with the tour experience in Japan.	.718		.516
A2: I feel very good about my visit to Japan.	.803	17.963	.644
A3: I am satisfied with my decision to visit Japan.	.911	20.360	.829

A4: I think the overall tour experience in Japan exceed my expectation.	.871	19.499	.758
A5: The overall tour experience in Japan is close to the ideal tour experience.	.841	18.823	.706

Table 30: Overall measurement model fit summary

Chi-square statistic (x^2)	*df*	x^2/df	*p* value	CFI	RMSEA	Standardized RMR
1561.245	758	2.060	.000	.935	.045 (low=.042, high=.048, p=.000)	.043

Construct Validity

The construct validity of all of the measures was then examined by assessing the AVE values. The results show that the AVE values in this model are 0.665 for tourist informational social support, 0.530 for tourist emotional social support, 0.624 for tourist online self-presentation, 0.521 for tourist positive emotions, and 0.691 for tourist satisfaction. All are above the value 0.5, indicating convergent validity. The AVE values for tourist instrumental social support and tourist negative emotions are 0.436 and 0.335 respectively, therefore failing to meet the validity requirements in the overall measurement model.

Table 31 presents the correlation matrix among the latent variables in the overall measurement model. The correlation values between paired latent variables ranged from 0.032 to 0.628, all of which are below 0.8, indicating the measurement model has an adequate discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2011). Discriminant validity was also examined by comparing the square root of the AVE values with the correlations (Table 31). The square root values of the AVE were all above the correlations that support discriminant validity.

Reliability

In the overall measurement model, the squared multiple correlations and composite reliability coefficients vary slightly from the individual model. CR values are 0.907 for tourist informational social support, 0.817 for tourist emotional social support, 0.793 for tourist instrumental social support, 0.908 for tourist online self-presentation, 0.934 for tourist positive emotions, 0.602 for tourist negative emotions, and 0.918 for tourist satisfaction

(Table 31). Except for the CR value of tourist negative emotion, which is just at the threshold value, all other CR values are above 0.7 indicating the overall measurement model is reliable.

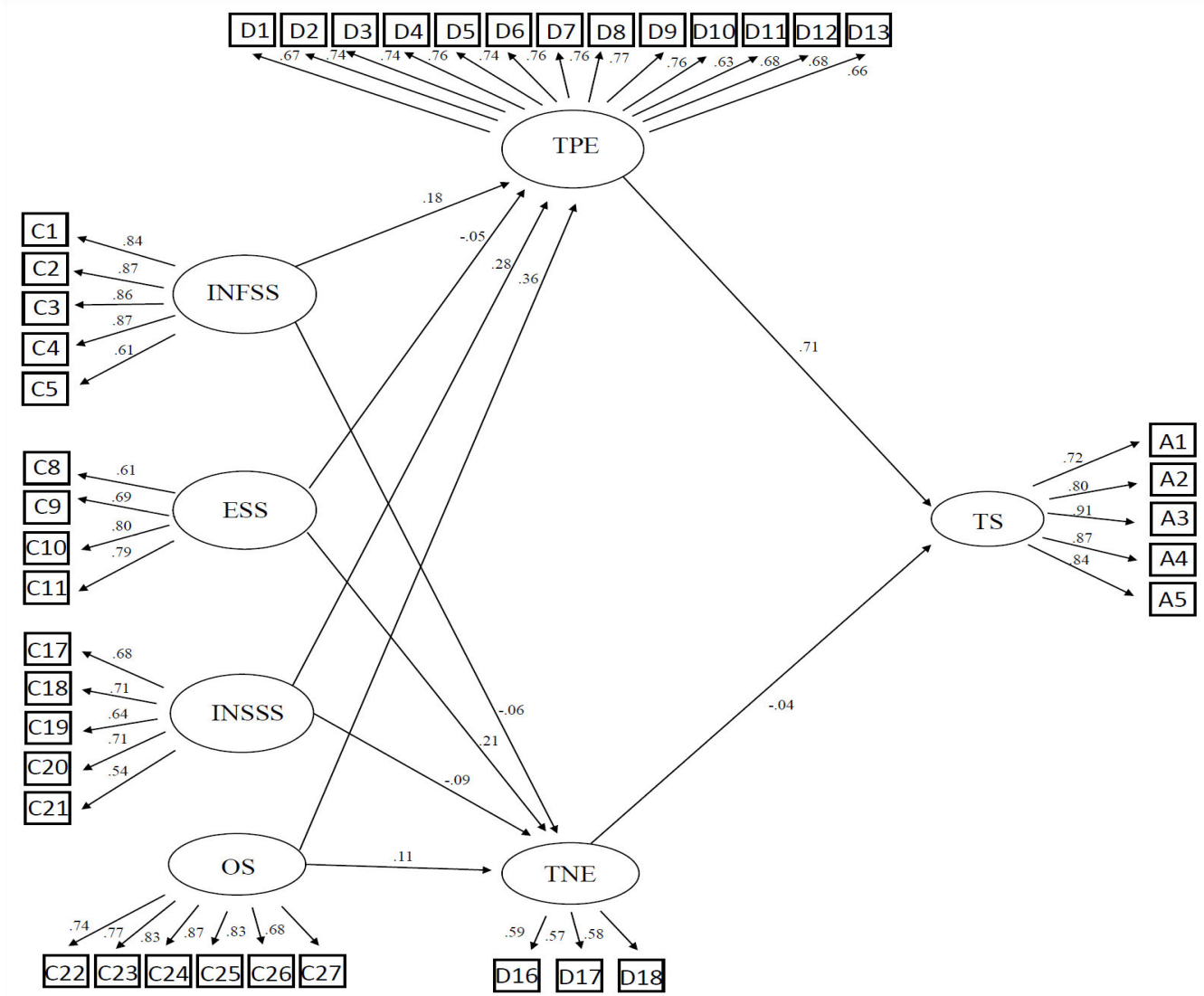
Table 31: Composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and correlation matrix of latent variables in the overall measurement model

	CR	AVE	INFSS	ESS	INSSS	OS	TPE	TNE	TS
INFSS	.907	.665	*.815*						
ESS	.817	.530	.485	*.728*					
INSSS	.793	.436	.382	.531	*.660*				
OS	.908	.624	.370	.427	.628	*.790*			
TPE	.934	.521	.383	.332	.545	.580	*.722*		
TNE	.602	.335	.050	.176	.073	.120	.003	*.579*	
TS	.918	.691	.367	.289	.405	.397	.711	-.032	*.831*

Note: Numbers in italics show the square root of the AVE, and numbers below the diagonal represent correlations. INFSS=informational social support, ESS=emotional social support, INSSS=instrumental social support, OS=online self-presentation, TPE=tourist positive emotions, TNE=tourist negative emotions, TS=tourist satisfaction

5.8 Testing the structural model

Since the CFA results indicate that the overall measurement model is acceptable, the structural model was tested with the entire sample (n=524). The results are described in Figure 12 and Table 32. According to the proposed conceptual framework of the study, the structural relations include: (1) the effect of tourist social media behaviour on tourist emotion, and (2) the effect of tourist emotion on overall tourist satisfaction. As conceptualized and verified in the previous analysis, tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotions are multidimensional and represented by more than one latent variable. The fit of the structural model is tested by maximum likelihood estimation using Amos 26. As shown in Table 33, the x^2/df (=3.063), RMSEA (=0.045), standardized RMR (=0.045), and CFI (=0.934) indicate an acceptable model fit. In the structural model, the values of standardized factor loadings, critical ratio (*t*-values), and squared multiple correlations are almost the same as the values in the overall measurement model, indicating that the measurement of each latent variable in the structural model is robust.



Note: INFSS=informational social support, ESS=emotional social support, INSSS=instrumental social support, OS=online self-presentation TPE=tourist positive emotions, TNE=tourist negative emotions, TS=tourist satisfaction

Figure 12: Structural model (n=524)

Table 32: Proposed structural model fit (n=524)

Factor/item	Standardized. factor loading	C.R.	Squared multiple correlation (R^2)
Informational social support			
C1: I turned to one of my WeChat friends for advice I really wanted when I was travelling.	.840		.706
C2: I got information from my WeChat friends to help me to understand things when I was travelling.	.868	24.797	.753
C3: My WeChat friends shared useful information about the travel when I was travelling.	.857	24.331	.735
C4: I got necessary information about the destination from my WeChat friends while I was traveling.	.874	25.093	.764
C5: I got advice from my WeChat friends about a crisis while I was travelling.	.606	14.936	.367
Emotional social support			
C11: My WeChat friends helped me to get my mind off my worries when I was travelling.	.791		.626
C10: My WeChat friends helped to relieve tension I felt when I was travelling.	.801	17.484	.642
C9: I shared my personal worries and fears with my WeChat friends and got advice.	.694	15.318	.481
C8: I expressed my anger to my WeChat friends and received sympathy.	.609	13.333	.370
Instrumental social support			
C21: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some personal problems at home when I was travelling.	.545		.297
C20: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some work-related problems when I was travelling.	.711	11.089	.505
C19: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to complete some of my work when I was travelling.	.643	10.480	.413
C18: I asked my WeChat friends to fill in for me when I was unable to do something.	.708	11.067	.501
C17: I asked my WeChat friends to help me to do something.	.679	10.823	.462

Online self-presentation			
C27: I didn't mind writing about the bad things that happened to me during travel on my Moments.	.676		.457
C26: When I updated my Moments on WeChat, I revealed my feelings during my travel.	.829	16.955	.687
C25: I wrote about travel experiences that happened to me when I updated my Moments on my WeChat.	.872	17.684	.761
C24: On my Moments, I wrote messages that portrayed me as a tourist during my travel.	.830	16.968	.688
C23: I posted photos in which I looked good on WeChat during my travel.	.772	15.954	.597
C22: I posted photos that showed I was travelling on WeChat.	.743	15.414	.552
Tourist positive emotions			
D1: I felt a sense of joy toward the destination.	.665		.443
D2: I felt a sense of pleasure toward the destination.	.739	15.290	.546
D3: I felt cheerful toward the destination.	.738	15.276	.545
D4: I felt a sense of delight toward the destination.	.760	15.673	.578
D5: I felt a sense of enthusiasm toward the destination.	.743	15.371	.553
D6: I felt a sense of affection toward the destination.	.763	15.725	.583
D7: I felt a sense of love toward the destination.	.763	15.724	.582
D8: I felt a sense of tenderness toward the destination.	.768	15.805	.590
D9: I felt warm-hearted toward the destination.	.761	15.682	.579
D10: I felt a sense of caring toward the destination.	.629	13.266	.396
D11: I felt fascinated about the destination.	.683	14.278	.467
D12: I felt a sense of inspiration toward the destination.	.684	14.294	.468
D13: I felt a sense of surprise toward the destination.	.662	13.885	.439
Tourist negative emotions			
D16: I felt a sense of regret toward the destination.	.594		.353
D17: I felt a sense of unhappiness toward the destination.	.566	6.788	.320
D18: I felt a sense of disappointment toward the destination.	.577	6.772	.333
Tourist satisfaction			
A1: Overall, I am satisfied with the tour experience in Japan.	.717		.515
A2: I feel very good about my visit to Japan.	.802	17.933	.644
A3: I am satisfied with my decision to visit Japan.	.911	20.329	.830
A4: I think the overall tour experience in Japan exceed my expectation.	.870	19.461	.757

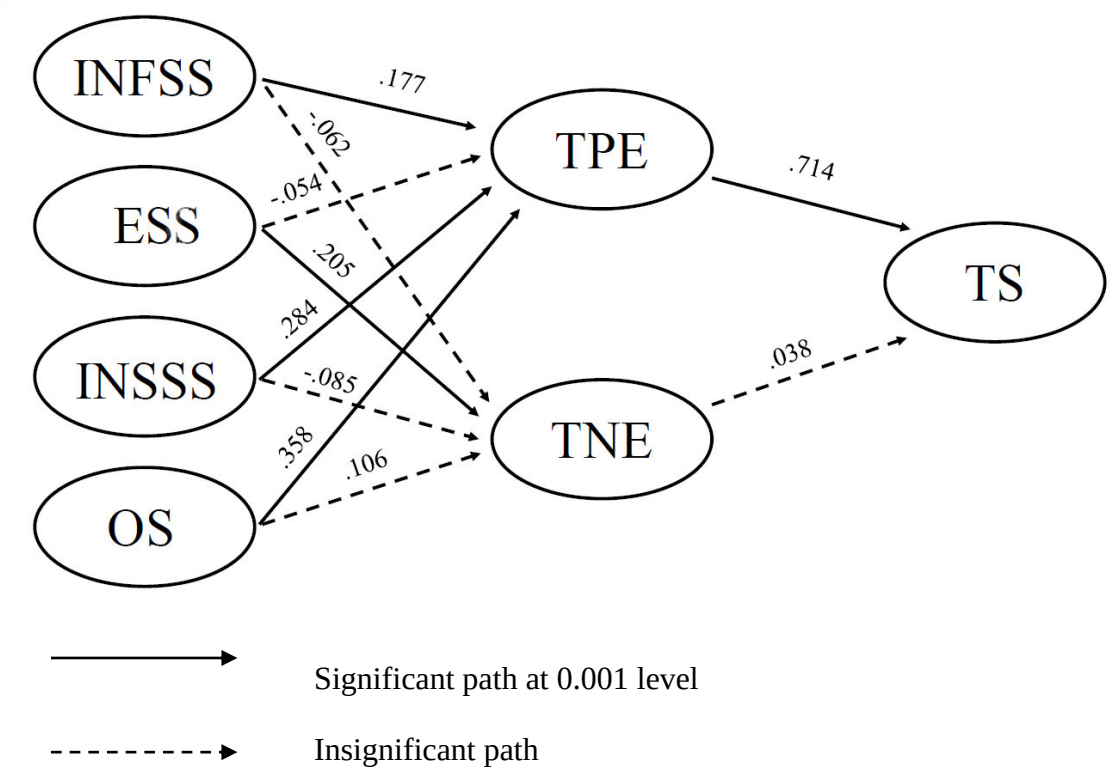
A5: The overall tour experience in Japan is close to the ideal tour experience.	.840	18.783	.706

Table 33: Overall structural model fit summary

Chi-square statistic (x^2)	*df*	x^2/df	*p* value	CFI	RMSEA	Standardized RMR
1573.056	763	2.062	.000	.934	.045 (low=.042, high=.048, p=.000)	.045

5.8.1 Path analysis and hypotheses testing

After the model fit was confirmed to be acceptable, the statistical significance of path coefficients among the variables was examined to test the hypotheses proposed in the theoretical framework. Table 34 shows the results of the hypotheses testing. Figure 13 shows the results with standardised path coefficients.



INFSS=informational social support, ESS=emotional social support, INSSS=instrumental social support, OS=online self-presentation TPE=tourist positive emotions, TNE=tourist negative emotions, TS=tourist satisfaction

Figure 13: Structural model with estimated path coefficients (n=524)

H1a: Informational online social support will increase tourist positive emotions.

The hypothesis was tested by studying the path coefficients between tourist informational online social support and tourist positive emotions. In the structural model, the standardised effect of tourist informational social support on tourist positive emotions is 0.177, $p<0.01$, indicating a strong positive relationship between the two variables. Therefore, hypothesis 1a is supported.

H1b: Informational online social support will decrease tourist negative emotions.

Hypothesis 1b examined the relationship between tourist informational online social support and tourist negative emotions. In the structural model, the standardised effect of tourist informational social support on tourist negative emotions is -0.062, $p=0.382$, suggesting the hypothesis is not supported.

H2a: Emotional online social support will increase tourist positive emotions.

This hypothesis was tested by studying the path coefficients between tourist emotional online social support and tourist positive emotions. In the structural model, the standardised effect of tourist emotional social support on tourist positive emotions is -0.054, $p=0.319$, suggesting that Hypothesis 2a is not supported.

H2b: Emotional online social support will decrease tourist negative emotions.

Hypothesis 2b examined the relationship between emotional online social support and tourist negative emotions. In the structural model, the standardised effect of tourist emotional social support on tourist negative emotions is 0.205, p=0.016, suggesting a positive effect between the two variables. That is, there is a significant increase in tourist negative emotion as a result of emotional online social support while travelling. However, the hypothesis indicates a negative effect between tourist emotional online social support and tourist negative emotions. Therefore, the hypothesis is not supported.

H3a: Instrumental online social support will increase tourist positive emotions.

The hypothesis was tested by studying the path coefficients between tourist instrumental online social support and tourist positive emotions. In the structural model, the standardised effect of tourist instrumental social support on tourist positive emotions is 0.284, $p<0.01$, indicating a strong positive relationship between the two variables. Therefore, Hypothesis 3a is supported in this study.

H3b: Instrumental online social support will decrease tourist negative emotions.

Hypothesis 3b examined the relationship between tourist instrumental online social support and tourist negative emotions. In the structural model, the standardised effect of tourist instrumental social support on tourist negative emotions is -0.085, $p=0.380$, suggesting the hypothesis is not supported.

H4a: Online self-presentation will increase tourist positive emotions.

The hypothesis was tested by studying the path coefficients between tourist online self-presentation and tourist positive emotions. In the structural model, the standardised effect of tourist online self-presentation on tourist positive emotions is 0.358, $p<0.01$, indicating a strong positive relationship between the two variables. Therefore, Hypothesis 4a is supported.

H4b: Online self-presentation will decrease tourist negative emotions.

Hypothesis 4b examined the relationship between tourist online self-presentation and tourist negative emotions. In the structural model, the standardised effect of tourist online self-presentation on tourist negative emotions is 0.106, $p=0.206$, suggesting the hypothesis is not supported.

H5a: Tourist positive emotions will increase tourist satisfaction.

The hypothesis was tested by studying the path coefficients between tourist positive emotions and tourist satisfaction. In the structural model, the standardised effect of tourist positive emotions on tourist satisfaction is 0.714, $p<0.01$, indicating a strong positive relationship between the two variables. Therefore, Hypothesis 5a is supported.

H5b: Tourist negative emotions will decrease tourist satisfaction.

The Hypothesis 5b examined the relationship between tourist negative emotions and tourist satisfaction. In the structural model, the standardised effect of tourist negative emotions on tourist satisfaction is -0.038, $p=0.381$, suggesting the hypothesis is not supported.

Table 34: Hypotheses testing results

Hypotheses	Standardized coefficient	*t*-value	*p*-value	Result
H1a: INFSS→TPE	.177	3.786	***	Supported
H1b: INFSS→TNE	-.062	-.875	.382	Not supported
H2a: ESS→TPE	-.054	-.996	.319	Not supported
H2b: ESS→TNE	.205	2.399	.016	Not supported
H3a: INSSS→TPE	.284	4.199	***	Supported
H3b: INSSS→TNE	-.085	-.878	.380	Not supported
H4a: OS→TPE	.358	6.043	***	Supported
H4b: OS→TNE	.106	1.266	.206	Not supported
H5a: TPE→TS	.714	12.246	***	Supported
H5b: TNE→TS	.038	-.876	.381	Not supported

Note: ***=p<0.01, INFSS=informational social support, ESS=emotional social support, INSSS=instrumental social support, OS=online self-presentation, TPE=tourist positive emotions, TNE=tourist negative emotions, TS=tourist satisfaction

5.9 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the quantitative data analysis. First, the chapter presented the demographic profile of participants for the quantitative study to identify the general characteristics of Chinese outbound tourists. Univariate and multivariate normalities were then examined before formal model testing. Individual measurement models for major research constructs were analysed first. The sample was randomly split into two groups. An EFA for each individual measurement model was conducted on one half of the sample to explore the underlying structure for constructs. And a CFA was conducted on the other half of the sample to evaluate whether the observed variables reflect the latent variables in the model. Corresponding to the proposed theoretical framework, four factors underlying the structure of tourist social media behaviour in the destination have been identified and two factors underlying the structure of tourist emotions are confirmed. Prior to testing the structural models with the entire sample, the overall measurement model was examined to confirm the model fit. Finally, the path coefficients and their statistical significance were studied to test the proposed hypotheses. An integrated discussion of the overall findings of the study is provided in the next chapter.

Chapter six: Discussion and conclusion

This study aimed to explore tourist social media behaviour and its relations with tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction. The study was conducted in the Chinese outbound tourism context in which social media is used (WeChat) in the outbound destination. This study adopted a mixed method approach. In the qualitative phase, Chinese outbound tourists who used WeChat during their trips were interviewed and the interview data was thematically analysed to identify tourist social media behaviour in the destination. In the quantitative phase, an online survey was conducted with Chinese tourists who used WeChat during their travel to Japan. Structural equation modelling was employed to analyse the survey data.

This chapter comprises a discussion of the study findings and a conclusion for the entire study. In the first part of the chapter, an overview of the study is provided. This is followed by a review and discussion of the research findings. The study objectives are then checked to ensure they have been achieved according to the research findings. The second part of the chapter addresses the theoretical contributions of the study to the literature and practical implications for industry. The third part of the chapter includes a discussion of the limitations of the present research and directions for future research. Finally, the chapter provides a summary of the conclusion of this study.

6.1 Research overview and review of the research findings

With the development of ICTs, social media is used intensively in everyday life. Tourism has also been significantly influenced by the emergence of social media. Tourists employ a variety of social media tools to search for information, to make trip decisions and to share travel stories and experiences (Leung et al., 2013). Scholars have studied social media behaviour in the context of tourism in its different phases. Social media has been used in pre-trip information searching (Xiang and Gretzel, 2010), during trip decision-making (Tussyadiah, 2016), and it is used to share experience in the post-trip stage (Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014). However, the review of the tourism literature on the subject revealed that social media behaviour in the destination and its impact on tourist emotion and overall satisfaction is still a relatively untouched area. This study aimed to 1) explore tourist actual social media behaviour in the destination in the context of Chinese outbound tourism; 2) investigate how their social media behaviour influences their positive and negative emotions;

3) examine how positive and negative tourist emotions impact upon overall tourist satisfaction with the tourism experience in the destination.

To achieve these research aims, the study adopted a mixed methods research design. Firstly, semi-structured interviews were carried out to explore Chinese outbound tourists' social media behaviour in the destination. Twenty Chinese residents with outbound travel experience in the previous six months who used the social media application (WeChat) while travelling overseas were selected for interview. Thematic analysis revealed that Chinese outbound tourist who use social media in the destination receive informational, emotional, and instrumental social support, and present themselves online. Based on the qualitative results and previous research findings, the quantitative study was carried out to collect numerical data to examine the relationship between the social media behaviour (informational, emotional and instrumental social support, and online self-presentation) of Chinese outbound tourists and positive and negative tourist emotion, as well as the relationship between positive and negative tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction. Following the pilot test, the finalized version of the survey was distributed via a popular Chinese online survey website (*wenjuanxing*) from August 2017 to January 2018. A total of 524 usable responses were subjected to data analysis.

Data were analysed using both IBM SPSS 24 and Amos 26. The data was first screened to check whether it contains any violation of univariate and multivariate normalities. Reliability analysis was then conducted on each measurement scale of the central research constructs. Before testing the individual measurement models of the research constructs, the entire sample was randomly split into two sub-samples using SPSS. Each sub-sample had 262 cases and was named sub-sample one or sub-sample two. Sub-sample one was used for EFA to identify the underlying structures of the constructs and sub-sample two was used for CFA to confirm the underlying structures and develop the measurement models. The findings from both the qualitative and the quantitative phases of the study jointly establish the multidimensional structure of tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotion, while tourist satisfaction was conceptualised as a unidimensional construct. The exploratory phase identified and confirmed four dimensions of tourist social media behaviour: 1) informational online social support, 2) emotional online social support, 3) instrumental online social support, and 4) online self-presentation which were consistent with the qualitative findings. Two dimensions of tourist emotion—positive and negative—were verified and confirmed.

The overall measurement model was tested with all 524 cases to check for validity and reliability and to calculate correlations among all the dimensions. The overall measurement model achieved a good model fit. Subsequently, the structural model was identified and found to fit the data well. Finally, path coefficients in the structural model were examined to test the hypotheses.

The analysis of the empirical data on the proposed model revealed the following key findings: (1) informational social support, instrumental social support, and online self-presentation have a positive effect on tourist positive emotions; (2) emotional social support does not have an influence on tourist positive emotions; (3) informational social support, instrumental social support and online self-presentation do not influence tourist negative emotions; (4) emotional social support has a positive effect on tourist negative emotions; (5) tourist positive emotions have a positive effect on tourist satisfaction; (6) and tourist negative emotions do not have an influence on tourist satisfaction.

6.2 Discussion

The findings of this research are discussed in three parts below. The first part discusses the nature of tourist social media use in the destination. The second part focuses on the effects of tourist social media behaviour on tourists' emotions. In the last part, the effect of tourists' emotions on tourist satisfaction is discussed.

6.2.1 Social media behaviour

Social media behaviour has been widely researched in tourism studies (Buhalis and Law, 2008; Williams et al., 2012; Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014). Although there has been considerable research on tourist social media behaviour in the pre-trip and the post-trip phases (Sedera et al., 2017; Xiang and Gretzel, 2010; Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014), no widely-agreed upon understanding of tourist social media behaviour during the trip in the tourist destination in the context of Chinese outbound tourism has so far been provided. Since tourists prefer to source information from people in their social circle rather than from strangers, the suggestions, recommendations and experiences of others on social media become major resources for individuals in the pre-trip planning stage (Ayeh et al., 2013; Bilgihan et al., 2016; Hudson and Thal, 2013a; Munar and Jacobsen, 2014; Schroeder and Pennington-Gray, 2015; Tanford and Montgomery, 2015). In the post-trip stage, researchers argue that tourists may share their travel experiences on social media platforms to seek confirmation and enjoyment from their

social circle (Kang and Schuett, 2013; Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017; Oliveira et al., 2020). Some researchers suggest that the impact of social media on the tourism industry can be seen through two dimensions—before travel and after travel (Oliveira et al., 2020), and investigations have focused on the differences between tourists' pre-trip and post-trip social media behaviour (Bae et al., 2017).

However, the findings from both qualitative and the quantitative phases of this study indicate that Chinese outbound tourists use social media intensively during their travel and their social media experience becomes an indispensable part of their travel experience. The findings of the qualitative research indicate that tourists value having access to social media when travelling in an outbound destination. The participants of the qualitative study revealed that social media experience is an important part of their total travel experience. All the participants interviewed said they confirmed possible means of accessing social media in an international destination before their departure. Previous social psychological studies suggest that the more a behaviour is exercised in a stable context, the more entrenched and habitual the behaviour becomes, and the more predictive it is of future behaviour (Wood and Neal, 2007). Individuals who use social media in a stable context, such as using social media in their residential environment, form a pattern of social media usage in their daily behaviour. Once a social media habit is formed, users tend to appreciate the advantages it provides and this influences their future social media behaviour (Hu et al., 2018). The findings of this study confirm the findings of Hu et. (2018). The more entrenched users become in their everyday use of social media, the more likely they are to use social media when away from their home environment. The quantitative phase of the study revealed that the frequency of posting on the social media platform increased during tourists' stay in the destination even though they might spend less overall time using the social media application.

In this study, tourist social media behaviour was defined based on both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study and is conceptualised as a multidimensional construct consistent with the pre-defined dimensions generated from the literature review. Most previous research conceptualizes tourist social media behaviour as a unidimensional construct (Chung and Koo, 2015; Hudson et al., 2015; Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017; Munar and Jacobsen, 2014; Sotiriadis, 2017b). The difference in the two may originate in the different stages of travel that form the focus of the studies. As previously mentioned, in the pre-trip stage, scholars tend to understand tourist social media behaviour in terms of information search (Chung and Koo, 2015; Xiang and Gretzel, 2010); and in the post-trip stage, tourist

social media behaviour is understood as the sharing of tourism experience (Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017). Since tourism related activities happen in the destination, social media behaviour may be more complex during travel. Due to the widespread use of smart phones, and the development of telecommunications infrastructure in most tourism destinations, tourist social media behaviour previously associated with the pre-trip and the post-trip stages is likely to manifest in the destination itself.

The four-factor structure underlying social media behaviour among Chinese outbound tourists in the destination consists of informational, emotional, and instrumental social support, and online self-presentation. According to the mean values, online self-presentation is the most common tourist social media behaviour in the destination, followed by seeking information and then emotional social support. Instrumental social support was found to be the least common tourist social media behaviour in the destination.

The first key finding from both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study supports the argument that engaging in online self-presentation is the most common social media behaviour of tourists in the destination. The results of the two phases also indicate that the frequency with which tourists present themselves on social media increases during travel. Tourists share travel experiences by writing travel stories, revealing their feelings, posting photos or videos to emphasise their identity as tourists during travel. The qualitative phase of the study suggests that tourists are most likely to share photos of food and scenic spots. However, their attitudes toward sharing self-portrait photographs or selfies on social media appear to be polarised. Some respondents in the study claimed that they enjoyed posting selfies as tourists and cared about managing their impression on the social media platform; while others suggested they disliked sharing photos with their own image. Gender, age and personality may influence selfie posting on social media. Previous studies suggest that in China female adolescents and young adult women are more likely to prefer to post selfies on social networking sites (Niu et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2018). Other studies suggest that searching for information, or exchanging ideas, opinions, news, and experiences, is the initial motive for social media use (Chung and Koo, 2015; Xiang et al., 2015; Xiang and Gretzel, 2010). The difference may be explained by examining tourist social media behaviour at different stages of travel. Some studies suggest that social media provides tourists with information which influences their travel-planning or decision-making in the pre-trip stage (Chung and Koo, 2015). Although seeking informational social support has also been identified as a major social media behaviour in the destination, as is further discussed in the

following section, this study suggests that tourists are more likely to present themselves through online sharing. Additionally, the specific characteristics of social media platforms may be relevant in explaining differences in findings. It should be noted that most previous studies investigate social media platforms with public accessibility or at least limited public accessibility, such as TripAdvisor or Facebook. The social media platform adopted in this study is WeChat, which is essentially a closed social networking site. Social networking sites appear to be an ideal platform in which individuals can engage in self-presentation through the creation and management of impressions (Whitty, 2008).

Moreover, the qualitative results of this study reveal that although tourists present themselves through sharing their travel experiences in the destination, they seldom share their travel experience or travel-related information once they have returned home. The findings therefore challenge previous studies which identify sharing travel experiences on social media as key post-trip stage activities (Bae et al., 2017; Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017). The development of more sophisticated technological formats, tools and platforms contributes greatly to this change. With the wide use of smartphones and the development of social media platforms, tourists can easily present themselves by taking photos, recording videos, editing texts and real-time sharing. In doing so, tourists report that social media engagement adds to their enjoyment of the travel experience. Participants also expressed the desire to engage with contacts while they are away from their home environment. By presenting themselves on social media, tourists get likes and comments from their contacts while they are still travelling. Tourists also keep a record of their travel experience on social media for reminiscing purposes enabling them to relive the travel experience and its associated emotions.

Secondly, the qualitative and quantitative results reveal that tourists get informational support by using social media in the destination. Tourists interact with their social media contacts to collect information about the destination and they make travel-related decisions based on this information. Previous literature on the pre-trip stage, has shown that individuals search for information about the destination on social media to help them to make travel plans (Nezakati et al., 2015; Xiang and Gretzel, 2010; Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014). By contrast, this study finds that tourists are more likely to seek informational support to solve problems, to avoid a potential travel crisis, and to make short-term decisions in real time during the travel consuming period in the destination. When travelling in an unfamiliar outbound destination, tourists may seek informational social media support to help them to understand the

destination and to avoid risk. For example, Schroeder and Pennington-Gray (2015) report that tourists use social media to seek information when a crisis occurs during travel. In this sense, social media has transformed the tourism industry into an intense informational searching pattern (Xiang et al., 2015). Social media platforms enable users to exchange information among members. It is a useful tool that, like a search engine, helps tourists to locate the latest information about the travel and to expand their knowledge about the destination. Since the travel-related information gleaned on social media is based on tourists own experience, tourists are more likely to collect information from their social media contacts. It should also be noted that the social media platform adopted in the study, WeChat, is a closed social networking site. Therefore, information shared by acquaintances is more credible and can be accessed anytime and anywhere.

Thirdly, the findings of both phases of this study identified seeking emotional social support as another social media behaviour in the destination. Since social media might fulfill a need of social belongingness, individuals use social media to discuss their problems when coping with particular stressors (Cole et al., 2017). Accordingly, in the present research, participants viewed social media as a venue in which they can relieve the tension, fears, and worries that can arise during travel. When tourists are physically away from home, and particularly when they are in an international destination, they are more likely to continue to engage with their established relationships based in their residential environment using social media. This sense of feeling together can help to make the travel environment less stressful. The findings of this research confirm those of White and White (2007) who argue that easy and frequent contact with friends and family members through social media brings tourists a feeling of being simultaneously at home while being away. The interview participants claimed that social media is the key means by which they contact their friends, colleagues, family and acquaintances during their outbound travels. They also mentioned that contact with important relationships from home helped them feel relaxed. The likes and comments received from their social media contacts also enhanced their emotional engagement with the destination. At the same time, the qualitative results indicate that tourists feel anxious and upset when they fail to connect with contacts on WeChat and feel they cannot rely on this social support.

Finally, the findings from both phases of this study suggest that tourists use social media to seek instrumental social support. The role of instrumental social support seeking through social media in the tourism context has seldom been discussed in previous studies. In this study, the mean value for instrumental social support ranges from 4.06 to 4.66, sitting just

above neutral, indicating that seeking instrumental support is not a common tourist social media behaviour. However, the interview data in this study suggest that tourists intentionally seek instrumental social support from their social media contacts to solve actual problems while travelling in an outbound destination. Notably, some scholars emphasize the transfer of materials or goods in their definitions of instrumental social support. For example, in Chen and Choi's study (2011), they utilize items like 'seek articles, materials, free copies of software, movies from others' to measure instrumental social support. The results of this study show that tourists seek instrumental social support focused on asking their social media contacts to complete work at home such as to fill in for them or to do something for them while they are travelling in the outbound destination. In the new era, face-to-face interactions in the workplace are decreasing significantly due to the adoption of electronic interaction tools (e.g. instant messaging) even in open plan offices (Bernstein and Turban, 2018). With the wide use of smartphones, more and more people feel obligated to stay connected to work even during non-working hours such as when on a vacation (Chen et al., 2018a). In China, WeChat is used widely in the workplace, therefore, it enables tourists to continue their electronic work interactions despite time and spatial boundaries. The interviews undertaken in this study revealed that once personal or work-related problems are solved with the assistance of social media contacts, the level of engagement with the destination increases and brings more positive affirmation of the travel experience. Admittedly, there is also the recent trend toward 'digital-free tourism' (DFT), in which access to ICTs is limited in order to engage with the travel experience (Li et al., 2018b). For instance, some island destinations make DFT a selling point. However, in this study, none of the interviewees indicated that they would like to be isolated from social media during their outbound travels. Cultural or mode of travel differences may explain tourists' different attitudes toward connecting or disconnecting with social media while travelling. Even in the destination, some built-in functions of WeChat provide instrumental social support to tourists. For example, the function of location-sharing makes it easy for tourists to find their fellow tourists in an outbound destination. In 2017 WeChat developed a mini program function which allows nearly all applications to be used on the WeChat platform without download and installation. Therefore, enterprises, governments, media and organizations can easily provide services through the WeChat platform. In the destination, tourists can book tickets, hotels and other services by using mini programs which could be considered an instrumental social support

behaviour. Therefore, this research considers seeking instrumental support to be an important social media behaviour.

6.2.2 Tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotion toward the destination

Emotions play a central role in defining memorable experiences and have received unprecedented recognition within the tourism context (Tung and Ritchie, 2011). Tourist emotions have been widely researched in a range of different tourist settings (Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous, 2013; Chang, 2008; Hosany and Gilbert, 2010; Prayag et al., 2013; Prayag et al., 2017; Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007). In the pre-travel stage, emotions play a significant role in tourist motivation and in the decision-making process (Goossens, 2000; Chuang, 2007). In the post-travel stage, emotions affect tourist satisfaction (Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007), trust and commitment (Han and Jeong, 2013), and behavioural intentions (Bigné et al., 2005). Previous research has shown that people develop relationships with places and have emotional responses to their immediate environments (Farber and Hall, 2017; Hidalgo and HernÁNdez, 2001). This study provides empirical evidence of tourist emotions toward the destination. Since individuals aim to seek pleasurable experiences through travel, they generally have more positive emotions than negative emotions (Nawijn, 2011). Thus, tourist positive emotions have been a subject of great attention from tourism scholars (Chang et al., 2020; Io, 2017; Mitas et al., 2012a; Mitas et al., 2012b). Although negative emotions are evoked during travel and are a part of the tourism experience (Baumeister et al., 2007; Han and Jeong, 2013; Kang et al., 2012), the role of negative emotions is underexplored in the tourism literature (Nawijn and Biran, 2019), even though it is argued that individuals have more positive emotions whilst negative emotions have a stronger effect on their behaviour (Baumeister et al., 2007). More importantly, in the study, the qualitative results indicate that tourists do encounter negative emotions, such as disappointment or displeasure toward the destination. To get a full range of sampling of tourists' emotional responses, both positive and negative tourist emotions toward the destination were investigated in the study.

The DES was adapted from Prayag, Hosany, and Odeh (2013). Originally, the DES was developed by Hosany and Gilbert (2010) to measure the diversity and intensity of tourists' emotional responses in relation to their destination experience. To realize a balanced sampling of tourist emotion, tourists' negative emotions were included in the scale (Prayag et al., 2013). According to the quantitative data, tourist emotion was operationalized as a two-

dimensional construct: tourist positive emotion and tourist negative emotion, which was consistent with the conceptualized framework of this study. In general, few respondents experienced negative emotions during their travels.

Concern has been raised about the effect of social media on the tourism industry (Huertas, 2018; Nezakati et al., 2015; Schroeder and Pennington-Gray, 2015; Sotiriadis, 2017b) and a few studies have examined tourist emotions towards destinations (Hosany et al., 2015; Prayag et al., 2013), but the literature examining the relationship between tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotion remains scarce. This study, therefore, contributes to the literature by testing this relationship within a structural model. It was found that the four tourist social media behaviour dimensions identified by the study had various effects on tourist positive and negative emotions.

The quantitative results provided partial support for the hypothesis that tourist social media behaviour positively influences tourist positive emotions. In this study, hypotheses H1a, H3a, and H4a posited that getting informational social support (H1a), instrumental social support (H3a), and engaging in online self-presentation on social media (H4a) will have a positive influence on tourist positive emotions toward the destination. That is, through getting travel-related information, perceiving tangible and enacted support, and engaging in self-presentation activity on social media, tourists will have more positive emotional responses toward the destination. The quantitative results are in accordance with the findings of the qualitative phase of the study in which participants explained that the use of social media enhances their emotional experience toward the destination. The results are similar to the findings of an empirical study by Kim and Fesenmaier (2017) since three out of four dimensions of tourist social media behaviour suggest a positive effect on tourist positive emotions.

Contrary to theoretical predictions, the results of the study reveal that three of the four identified tourist social media behaviours—informational social support, instrumental social support and online self-presentation—have no effect on tourist negative emotions toward the destination. Thus, the proposed hypotheses H1b, H3b and H4b that tourist social media behaviour will decrease tourist negative emotion is not supported by the data. This finding is interesting since it empirically supports the finding that use of social media can increase tourist positive emotions but does not decrease tourist negative emotions toward a destination. However, a previous study which adopted both positive and negative emotions

found that the use of social media increases positive emotions while decreasing negative emotions (Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017).

This inconsistency may be caused by the different research contexts. Some previous studies focus on sharing positive experiences only. In Kim and Fesenmaier (2017) tourist social media behaviour is conceptualised as a unidimensional construct, merely including sharing tourism experience using social media after the trip. This study stressed the investigation of more general tourist social media behaviour including both positive and negative experiences. For instance, item C5 'I got advice from my WeChat friends about a crisis when I was travelling', item C8 'I expressed my anger to my WeChat friends and received sympathy', and item C27 'I didn't mind writing about bad things that happened to me during the travel on Moments' showed tourist negative experience during travel. Moreover, in the study by Kim and Fesenmaier (2017), social media users are compared with non-users or having a sharing experience is compared with not having a sharing experience. This study focuses on tourists who used social media in the destination and non-users were excluded from the study. In addition, the data of the study were collected at the end of the trip on tourists' way back home to enquire their overall emotion toward the destination. Although as the qualitative results suggested tourists rise negative emotions to the destination in some circumstances, their negative emotions may not last to the end of the journey. Also, the methodologies adopted in the studies may lead to the different conclusions. The measures used to capture emotions in this study focus on tourists' emotional responses towards the destination, while most existing research studies emotions in terms of consumer psychology which is applied to the field of tourism.

Although the findings are inconsistent with previous studies in the tourism context, they may find support in the social psychology literature. It has been reported that individuals are more likely to turn to their interpersonal connections on social media platforms for social support in the absence of trusted support networks (Cole et al., 2017; Drouin et al., 2018; Lu and Hampton, 2017; McDougall et al., 2016; Sagioglou and Greitemeyer, 2014). However, findings on the effects of social media use on emotional consequences vary. Some research suggests that the higher the level of social support people perceive they gain from social media, the lower the level of depressive thoughts and feelings they report (Cole et al., 2017). In contrast, scholars have also found that social media is a source of social support which can generate negative emotions (e.g., stress, anxiety or depression) (Drouin et al., 2018; McDougall et al., 2016; Sagioglou and Greitemeyer, 2014). These findings indicate that the

more hours individuals spend on social media per day, and the more social media related activities they engage in, the more negative emotions they report. An interesting finding of this study is that emotional social support from social media has no effect on positive tourist emotions (H2a). That is, emotional social support does not induce positive tourist emotions. In this study, the construct social support was conceptualised as possessing multiple dimensions to differentiate various types of support. Prior tourism studies generally conceptualised social support as a unidimensional construct (Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013; Namho et al., 2017). The finding of this study challenges prior findings which claim that emotional social support has a significant effect on emotional outcomes in other contexts (Cohen and Wills, 1985; Jacobson et al., 2017). Scholars in the literature of psychology have discussed whether emotional social support is particularly important in protecting against psychological distress (Jacobson et al., 2017). Psychological distress generally refers to a stressful life event, such as loss of a family member. Since the consumption of a tourism product is generally a pleasurable experience, it can be assumed that tourists generally do not encounter such extreme stressors during their travels. This may explain the finding that emotional social support during travel does not lead to an increase in positive emotion. In addition, the findings of this research indicate that getting emotional social support does not decrease negative tourist emotion (H2b). The research reveals that getting emotional social support may increase negative tourist emotion toward the destination. Tourists get emotional comfort from their WeChat friends to relieve their worries and tensions during travel. The behaviour may make them feel more connected and dependent on friends and family at home. As a result, they may feel a sense of regret, unhappiness and disappointment toward the destination. Scholars argue that social media, as a medium of social support, can also be stress-inducing (Drouin et al., 2018). Negative outcomes may also come from a sense of wasting time and not having done anything meaningful outside of social media use (Sagioglou and Greitemeyer, 2014), evoking a feeling of envy (Krasnova et al., 2015), and increasing feelings of loneliness (Lim and Kim, 2018). Similarly, tourists may feel lonelier and miss their friends and family more after receiving emotional social support from their social media contacts, thereby provoking negative emotions toward the destination.

6.2.3 The effect of tourist emotion on tourist satisfaction

It is generally recognized that satisfaction is influenced by the social-psychological state a tourist brings to a site including emotions, mood, disposition, personality traits and needs

(Faullant et al., 2011; Gao et al., 2017; Hosany et al., 2017; Huynh Anh Thu et al., 2018; Zhenshan et al., 2019). The relationship between tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction has been studied extensively within tourism studies (Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous, 2013; del Bosque and Martín, 2008; Chang, 2008; De Rojas and Camarero, 2008; Hosany and Prayag, 2013; Prayag et al., 2017; Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007). This study examined overall tourist satisfaction with the tourism experience in the destination and adopted the measurements used in previous literature (Assaker et al., 2011; Fornell et al., 1996; Lee et al., 2014).

The findings of this study confirm a positive relationship between positive tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction, consistent with previous studies (Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous, 2013; Han and Jeong, 2013; Huynh Anh Thu et al., 2018; Prayag et al., 2013; Sharma and Nayak, 2018; Su and Hsu, 2013; Zhenshan et al., 2019). Some previous studies only include positive tourist emotions in their examination of the impact of tourist emotion on tourist satisfaction (Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous, 2013; Huynh Anh Thu et al., 2018; Sharma and Nayak, 2018). For instance, Sharma and Nayak (2018) employ the DES (Hosany and Gilbert, 2010) with three exclusive dimensions of emotion (joy, love and positive surprise). Sharma and Nayak examine the impact of tourist emotions on satisfaction in the context of wellness (yoga) tourism. They argue that wellness tourists involved in activities such as yoga tended, in general, to recall positive emotions and to ignore negative emotions and experiences (Sharma and Nayak, 2018). Similarly, Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous (2013) examined the relationship between customers' emotions and customers' satisfaction with their experience at a ski resort using the Consumption Emotion Set (CES) (Richins, 1997) which only includes three dimensions of positive emotion (joy, peacefulness and surprise).

In tourism research, only a limited number of studies investigate the impact of both positive and negative emotions on tourist satisfaction. Recently, prioritizing positive emotions in tourism studies has been criticised by researchers (e.g., Nawijn and Biran, 2019). This is to be expected because tourism is basically engrossed in hedonic activities and is more likely to elicit positive emotions. Therefore, tourist emotion studies have predominantly focused on positive emotions. However, as a basic element of human psychological existence, emotion can be positive or negative and can be felt more or less intensely by individuals (Izard, 2013). Although tourists may feel more positive emotions (M=4.88) towards a destination during travel, negative emotions (M=3.35) are also likely to arise in the travel context.

Unlike the rich body of work that confirms the relationship between positive emotion and satisfaction, findings on the relationship between negative emotion and satisfaction vary.

Some studies in marketing research suggest that negative emotion has a significant impact on customer satisfaction (Diane and Hans, 2002), while other studies report no effect of negative emotion on satisfaction (van Dolen et al., 2004; Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). However, in the tourism context, previous studies confirm a negative effect of negative tourist emotion on tourist satisfaction (Hosany et al., 2017; Su and Hsu, 2013; Zhenshan et al., 2019) and no findings are consistent with the findings of this study which suggest that negative tourist emotion has no effect on tourist satisfaction. This result therefore challenges traditional understandings of the relationship of the two constructs tourist negative emotion and satisfaction in tourism studies.

This study found that tourist negative emotion toward the destination does not impact on tourist satisfaction which is inconsistent with previous findings in tourism studies. Most studies, including those which use a bi-dimensional customer emotion (negative and positive) measure, suggest that customers negative emotion decreases satisfaction (Han and Jeong, 2013; Price et al., 1995; Su and Hsu, 2013; Wirtz et al., 2000; Wong, 2004; Zhenshan et al., 2019). For example, Su and Hsu (2013) who use the DES conclude that tourists who experience negative emotions during their travel tend to report lower levels of satisfaction. Zhenshan et al. (2019) also suggest that negative tourist emotion negatively effects satisfaction.

Although a few previous studies in marketing confirm the finding of this study that negative emotions do not influence satisfaction (van Dolen et al., 2004; Westbrook and Oliver, 1991), little research in tourism accords with the present study in finding that negative tourist emotion has no effect on tourist satisfaction. Westbrook and Oliver's study (1991) reports that moderate negative emotions are tolerated to some extent by customers and may not produce dissatisfaction. In the tourism context, Lee et al. (2008) come to a similar conclusion, observing a negative relationship between emotion and satisfaction. They argue that consumers attending big events or festivals expect some degree of hassle and inconvenience which explains why negative emotions do not necessarily influence satisfaction significantly (Lee et al., 2008). A logical explanation for the insignificant impact of negative emotion toward the destination on tourist satisfaction is that travellers tend to be more tolerant in other countries. One is not familiar with the local customs, values and behaviours, therefore, some moderate level of negative experience might be tolerated and have limited influence on judgements about overall satisfaction.

The different conceptualisation of tourist emotions used in this study compared to previous studies might also offer some explanation of the inconsistent findings. In this study, tourist emotion refers to positive and negative emotional responses toward the destination as captured in the DES. In Zhenshan et al. (2019) tourist emotion is conceptualised as emotions in relation to museum images, and the study adopts a different measurement called the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). And in Su and Hsu's study (2013), the Mehrabian-Russell model is adopted including three negative emotions (angry, bored and annoyed) to measure tourists' emotional responses towards their experience of visiting a heritage site in China. In sum, different conceptualisations of tourist emotion and different measurements of tourist emotion may explain the inconsistent findings.

6.3 Research objectives

As described in Chapter 1, this study had three research objectives. In this section, the research objectives are revisited and checked against the research findings to ensure they have been achieved.

The first objective of this study was to explore Chinese tourists' social media behaviour during travel in an outbound destination. In the qualitative phase, a hybrid approach to thematic analysis was adopted to investigate tourist social media behaviour. The analysis revealed that using social media enables Chinese outbound tourists to receive informational, emotional and instrumental social support and to engage in self-presentation activities online. In the quantitative phase, the EFA and CFA confirmed the 4-factor structure underlying the social media behaviour of Chinese outbound tourists. Therefore, the first objective was achieved.

The second objective was to examine the relationship between Chinese tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotion. First, as verified by EFA, and confirmed by CFA, the study disclosed a two-dimensional underlying structure of tourist emotion, including both positive and negative tourist emotion. This objective was finally reached by testing the structural model. By calculating path coefficients, it was found that informational social support, instrumental social support, and online self-presentation had a positive effect on positive tourist emotion, while emotional social support did not have an influence on positive tourist emotion. Moreover, informational social support, emotional social support, instrumental social support, and online self-presentation do not influence tourists' level of negative emotion.

The third objective was to investigate the impact of tourist emotion in the destination on tourist overall satisfaction toward the destination. This objective was achieved through structural model testing. The results indicate that positive tourist emotion has a positive effect on tourist satisfaction, while negative tourist emotion does not influence tourist satisfaction.

To sum up, all the research objectives in the study were fully achieved.

6.4 Theoretical contribution

Through an examination of the literature, a conceptual framework was developed for later empirical testing. The research was then designed based on the framework. This model helps facilitate an understanding of tourist social media behaviour among Chinese outbound tourists and its impact on tourist emotion and satisfaction. The findings of this study make a valuable contribution to tourism and social media studies.

A major contribution of this study is the understanding of Chinese outbound tourist social media behaviour in a tourism destination. Tourist behaviour has always been an important topic in tourism studies. Since social media has become an integral part of life, investigating tourist social media behaviour adds new knowledge to the understanding of tourist behaviour in general. Travel behaviour essentially requires individuals to leave their residential area and visit a destination. Although social media behaviour has been discussed in various contexts, social media behaviour varies due to the change of environment. This study developed a comprehensive exploration of tourist social media behaviour.

Previous social media studies in tourism generally focus on the role of social media in the travel planning process (Bronner and de Hoog, 2011; Chung and Koo, 2015; Parra-López et al., 2011; Xiang and Gretzel, 2010). Shared information on social media is identified as a major source of pre-travel information for tourists making travel decisions. Some studies focus on the perceived trustworthiness of social media travel information and indicate that users' trust varies significantly depending on the type of tourism website (Burgess et al., 2011; Gretzel, 2010). Post-trip sharing experience has also been studied extensively (Kang and Schuett, 2013; Munar and Jacobsen, 2014; Qu and Lee, 2011; Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014). Some tourism studies pay special attention to the characteristics of social media users themselves (Shih, 2006), and others investigate the motivations for sharing (Huang et al., 2010; Munar and Jacobsen, 2014; Wang et al., 2016). However, previous studies fail to acknowledge the social media interactions that happen during travel in the destination. It is vital to understand the social media behaviour of tourists during the trip because this reveals

how travellers interact with relatives and friends at home; although they are not part of the visit, they may influence emotions and satisfaction towards the destination. This study contributes to the literature by developing a comprehensive model for understanding tourist social media behaviour during travel in the tourism destination.

This study employed a rigorous process in developing a measurement scale for Chinese outbound tourist social media behaviour in the destination. In tourism studies, most studies adopt a qualitative approach when investigating tourist social media behaviour, often using interviews (Huertas, 2018; Wang et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2018), focus groups (Huertas, 2018) or netnography (Mkono and Tribe, 2017). Qualitative studies have been valuable in exploring social media behaviour in the tourism domain. However, it is difficult to obtain generalizable principles about the phenomenon from a purely qualitative perspective. In this study, both qualitative and quantitative approaches were adopted to develop the tourist social media behaviour scale. The results of this research identified a multidimensional structure of tourist social media behaviour incorporating informational, emotional and instrumental social support, and engaging in online self-presentation as major tourist social media motives and behaviours. Previous studies fail to recognise the complexity and multidimensionality of tourist social media behaviour. Acknowledging these specific building blocks and relationships provides a more nuanced understanding of the social media behaviour of travellers. This study therefore provides a comprehensive picture of the social media behaviour of tourists based on a valid scale that can be applied in future empirical studies.

The study enriches current understandings of the construction of tourist social media behaviour in the context of Chinese outbound tourism. First, the study confirms that presenting themselves online is the most frequent tourist social media behaviour. The research suggests that tourists post photos showing their travel status, share travel experiences and reveal their emotions on social media in the destination. This contrasts with previous studies which indicate that tourists' sharing behaviour occurs primarily in the post-trip stage of travel, and discuss tourist social media experience as an extension of tourist actual destination experience (Gretzel et al., 2006; Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017; Wang et al., 2014). Thus, tourist social media self-presentation behaviour during the trip contrasts with existing literature on this subject and provides new knowledge about tourist social media behaviour.

Second, the findings confirm that using social media gives Chinese outbound tourists online social support, and particularly informational social support, emotional social support, and

instrumental social support from home during their travels, factors which have not been recognised by previous studies. With the rapid development of technology, social support has gradually shifted from traditional support (phone conversations, physical meetings and letters) toward more virtual modes including participation on social media platforms especially when there is a lack of face-to-face social support available (Chen and Choi, 2011; McDougall et al., 2016; Salzmann-Erikson and Hiçdurmaz, 2017). Notwithstanding time and space constraints, social media significantly enhances existing forms of social support (Kim and Lee, 2011; Mikal, 2011). Scholars in the discipline of social psychology observe that individuals with depression or anxiety are more likely to identify social media as a medium of social support (Drouin et al., 2018). When people face psychological distress such as loneliness, depression or anxiety, social support can be protective (Luo et al., 2017, Santini et al., 2015). Also, some researchers argue that people with both low and high levels of depression and anxiety regard social media as a source of social support (Drouin et al., 2018). Both the size of the social media network and the frequency of social media activity can increase perceived social support (Lu and Hampton, 2017). Although social support has been widely discussed in the psychological and medical research, it has rarely been studied in tourism studies.

When travelling in the destination, support from established connections (families and friends at home) may be reduced. In the past, tourists sought social support from tour guides, local residents, and from other tourists during travel (Huang and Hsu, 2010). Today, with the exception of perceived support from other tourists, tourists are more likely to adopt social media to maintain pre-existing social ties, and to make up for the lack of face-to-face social support in the destination. This study provides further empirical evidence about the role of social media support in the destination. The results confirm the findings of previous studies (Berno and Ward, 2005; Huang et al., 2010; Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013; Namho et al., 2017) that social media moderates the relationship between stressful travel experiences and psychological outcomes. Tourists' social media friends provide information and give advice that helps to solve problems and reduce tension in the destination. Moreover, similar to the findings of prior studies (Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013; Namho et al., 2017), this study found that tourists get instrumental social support while travelling by asking their social media friends to do things for them at home.

This study enriches current understandings of Chinese outbound tourists' behaviour with the new input of social media behaviour. The effects of social media on tourism have been a

priority in the study of tourism (Buhalis and Law, 2008; Perez-Vega et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2012; Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014). It is assumed that the social media behaviour of tourists varies among cultural groups or nationalities (Schroeder and Pennington-Gray, 2015). Past tourist social media studies tend to use international and domestic tourists from western countries as study subjects, with several studies conducted on tourists from South Korea and the US (Huang et al., 2010; Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017; Kim and Tussyadiah, 2013; Lyu, 2016; Tussyadiah, 2016). Moreover, these studies were conducted using Facebook which is prohibited in China. Instead, Chinese people use WeChat, a kind of counterpart to Facebook, which reaches 99.2 percent of Chinese social media users (CNNIC, 2020). Unlike Facebook, which is an open access social platform, WeChat is essentially a closed social networking site. Therefore, previous social media studies in the tourism literature may not be applicable to the Chinese tourist social media context.

Given the potential contribution of China's outbound tourism to the world travel market it is important that tourism researchers do not neglect it. Previous tourism studies of Chinese outbound tourism focus on examining the relationships among the growth of tourism in China and the role of Chinese government and its policies (Dai et al., 2017; Tang, 2017). Some studies investigate Chinese tourist satisfaction towards various destinations (Song and Hsu, 2013; Truong and King, 2009; Zhang, 2007). Most studies focus on the motivations of Chinese tourists (Zhang and Peng, 2014), their perceived travel constraints (Jin and Sparks, 2017; Li et al., 2011a; Li and Lai, 2013; Sparks and Pan, 2009), expectations (Li et al., 2011b; Wong et al., 2013), attitudes (Pan et al., 2017; Sparks and Pan, 2009), and general characteristics (Agrusa et al., 2011; Pan et al., 2017; Xiang, 2013). However, few studies have been conducted on Chinese tourist social media behaviour. Most previous studies are designed in the context of open access social media platforms like Facebook which are accessible to the public. WeChat, as the preferred social media app among Chinese social media users, is a closed social networking site. Social media interaction may greatly vary among different types of social media platforms. Understanding Chinese outbound tourists' social media use is of great significance to the study of Chinese outbound tourism.

The study provides a new approach to the study of tourist emotion by considering its impact on tourist social media behaviour. By analysing relationships among the underpinning components, we now understand the impact and relative importance of each aspect of social media on tourists' emotions. Previous studies attend to the various factors that influence tourist emotions. Some studies focus on investigating the relationship between service

quality, service fairness and tourist emotion (Ladhari, 2009; Su and Hsu, 2013), or explore the impact of destination social responsibility (Huynh Anh Thu et al., 2018), and destination image (Zhenshan et al., 2019) on tourist emotion. Since no existing research has studied the relationship between tourist social media behaviour and tourist emotion, this study is of particular value for theory building in tourism research. Moreover, most previous studies on tourist emotion have tended to focus on investigating positive tourist emotions (Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous, 2013; Huynh Anh Thu et al., 2018; Sharma and Nayak, 2018). This study enriches current understanding of the construction of tourist emotion by introducing both positive and negative tourist emotion. Moreover, this study adopts the DES to measure tourist positive and negative emotional responses toward the destination experience. Existing studies generally adopt emotion scales from psychology and marketing research ignoring tourism and destination-specific characteristics (Prayag et al., 2013). This study therefore provides empirical support by which to understand tourist emotions toward a destination.

Tourist satisfaction is a major topic in tourism research. Some satisfaction studies in tourism take a cognitive approach and evaluate satisfaction by investigating whether tourist expectations are met. Some tourist satisfaction research follows an affective approach and tests tourists' emotional responses to the tourism experience. Other studies adopt a cognitive-affective approach when evaluating tourist satisfaction. Regardless of the approach taken to conceptualise tourist satisfaction, in line with prior studies (Bigné et al., 2005; del Bosque and Martín, 2008; Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007), the results of this study confirm a positive relationship between tourist positive emotions and satisfaction. Positive tourist emotions like joy, love and positive surprise increase overall tourist satisfaction in the destination. However, the findings of this study also suggest that negative tourist emotions do not have a significant effect on tourist satisfaction. The relationships between negative emotions and tourist satisfaction are less often reported in the literature than the relationships between positive tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction. Tourists may encounter negative emotions within the travel process due to language difficulties, cultural differences and many other factors (Hosany and Prayag, 2013; Nawijn and Biran, 2019; Al-Msallam, 2020). Although negative tourist emotions are regarded to be important in the formation of memorable tourist experiences, this study provides empirical evidence which indicates that those negative emotions toward the destination do not decrease the overall level of satisfaction.

To sum up, the findings of this research contribute theoretically to both the tourism literature and to the literature on social media. The implications of the findings for the management of tourism development are elaborated in the following section.

6.5 Practical implications

This study explored tourist social media behaviour in the destination and investigated the structural relations among tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotion and tourist satisfaction in the context of Chinese outbound tourists. Given the overwhelming size of the Chinese outbound tourist market, understanding their social media behaviour should not be neglected by tourism marketers. The study provides practical implications for DMOs and business operators in the tourism industry, particularly those receiving Chinese tourists, as well as for social media operators, and particularly WeChat.

In this study, more than half of all respondents (60.5%) claimed that they spend more than two hours using social media every day. Although only 37.2% of respondents use social media for more than two hours daily in the tourism destination, this was still the largest group. The results also show that participants in the study did more posting while traveling than they did when in their home environment. Social media is an indispensable part of Chinese tourists' daily life whether they are at home or in the destination. Participants in this study frequently mentioned the importance of access to Wi-Fi to connect to their social media applications when they arrived in the destination. More importantly, since it was found that tourists' emotional responses toward the destination are significantly influenced by their social media experience, tourism industry practitioners need to pay more attention to constructing internet infrastructure to ensure Wi-Fi access and the use of social media in remote scenic spots. This is likely to be as important to tourists as improving the quality of destination accommodation, restaurants, and transportation options.

Four types of tourist social media behaviour were identified among Chinese outbound tourists in the study. These include accessing informational, emotional and instrumental social support, and online self-presentation while traveling in the destination. Based on these findings, there are three important managerial implications for DMOs and business operators in the tourism industry regarding improvements in current promotion strategies that target Chinese outbound tourists and aim to enhance Chinese outbound tourist social media experience.

Firstly, the results demonstrate that tourists collect and share information about the destination through interaction on social media while travelling. Previous studies have already shown that tourists search travel-related information from shared information on social media in the travel planning process (Munar and Jacobsen, 2013; Tham et al., 2013). Previous studies have also shown that social media enables tourists to find information about the destination to support short-term decision making (Parra-López et al., 2011). The findings of this study confirm this finding, but also indicate that tourists search for information on social media to deal with problems and crises they encounter in the destination. This study also reveals that informational social support increases tourists' positive emotional responses toward the destination and further enhances overall satisfaction with the experience in the destination. Therefore, tourism operators and destination managers may need to emphasise the provision of assistance to encourage tourists to get moderate informational social support via social media. Tourism marketers need to put more effort into managing their official social media accounts and to keeping travel information current. For example, some features like 'near me', which provide facilities or services 'near me', could be embedded in DMO's official social media platforms to provide tourists with immediate information.

Secondly, engaging in online self-presentation was found to be the most frequent social media behaviour of tourists in the destination. Tourists engage in online self-presentation by posting photos showing they are travelling, sharing their tourism experience, and expressing their feelings on the social media platform. Since the findings show that online self-presentation significantly enhances positive tourist emotion toward a destination, encouraging online self-presentation on social media could be an effective way to promote the destination. Tourism operators and DMOs could encourage tourists to engage in online self-presentation activities by providing assistance for them to do so. For instance, in addition to providing Wi-Fi access, providers could also designate spots for tourists to take photos. Tourism practitioners could also encourage tourists to engage in online self-presentation through direct interaction with tourists on social media by making comments on the photos and stories tourists post and share. Additionally, strategies such as running a daily small competition for tourists to post photos while they are in a destination could encourage more self-presentation.

Finally, social media operators may need to improve the technological and functional aspects of social media applications to enhance tourist social media experience. This study focused on WeChat as the social media application. Interview participants frequently mentioned that they benefited from using built-in functions of WeChat in the destination. For example,

tourists used the function of location sharing when they failed to find their fellow tourists or the tour guides. Social media operators may develop more functions that allow tourists to seek information or share travel experiences, such as photo filter and emoji packages.

6.6 Study limitations

This study has limitations pertaining to the generalisability of its findings, its data collection and analysis process, and the measurement scale used. First, the study findings are delimited to the context of Chinese outbound group tourists who mainly reside in Shenyang. However, social media behaviour has been found to differ across cultures (Kim et al., 2011; Lee and Gretzel, 2014). As the influence of cultural differences on tourist social media behaviour were not investigated in the study, different findings might be found in different settings. The results of this study generated from a sample of Chinese outbound tourists may not be generalizable to all tourists across the globe. Even among Chinese tourists, domestic Chinese tourists and outbound Chinese tourists may have important behavioural differences in their use of social media. Additionally, in the past few years, there has been a rapid increase in the number of free and independent Chinese outbound tourists born in the 1980s and 1990s who have gradually become an important tourism consumption group (CTA, 2019). This group is more likely to use social media throughout the different stages of travel than other groups of tourists and they prefer to travel overseas independently (CTA, 2019). It should be noted that social media behaviour may vary between group tourists and independent tourists. Independent travellers may use social media for travel information or to find the next attraction whereas group travellers can rely on the tour guide and are more likely to use social media to share travel experiences in the destination.

Second, the study is delimited by its WeChat respondent base. Although WeChat is the most widely used social media application in China, since various social media applications have different technological functions, tourist social media behaviour may vary depending on the social media application. For instance, as an instant message system, WeChat users can only communicate and interact with their existing WeChat contacts while Weibo, another popular microblogging application in China, enables users to browse all posts. Given differences of this kind, tourist social media behaviour in each of the two applications may differ and may consequently bring different tourist experiences and emotions.

The first limitation is that the qualitative data analysis has the potential for research bias. In the qualitative data analysis process, the researcher acted as the single coder due to limited

resources. In addition, the questionnaire was originally designed in English and translated into Chinese in the formal quantitative data collection process. However, the researcher conducted multiple rounds of coding to achieve consistent results and experienced professional translators were used to improve the reliability of the questionnaire and to reduce potential problems in interpretation.

The second limitation lies in the measurement scale adopted in the study. The tourist social media scale used in this study was adopted from previous studies and was further modified to fit the present research context. Although the statistical results show that the scale is valid and reliable, more empirical testing is needed to develop a rigorous scale for use within different research contexts. Additionally, the tourist emotion scale used in this study was adapted from the DES (Prayag et al., 2013). Three items were confirmed and retained to measure tourist negative emotions after running CFA, while thirteen items were obtained to measure positive tourist emotions. However, the scale, investigating tourists' emotional responses toward destinations, is considered the most appropriate since the aim of travels is identified as seeking pleasurable experience and generally elicits much more positive emotions.

6.7 Recommendations for future study

This study encourages future research and initiates directions for more comprehensive study in the area in future. First of all, since social media behaviour varies across cultures (Kim et al., 2011), future research might focus on the social media behaviour of outbound tourists from different cultures. In addition, cross-cultural comparisons of outbound tourist social media behaviour may be an interesting research topic of great value. The present study examined the model based solely on data collected from Chinese outbound group tourists. Future studies could adopt the model and investigate the structural relationships for independent Chinese outbound tourists. Or researchers may conduct comparison studies between group and independent Chinese outbound tourists in the future.

Second, the model developed in this study should be further tested in a broad range of social media platforms to advance understandings of social media behaviour during a trip. Different social media platforms feature different technological functions and could be adopted to test the model in future studies. Also, the impact of social media platform traits on tourist social media behaviour could be a valuable research focus for future investigation. Empirical testing is required to develop a more comprehensive scale in future research.

6.8 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented a summary of the findings, a discussion, and an outline of the theoretical and practical contributions of the study. The findings of this study have contributed to understanding the social media behaviour of Chinese outbound tourists in the destination. The study identified that tourists gain informational social support, emotional social support, instrumental social support, and engage in online self-presentation activities via social media in the destination. The study provides a new foci for investigation, namely, tourist social media behaviour, to the study of tourist emotion. Additionally, the conclusions suggest that online self-presentation, and informational and instrumental social support have a significant impact on positive tourist emotion, and tourist positive emotion positively influences tourist satisfaction. Meanwhile, tourist social media behaviour does not have an impact on negative tourist emotion, and negative tourist emotion does not influence tourist satisfaction.

References

Agrusa, J., Kim, S. S. & Wang, K.-C. 2011. Mainland Chinese Tourists to Hawaii: Their Characteristics and Preferences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 28**,** 261-278.

Airey, D. W., Chong, K. & Ebrary, I. 2011. *Tourism in China policy and development since 1949,* Abingdon [England] ; New York, Routledge.

Akehurst, G. 2009. User generated content: the use of blogs for tourism organisations and tourism consumers. *Service Business,* 3**,** 51-61.

Al-Msallam, S. 2020. The impact of tourists' emotions on satisfaction and destination loyalty – an integrative moderated mediation model: tourists' experience in Switzerland. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights,* 3**,** 509-528.

Alizadeh, A. & Isa, R. 2015. The use of social media in destination marketing: an exploratory study. *Tourism,* 63**,** 175-192.

Anderson, J. & Gerbing, D. 1988. Structural equation modeling in practice: a review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin,* 103**,** 411-423.

Andreu, R., Claver, E. & Quer, D. 2014. Destination Attributes and Chinese Outbound Tourism to Europe 目的地特性和中国对欧洲的对外旅游. *Journal of China Tourism Research,* 10**,** 275-291.

Arlt, W. G. 2013. The Second Wave of Chinese Outbound Tourism. *Tourism Planning & Development,* 10**,** 126-133.

Arlt, W. G. & Ebrary, I. 2006. *China's outbound tourism,* London

Abingdon, Oxon ; New York, NY, Routledge.

Arsal, I., Backman, S. & Baldwin, E. 2008. Influence of an online travel community on travel decisions. *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2008***,** 82-93.

Assaker, G., Vinzi, V. E. & O'connor, P. 2011. Examining the effect of novelty seeking, satisfaction, and destination image on tourists' return pattern: a two factor, non-linear latent growth model. *Tourism management,* 32**,** 890-901.

Ayeh, J. K., Au, N. & Law, R. 2013. Predicting the intention to use consumer-generated media for travel planning. *Tourism Management,* 35**,** 132-143.

Bae, S. J., Lee, H., Suh, E.-K. & Suh, K.-S. 2017. Shared experience in pretrip and experience sharing in posttrip: A survey of Airbnb users. *Information & Management,* 54**,** 714-727.

Baggio, R. 2020. Tourism destinations: A universality conjecture based on network science. *Annals of tourism research,* 82**,** 102929.

Bagozzi, R., Gopinath, M. & Nyer, P. 1999. The role of emotions in marketing. *Official Publication of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 27**,** 184-206.

Bagozzi, R. & Yi, Y. 2012. Specification, evaluation, and interpretation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 40**,** 8-34.

Bagozzi, R. P. & Dholakia, U. M. 2002. Intentional social action in virtual communities. *Journal of Interactive Marketing,* 16**,** 2-21.

Barrera, M. 1986. Distinctions between social support concepts, measures, and models. *American Journal of Community Psychology,* 14**,** 413-445.

Baumeister, R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer, C. & Vohs, K. D. 2001. Bad Is Stronger Than Good. *Review of general psychology,* 5**,** 323-370.

Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., Nathan Dewall, C. & Liqing, Z. 2007. How Emotion Shapes Behavior: Feedback, Anticipation, and Reflection, Rather Than Direct Causation. *Personality and Social Psychology Review,* 11**,** 167-203.

Bazarova, N. N., Taft, J. G., Choi, Y. H. & Cosley, D. 2013. Managing Impressions and Relationships on Facebook: Self-Presentational and Relational Concerns Revealed Through the Analysis of Language Style. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology,* 32**,** 121-141.

Beedie, C., Terry, P. & Lane, A. 2005. Distinctions between emotion and mood. *Cognition and Emotion,* 19**,** 847-878.

Ben-Shaul, M. & Reichel, A. 2018. Motives, Modes of Participation, and Loyalty Intentions of Facebook Tourism Brand Page Consumers. *Journal of travel research,* 57**,** 453-471.

Berno, T. & Ward, C. 2005. Innocence abroad: a pocket guide to psychological research on tourism. *The American psychologist,* 60**,** 593-600.

Bernstein, E. S. & Turban, S. 2018. The impact of the 'open' workspace on human collaboration. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci,* 373**,** 20170239.

Bigné, J. E., Andreu, L. & Gnoth, J. 2005. The theme park experience: An analysis of pleasure, arousal and satisfaction. 26**,** 833-844.

Bilgihan, A., Barreda, A., Okumus, F. & Nusair, K. 2016. Consumer perception of knowledge-sharing in travel-related Online Social Networks. *Tourism Management,* 52**,** 287-296.

Bonnefoy-Claudet, L. & Ghantous, N. 2013. Emotions' Impact On Tourists' Satisfaction with Ski Resorts: The Mediating Role of Perceived Value. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 30**,** 624.

Bosangit, C., Hibbert, S. & Mccabe, S. 2015. "If I was going to die I should at least be having fun": Travel blogs, meaning and tourist experience. *Annals of tourism research,* 55**,** 1-14.

Bowen, D. & Clarke, J. 2002. Reflections on tourist satisfaction research: Past, present and future. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* 8**,** 297.

Boyatzis, R. E. 1998. *Transforming qualitative information : thematic analysis and code development / Richard E. Boyatzis,* Thousand Oaks, CA, Thousand Oaks, CA : Sage Publications.

Braun, V. & Clarke, V. 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology,* 3**,** 77-101.

Bronner, F. & De Hoog, R. 2011. Vacationers and eWOM: Who Posts, and Why, Where, and What? *Journal of Travel Research,* 50**,** 15-26.

Bryman, A. 2012. *Social research methods,* Oxford ; New York, Oxford University Press.

Buhalis, D. & Law, R. 2008. Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet—The state of eTourism research. *Tourism management,* 29**,** 609-623.

Burgess, S., Sellitto, C., Cox, C. & Buultjens, J. 2011. Trust perceptions of online travel information by different content creators: Some social and legal implications. *A Journal of Research and Innovation,* 13**,** 221-235.

Byrne, B. M. 2010. *Structural equation modeling with AMOS basic concepts, applications, and programming,* New York, Routledge.

Carmines, E. G. & Mciver, J. P. 1983. An Introduction to the Analysis of Models with Unobserved Variables. *Political Methodology,* 9**,** 51-102.

Chan, A., Hsu, C. H. C. & Baum, T. 2015. The Impact of Tour Service Performance on Tourist Satisfaction and Behavioral Intentions: A Study of Chinese Tourists in Hong Kong. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 32**,** 18-33.

Chang, H. H. & Chuang, S.-S. 2011. Social capital and individual motivations on knowledge sharing: Participant involvement as a moderator. *Information & Management,* 48**,** 9-18.

Chang, J. C. 2008. Tourists' Satisfaction Judgments: An Investigation of Emotion, Equity, and Attribution. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research,* 32**,** 108-134.

Chang, S.-Y., Tsaur, S.-H., Yen, C.-H. & Lai, H.-R. 2020. Tour member fit and tour member–leader fit on group package tours: Influences on tourists' positive emotions, rapport, and satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management,* 42**,** 235-243.

Chen, C.-C., Huang, W.-J., Gao, J. & Petrick, J. F. 2018a. Antecedents and Consequences of Work-Related Smartphone Use on Vacation: An Exploratory Study of Taiwanese Tourists. *Journal of travel research,* 57**,** 743-756.

Chen, C.-C., Huang, W.-J. & Petrick, J. F. 2016. Holiday recovery experiences, tourism satisfaction and life satisfaction – Is there a relationship? *Tourism Management,* 53**,** 140-147.

Chen, W. & Choi, A. S. K. 2011. Internet and social support among Chinese migrants in Singapore. *New Media & Society,* 13**,** 1067-1084.

Chen, Y.-C., Shang, R.-A. & Li, M.-J. 2014. The effects of perceived relevance of travel blogs' content on the behavioral intention to visit a tourist destination. *Computers in human behavior,* 30**,** 787-799.

Chen, Y., Mao, Z. & Qiu, J. L. 2018b. *Super-sticky Wechat and Chinese society / Yujie Chen, Zhifei Mao, Jack Linchuan Qiu,* Bingley, U.K., Bingley, U.K. : Emerald Publishing Limited.

Chi, C. G.-Q. 2012. An Examination of Destination Loyalty: Differences Between First-Time and Repeat Visitors. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research,* 36**,** 3-24.

Chi, C. G.-Q. & Qu, H. 2008. Examining the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: An integrated approach. *Tourism Management,* 29**,** 624-636.

Choi, J. H. & Scott, J. E. 2013. Electronic Word of Mouth and Knowledge Sharing on Social Network Sites: A Social Capital Perspective. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research,* 8**,** 69.

Choi, S., Kim, I., Cha, K., Suh, Y.-K. & Kim, K.-H. 2019. Travelers' parasocial interactions in online travel communities. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing,* 36**,** 888-904.

Christodoulides, G., Jevons, C. & Bonhomme, J. 2012. Memo to Marketers: Quantitative Evidence for Change: How User-Generated Content Really Affects Brands. *Journal of advertising research,* 52**,** 53-64.

Chuang, S.-C. 2007. Sadder but Wiser or Happier and Smarter? A Demonstration of Judgment and Decision Making. *The Journal of Psychology,* 141**,** 63-76.

Chun, J. W. & Lee, M. J. 2017. When does individuals' willingness to speak out increase on social media? Perceived social support and perceived power/control. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 74**,** 120-129.

Chung, J. Y. & Buhalis, D. 2008. Web 2.0: A study of online travel community. *Information and communication technologies in tourism 2008***,** 70-81.

Chung, N. & Koo, C. 2015. The use of social media in travel information search. *Telematics and Informatics,* 32**,** 215-229.

Chung, N., Nam, K. & Koo, C. 2016. Examining information sharing in social networking communities: Applying theories of social capital and attachment. *Telematics and Informatics,* 33**,** 77-91.

Cnnic 2020. China Internet Network Information Centre, the 45th Statistical Report on Internet Development in China, retrieved from: http://www.cnnic.net.cn/hlwfzyj/hlwxzbg/hlwtjbg/202004/P020200428596599037028.pdf.

Cohen, S. & Wills, T. A. 1985. Stress, Social Support, and the Buffering Hypothesis. *Psychological Bulletin,* 98**,** 310-357.

Cohn, M. A., Fredrickson, B. L., Brown, S. L., Mikels, J. A. & Conway, A. M. 2009. Happiness Unpacked: Positive Emotions Increase Life Satisfaction by Building Resilience. *Emotion,* 9**,** 361-368.

Cole, D., Nick, E., Zelkowitz, R., Roeder, K. & Spinelli, T. 2017. Online social support for young people: Does it recapitulate in-person social support

can it help? *Computers in Human Behavior,* 68**,** 456.

Cooke, M. & Buckley, N. 2008. Web 2.0, social networks and the future of market research. *International Journal of Market Research,* 50**,** 267.

Cox, C., Burgess, S., Sellitto, C. & Buultjens, J. 2009. The Role of User-Generated Content in Tourists' Travel Planning Behavior. *Journal of hospitality marketing & management,* 18**,** 743-764.

Creswell, J. W. 2009. *Research design : qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches,* Thousand Oaks, Calif., Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. & Plano Clark, V. L. 2007. *Designing and conducting mixed methods research,* Thousand Oaks, Calif., SAGE Publications.

Crotty, M. 1998. *The foundations of social research : meaning and perspective in the research process,* St Leonards, NSW, Allen & Unwin.

Cta 2019. *Annual report of China outbound tourism development 2019,* Beijing, Tourism Education Press.

Dai, B., Jiang, Y., Yang, L. & Ma, Y. 2017. China's outbound tourism – Stages, policies and choices. *Tourism Management,* 58**,** 253-258.

De Rojas, C. & Camarero, C. 2008. Visitors' experience, mood and satisfaction in a heritage context: Evidence from an interpretation center. *Tourism Management,* 29**,** 525-537.

Del Bosque, I. R. & Martín, H. S. 2008. Tourist satisfaction a cognitive-affective model. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 35**,** 551-573.

Denizci Guillet, B., Kucukusta, D. & Liu, L. 2015. An Examination of Social Media Marketing in China: How do the Top 133 Hotel Brands Perform on the Top Four Chinese Social Media Sites? *Journal of travel & tourism marketing,* 33**,** 783-805.

Diamantopoulos, A. & Siguaw, J. A. 2000. *Introducing LISREL : A Guide for the Uninitiated,* London, London: SAGE Publications.

Diane, M. P. & Hans, B. 2002. The Role of Consumption Emotions in the Satisfaction Response. *Journal of consumer psychology,* 12**,** 243-252.

Diener, E. 2000. Subjective Well-Being. *American Psychologist,* 55**,** 34-43.

Dinhopl, A. & Gretzel, U. 2016. Selfie-taking as touristic looking. *Annals of tourism research,* 57**,** 126-139.

Drouin, M., Reining, L., Flanagan, M., Carpenter, M. & Toscos, T. 2018. COLLEGE STUDENTS IN DISTRESS: CAN SOCIAL MEDIA BE A SOURCE OF SOCIAL SUPPORT? *College Student Journal,* 52**,** 494.

Dubé, L., Bélanger, M. C. & Trudeau, E. 1996. The role of emotions in health care satisfaction. Positive feelings have the expected effect, but negative ones do not always result in dissatisfaction. *Journal of health care marketing,* 16**,** 45.

Dube, L. & Menon, K. 2000. Multiple roles of consumption emotions in post-purchase satisfaction with extended service transactions. *International Journal of Service Industry Management,* 11**,** 287-304.

Ellemers, N., Kortekaas, P. & Ouwerkerk, J. W. 1999. Self-categorisation, commitment to the group and group self-esteem as related but distinct aspects of social identity. *European Journal of Social Psychology,* 29**,** 371-389.

Ellison, N., Heino, R. & Gibbs, J. 2006. Managing Impressions Online: Self-Presentation Processes in the Online Dating Environment. *Journal of computer-mediated communication,* 11**,** 415-441.

Ellison, N. B. 2007. Social network sites: Definition, history, and scholarship. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication,* 13**,** 210-230.

Ellison, N. B., Steinfield, C. & Lampe, C. 2007. The Benefits of Facebook "Friends:" Social Capital and College Students' Use of Online Social Network Sites. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication,* 12**,** 1143-1168.

Fabrigar, L. R. & Wegener, D. T. 2012. *Exploratory factor analysis,* Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Farber, M. E. & Hall, T. E. 2017. Emotion and Environment: Visitors' Extraordinary Experiences along the Dalton Highway in Alaska. *Journal of leisure research,* 39**,** 248-270.

Faullant, R., Matzler, K. & Mooradian, T. A. 2011. Personality, basic emotions, and satisfaction: Primary emotions in the mountaineering experience. *Tourism Management,* 32**,** 1423-1430.

Fereday, J. & Muir-Cochrane, E. 2016. Demonstrating Rigor Using Thematic Analysis: A Hybrid Approach of Inductive and Deductive Coding and Theme Development. *International journal of qualitative methods,* 5**,** 80-92.

Filieri, R. 2016. What makes an online consumer review trustworthy? *Annals of Tourism Research,* 58**,** 46-64.

Fornell, C., Johnson, M. D., Anderson, E. W., Cha, J. & Bryant, B. E. 1996. The American Customer Satisfaction Index: Nature, Purpose, and Findings. *The Journal of Marketing,* 60**,** 7-18.

Fornell, C. & Larcker, D. 1981. Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *JMR, Journal of Marketing Research (pre-1986),* 18**,** 39.

Fredrickson, B. L. 2001. The Role of Positive Emotions in Positive Psychology: The Broaden-and-Build Theory of Positive Emotions. *The American psychologist,* 56**,** 218-226.

Frison, E. & Eggermont, S. 2016. Exploring the relationships between different types of Facebook use, perceived online social support and adolescents' depressed mood. *Social Science Computer Review*.

Fuchs, M. & Weiermair, K. 2004. Destination Benchmarking: An Indicator-System's Potential for Exploring Guest Satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research,* 42**,** 212-225.

Gable, S. L., Reis, H. T., Impett, E. A. & Asher, E. R. 2004. What Do You Do When Things Go Right? The Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Benefits of Sharing Positive Events. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 87**,** 228-245.

Gao, Y., Rasouli, S., Timmermans, H. & Wang, Y. 2017. Effects of traveller's mood and personality on ratings of satisfaction with daily trip stages. *Travel Behaviour and Society,* 7**,** 1-11.

Goffman, E. 1971. *The presentation of self in everyday life,* Harmondsworth, Penguin.

Goldsmith, R. E. & Litvin, S. W. 2008. Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism management,* 29**,** 458-468.

Goossens, C. 2000. Tourism information and pleasure motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 27**,** 301-321.

Gottlieb, B. H. & Bergen, A. E. 2010a. Social support concepts and measures. *J Psychosom Res,* 69**,** 511-520.

Gottlieb, B. H. & Bergen, A. E. 2010b. Social support concepts and measures. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research,* 69**,** 511-520.

Grappi, S. & Montanari, F. 2011. The role of social identification and hedonism in affecting tourist re-patronizing behaviours: The case of an Italian festival. *Tourism management (1982),* 32**,** 1128-1140.

Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J. & Graham, W. F. Toward a Conceptual Framework for Mixed-Method Evaluation Designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis,* 11**,** 255-274.

Gretzel, U. 2010. Antecedents and Impacts of Trust in Travel-Related Consumer-Generated Media. *Information Technology & Tourism,* 12**,** 139-152.

Gretzel, U., Fesenmaier, D. R. & O'leary, J. T. 2006. *The transformation of consumer behaviour-Chapter 2*.

Gross, N. 2018. Pragmatism and the study of large-scale social phenomena. *Theory and society,* 47**,** 87-111.

Guba, E. G. 1990. *The Paradigm dialog,* Newbury Park, Calif., Sage Publications.

Guest, G. 2013. Describing Mixed Methods Research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research,* 7**,** 141-151.

Guest, G., Bunce, A. & Johnson, L. 2006. How many interviews are enough?: An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field methods,* 18**,** 59-82.

Guo, M. 2018. Kantar China social media impact report 2018, retrieved from: https://cn-en.kantar.com/media/social/2018/kantar-china-social-media-impact-report-2018/.

Guszkiewicz, P. & Nessel, K. 2017. Chinese Tourists in Cracow, Poland: Their Profile, Expectations, and Perceptions. *Polish Journal of Sport and Tourism,* 24**,** 49-55.

Hair, J., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. & Mena, J. 2012. An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 40**,** 414-433.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J. & Anderson, R. E. 2013. *Multivariate Data Analysis,* Pearson Education Limited.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. 2010. *Multivariate data analysis : a global perspective,* Upper Saddle River, N.J.

London, Pearson.

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M. & Sarstedt, M. 2011. PLS-SEM: Indeed a Silver Bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice,* 19**,** 139-152.

Han, H. & Jeong, C. 2013. Multi-dimensions of patrons' emotional experiences in upscale restaurants and their role in loyalty formation: Emotion scale improvement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 32**,** 59-70.

Hardy, M. A. & Bryman, A. 2009. *Handbook of Data Analysis,* London, London: SAGE Publications.

Hays, S., Page, S. J. & Buhalis, D. 2013. Social media as a destination marketing tool: its use by national tourism organisations. *Current issues in tourism,* 16**,** 211-239.

Hidalgo, M. C. & HernÁndez, B. 2001. PLACE ATTACHMENT: CONCEPTUAL AND EMPIRICAL QUESTIONS. *Journal of environmental psychology,* 21**,** 273-281.

Higgins, E. T. 2012. *Beyond pleasure and pain how motivation works / E. Tory Higgins,* Oxford

New York, Oxford

New York : Oxford University Press.

Ho, C.-I., Lin, M.-H. & Chen, H.-M. 2012. Web users' behavioural patterns of tourism information search: From online to offline. *Tourism management (1982),* 33**,** 1468-1482.

Hogg, M. & Terry, D. 2000. Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review***,** 121-140.

Hosany, S. 2012. Appraisal determinants of tourist emotional responses. *Journal of travel research,* 51**,** 303-314.

Hosany, S. & Gilbert, D. 2009. Measuring Tourists' Emotional Experiences toward Hedonic Holiday Destinations. *Journal of travel research,* 49**,** 513-526.

Hosany, S. & Gilbert, D. 2010. Measuring tourists emotional experiences toward hedonic holiday destinations. *Journal of travel research,* 49**,** 513-526.

Hosany, S. & Prayag, G. 2013. Patterns of tourists' emotional responses, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of business research,* 66**,** 730-737.

Hosany, S., Prayag, G., Deesilatham, S., Cauševic, S. & Odeh, K. 2015. Measuring Tourists' Emotional Experiences: Further Validation of the Destination Emotion Scale. *Journal of Travel Research,* 54**,** 482-495.

Hosany, S., Prayag, G., Van Der Veen, R., Huang, S. & Deesilatham, S. 2017. Mediating effects of place attachment and satisfaction on the relationship between tourists' emotions and intention to recommend. *Journal of travel research,* 56**,** 1079-1093.

Hu, L. T. & Bentler, P. M. 1999. Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal,* 6**,** 1-55.

Hu, T., Stafford, T. F., Kettinger, W. J., Zhang, X. P. & Dai, H. 2018. Formation and Effect of Social Media Usage Habit. *The Journal of Computer Information Systems,* 58**,** 334-343.

Huang, J. & Hsu, C. H. C. 2010. The Impact of Customer-to-Customer Interaction on Cruise Experience and Vacation Satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research,* 49**,** 79-92.

Huang, L. 2012. Social Media as a New Play in a Marketing Channel Strategy: Evidence from Taiwan Travel Agencies' Blogs. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research,* 17**,** 615-634.

Huang, S. & Gross, M. J. 2010. AUSTRALIA'S DESTINATION IMAGE AMONG MAINLAND CHINESE TRAVELERS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 27**,** 63-81.

Huang, S. & Hsu, C. H. C. 2009. Effects of Travel Motivation, Past Experience, Perceived Constraint, and Attitude on Revisit Intention. *Journal of Travel Research,* 48**,** 29-44.

Huang, Y., Basu, C. & Hsu, M. K. 2010. Exploring Motivations of Travel Knowledge Sharing on Social Network Sites: An Empirical Investigation of U.S. College Students. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management,* 19**,** 717-734.

Hudson, S., Roth, M. S., Madden, T. J. & Hudson, R. 2015. The effects of social media on emotions, brand relationship quality, and word of mouth: An empirical study of music festival attendees. *Tourism Management,* 47**,** 68-76.

Hudson, S. & Thal, K. 2013a. The Impact of Social Media on the Consumer Decision Process: Implications for Tourism Marketing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing: Social Media,* 30**,** 156-160.

Hudson, S. & Thal, K. 2013b. The Impact of Social Media on the Consumer Decision Process: Implications for Tourism Marketing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 30**,** 156-160.

Huertas, A. 2018. How live videos and stories in social media influence tourist opinions and behaviour. *Information Technology & Tourism,* 19**,** 1-28.

Hui, T. K., Wan, D. & Ho, A. 2007. Tourists' satisfaction, recommendation and revisiting Singapore. *Tourism Management,* 28**,** 965-975.

Hur, K., Kim, T. T., Karatepe, O. M. & Lee, G. 2017. An exploration of the factors influencing social media continuance usage and information sharing intentions among Korean travellers. *Tourism Management,* 63**,** 170-178.

Hutcheson, G. D. & Sofroniou, N. 1999. *The multivariate social scientist introductory statistics using generalized linear models,* London, SAGE.

Huynh Anh Thu, T., Yun Seop, H., Cheon, Y. & Seung Jick, Y. 2018. The Effect of Destination Social Responsibility on Tourists' Satisfaction: The Mediating Role of Emotions. *Sustainability,* 10**,** 3044.

Hvass, K. A. & Munar, A. M. 2012. The takeoff of social media in tourism. 18**,** 93-103.

Indian, M. & Grieve, R. 2014. When Facebook is easier than face-to-face: Social support derived from Facebook in socially anxious individuals. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 59**,** 102-106.

Io, M.-U. 2017. Understanding the effects of multi-dimensional tourism experiences on tourists' positive emotions and satisfaction in the context of casino hotels. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* 11**,** 142-156.

Izard, C. E. 1977. *Human Emotions,* Boston, MA, Springer US : Imprint: Springer.

Izard, C. E. 2013. *Human Emotions,* New York, New York, NY: Springer.

Jacobson, N. C., Lord, K. A. & Newman, M. G. 2017. Perceived emotional social support in bereaved spouses mediates the relationship between anxiety and depression. *Journal of Affective Disorders,* 211**,** 83-91.

Jafari, J. 1987. Tourism models: the sociocultural aspects. *Tourism management (1982),* 8**,** 151-159.

Jang, S. & Namkung, Y. 2009. Perceived quality, emotions, and behavioral intentions: Application of an extended Mehrabian–Russell model to restaurants. *Journal of business research,* 62**,** 451-460.

Jennings, G. 2010. *Tourism research,* Milton, Qld., John Wiley & Sons.

Jiang, S., Scott, N. & Ding, P. 2015. Using means-end chain theory to explore travel motivation: An examination of Chinese outbound tourists. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* 21**,** 87-100.

Jin, H., Moscardo, G. & Murphy, L. 2020. Exploring Chinese Outbound Tourist Shopping: A Social Practice Framework. *Journal of Travel Research,* 59**,** 156-172.

Jin, X. & Sparks, B. 2017. Barriers to offering special interest tour products to the Chinese outbound group market. *Tourism Management,* 59**,** 205-215.

Jnto 2020. Japan National Tourism Organization, Visitors Arrivals (2003-2020), Retrieved from: https://www.jnto.go.jp/jpn/statistics/since2003_visitor_arrivals.pdf.

Johnson, R. B. & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. 2004. Mixed Methods Research: A Research Paradigm Whose Time Has Come. *Educational Researcher,* 33**,** 14-26.

Joo, J. & Sang, Y. 2013. Exploring Koreans' smartphone usage: An integrated model of the technology acceptance model and uses and gratifications theory. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 29**,** 2512.

Jui Chi, C. 2008. Tourists' Satisfaction Judgments: An Investigation of Emotion, Equity, and Attribution. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research,* 32**,** 108-134.

Kang, E.-J., Scott, N., Lee, T. J. & Ballantyne, R. 2012. Benefits of visiting a 'dark tourism' site: The case of the Jeju April 3rd Peace Park, Korea. *Tourism Management,* 33**,** 257.

Kang, M. & Schuett, M. A. 2013. Determinants of Sharing Travel Experiences in Social Media. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 30**,** 93-107.

Kaplan, A. M. & Haenlein, M. 2010. Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media. *Business Horizons,* 53**,** 59-68.

Karaer, Y. & Akdemir, D. 2019. Parenting styles, perceived social support and emotion regulation in adolescents with internet addiction. *Compr Psychiatry,* 92**,** 22-27.

Kasabov, E. 2016. Unknown, surprising, and economically significant: The realities of electronic word of mouth in Chinese social networking sites. *Journal of Business Research,* 69**,** 642-652.

Kelman, H. C. 1958. Compliance, identification, and internalization three processes of attitude change. *Journal of Conflict Resolution,* 2**,** 51-60.

Kim, J. & Fesenmaier, D. R. 2017. Sharing Tourism Experiences: The Posttrip Experience. *Journal of Travel Research,* 56**,** 28-40.

Kim, J. & Lee, J.-E. R. 2011. The Facebook paths to happiness: effects of the number of Facebook friends and self-presentation on subjective well-being. *Cyberpsychology, behavior and social networking,* 14**,** 359-364.

Kim, J. & Tussyadiah, I. P. 2013. Social Networking and Social Support in Tourism Experience: The Moderating Role of Online Self-Presentation Strategies. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 30**,** 78-92.

Kim, S.-B., Choi, K. W. & Kim, D.-Y. 2013. The Motivations Of College Students' Use Of Social Networking Sites In Travel Information Search Behavior: The Mediating Effect Of Interacting With Other Users. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 30**,** 238-252.

Kim, Y., Sohn, D. & Choi, S. M. 2011. Cultural difference in motivations for using social network sites: A comparative study of American and Korean college students. *Computers in human behavior,* 27**,** 365-372.

Kimmerle, J. & Cress, U. 2008. Group awareness and self-presentation in computer-supported information exchange. *International Journal of Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning,* 3**,** 85-97.

Kline, R. B. 2010. *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling,* New York, Guilford Press.

Krasnova, H., Widjaja, T., Buxmann, P., Wenninger, H. & Benbasat, I. 2015. Research Note—Why Following Friends Can Hurt You: An Exploratory Investigation of the Effects of Envy on Social Networking Sites among College-Age Users. *Information Systems Research,* 26**,** 585-605.

Kwahk, K.-Y., Kwahk, K.-Y., Kim, B. & Kim, B. 2017. Effects of social media on consumers' purchase decisions: evidence from Taobao. *Service business,* 11**,** 803-829.

Ladhari, R. 2009. Service quality, emotional satisfaction, and behavioural intentions : a study in the hotel industry. 19**,** 308-331.

Lai, C., Li, X. R. & Harrill, R. 2013. Chinese outbound tourists' perceived constraints to visiting the United States. *Tourism Management,* 37**,** 136-146.

Lakey, B., Adams, K., Neely, L., Rhodes, G., Lutz, C. J. & Sielky, K. 2002. Perceived Support and Low Emotional Distress: The Role of Enacted Support, Dyad Similarity, and Provider Personality. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* 28**,** 1546-1555.

Lakey, B. & Orehek, E. 2011. Relational Regulation Theory: A New Approach to Explain the Link Between Perceived Social Support and Mental Health. *Psychological Review,* 118**,** 482-495.

Law, R., Sun, S., Fong, D. K. C., Fong, L. H. N. & Fu, H. 2016. A systematic review of China's outbound tourism research. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 28**,** 2654-2674.

Leary, M., Allen, A. & Terry, M. 2011. Managing social images in naturalistic versus laboratory settings: Implications for understanding and studying self-presentation. *European Journal of Social Psychology,* 41**,** 411.

Leary, M. R. & Kowalski, R. M. 1990. Impression Management: A Literature Review and Two-Component Model. *Psychological Bulletin,* 107**,** 34-47.

Lee, B., Lee, C.-K. & Lee, J. 2014. Dynamic Nature of Destination Image and Influence of Tourist Overall Satisfaction on Image Modification. *Journal of Travel Research,* 53**,** 239-251.

Lee, J. & Mills, J. E. 2010. Exploring Tourist Satisfaction with Mobile Experience Technology. *International Management Review,* 6**,** 91.

Lee, S.-H., Noh, S.-E. & Kim, H.-W. 2013. A mixed methods approach to electronic word-of-mouth in the open-market context. *International Journal of Information Management,* 33**,** 687-696.

Lee, S. A. & Shea, L. 2015. Investigating the Key Routes to Customers' Delightful Moments in the Hotel Context. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management,* 24**,** 532-553.

Lee, Y.-K., Lee, C.-K., Lee, S.-K. & Babin, B. J. 2008. Festivalscapes and patrons' emotions, satisfaction, and loyalty. *Journal of Business Research,* 61**,** 56-64.

Lee, Y. J. & Gretzel, U. 2014. Cross-Cultural Differences in Social Identity Formation through Travel Blogging. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 31**,** 37-54.

Leech, N. & Onwuegbuzie, A. 2009. A typology of mixed methods research designs. *Quality & Quantity,* 43**,** 265-275.

Leung, D., Law, R., Van Hoof, H. & Buhalis, D. 2013. Social Media in Tourism and Hospitality: A Literature Review. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 30**,** 3-22.

Lewandowski, J., Rosenberg, B. D., Jordan Parks, M. & Siegel, J. T. 2011. The effect of informal social support: Face-to-face versus computer-mediated communication. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 27**,** 1806-1814.

Li, F., Wen, J. & Ying, T. 2018a. The influence of crisis on tourists' perceived destination image and revisit intention: An exploratory study of Chinese tourists to North Korea. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management,* 9**,** 104-111.

Li, J., Pearce, P. L. & Low, D. 2018b. Media representation of digital-free tourism: A critical discourse analysis. *Tourism management (1982),* 69**,** 317-329.

Li, M., Zhang, H., Mao, I. & Deng, C. 2011a. Segmenting Chinese Outbound Tourists by Perceived Constraints. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 28**,** 629-643.

Li, X. & Lai, C. 2013. Chinese outbound tourists' perceived constraints to visiting the United States. *Tourism management,* 37**,** 136-146.

Li, X. & Stepchenkova, S. 2012. Chinese Outbound Tourists' Destination Image of America: Part I. *Journal of Travel Research,* 51**,** 250-266.

Li, X. R., Lai, C., Harrill, R., Kline, S. & Wang, L. 2011b. When east meets west: An exploratory study on Chinese outbound tourists' travel expectations. *Tourism Management,* 32**,** 741-749.

Liljander, V. & Strandvik, T. 1997. Emotions in service satisfaction. *International Journal of Service Industry Management,* 8**,** 148-169.

Lim, Y., Chung, Y. & Weaver, P. A. 2012. The impact of social media on destination branding: Consumer-generated videos versus destination marketer-generated videos. *Journal of vacation marketing,* 18**,** 197-206.

Lin, J., Guia Julve, J., Xu, H. & Cui, Q. 2020. Food habits and tourist food consumption: an exploratory study on dining behaviours of Chinese outbound tourists in Spain. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure & Events,* 12**,** 82-99.

Lin, P. M. C., Qiu Zhang, H., Gu, Q. & Peng, K.-L. 2017. To go or not to go: travel constraints and attractiveness of travel affecting outbound Chinese tourists to Japan. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing,* 34**,** 1184-1197.

Lin, Y., Kerstetter, D., Nawijn, J. & Mitas, O. 2014. Changes in emotions and their interactions with personality in a vacation context. *Tourism management (1982),* 40**,** 416-424.

Liu, B. & Wei, L. 2018. Modeling social support on social media: Effect of publicness and the underlying mechanisms. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 87**,** 263.

Liu, X., Li, J. J. & Yang, Y. 2015. Travel arrangement as a moderator in image–satisfaction–behavior relations: An investigation of Chinese outbound travelers. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* 21**,** 225-236.

Lo, I. S. & Mckercher, B. 2015. Ideal image in process: Online tourist photography and impression management. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 52**,** 104-116.

Love, L. L. & Crompton, J. L. 1995. The Predictive Validity of Alternative Approaches to Evaluating Quality of a Festival. *Journal of Travel Research,* 34**,** 11-24.

Lu, W. & Hampton, K. N. 2017. Beyond the power of networks: Differentiating network structure from social media affordances for perceived social support. *New Media & Society,* 19**,** 861-879.

Luo, Y., Xiang, Z., Zhang, H. & Wang, Z. 2017. Protective factors for depressive symptoms in adolescents: Interpersonal relationships and perceived social support. *Psychology in the Schools,* 54**,** 808-820.

Lyu, S. O. 2016. Travel selfies on social media as objectified self-presentation. *Tourism Management,* 54**,** 185-195.

Maghrifani, D., Li, T. & Liu, J. 2019. Understanding Tourists' Experience Expectation: A Study of Chinese Tourists' Behavior in Bali. *International Journal of Business,* 24**,** 249-260.

Mariani, M. M., Mura, M. & Di Felice, M. 2018. The determinants of Facebook social engagement for national tourism organizations' Facebook pages: A quantitative approach. *Journal of destination marketing & management,* 8**,** 312-325.

Mason, P., Augustyn, M. & Seakhoa-King, A. 2010. Exploratory study in tourism: designing an initial, qualitative phase of sequenced, mixed methods research. *International Journal of Tourism Research,* 12**,** 432-448.

Mcdougall, M. A., Walsh, M., Wattier, K., Knigge, R., Miller, L., Stevermer, M. & Fogas, B. S. 2016. The effect of social networking sites on the relationship between perceived social support and depression. *Psychiatry Research,* 246**,** 223-229.

Mcdowall, S. 2010. International Tourist Satisfaction and Destination Loyalty: Bangkok, Thailand. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research,* 15**,** 21-42.

Mikal, J. P. 2011. When Social Support Fits into Your Luggage: Online Support Seeking and Its Effects on the Traditional Study Abroad Experience. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad,* 21**,** 17-40.

Mikal, J. P., Rice, R. E., Abeyta, A. & Devilbiss, J. 2013. Transition, stress and computer-mediated social support. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 29**,** A40-A53.

Mitas, O., Yarnal, C., Adams, R. & Ram, N. 2012a. Taking a "Peak" at Leisure Travelers' Positive Emotions. *Leisure Sciences,* 34**,** 115-135.

Mitas, O., Yarnal, C. & Chick, G. 2012b. Jokes build community: Mature tourists' positive emotions. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 39**,** 1884-1905.

Mkono, M. & Tribe, J. 2017. Beyond Reviewing: Uncovering the Multiple Roles of Tourism Social Media Users. *Journal of travel research,* 56**,** 287-298.

Morgan, D. 2007. Paradigms Lost and Pragmatism Regained. Methodological Implications of Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research,* 1**,** 48-76.

Munar, A. M. & Jacobsen, J. K. S. 2013. Trust and Involvement in Tourism Social Media and Web-Based Travel Information Sources. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism,* 13**,** 1-19.

Munar, A. M. & Jacobsen, J. K. S. 2014. Motivations for sharing tourism experiences through social media. *Tourism Management,* 43**,** 46-54.

Nadkarni, A. & Hofmann, S. G. 2012. Why do people use Facebook? *Pers Individ Dif,* 52**,** 243-249.

Namho, C., Inessa, T. & Hee Chung, C. 2017. Social Support and Commitment within Social Networking Site in Tourism Experience. *Sustainability,* 9**,** 2102.

Nawijn, J. 2011. Determinants of Daily Happiness on Vacation. *Journal of Travel Research,* 50**,** 559-566.

Nawijn, J. & Biran, A. 2019. Negative emotions in tourism: a meaningful analysis. *Current Issues in Tourism,* 22**,** 2386-2398.

Nezakati, H., Amidi, A., Jusoh, Y. Y., Moghadas, S., Aziz, Y. A. & Sohrabinezhadtalemi, R. 2015. Review of Social Media Potential on Knowledge Sharing and Collaboration in Tourism Industry. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 172**,** 120-125.

Niu, G., Sun, L., Liu, Q., Chai, H., Sun, X. & Zhou, Z. 2019. Selfie-Posting and Young Adult Women's Restrained Eating: The Role of Commentary on Appearance and Self-Objectification. *Sex roles,* 82**,** 232-240.

Novick, G. 2008. Is there a bias against telephone interviews in qualitative research? *Research in Nursing & Health,* 31**,** 391-398.

Nunkoo, R., Ramkissoon, H. & Gursoy, D. 2013. Use of Structural Equation Modeling in Tourism Research. *Journal of Travel Research,* 52**,** 759-771.

Oliveira, T., Araujo, B. & Tam, C. 2020. Why do people share their travel experiences on social media? *Tourism Management,* 78.

Oliver, R. & Westbrook, R. 1993. Profiles of consumer emotions and satisfaction in ownership and usage. *emotion,* 6**,** 12-27.

Oliver, R. L., Rust, R. T. & Varki, S. 1997. Customer delight: Foundations, findings, and managerial insight. *Journal of Retailing,* 73**,** 311-336.

Oliveri, A., Polizzi, G. & Parroco, A. 2019. Measuring Tourist Satisfaction Through a Dual Approach: The 4Q Methodology. *Social Indicators Research,* 146**,** 361-382.

Önder, I., Gunter, U. & Gindl, S. 2019. Utilizing Facebook Statistics in Tourism Demand Modeling and Destination Marketing. *Journal of travel research,* 59**,** 195-208.

Otto, J. E. & Ritchie, J. R. B. 1996. The service experience in tourism. *Tourism management (1982),* 17**,** 165-174.

Pai, C.-K., Wang, Z. Y. & Chen, S.-H. 2017. Measuring the effect of ubiquitous Internet success on travelers' perceived value and overall tourism destination satisfaction. *International Journal of Tourism Sciences,* 17**,** 298-315.

Pan, B., Maclaurin, T. & Crotts, J. C. 2016. Travel Blogs and the Implications for Destination Marketing. *Journal of travel research,* 46**,** 35-45.

Pan, L., Zhang, M., Gursoy, D. & Lu, L. 2017. Development and validation of a destination personality scale for mainland Chinese travelers. *Tourism Management,* 59**,** 338-348.

Papacharissi, Z. 2002. The presentation of self in virtual life: Characteristics of personal home pages. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly,* 79**,** 643-660.

Papathanassis, A. & Knolle, F. 2011. Exploring the adoption and processing of online holiday reviews: A grounded theory approach. *Tourism management (1982),* 32**,** 215-224.

Parra-López, E., Bulchand-Gidumal, J., Gutiérrez-Taño, D. & Díaz-Armas, R. 2011. Intentions to use social media in organizing and taking vacation trips. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 27**,** 640-654.

Patton, M. Q. 2002. *Qualitative research and evaluation methods,* Thousand Oaks, Calif., Sage Publications.

Pelegrín-Borondo, J., Olarte-Pascual, C. & Oruezabala, G. 2020. Wine tourism and purchase intention: a measure of emotions according to the PANAS scale. *Journal of wine research,* 31**,** 101-123.

Perez-Vega, R., Taheri, B., Farrington, T. & O'gorman, K. 2018. On being attractive, social and visually appealing in social media: The effects of anthropomorphic tourism brands on Facebook fan pages. *Tourism Management,* 66**,** 339-347.

Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Muskat, B. & Del Chiappa, G. 2017. Understanding the Relationships between Tourists' Emotional Experiences, Perceived Overall Image, Satisfaction, and Intention to Recommend. *Journal of Travel Research,* 56**,** 41-54.

Prayag, G., Hosany, S. & Odeh, K. 2013. The role of tourists' emotional experiences and satisfaction in understanding behavioral intentions. *Journal Of Destination Marketing & Management,* 2**,** 118-127.

Preece, J. 2001. Sociability and usability in online communities: Determining and measuring success. *Behaviour & Information Technology,* 20**,** 347-356.

Price, L., Arnould, E. & Tierney, P. 1995. Going to Extremes: Managing Service Encounters and Assessing Provider Performance. *Journal of Marketing,* 59**,** 83.

Punch, K. F. 2005. *Introduction to social research : quantitative and qualitative approaches,* London ; Thousand Oaks, Calif., SAGE Publications.

Qiu, S., Cai, L., Lehto, X., Huang, Z., Gordon, S. & Gartner, W. 2019. Reliving self-presentational concerns in rural tourism. *Annals of tourism research,* 74**,** 56-67.

Qu, H. & Lee, H. 2011. Travelers' social identification and membership behaviors in online travel community. *Tourism Management,* 32**,** 1262-1270.

Richins, M. L. 1997. Measuring Emotions in the Consumption Experience. *Journal of Consumer Research,* 24**,** 127-146.

Rishi, M. & Joshi, G. 2016. Emerging challenges for branded budget hotels in India: Thematic analysis of managers' perceptions and customer expectations. *Worldwide hospitality and tourism themes,* 8**,** 61-82.

Russell, J. A. 1980. A circumplex model of affect. *Journal of personality and social psychology,* 39**,** 1161-1178.

Saayman, M., Li, G., Uysal, M. & Song, H. 2018. Tourist satisfaction and subjective well-being: An index approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research,* 20**,** 388-399.

Sadler, M. E., Hunger, J. M. & Miller, C. J. 2010. Personality and impression management: Mapping the Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire onto 12 self-presentation tactics. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 48**,** 623-628.

Sagioglou, C. & Greitemeyer, T. 2014. Facebook's emotional consequences: Why Facebook causes a decrease in mood and why people still use it. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 35**,** 359-363.

Salzmann-Erikson, M. & Hiçdurmaz, D. 2017. Use of Social Media Among Individuals Who Suffer From Post-Traumatic Stress: A Qualitative Analysis of Narratives. *Qualitative Health Research,* 27**,** 285-294.

Sarason, I. G. & Sarason, B. R. 1985. *Social Support: Theory, Research and Applications,* Dordrecht, Dordrecht : Springer Netherlands.

Schroeder, A. & Pennington-Gray, L. 2015. The Role of Social Media in International Tourist's Decision Making. *Journal of Travel Research,* 54**,** 584-595.

Schroeder, A., Pennington-Gray, L., Donohoe, H. & Kiousis, S. 2013a. Using Social Media in Times of Crisis. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing: Social Media,* 30**,** 126-143.

Schroeder, A., Pennington-Gray, L., Donohoe, H. & Kiousis, S. 2013b. Using Social Media in Times of Crisis. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 30**,** 126-143.

Schwämmlein, E. & Wodzicki, K. 2012. What to Tell About Me? Self-Presentation in Online Communities. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication,* 17**,** 387-407.

Sedera, D., Lokuge, S., Atapattu, M. & Gretzel, U. 2017. Likes—The key to my happiness: The moderating effect of social influence on travel experience. *Information & Management,* 54**,** 825-836.

Shang, S., Li, E., Wu, Y.-L. & Hou, O. 2011. Understanding Web 2.0 service models: A knowledgecreating perspective. *Information & Management,* 48**,** 178.

Sharma, P. & Nayak, J. K. 2018. Testing the role of tourists' emotional experiences in predicting destination image, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions: A case of wellness tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives,* 28**,** 41-52.

Sherbourne, C. D. & Stewart, A. L. 1991. The MOS social support survey. *Soc Sci Med,* 32**,** 705-714.

Shih, H.-Y. 2006. Network characteristics of drive tourism destinations: An application of network analysis in tourism. *Tourism Management,* 27**,** 1029-1039.

Sirgy, M. J. 2010. Toward a Quality-of-Life Theory of Leisure Travel Satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research,* 49**,** 246-260.

Sirgy, M. J., Kruger, P. S., Lee, D.-J. & Yu, G. B. 2011. How Does a Travel Trip Affect Tourists' Life Satisfaction? *Journal of Travel Research,* 50**,** 261-275.

Skowronski, J., Gibbons, J., Vogl, R. & Walker, W. R. 2004. The Effect of Social Disclosure on the Intensity of Affect Provoked by Autobiographical Memories. *Self and Identity,* 3**,** 285-309.

Smock, A. D., Ellison, N. B., Lampe, C. & Wohn, D. Y. 2011. Facebook as a toolkit: A uses and gratification approach to unbundling feature use. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 27**,** 2322-2329.

Song, H. & Hsu, C. H. C. 2013. The Image of Taiwan as a Travel Destination: Perspectives from Mainland China. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 30**,** 253-271.

Song, H., Van Der Veen, R., Li, G. & Chen, J. L. 2012. The Hong Kong tourist satisfaction index. *Annals of tourism research,* 39**,** 459-479.

Sotiriadis, M. D. 2017a. Sharing tourism experiences in social media. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 29**,** 179-225.

Sotiriadis, M. D. 2017b. Sharing tourism experiences in social media: A literature review and a set of suggested business strategies. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management,* 29**,** 179-225.

Sparks, B. & Pan, G. W. 2009. Chinese outbound tourists: Understanding their attitudes, constraints and use of information sources. *Tourism Management,* 30**,** 483-494.

Spreng, R. A., Mackenzie, S. B. & Olshavsky, R. W. 1996. A Reexamination of the Determinants of Consumer Satisfaction. *The Journal of Marketing,* 60**,** 15-32.

Statista 2020. Global social networks ranked by number of users 2020, Retrieved from: https://www.statista.com/statistics/272014/global-social-networks-ranked-by-number-of-users/.

Stefanone, M. A., Kwon, K. H. & Lackaff, D. 2012. Exploring the relationship between perceptions of social capital and enacted support online. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication,* 17**,** 451-466.

Steinfield, C., Ellison, N. B. & Lampe, C. 2008. Social capital, self-esteem, and use of online social network sites: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology,* 29**,** 434-445.

Stepchenkova, S. & Li, X. 2012. Chinese Outbound Tourists' Destination Image of America: Part II. *Journal of Travel Research,* 51**,** 687-703.

Stets, J. & Burke, P. 2000. Identity Theory and Social Identity Theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly,* 63**,** 224-237.

Sturges, J. E. & Hanrahan, K. J. 2016. Comparing Telephone and Face-to-Face Qualitative Interviewing: a Research Note. *Qualitative research : QR,* 4**,** 107-118.

Stylianou-Lambert, T. 2012. Tourists with cameras. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 39**,** 1817-1838.

Su, L. & Hsu, M. K. 2013. Service Fairness, Consumption Emotions, Satisfaction, and Behavioral Intentions: The Experience of Chinese Heritage Tourists. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing,* 30**,** 786-805.

Suhartanto, D. 2018. Tourist satisfaction with souvenir shopping: evidence from Indonesian domestic tourists. *Current Issues in Tourism,* 21**,** 663-679.

Suhartanto, D., Ruhadi, N. & Triyuni, N. 2016. Tourist loyalty toward shopping destination: the role of shopping satisfaction and destination image. *European Journal of Tourism Research,* 13**,** 84-102.

Sun, M., Ryan, C. & Pan, S. 2015. Using Chinese Travel Blogs to Examine Perceived Destination Image: The Case of New Zealand. *Journal of travel research,* 54**,** 543-555.

Sun, T. & Wu, G. 2012. Traits, Predictors, and Consequences of Facebook Self-Presentation. *Social Science Computer Review,* 30**,** 419.

Sweeney, J., Soutar, G. & Mazzarol, T. 2014. Factors enhancing word-of-mouth influence: positive and negative service-related messages. *European Journal of Marketing,* 48**,** 336-359.

Tanford, S. & Montgomery, R. 2015. The Effects of Social Influence and Cognitive Dissonance on Travel Purchase Decisions. *Journal of Travel Research,* 54**,** 596-610.

Tang, X. 2017. The historical evolution of China's tourism development policies (1949–2013) – A quantitative research approach. *Tourism Management,* 58**,** 259-269.

Tardy, C. H. 1985. Social support measurement. *American journal of community psychology,* 13**,** 187-202.

Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. 2010. *Sage handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research,* Los Angeles, SAGE Publications.

Tham, A., Croy, G. & Mair, J. 2013. Social Media in Destination Choice: Distinctive Electronic Word-of-Mouth Dimensions. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 30**,** 144-155.

Truong, T. H. & King, B. 2009. An evaluation of satisfaction levels among Chinese tourists in Vietnam. *International Journal of Tourism Research,* 11**,** 521-535.

Tsai, C.-F. 2015. The Relationships among Destination Image, Perceived Quality, Emotional Place Attachment, Tourist Satisfaction, and Post-visiting Behavior Intentions. *Xing Xiao Ping Lun,* 12**,** 455-479.

Tung, V. W. S. & Ritchie, J. R. B. 2011. Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of tourism research,* 38**,** 1367-1386.

Tussyadiah, I. P. 2016. The Influence of Innovativeness on On-Site Smartphone Use Among American Travelers: Implications for Context-Based Push Marketing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 33**,** 806-823.

Tussyadiah, I. P. & Fesenmaier, D. R. 2009. Mediating tourist experiences: Access to places via shared videos. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 36**,** 24-40.

Tussyadiah, I. P. & Zach, F. J. 2012. The role of geo-based technology in place experiences. *Annals of tourism research,* 39**,** 780-800.

Uşaklı, A., Koç, B. & Sönmez, S. 2017. How 'social' are destinations? Examining European DMO social media usage. *Journal of destination marketing & management,* 6**,** 136-149.

Van Dolen, W., De Ruyter, K. & Lemmink, J. 2004. An empirical assessment of the influence of customer emotions and contact employee performance on encounter and relationship satisfaction. *Journal of Business Research,* 57**,** 437-444.

Veal, A. J. 2006. *Research methods for leisure and tourism : a practical guide,* Harlow, Essex, England ; New York, Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Veal, A. J. 2011. *Research methods for leisure and tourism : a practical guide,* Harlow, Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Venkatesh, V., Speier, C. & Morris, M. G. 2002. User Acceptance Enablers in Individual Decision Making About Technology: Toward an Integrated Model. *Decision Sciences,* 33**,** 297-316.

Vickery, G. & Wunsch-Vincent, S. 2007. *Participative Web and User-Created Content: Web 2.0, Wikis and Social Networking,* Paris, Paris: OECD Publishing.

Villamediana, J., Küster, I. & Vila, N. 2019. Destination engagement on Facebook: Time and seasonality. *Annals of tourism research,* 79**,** 102747.

Vogel, E. A. & Rose, J. P. 2016. Self-Reflection and Interpersonal Connection: Making the Most of Self-Presentation on Social Media. *Translational Issues in Psychological Science,* 2**,** 294-302.

Wang, C.-Y. & Hsu, M. K. 2010. The Relationships of Destination Image, Satisfaction, and Behavioral Intentions: An Integrated Model. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 27**,** 829-843.

Wang, D., Park, S. & Fesenmaier, D. R. 2012. The Role of Smartphones in Mediating the Touristic Experience. *Journal of Travel Research,* 51**,** 371-387.

Wang, D., Xiang, Z. & Fesenmaier, D. R. 2014. Adapting to the mobile world: A model of smartphone use. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 48**,** 11-26.

Wang, N. 1999. Rethinking authenticity in tourism experience. *Annals of tourism research,* 26**,** 349-370.

Wang, X., Huang, Y., Li, X. & Peng, L. 2016. A Moderated Mediation Model of Sharing Travel Experience on Social Media: Motivations and Face Orientations in Chinese Culture. *Journal of China Tourism Research,* 1-23.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A. & Tellegen, A. 1988. Development and Validation of Brief Measures of Positive and Negative Affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 54**,** 1063-1070.

Westbrook, R. A. & Oliver, R. L. 1991. The Dimensionality of Consumption Emotion Patterns and Consumer Satisfaction. *The Journal of Consumer Research,* 18**,** 84-91.

White, N. R. & White, P. B. 2007. Home and away: Tourists in a Connected World. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 34**,** 88-104.

Whitty, M. T. 2008. Revealing the 'real' me, searching for the 'actual' you: Presentations of self on an internet dating site. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 24**,** 1707-1723.

Williams, P. W., Stewart, K. & Larsen, D. 2012. Toward an Agenda of High-Priority Tourism Research. *Journal of Travel Research,* 51**,** 3-11.

Wirtz, J., Mattila, A. S. & Tan, R. L. P. 2000. The moderating role of target-arousal on the impact of affect on satisfaction—an examination in the context of service experiences. *Journal of Retailing,* 76**,** 347-365.

Wong, A. 2004. The role of emotional satisfaction in service encounters. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal,* 14**,** 365-376.

Wong, C. B., Wong, K. L. K., Ng, H. C. & Wong, M. H. 2013. Mainland Chinese Tourists' Expectations, Perceived Performance of and Satisfaction towards Shopping Malls in Hong Kong. *GSTF Business Review (GBR),* 2**,** 134.

Wood, W. & Neal, D. T. 2007. A New Look at Habits and the Habit–Goal Interface. *Psychological Review,* 114**,** 843-863.

Woods-Jaeger, B. A., Nobles, R. H., Warren May, L. & Larimer, M. E. 2016. The Relationship Between Emotion Regulation, Social Support, and Alcohol-Related Problems Among Racially Diverse Adolescents. *J Child Adolesc Subst Abuse,* 25**,** 245-251.

Worthington, R. & Whittaker, T. 2006. Scale Development Research: A Content Analysis and Recommendations for Best Practices. *Counseling Psychologist,* 34**,** 806-838.

Wu, M.-Y. & Pearce, P. L. 2016. Tourism Blogging Motivations: Why Do Chinese Tourists Create Little "Lonely Planets"? *Journal of travel research,* 55**,** 537-549.

Xiang, Y. 2013. The characteristics of independent Chinese outbound tourists. *Tourism planning & development,* 10**,** 134-148.

Xiang, Z. & Gretzel, U. 2010. Role of social media in online travel information search. *Tourism Management,* 31**,** 179-188.

Xiang, Z., Magnini, V. P. & Fesenmaier, D. R. 2015. Information technology and consumer behavior in travel and tourism: Insights from travel planning using the internet. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services,* 22**,** 244-249.

Yang, J., Gu, Y. & Cen, J. 2011. Festival Tourists' Emotion, Perceived Value, and Behavioral Intentions: A Test of the Moderating Effect of Festivalscape. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism,* 12**,** 25-44.

Yoo, C. W., Kim, Y. J. & Sanders, G. L. 2015. The impact of interactivity of electronic word of mouth systems and E-Quality on decision support in the context of the e-marketplace. *Information & Management,* 52**,** 496-505.

Yu, X., Anaya, G. J., Miao, L., Lehto, X. & Wong, I. A. 2018. The Impact of Smartphones on the Family Vacation Experience. *Journal of Travel Research,* 57**,** 579-596.

Yu, Y.-T. & Dean, A. 2001. The contribution of emotional satisfaction to consumer loyalty. *International Journal of Service Industry Management,* 12**,** 234-250.

Yüksel, A. & Yüksel, F. 2007. Shopping risk perceptions: Effects on tourists' emotions, satisfaction and expressed loyalty intentions. *Tourism Management,* 28**,** 703-713.

Zehrer, A. & Crotts, J. C. 2011. The perceived usefulness of blog postings. *Tourism management,* 32**,** 106-113.

Zeng, B. & Gerritsen, R. 2014. What do we know about social media in tourism? A review. *Tourism Management Perspectives,* 10**,** 27-36.

Zeng, B. & He, Y. 2018. Factors influencing Chinese tourist flow in Japan – a grounded theory approach. *Asia Pacific journal of tourism research,* 24**,** 56-69.

Zhang, K. 2007. *Understanding Chinese tourists' satisfaction with their travel experiences in Canada*, ProQuest, UMI Dissertations Publishing.

Zhang, Y. & Peng, Y. 2014. Understanding travel motivations of Chinese tourists visiting Cairns, Australia. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management,* 21**,** 44-53.

Zheng, D., Ni, X.-L. & Luo, Y.-J. 2018. Selfie Posting on Social Networking Sites and Female Adolescents' Self-Objectification: The Moderating Role of Imaginary Audience Ideation. *Sex roles,* 80**,** 325-331.

Zhenshan, X., Hong, Z., Chunhui, Z., Man, X. & Nan, D. 2019. Exploring the Role of Emotion in the Relationship Between Museum Image and Tourists' Behavioral Intention: The Case of Three Museums in Xi'an. *Sustainability,* 11**,** 559.

Appendices

Appendix 1 Participant information sheet for interview (English)

Information sheet

Title of Project: Tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions, and tourist satisfaction: A study of Chinese outbound tourists

Investigators:

Sunny Son (Principle-Supervisor), PhD, Business School, University of South Australia

Email: Sunny.son@unisa.edu.au

Tel: + 61 8 8302 7664

Robert van der Veen (Co-Supervisor), PhD, Oxford Brookes Business School, Oxford Brookes University

Email: Robert.vanderveen@brookes.ac.uk

Tel: +44 01865 48 5682

Prof. Sam Huang (Co-Supervisor), PhD, School of Business and Law, Edith Cowan University

Email: s.huang@ecu.edu.au

Tel: +61 8 6304 2742

Yanxi Zhang, PhD Candidate, Business School, University of South Australia

Email: Yanxi.Zhang@mymail.unisa.edu.au

Tel: +61 8 830 20151

Study purpose:

This study aims to investigate tourist social media behaviour and its impact on tourist emotions in the destination and overall satisfaction with the destination experience in the context of Chinese outbound tourism. At this stage of study, the research will explore the tourist social media behaviour in an outbound destination by adopting semi-structured interview. Please take time to read the following information carefully. If you have any questions about the research or you would like to have a final report of the study, feel free to contact us.

Confidentiality

- ❖ This interview is anonymous and will not ask for names of participants.
- ❖ Records of the interview are strictly confidential and can only be seen by the researcher and her PhD Supervisors.
- ❖ No individual's identity will be revealed during and after the survey.
- ❖ Participants are free to withdraw from the research project at any stage without affecting their status or employment relationship with the organization, either now or in the future.
- ❖ All records containing personal information will remain confidential and no information which could lead to identification of any individual will be released, unless required by law.
- ❖ Aggregate demographic data will be used to describe the participants in greater detail.
- ❖ No individual demographic data or information will be revealed or reported anywhere in the final report.
- ❖ The summary (total aggregated results) of the findings will be provided on completion of the study on request of the participating organizations.
- ❖ The research project will be completed by August 2020. The participant can contact the researcher Yanxi Zhang at the School of Management, University of South Australia, North Terrace, SA 5000, Australia or at Yanxi.zhang@mymail.unisa.edu.au before the completion of the research project.
- ❖ Participation in this interview is voluntary. The completion of the interview indicates your consent.

Completion and general guidelines

- ❖ **The time needed** to finish the interview is **about 30 minutes to an hour**.
- ❖ Participant is expected to answer **all questions honestly and truthfully**.
- ❖ There is no right or wrong answer. The participant only has to provide a suitable answer regarding each question.
- ❖ For this research to be successful, your honest responses are important, even if the information that you may provide is not favourable.

Retention of data

- All information collected as part of the study will be retained in the researcher's office of School of Management, City West Campus, University of South Australia (UniSA) according to UniSA guidelines. All forms (paper) of data will be stored in locked cabinets.
- Only the researcher and her PhD Supervisors will have access to the data.

Ethics and safety

- This project has been approved by the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or questions about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee, Tel: +61 8 8302 3118, email: Vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au.
- There is no risk to the participants as a result of their involvement in the research.

Thank you for your time and corporation. Your participation is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Yanxi Zhang.

Appendix 2 Participant information sheet for interview (Chinese)

背景信息 （访谈）

项目名称：旅游者社交媒体行为，旅游者情感与旅游者满意度：中国出境旅游者研究

研究人员：

Sunny Son: 主导师，博士，南澳大利亚大学商学院

邮箱：Sunny.son@unisa.edu.au

电话：+ 61 8 8302 7664

Robert van der Veen: 导师，博士，牛津布鲁克斯大学商学院，

邮箱：Robert.vanderveen@brookes.ac.uk

电话：+44 01865 48 5682

黄松山教授:导师，博士，埃迪斯科文大学商业与法律学院

邮箱：s.huang@ecu.edu.au

电话：+61 8 6304 2742

张雁西，在读博士生，南澳大利亚大学商学院

邮箱：Yanxi.Zhang@mymail.unisa.edu.au

电话：+61 8 830 20151

研究目的：

本研究旨在研究在中国出境游背景下，旅游者社交媒体行为及其对旅游目的地情感和旅游目的地体验总体满意度的影响。现阶段，本研究将采用半结构化访谈的方式，探究游客在出境游目的地社交媒体行为。请您仔细阅读以下信息。如果您对该研究有任务疑问或者您想得到项目相关的报告，请与我们联系。

保密性声明：

❖ 本采访将以匿名形式进行，因此不会问及被采访者的姓名。

- ❖ 采访的相关记录将会严格保密，只有研究者与其指导老师可以查阅。
- ❖ 在采访过程中或之后，被采访者的身份都将保密，不会被提及。
- ❖ 被采访者可以随时退出本研究项目，并且该退出不会对参与者的现状和将来产生任何影响。
- ❖ 本采访的所有有关个人信息的记录是保密的，不会有可识别的个人信息被公布，除非是有法律方面的要求。
- ❖ 有关样本总量的相关统计数据将被用于描述参与者的总体特征。
- ❖ 任何个人信息或个人的统计特征在任何形式的报告中都将不会被提及。
- ❖ 如果有要求，研究的最终结果可以在研究课题结束时报告给相关参与者。
- ❖ 本研究课题将持续到2020年8月底。在课题结束之前所有被采访者都可以与研究员张雁西进行联系。被采访者可以通过以下两种方式联系研究员：1）邮寄信件到澳大利亚阿德莱德南澳大利亚大学西校区管理学院；2）发邮件到研究者的邮箱 Yanxi.Zhang@mymail.unisa.edu.au。
- ❖ 被采访者参与采访过程完全处于自愿。

一般性指导

- ❖ 采访将持续约半个小时到一个小时。
- ❖ 希望被采访者能够诚实，真实地回答采访中的相关问题。
- ❖ 对问题的回答没有对错可言。被采访者只要提供自己认为合适的答案即可。
- ❖ 为了使这次研究取得成功，您诚实的回答十分重要，即使您所给的答案不是大家所公认的。

数据存档

- 本研究中收集的所有数据将被保留在研究员位于南澳大利亚大学西校区管理学院的办公室里。采访录音的抄本将被锁在橱柜里保存。录音电子版将被保存在电脑里，研究员是唯一一个知道该电脑密码并可以用指定密码使用该电脑的人。
- 只有研究员及其指导老师可以查阅采访的相关数据。

道德规范与安全性

- 该研究课题已由南澳大利亚大学人类研究道德规范委员会批准进行。如有您对本研究课题或相关问题有任何道德规范方面的疑问，您可以联系该委员会的主管领导，电话：+61 8 8301 3118；邮箱：Vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au.
- 参与该采访将不会给被采访者带来任何日常生活以外的危险。

谢谢您腾出宝贵的时间真诚合作，并十分感激您能参与我的采访。

此致

敬礼

研究员：张雁西

Appendix 3 Consent form for interview (English)

Consent form	
This project has been approved by the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or questions about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee, Tel: +61 8 8302 3118; Email: Vicki.Allen@unisa.edu.au	
SECTION 1: CONTACT AND PROJECT DETAILS	
Researcher's Full Name:	Yanxi Zhang
Contact Details:	Yanxi.zhang@mymail.unisa.edu.au
Supervisor's Full Name:	Dr. Sunny Son
Contact Details:	Sunny.Son@unisa.edu.au
Protocol Number:	0000032802
Project Title:	Tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions and satisfaction: A study of Chinese outbound tourists
SECTION 2: CERTIFICATION	
Participant Certification	

In signing this form, I confirm that:

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.
- I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential, unless required by law.

- I understand that the tape will be stored in a USB memory stick and kept without identifiers in a locked cabinet at a locked office at University of South Australia where only the researcher is accessible.

- I understand that I will be audiotaped during the interview.

Participant Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Researcher Certification

I have explained the study to subject and consider that he/she understands what is involved.

Researcher Signature	*Printed Name*	*Date*

Appendix 4 Consent form for interview (Chinese)

调查许可	
该项目已获南澳大利亚大学人类研究伦理委员会批准。如果您对项目有任何道德上的顾虑，或对您作为参与者的权利有任何疑问，请联系本委员会的执行干事，电话：+61 8 8302 3118；电子邮件:Vicki Allen@unisa.edu.au	
第一部分：联系方式与项目细节	
研究者姓名:	张雁西
联系方式:	Yanxi.zhang@mymail.unisa.edu.au
导师姓名:	Sunny Son 博士
联系方式:	Sunny.Son@unisa.edu.au
协议代码:	0000032802
项目名称:	旅游者社交媒体行为，旅游者情感与旅游者满意度：中国出境旅游者研究
第二部分：认证	
参与者认证	

在签署此表格时，我确认：

- 我已经阅读了相关信息，并且已经了解本研究项目的性质和目的，同意参与采访。
- 我已经了解到这个项目的目的和我参与的意义。
- 我已经了解到我可以随时退出本项目的相关调研，并且知道我的退出不会给在现在或将来给我造成任何影响。
- 我已经了解在研究过程中获得的信息可能会被公布，但除非法律要求，我的身份不会被公开，我的跟人研究结果也将会保密。

- 我已经了解该磁带将会存储在一个 USB 记忆棒中，并且将无标识地保存在南澳大学一间上锁的办公室里一个上锁的柜子里，只有研究员可以访问。

- 我已经了解到访问过程会被录音。

参与者签名	印刷体姓名	日期

研究者认证

我已经向参与者解释了该研究，并认为他（她）已经理解其中的内容。

研究者签名	印刷体姓名	日期

Appendix 5 Interview guide (English)

Interview guide

Tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions and satisfaction: A study of Chinese outbound tourists

Date: _____

Time: _____

Place: _____

Hi, my name is Yanxi Zhang. I am a research student from Business School, University of South Australia. I am conducting this interview as part of my PhD research. The aim of the interview is to understand tourist social media behaviour in Chinese outbound tourism. I will ask you some general questions regarding your social media use experience and I would like you to describe your personal experience of using social media during your outbound travel and why you use it. In the research, WeChat will be selected as the specific social media platform. There is no sensitive or highly personal question involved during the interview. I will audiotape the interview. The data collected will only be used for this study. I am not associated with any commercial organizations. All the information collected will be treated with confidentiality.

Participants in the interview will be qualified only when they meet the two screening criteria. The first one is that the participant has had outbound travel in the past six months. The second one is that the participant used WeChat during that trip.

Section A: Ice breaking questions

1. Where did you go for your last outbound trip? What is the purpose of that trip?
2. Did you try to know how you could access to the WeChat in the destination before the trip? Did you think it is an important thing? Why?

Section B: Tourist social media behaviour in the destination

3. Would you please talk about your WeChat using experience during that trip? What did you do with the WeChat? (Note: Probing questions may follow here)
4. When did you access WeChat during your trip?

Section C: The motivations of using WeChat during outbound travels

5. Why did you want to use WeChat during the outbound travel? Are there any specific reasons for you to use WeChat while travelling overseas? (Note: Probing questions may follow here)

Section D: WeChat and social support

6. Did you get social support from using WeChat? What kind of support did you think you got from using WeChat? (Note: I need to explain what is social support to the interviewees.)
7. How did you feel when you got social support from using WeChat?

Section E: WeChat and self-presentation

8. Did you present yourself in WeChat? How did you do that? (Note: I need to explain what is self-presentation to the interviewees.)
9. How did you feel when you present yourself through WeChat?

Section F: Tourist social media using behaviour and overall satisfaction

10. Did you think the experience of using WeChat influence you overall tourist satisfaction of the tour? Why?

Section G: Open section

This section prepares for the unexpected answers from the interviewees. The researcher will continue to ask questions according to the interviewees specific answers which are out of the interviewer's expectation. In this section, the interviewer also inquires what else the interviewees want to tell about the topic.

11. What else do you want to tell us?

This is the end of the interview. Above are the questions regarding your social media behaviour during your outbound travels. Combined with the interview, the interviewees will be advised to finish a form of socio-demographic information. The personal information collected will be highly confidential and only be used for the research purpose. If the participants have any questions or want any further information, they could feel free to contact with the interviewer.

Tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions and satisfaction: A study of Chinese outbound tourists

Interview date & time: _____

Name: _____

Please circle the appropriate item.

1) Your gender:

1 ☐ Male ☐ 2 Female

2) Your age:

☐ 19-29 years ☐ 30-39 years

☐ 40-49years ☐ 50-59 years

☐ 60 and above

3) Your highest educational qualification:

☐ Primary school of below ☐ Middle School

☐ 1 High School ☐ College

☐ Bachelor ☐ Master or higher

4) Your marital status:

☐ Single ☐ Married with children

☐ Married without children ☐ Other

5) Your occupation:

☐ Self-employed (own business) ☐ Student

☐ Technical ☐ Professional

☐ Manufacturing ☐ Administrative

☐ Unemployed ☐ Retired

☐ other _____

6) Your personal monthly income (RMB):

☐ Less than 2000 ☐ 2001-3000

☐ 3001- 4000 ☐ 4001- 5000

☐ 5001-6000 ☐ 6001-7000

☐ 7001- 8000 ☐ 8001- 9000

☐ 9001- 10000 ☐ 10001- 15000

☐ 15001 or above

7) Your residential city: _____

8) Your outbound travel frequency in the past five years:

☐ 1 time ☐ 2 times

☐ 3 times ☐ 4 times or above

Appendix 6 Interview guide (Chinese)

采访提供

研究题目：旅游者社交媒体行为，旅游者情感与旅游者满意度：中国出境旅游者研究

日期: _____

时间: _____

地点: _____

有关采访者和研究项目的简短介绍:

您好，我叫张雁西，是来自南澳大利亚大学商学院的在读博士生。此次采访是作为我的博士研究项目的一部分，目的是为了探讨有关中国出境游客使用社交媒体的行为。我将就您在出境游过程中使用社交媒体的经历展开提问，并希望您能够跟我描述一下您在出境游过程中是如何使用社交媒体以及您为何想要使用社交媒体。在这个研究中，我选择微信作为具体的社交媒体工具。出于研究需要，我将会对访问进行录音记录。不过请您放心，访问既不会涉及您个人隐私相关的敏感问题也不会用于商业用途，您的个人信息将会得到严格保护。

访问参与者需要满足两个条件：第一个是受访者在过去六个月里曾有过出境旅游的经历；第二个是受访者在出境游过程里曾经使用过微信。

第一部分：概述

问题一：您上一次出境旅游去了哪里？ 那次旅行的目的是什么？

问题二：您在出发前，有没有事先去了解您在旅游目的地如何才能继续使用微信？您觉得这件事重要吗？为什么？

第二部分：旅行者使用社交媒体的行为

问题三：您能告诉我在此前旅行中使用微信的经历吗？您都通过微信来做什么事情？

问题四：在境外游过程中，您都在什么时间使用微信？

第三部分：在出境游过程中使用微信的动机

问题五：您为什么会想要在出境游过程中使用微信？在境外旅游过程中您有什么具体使用微信的理由吗？

第四部分：微信和社会支持

问题六：您有没有通过微信取得过社会支持？您认为通过使用微信得到了什么样社会支持？（解释说明：社会支持是指个人感受或接受来自他人的关心和协助，这种关心和协助可以是实质的帮助，可以是得到信息上的帮助也可以是得到情感或情绪上的支持。）

问题七：当您通过使用微信得到社会支持时，您有什么样的感受？

第五部分：微信和自我展示

问题八：您会在微信上展示自己发朋友圈吗？您是如何在微信上进行自我展示的？（解释说明：自我展示是指在社交媒体上通过贴照片，写短文等方式来展示和表达自己。）

问题九：当您通过微信表达和展示自己时，您有什么样的感受？

第六部分：旅行者使用社交媒体的行为和旅行者满意度

问题十：您是否认为出境游中使用微信的经历会对整个旅行的满意度产生影响吗？为什么？

第七部分：其他

问题十一：有关于出境游使用微信的经历，您还有其他想要告诉我的吗？

以上问题是关于您出境游中使用微信的行为和经历。下面还有一些关于您个人情况的问题。请您放心，所有的数据都会严格保密，只用来做数据分析。

请选出适合的选项

1) 性别：
- ☐ 男性
- ☐ 女性

2) 年龄：
- ☐ 19-29 岁
- ☐ 30-39 岁
- ☐ 40-49 岁
- ☐ 50-59 岁
- ☐ 60 岁及以上

3) 受教育程度：
- ☐ 小学
- ☐ 初中
- ☐ 高中
- ☐ 大专
- ☐ 大学本科
- ☐ 研究生及以上

4) 婚姻状况:
- ☐ 未婚
- ☐ 已婚，有小孩
- ☐ 已婚，无小孩
- ☐ 其他

5) 工作状况:
- ☐ 个体户/自由职业者
- ☐ 学生

☐ 技术人员　　☐ 专业人士

☐ 制造业从业人员　　☐ 管理人员

☐ 待业/失业/下岗　　☐ 退休

☐ 其他 _____

6) 您的个人月收入是:（人民币：元）

☐ 低于 2000　　☐ 2001-3000

☐ 3001- 4000　　☐ 4001- 5000

☐ 5001-6000　　☐ 6001-7000

☐ 7001- 8000　　☐ 8001- 9000

☐ 9001- 10000　　☐ 10001- 15000

☐ 15001 或以上

7) 您现在居住在哪个城市_____

8) 在过去的五年中，您一共有几次出境游的经历？（出境游不包括港澳台地区）

☐ 1 次　　☐ 2 次

☐ 3 次　　☐ 4 次及以上

Appendix 7 Participant information sheet for questionnaire (English)

Information sheet

Title of Project: Tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions, and tourist satisfaction: A study of Chinese outbound tourists

Investigators:

Sunny Son (Principle-Supervisor), PhD, Business School, University of South Australia

Email: Sunny.son@unisa.edu.au

Tel: + 61 8 8302 7664

Prof. Sam Huang (Co-Supervisor), PhD, School of Business and Law, Edith Cowan University

Email: s.huang@ecu.edu.au

Tel: +61 8 6304 2742

Robert van der Veen (Co-Supervisor), PhD, Oxford Brookes Business School, Oxford Brookes University

Email: Robert.vanderveen@brookes.ac.uk

Tel: +44 01865 48 5682

Yanxi Zhang, PhD Candidate, Business School, University of South Australia

Email: Yanxi.Zhang@mymail.unisa.edu.au

Tel: +61 8 830 20151

Study purpose:

This study aims to investigate tourist social media behaviour and its impacts on tourist emotions in the destination and overall satisfaction with the destination experience in the context of Chinese outbound tourism. At this stage of study, the research will explore the relationship among tourist social media behaviour, tourist emotions and tourist satisfaction in an outbound destination. The participants will complete a short questionnaire about the research questions. It will take 10 to 15 minutes to finish the questionnaire. There are six sections in this questionnaire. There is no right or wrong answer. It is easy for participants to complete all the questions by ticking the proper box. If you have any questions about the research or you would like to get a report of the research, feel free to contact with us.

Confidentiality

- ❖ This interview is anonymous and will not ask for names of participants.
- ❖ Records of the interview are strictly confidential and can only be seen by the researcher and her PhD Supervisors.
- ❖ No individual's identity will be revealed during and after the survey.
- ❖ Participants are free to withdraw from the research project at any stage without affecting their status or employment relationship with the organization, either now or in the future.
- ❖ All records containing personal information will remain confidential and no information which could lead to identification of any individual will be released, unless required by law.
- ❖ Aggregate demographic data will be used to describe the participants in greater detail.
- ❖ No individual demographic data or information will be revealed or reported anywhere in the final report.
- ❖ The summary (total aggregated results) of the findings will be provided on completion of the study on request of the participating organizations.
- ❖ The research project will be completed by August 2020. The participant can contact the researcher Yanxi Zhang at the School of Management, University of South Australia, North Terrace, SA 5000, Australia or at Yanxi.zhang@mymail.unisa.edu.au before the completion of the research project.
- ❖ The participation in this interview is voluntary. The completion of the interview indicates your consent.

Completion and general guidelines

- ❖ **The time needed** to finish the interview is **about 10 to 15 minutes**.
- ❖ Participant is expected to answer **all questions with honesty and truthful**.
- ❖ There is no right or wrong answer. Participant only has to provide a suitable answer regarding each question.
- ❖ For this research to be successful, your honest responses are important, even if the information that you may provide is not favourable.

Retention of data

- All information collected as part of the study will be retained for five years in the researcher's office at of School of Management, City West Campus, University of South Australia (UniSA) according to UniSA guidelines. All forms (paper) of data will be stored in locked cabinets.
- Only the researcher and her PhD Supervisors will have access to the data.

Ethics and safety

- This project has been approved by the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or questions about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee, Tel: +61 8 8302 3118, email: Vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au.
- There is no risk to the participants as a result of their involvement in the research.

Thank you for your time and corporation. Your participation is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Yanxi Zhang.

Appendix 8 Participant information sheet for questionnaire (Chinese)

背景信息 （问卷）

项目名称：旅游者社交媒体行为，旅游者情感与旅游者满意度：中国出境旅游者研究

研究人员：

Sunny Son: 主导师, 博士, 南澳大利亚大学商学院

邮箱：Sunny.son@unisa.edu.au

电话：+ 61 8 8302 7664

黄松山教授:导师, 博士, 埃迪斯科文大学商业与法律学院

邮箱：s.huang@ecu.edu.au

电话：+61 8 6304 2742

Robert van der Veen: 导师, 博士, 牛津布鲁克斯大学商学院,

邮箱：Robert.vanderveen@brookes.ac.uk

电话：+44 01865 48 5682

张雁西, 在读博士生, 南澳大利亚大学商学院

邮箱：Yanxi.Zhang@mymail.unisa.edu.au

电话：+61 8 830 20151

研究目的：

本研究旨在研究在中国出境游背景下，旅游者社交媒体行为及其对旅游目的地情感和旅游目的地体验总体满意度的影响。现阶段，本研究将探索旅游者社交媒体行为、旅

游者情感以及旅游者满意度之间的关系。研究的参与者将要完成一个简短的问卷。问卷大约需要10到15分钟就可以完成。问卷中的问题没有对错之分。参与者在适用的答案里画对号即可完成问卷。请您仔细阅读以下信息。如果有什么不清楚的地方，或者您想了解更多信息，请与我们联系。

保密性声明:

- ❖ 本采访将以匿名形式进行，因此不会问及被采访者的姓名。
- ❖ 采访的相关记录将会严格保密，只有研究者与其指导老师可以查阅。
- ❖ 在采访过程中或之后，被采访者的身份都将保密，不会被提及。
- ❖ 被采访者可以随时退出本研究项目，并且该退出不会对参与者的现状和将来产生任何影响。
- ❖ 本采访的所有有关个人信息的记录是保密的，不会有可识别的个人信息被公布，除非是有法律方面的要求。
- ❖ 有关样本总量的相关统计数据将被用于描述参与者的总体特征。
- ❖ 任何个人信息或个人的统计特征在任何形式的报告中都将不会被提及。
- ❖ 如果有要求，研究的最终结果可以在研究课题结束时报告给相关参与者。
- ❖ 本研究课题将持续到2020年8月底。在课题结束之前所有被采访者都可以与研究员张雁西进行联系。被采访者可以通过以下两种方式联系研究员：1）邮寄信件到澳大利亚阿德莱德南澳大利亚大学西校区管理学院；2）发邮件到研究者的邮箱 Yanxi.Zhang@mymail.unisa.edu.au。
- ❖ 被采访者参与采访过程完全处于自愿。

一般性指导

- ❖ 采访将持续大约10到15分钟。
- ❖ 希望被采访者能够诚实，真实地回答采访中的相关问题。
- ❖ 对问题的回答没有对错可言。被采访者只要提供自己认为合适的答案即可。
- ❖ 为了使这次研究取得成功，您诚实的回答十分重要，即使您所给的答案不是大家所公认的。

数据存档

- 本研究中收集的所有数据将被保留在研究员位于南澳大利亚大学西校区管理学院 的办公室里。最低存档期限为5年。采访录音的抄本将被锁在橱柜里保存。录音电子版将被保存在电脑里，研究员是唯一一个知道该电脑密码并可以用指定密码使用该电脑的人。
- 只有研究员及其指导老师可以查阅采访的相关数据。

道德规范与安全性

- 该研究课题已由南澳大利亚大学人类研究道德规范委员会批准进行。如有您对本研究课题或相关问题有任何道德规范方面的疑问，您可以联系该委员会的主管领导，电话：+61 8 8301 3118；邮箱：Vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au.
- 参与该采访将不会给被采访者带来任何日常生活以外的危险。

谢谢您腾出宝贵的时间真诚合作，并十分感激您能参与我的采访。

此致

敬礼

研究员：张雁西

Appendix 9 Questionnaire survey (English)

University of South Australia

This study is being undertaken as a PhD thesis research at the University of South Australia, exploring Chinese outbound tourists' *Social media behaviour, tourist emotions and satisfaction*. This questionnaire survey will take you about *10 minutes* to complete. All the questions are asked towards *WeChat using experience in the destination*.

This online survey is intended to be anonymous. The researcher will take every care to keep data confidential. However, anonymous data will be stored on the survey platform and the researcher cannot guarantee the confidentiality or anonymity of material transferred by email or the internet. After collection of data the researcher will delete the data from the online platform. While undertaking the questionnaires, you are free to withdraw from the study. However, once you submit your survey, we are unable to remove your response as it will be impossible to identify your individual data. By completing and submitting the online survey, you are indicating that you have read and understood the Participant Information and give your consent to be involved in the research.

This project has been approved by the University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the project or questions about your rights as a participant please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee, Tel: +61 8 8301 3118; Email: vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au.

Thank you for your time. Your participation is highly appreciated.

S1. Do you use WeChat in your everyday life?

☐ YES (Please continue)

☐ NO (The survey stops, thank you)

S2. Did you use WeChat while travelling in Japan?

☐ YES (Please continue)

☐ NO (The survey stops, thank you)

S3. Are you a resident in China who is holding a Chinese citizenship?

☐ YES (Please continue)

☐ NO (The survey stops, thank you)

S4. Are you over 18 years old?

☐ YES (Please continue)

☐ NO (The survey stops, thank you)

A. The following questions are about your general WeChat using behaviour in everyday life

A1. How many total WeChat friends do you have?

☐ 10 or less ☐ 11-50 ☐ 51-100 ☐ 101-150

☐ 151- 200 ☐ 201-250 ☐ More than 250

A2. On average, approximately how long did you spend using WeChat per day in everyday life?

☐ Less than 10 minutes ☐ 10 – 30 minutes ☐ 31- 60 minutes

☐ 1- 2 hours ☐ More than 2 hours

A3. How often do you post on the Moment of WeChat in everyday life?

☐ One time every few weeks or less often ☐ 1 – 2 times a week

☐ 3 -5 times a week ☐ About one time a day ☐ several times a day

B. The following question are about your WeChat using behaviour in Japan

B1. How did you access WeChat in Japan?

☐ Purchasing a local mobile phone Subscriber Identity Module (SIM) card

☐ Accessing free Wi-Fi

☐ Purchasing or renting a portable Wi-Fi router

☐ Accessing international roaming service

☐ Others (please specify) _____

B2. On average, approximately how long did you spend using WeChat per day in Japan?

☐ Less than 10 minutes ☐ 10 – 30 minutes ☐ 31- 60 minutes

☐1- 2 hours ☐ More than 2 hours

B3. How often did you post on the Moment of WeChat during your stay in Japan?

☐ Never post ☐ 1-2 times ☐ 3-5 times

☐ about once a day ☐ Several times a day

C. The following statements describe what you did by using WeChat in Japan. Circle the appropriate number following the statement where 7= "strongly agree" and 1= "strongly disagree".

☞ Please circle only one number on each line	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neutral	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
C1. I turned to one of my WeChat friends for advice I really wanted when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C2. I got information from my WeChat friends to help me to understand things when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C3. My WeChat friends shared useful information about the travel when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C4. I got necessary information about the destination from my WeChat friends while I was traveling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C5. I got advice from my WeChat friends about a crisis while I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C6. I got suggestions from my WeChat friends about how to deal with problems that happened during my travel.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C7. I expressed my emotions easily to my WeChat friends when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C8. I expressed my anger to my WeChat friends and received sympathy.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C9. I shared my personal worries and fears with my WeChat friends and got advice.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C10. My WeChat friends helped to relieve tension I felt when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C11. My WeChat friends helped me to get my mind off my worries when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C12. I could always find someone to listen to me when I needed to talk when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C13. I got sincere comfort from my WeChat friends when I was feeling bad while travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C14. I felt that my WeChat friends were concerned about my condition when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

C15. I got comfort from my WeChat friends whenever I felt I was far away from home when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C16. I spent time chatting with my WeChat friends whenever I felt bored while traveling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C17. I asked my WeChat friends to help me to do something.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C18. I asked my WeChat friends to fill in for me when I was unable to do something.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C19. I asked my WeChat friends to help me to complete some of my work when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C20. I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some work-related problems when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C21. I asked my WeChat friends to help me to solve some personal problems at home when I was travelling.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C22. I posted photos that showed I was travelling on WeChat.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C23. I posted photos in which I looked good on WeChat during my travel.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C24. On my Moments, I wrote messages that portrayed me as a tourist during my travel.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C25. I wrote about travel experiences that happened to me when I updated my Moments on my WeChat.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C26. When I updated my Moments on WeChat, I revealed my feelings during my travel.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C27. I didn't mind writing about the bad things that happened to me during travel on my Moments.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

D. The statements in this section are about your emotions in Japan. Circle the appropriate number following the statement where 7= "strongly agree" and 1= "strongly disagree".

☞ Please circle only one number on each line	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neutral	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
D1. I felt a sense of joy toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

D2. I felt a sense of pleasure toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D3. I felt cheerful toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D4. I felt a sense of delight toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D5. I felt a sense of enthusiasm toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D6. I felt a sense of affection toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D7. I felt a sense of love toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D8. I felt a sense of tenderness toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D9. I felt warm-hearted toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D10. I felt a sense of caring toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D11. I felt fascinated about the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D12. I felt a sense of inspiration toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D13. I felt a sense of surprise toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D14. I felt a sense of astonishment toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D15. I felt a sense of amazement toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D16. I felt a sense of regret toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D17. I felt a sense of unhappiness toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D18. I felt a sense of disappointment toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D19. I felt a sense of displeasure toward the destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

E. The statements in this section ask about your overall satisfaction with the destination. Circle the appropriate number following the statement where 7= "strongly agree" and 1= "strongly disagree".

☞ Please circle only one number on each line	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neutral	Somewhat	Disagree	Strongly disagree
E1. Overall, I am satisfied with the tour experience in Japan.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

E2. I feel very good about my visit to Japan.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
E3. I am satisfied with my decision to visit Japan.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
E4. I think the overall tour experience in Japan exceed my expectation.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
E5. The overall tour experience in Japan is close to the ideal tour experience.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

F. Finally, we would like to ask you a few questions about yourself. Remember, all data are confidential and your name does not appear anywhere on this survey. Please tick or circle the box in front of the appropriate answer.

F1. You gender:

☐ Male ☐ Female

F2. Your age:

☐ 18-24 years ☐ 25-34 years ☐ 35-44 years

☐ 45-54 years ☐ 55 years or above

F3. Highest educational qualification:

☐ Primary/Elementary school or below ☐ Middle school (junior high school)

☐ High School/professional high school ☐ 2-3 Year College

☐ Bachelor ☐ Postgraduate or higher

F4. Your marital status:

☐ Single ☐ Married with children

☐ Married without children ☐ others

F5. Your occupation:

☐ Government servant ☐ Teacher

☐ Researcher ☐ Private Company White-collar

☐ Foreign Company White-collar ☐ Student

☐ Businessperson ☐ Retired

☐ Unemployed ☐ Other (Please specify) _____

F6. Personal monthly income (RMB):

☐ Less than 2000 ☐ 2001 - 3000

☐ 3001- 4000 ☐ 4001 – 5000

☐ 5001- 6000 ☐ 6001- 7000

☐ 7001- 8000 ☐ 8001- 9000

☐ 9001- 10000 ☐ 10001- 15000

☐ 15001 or above

F7. Which city/town of China are you living in? (Please specify) _____

F8. You travelled internationally (Please specify) ___ time(s) in the past five years (exclude trips to Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan).

This is the end of this survey. Please collect a WeChat red packet from the tour guides as a reward. Should you wish to receive a copy of the final report/summary of the findings, please contact the researcher on +86 18240363148 or Yanxi.zhang@unisa.edu.au. Thanks again for your participation.

Appendix 10 Questionnaire survey (Chinese)



澳大利亚南澳大学邀请您参与一项研究，旨在调查中国大陆出境游客使用微信的行为及其对于旅游者情感和旅游满意度的影响。本问卷仅需要10分钟左右即可完成，自愿参与。所有的问题都是关于您在旅游目的地使用微信的经历。此次收集的数据仅用于科研，所有的信息都会保密。当您交回问卷即视为您已经同意参与此项研究。

该研究课题已获得南澳大学人类研究道德规范委员会的批准。如您对本研究课题有任何道德规范方面的疑问或有关研究参与者权利方面的疑问，请与该委员会的主管领导取得联系。电话:+61 8 8301 3118; 邮箱: vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au.感谢您的支持与参与！

S1. 在日常生活中，您使用微信吗？

☐ 是 （请继续。）

☐ 否 （问卷调查结束，感谢参与。）

S2. 在日本旅行期间，您是否使用了微信？

☐ 是 （请继续。）

☐ 否 （问卷调查结束，感谢参与。）

S3. 您是中国公民并在中国大陆居住吗？

☐ 是 （请继续。）

☐ 否 （问卷调查结束，感谢参与。）

S4. 您是否已经年满 18 岁？

☐ 是 （请继续。）

☐ 否 （问卷调查结束，感谢参与。）

A. 下列问题是关于您日常生活中使用微信的行为。

A1. 您在微信通讯录上的联系人总数是多少？

☐ 10 个或以下　　☐ 11-50 个

☐ 51-100 个　　☐ 101-150 个

☐ 151-200 个　　☐ 201-250 个

☐ 250 个以上

A2. 在日常生活中, 您平均每天大概花多长时间使用微信？

☐ 10 分钟以内　　☐10-30 分钟

☐31-60 分钟　　☐1-2 个小时

☐ 2 个小时以上

A3. 您的日常生活中，发朋友圈的频率是多少？

☐ 几周一次或更少　　☐ 每周 1-2 次

☐ 每周 3-5 次　　☐ 大约一天一次

☐ 一天几次

B.下列问题是关于您在出境旅行期间使用微信的行为。

B1. 您在出境旅行期间，通过什么方式登录使用微信？

☐ 购买当地的手机电话卡（SIM 卡）

☐ 连接免费的无线网络

☐ 购买或者租用随身移动无线 Wi-Fi 路由器

☐ 通过手机国际漫游服务上网

☐ 其他 （请具体说明）_____

B2. 您在出境旅行期间，平均每天大概花多长时间使用微信？

☐ 少于 10 分钟　　☐10-30 分钟

☐31-60 分钟　　☐1-2 小时

☐ 2 个小时以上

B3. 您在出境旅行期间，发朋友圈的频率是多少？

☐ 从不发朋友圈　　☐ 1-2 次

☐ 3-5 次　　☐ 大约一天一次

□ 一天几次

C.下列陈述描述了您在出境旅行期间都使用微信做了什么。请认真考虑，在符合自己情况的数字上画圈，其中 7 表示“完全同意”，1 表示“完全不同意”。

☞ 每一项只能选择一个对应数字。	完全同意	同意	略同意	中立	略不同意	不同意	完全不同意
C1. 旅行中，如有需要我向我的微信好友寻求建议。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C2. 旅行中，从微信好友那里获取的信息帮助我理解事情。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C3. 旅行中，微信好友与我分享了有用的旅行信息。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C4. 旅行中，我从微信好友那里获取了有关旅行目的地的必要信息。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C5. 旅行中，我从微信好友那里获取处理危机的建议。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C6. 微信好友的建议帮助我解决旅行中遇到的问题。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C7. 旅行中，我很容易向我的微信好友表露我的情感。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C8. 旅行中，我表达了我的愤怒并从我的微信好友那里获得同情。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C9. 旅行中，我与我的微信好友分享我的担忧和焦虑并从他们那里得到建议。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C10. 我的微信好友帮助我缓解旅途中的紧张和不安。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C11. 旅行中，我的微信好友帮助我远离烦恼。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C12. 旅行中，当我想要交谈的时候，我总能在微信好友中找到一个人愿意聆听。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C13. 旅行中，当我感觉不好的时候，我从微信好友那里得到真诚的安慰。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C14. 我感觉到微信好友关心我旅行的状况。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

C15. 旅行中，无论何时我感到自己远离家乡，我都从微信好友那里得到安慰。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C16. 旅行中，当我感到无聊的时候我就与我的微信好友聊天。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C17. 我请我的微信好友帮助我做一些事情。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C18. 当我无法做一些事情，我请我的微信好友代替我去做。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C19. 旅行中，我请我的微信好友帮助我完成一些工作上的事情。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C20. 旅行中，我请我的微信好友帮助我解决一些工作上相关的问题。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C21. 旅行中，我请我的微信好友帮助我解决一些生活中的私人问题。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C22. 我在微信上发布照片显示我正在旅行。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C23. 在旅行中，我在微信上发布我看起来不错的照片。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C24. 在我的朋友圈上，我写的信息显示了我是一个正在旅行的游客。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C25. 在更新朋友圈的时候，我写下了我的旅行经历。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C26. 在更新朋友圈的时候，我表露了我旅行中的感受。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C27.在更新朋友圈的时候，我并不介意写下我旅行中发生的不愉快的经历。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

D.下列陈述是关于您在日本旅行过程中的情感感受。请认真考虑，在符合自己情况的数字上画圈，其中 7 表示“完全同意”，1 表示“完全不同意”。

☞ 每一项只能选择一个对应数字。	完全同意	同意	略同意	中立	略不同意	不同意	完全不同意
D1. 旅行目的地令我感到很喜悦。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D2. 旅行目的地令我感到很愉快。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D3. 旅行目的地令我感到兴高采烈。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

D4. 旅行目的地令我感到很欢喜。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D5. 旅行目的地令我感到巨大的兴趣。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D6. 我对旅行目的地感觉很钟爱。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D7. 我对旅行目的地感觉很喜爱。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D8. 我对旅行目的地感觉很亲切。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D9. 我对旅行目的地感觉很友好。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D10. 我在旅行目的地感受到了被照顾。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D11. 旅行目的地对我有着极大的吸引力。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D12. 我在旅行目的地感受到了鼓舞。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D13. 旅行目的地令我感到惊奇。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D14. 旅游目的地令我感到惊讶。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D15. 旅游目的地令我感到吃惊。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D16. 旅行目的地令我感到遗憾。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D17. 旅行目的地令我感到不快。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D18. 旅行目的地令我感到失望。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D19. 旅行目的地令我感到不悦。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

E.这部分陈述是关于您对旅行目的地的总体满意度。请认真考虑，在符合自己情况的数字上画圈，其中 7 表示“完全同意”，1 表示“完全不同意”。

☞ 每一项只能选择一个对应数字。	完全同意	同意	略同意	中立	略不同意	不同意	完全不同意
E1. 总体来说，我对日本的旅游体验感到满意。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
E2. 我对此次日本旅行感觉非常好。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
E3. 我对来日本旅行的决定感到满意。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
E4. 我认为我在日本的旅行体验超过了预期。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
E5. 在日本的整体旅行体验接近我的理想旅行体验。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

F. 最后，我们请您就您的个人情况回答以下问题。请您放心，所有的数据都会严格保密，你的名字也不会出现在问卷的任何地方。请您在适合答案前面的方框中打“√”。

F1. 您的性别:

☐ 男　　☐ 女

F2. 您的年龄:

☐ 18-24 岁　　☐ 25-34 岁

☐ 35-44 岁　　☐ 45-54 岁

☐ 55 岁或以上

F3. 您的最高学历：

☐ 小学或以下　　☐ 初中

☐ 高中/职高　　☐ 2-3 年制大专

☐ 大学本科　　☐ 研究生或以上

F4. 您的婚姻状况:

☐ 未婚　　☐ 已婚有孩子

☐ 已婚没有孩子　　☐ 其他

F5. 您的职业:

☐ 公务员　　☐ 教师

☐ 科研人员　　☐ 私营企业白领

☐ 外企白领　　☐ 学生

☐ 商人　　☐ 退休

☐ 无业　　☐ 其他 (请详述) _____

F6. 您个人的月收入是多少？（人民币）

☐ 2000 元或以下　　☐ 2001 – 3000 元

☐ 3001- 4000 元　　☐ 4001 – 5000 元

☐ 5001- 6000 元　　☐ 6001- 7000 元

☐ 7001- 8000 元　　☐ 8001- 9000 元

☐ 9001- 10000 元　　☐ 10001- 15000 元

☐ 15001 元或以上

F7. 您在中国的常驻城市 （请详述） _____

F8. 在过去的五年里，您一共有 ___ 次出境旅游的经历 （港澳台除外）。

问卷结束，再次感谢您的参与。祝您旅途愉快！

Appendix 11 Descriptive sample statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics	Std. Error	Statistics	Std. Error
C1	524	1	7	5.43	1.767	-1.071	.107	.198	.213
C2	524	1	7	5.39	1.751	-1.009	.107	.088	.213
C3	524	1	7	5.56	1.706	-1.141	.107	.366	.213
C4	524	1	7	5.48	1.729	-1.089	.107	.269	.213
C5	524	1	7	5.24	1.737	-.686	.107	-.599	.213
C6	524	1	7	5.32	1.772	-.937	.107	-.108	.213.
C7	524	1	7	5.13	1.871	-.734	.107	-.550	.213
C8	524	1	7	4.56	2.068	-.313	.107	-1.238	.213
C9	524	1	7	4.85	1.954	-.542	.107	-.901	.213
C10	524	1	7	4.73	2.030	-.573	.107	-.968	.213
C11	524	1	7	4.82	1.942	-.489	.107	-.931	.213
C12	524	1	7	5.20	1.883	-.792	.107	-.500	.213
C13	524	1	7	5.05	1.899	-.653	.107	-.735	.213
C14	524	1	7	5.35	1.765	-.933	.107	-.044	.213
C15	524	1	7	5.10	1.876	-.714	.107	-.550	.213
C16	524	1	7	5.22	1.872	-.809	.107	-.392	.213
C17	524	1	7	5.18	1.806	-.735	.107	-.444	.213
C18	524	1	7	5.27	1.776	-.872	.107	-.136	.213
C19	524	1	7	5.13	1.860	-.749	.107	-.445	.213
C20	524	1	7	5.19	1.839	-.767	.107	-.445	.213
C21	524	1	7	4.92	1.973	-.594	.107	-.829	.213
C22	524	1	7	5.31	1.831	-.924	.107	-.176	.213
C23	524	1	7	5.48	1.753	-1.098	.107	.278	.213
C24	524	1	7	5.21	1.840	-.821	.107	-.346	.213
C25	524	1	7	5.18	1.881	-.782	.107	-.488	.213
C26	524	1	7	5.29	1.847	-.946	.107	-.095	.213
C27	524	1	7	4.93	1.980	-.584	.107	-.839	.213
D1	524	1	7	5.60	1.586	-1.206	.107	.938	.213
D2	524	1	7	5.62	1.597	-1.195	.107	.787	.213
D3	524	1	7	5.51	1.661	-1.084	.107	.460	.213
D4	524	1	7	5.61	1.573	-1.177	.107	.832	.213
D5	524	1	7	5.52	1.607	-1.073	.107	.555	.213
D6	524	1	7	5.54	1.614	-1.118	.107	.628	.213
D7	524	1	7	5.53	1.613	-1.080	.107	.511	.213
D8	524	1	7	5.45	1.658	-.924	.107	.098	.213
D9	524	1	7	5.54	1.594	-1.052	.107	.503	.213
D10	524	1	7	5.36	1.719	-.917	.107	.031	.213
D11	524	1	7	5.42	1.690	-1.013	.107	.301	.213
D12	524	1	7	5.31	1.763	-.864	.107	-.101	.213
D13	524	1	7	5.27	1.771	-.816	.107	-.288	.213
D14	524	1	7	4.80	1.931	-.481	.107	-.849	.213
D15	524	1	7	4.57	2.006	-.359	.107	-1.042	.213
D16	524	1	7	3.91	2.097	.077	.107	-1.271	.213
D17	524	1	7	3.73	2.133	.221	.107	-1.296	.213
D18	524	1	7	3.60	2.148	.278	.107	-1.280	.213
D19	524	1	7	3.52	2.123	.300	.107	-1.252	.213.

E1	524	1	7	5.41	1.745	-1.066	.107	.315	.213
E2	524	1	7	5.42	1.685	-1.002	.107	.233	.213
E3	524	1	7	5.47	1.665	-1.101	.107	.513	.213
E4	524	1	7	5.18	1.734	-.756	.107	-.229	.213
E5	524	1	7	5.28	1.725	-.900	.107	.032	.213