Effect of Home-Host Country Psychic Distance (HHCPD) Perception of Chinese Tourists on Tourism Shopping Motivation and Fashion Brand Attitudes in Korea

Yu Hua Cui · Ho Jung Choo*

Dept. of Fashion Design, Yanbian University
*Dept. of Textiles, Merchandising and Fashion Design, Seoul National University

Received August 23, 2017; Revised (October 10, 2017; November 20, 2017); Accepted January 26, 2018

Abstract

The contribution of foreign tourist consumption on national economies is becoming increasingly important for many countries. This study examines the relationship of home-host country psychic distance (HHCPD), tourism shopping motivation and attitudes towards local and global fashion brands in host countries. Survey data from a sample of 500 Chinese tourists were collected at an international airport in Korea. The results reveal that all three key factors of HHCPD (economic, geographic and cultural distance) positively affect social shopping motivation. Moreover, only economic distance has a positive effect on commodity shopping motivation, while both cultural and economic distance positively influence souvenir shopping motivation. All three factors of tourism shopping motivation positively affect local fashion brand attitudes, while only commodity shopping motivation positively affects consumer attitudes towards global fashion brands. Thus, fashion marketers should trigger the shopping motivation of foreign tourists by maximising the psychic distance from their home in order to satisfy fashion-seeking tourists.

Key words: Home-host country psychic distance (HHCPD), Tourism shopping motivation, Fashion brand attitudes

I. Introduction

Nowadays, foreign tourists contribute significantly to the economies of cities, provinces and countries with famous tourist destinations. Even for economically affluent countries such as the United States and Australia, tourism activities are a critical aspect of the national economy (Gao et al., 2017; Xu & McGehee, 2012). Shopping is one of the major travel motivations and an important activity of interest for outbound tourists. Some individual tourists spend more time shopping after their group activities, visiting shopping malls, outlets, boutique stores and dealer stores (Xu & McGehee, 2012).

As the Chinese economy grows, more Chinese tourists are visiting foreign countries and are outnumbering and outspending visitors from other countries. Major shopping streets, such as Bond Street in London and Fifth Avenue in New York, are already heavily dependent on Chinese tourist spending. While measuring the precise impact of Chinese tourist spending is difficult, such spending is warmly welcomed by the world's struggling retailers. In Korea particularly, the Korean wave culture has greatly influenced the purchase intention of Chinese tourists (Lee, 2015).

Seo et al. (2014) demonstrated the importance of shopping activities in Korea and forecasted the share of
shopping purchases in the tourism economy.

Brand origin is significant in the merchandise purchase of visitors. People purchase global fashion brands in host countries because of the price difference and the opportunity to buy a product at the discounted prices offered in duty-free shops. Purchasing such brands also provides various alternatives beyond the limited types of similar products in the domestic market. Likewise, visitors buy local fashion brands from host countries because of the diverse types of available products. Such local brands tend to be less expensive than global brands sold in a domestic market. Merchandise types are more numerous and diversified in visited countries as well. From the tourists' perspective, a symbolic value exists in purchasing a foreign brand in its country of origin, which stimulates the desire of visitors for local fashion brands from visited countries (Liu & Wang, 2010). Regardless of the price of fashion and the variety of products, systematically proving visitors' psychology in purchasing local or global brands is necessary. In addition, fashion merchandise is the most favoured shopping product among tourists. However, academic research in this area is limited. Little explanation exists about the reason Chinese visitors purchase fashion merchandise in Korea and the factors that affect the purchase of local and global fashion merchandise. Recently, several researchers on Korean tourism studied tourists' purchase of products in terms of the activation of tourist shoppers (Kim et al., 2013; Lee, 2015; Seo et al., 2014). However, those studies were limited to an exploratory research, and research focused on the purchase of fashion merchandise remains insufficient.

Foreign tourists purchase fashion goods for their enjoyment of the culture and for remembrance. Their purchase also involves different psychic shopping motivations or economic values even for non-fashion goods. This research will expand the meaning of tourism fashion goods as products of typical consumption rather than as sightseeing products included in the range of cultural products. An important notion to help understand consumption behaviour in tourism is psychic distance in a specific destination. Psychic distance exists between a tourists' own country (home) and a visited country (host), and this term is crucial in understanding the behaviour of visitors (Dow & Karunaratna, 2006; Her & Kim, 2011; Lee, 2012). According to Sousa and Bradley (2006), perception of psychic distance is a relative emotion of individuals generated by comparing their cultures with the culture in certain places.

Among the significant factors that affect the behaviour of tourists, psychic distance towards visited places is an important factor that must be addressed in tourism literature. This research evaluates the purchasing behaviour of Chinese tourists in Korea with regard to fashion merchandise and provides an understanding of such behaviour. This research carefully views the psychological process of how Chinese tourists' motivation for shopping (which is generated from the subjective psychic distance from Korea) can lead to the purchase of fashion merchandise.

II. Literature Review

1. Home-host Country Psychic Distance

Psychic distance is a critical concept in understanding tourist behaviour in foreign places (Her & Kim, 2011). A latent construct subjectively perceived by individuals, psychic distance differs from physical distance (Swift, 1999). Even for a pair of similar countries, psychic distance can vary among individuals, depending on factors such as previous experiences with foreign cultures and one's lifestyle (Ankomah & Crompton, 1992). Psychic distance perception has been studied with consideration for factors such as culture, language, industrial development, educational level, infrastructure facilities, political system and legal system (Dow & Karunaratna, 2006; Kim & Hwang, 1992; Prime et al., 2009). Sousa and Bradley (2006) explained that studying psychic distance is reasonable when conducted in terms of individuals.

Perceptions of distance towards tourist destinations are affected by three main factors: trust, positive feelings and knowledge about a destination. If the culture of a host country is considered attractive and trustworthy, then tourists will tend to have low levels of psychic distance between their home and the host country. Moreover, when tourists possess more knowl-
edge of a host country, they are likely to feel less psychi-
cic distance (Lee, 2012). Lee (2012) also reported
that psychic distance is a subjective and comparative
concept that leads each individual to experience dif-
ferent levels of psychic distance towards identified
constructs. However, the above three factors fail to
fully explain the perception of distance towards tour-
ist destinations. Limited empirical research exists on
this important issue, even though perception of dis-
tance in a host country directly or indirectly influen-
ces the behaviour of tourists. According to Kim and
Hwang (1992), there are three types of “Location un-
familiarity”: Perceived distance between the home and
host country in terms of culture, political systems and
economic conditions. On the basis of previous rese-
arch, the current study utilises feasible factors related
to tourism science, which include the three dimen-
sions of home-host country psychic distance (HHCPD),
namely, geography, culture and economic aspects of
psychic distance.

1) Geographic Distance
As physical distance towards the travel destination
increases, the possibility of choosing the destination
for a visit decreases (Ankomah & Crompton, 1992;
Ng et al., 2007). When the destination is located far
away, however, the value of the destination increases
because of curiosity and the novelty of the remote
destination (Her & Kim, 2011; Timothy & Butler, 1995).

As technology advances, the effect of physical dis-
tance becomes less significant. Transportation tech-
nology enables tourists to travel more easily and qui-
ckly, and information technology connects distant loc-
ations and provides barrier-free communication. How-
ever, perceived geographic distance, which is a sub-
jective interpretation of physical distance, remains an
essential factor in deciding to travel and in selecting
the destination (Lee, 2012).

Håkanson and Ambos (2010) divide psychic dis-
tance into culture, geography, regulation of politics, lan-
guages, development of economy and government
system. Moreover, geographic distance produces the
most significant effects on perceived psychic distance.
According to Zhang et al. (2013), a significant differ-
ence in the perceived geographical distance and envi-
ronmental distance. This study expands the literature
with geographical distance and environmental dis-
tance that were both correlated with the observed pat-
terns of phylogenetic dissimilarity. Geographic dis-
tance has been used to predict the psychic dimension
as like Jet lag, which is caused by the slow adjustment
of the body clock to the new time zone. So that geo-
graphic distance is not a objective existence, but just
a personal subjective perception. As well as the sub-
jective condition with geographic distance, it was also
significantly affects the overall satisfaction of tourists.
Relying on experimental data, researchers (Håkanson
& Ambos, 2010; Zhang et al., 2013) examining the
response content find that its effectiveness depends
on geographic distance factors. These studies have fo-
cused on the effect of response in terms of geogra-
phic distance on tourism or shopping motivation.

2) Cultural Distance
Cultural distance is closely related to psychic dis-
tance. Some studies interchangeably used cultural and
psychic distance. For instance, Tasci (2009) defined
psychic distance as a cultural familiarity created thr-
ough media image materials in a certain country. So-
usa and Bradley (2006) explained that psychic dist-
tance can be determined by the cultural distance bet-
tween two countries. Hence, factors for measuring
psychic distance should include cultural distance.

Tourists tend to show more positive attitudes and
behaviour towards host countries that have similari-
ties with their home country than those that do not (Ng
et al., 2007). In tourist shopping research (Jin et al.,
2017), culture has been employed to either illuminate
the function of a particular culture or cultural attribute
or illustrate the effect of cultural differences on tourist
shopping. In Tasci (2009), as cultural familiarity in-
creases, the host country's image is accepted positively
and the visiting intention of tourists rises. By contrast,
support for the selection of a tourist destination does
not arise from cultural similarity but from cultural dif-
ference (McKercher & du Cros, 2003; O'Leary & Dec-
gan, 2003). McKercher and du Cros (2003) catego-
rised cultural travel into five groups: sudden, casual,
tourism, intentional and unexpected. This concept dif-
fers from cultural distance, which can be influenced
by various patterns of cultural travel. O’Leary and Deegan (2003) noted that when Irish tourists feel a greater cultural distance from France, the image of France as a host country is perceived much more positively. Their results illustrated that tourists were more likely to spend more if they considered the cultural differences.

A route that combines sightseeing spots is beneficial to shopping tourism (Liu & Wang, 2010). Hence, with cultural factors for the visit, tourists have to purchase goods. Gürhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000) examined the extent to which cultural orientation influences the country-of-origin effects on product evaluations in two countries, Japan and the United States. Cultural variation effects vary across cultures on the basis of the diverse cultural patterns present in different countries. Vana and Malaescu (2016) argued for the need to study the extent to which certain psychosocial features act as mediators or moderators of the effect of cultural heritage on the successful implementation of tourism activities. Such psychosocial features characterise the cultural profile of the communities involved in tourism activities on cultural routes (including the community culture of openness, social distance and community and institutional traditionalism). Cultural variations increase tourism activities, including shopping.

3) Economic Distance

Kim and Hwang (1992) argued that one of the important factors of “Location Unfamiliarity” which were perceived differences between the home and host country, that was economic conditions. In this study, we focused on private behaviors, including tourists consumer purchases and decisions under economic differences between the home and host country.

Tourists may perceive economic differences between their home country and the host country. Economic distance perceived by a tourist for a host country should be considered a dimension of psychic distance. Arita et al. (2011) provided empirical evidence that the host country’s economic status greatly increases the number of Chinese tourists. Generally, most Chinese feel that South Korea is richer than China (Li, 2017). Therefore, the economic distance in this study means the host country is more affluent than the home country; this is a distance in the plus direction. Michalkó et al. (2014) claimed that lower price level products or service in a neighbouring country could be tempting for.

Results from Zaidan (2016) demonstrated that Dubai, the ‘City of Gold’, is perceived as a shopping haven with significant competitive advantages owing to its recent economic growth. Most tourists in Dubai purchase goods impulsively, a behaviour called positive shopping motivation. Ryu et al. (2016) indicated that country image affects the decisions of tourists and, ultimately, their visiting intentions to the country. The greater affluence of a country corresponds to an increased desire of tourists to visit (Arita et al., 2011). Tourism intention is also linked to tourism shopping (Ryu et al., 2016). Arita et al. (2011) revealed that economic distance leads to strong shopping motivation.

2. Tourism Shopping Motivation

When consumers have specific desires, they will search for ways to satisfy those desires. Similarly, tourism shopping behaviour starts from a motivation to satisfy a desire (Chung et al., 2013). The present research suggests three dimensions of fashion shopping motivation in tourism: social, commodity and souvenir shopping motivation.

1) Social Shopping Motivation

Social shopping motivation is specifically related to social status and the groups that consume products. This concept represents socially related shopping motivations, such as communication, bargaining and information exchange (Suhartanto et al., 2016; Sukoco & Wu, 2010). As discussed by Sukoco and Wu (2010), one of the major consumer motivations is socially related motivation, which consists of affiliation and social status.

Looking at people for direct or indirect contact or communicating and sharing information with people who have similar interests or the same hobbies is a social experience. The purchase of a specific brand in a particular store arises from a social motivation to acquire a sense of unity with the companion group.
Sukoco and Wu (2010) indicated that marketers must consider socially related motivations to facilitate and organise brand community activities. Meng and Xu (2012) noted that situational factors, including on-site social interaction at the store, influence tourist consumers’ purchase intentions. The opinion of family or friends is vital in supporting tourists to make decisions during in-store shopping (Suhartanto et al., 2016). This phenomenon often occurs in Korea’s duty-free and local brand stores. We also highlight the social shopping motivation and thus complement Suhartanto et al. (2016), who examined local bargaining and information exchange.

2) Commodity Shopping Motivation
Commodity shopping motivation is the usefulness perceived by tourists about practical or physical performance related to quality, function, price and service of merchandise (Dobie et al., 2001). Commodity shopping motivation, such as price or quality, is suggested as a core variable in many previous studies on tourism shopping and is identified as the most important motivation for Chinese tourists. Some tourists shop because they are able to purchase products at cheap prices (Chung et al., 2013), thereby demonstrating that price is not only an attribution but also a promotional factor for sales. Liu and Wang (2010) proved that low price is the primary pull factor of shopping tourism. Price perception is more akin to an individual inference or an imaginary concept rather than an objective perspective. Hence, the purchase behaviour of consumers is not conducted based on rational decisions but on psychological purchase and consumption (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Consequently, despite the similarity of fashion products, some tourists ascribe high values to them and are willing to pay high prices while others are not.

Chen and Kim (2013) explored how strongly Chinese consumers’ personal values and attitudes influence their purchase intentions towards luxury fashion brands. They proved that usefulness positively influences consumer intention to purchase luxury fashion brands for self-use. As long as the product is good, Chinese consumers are willing to purchase fashion goods, whether they are produced by a local brand or a global one. According to Bearden and Etzel (1982), global brand consumers primarily value the commodity, which involves product quality.

3) Souvenir Shopping Motivation
Tourism products are evidence of tourism activities, serve as reminders of tourism experiences and function as presents after the trip. In other words, people engage in souvenir shopping to provide gifts to friends, family and others. After their trip, tourists give gifts to people who could not visit the host country and recount their travel experiences (Chen & Kim, 2013). Various definitions of tourist souvenirs exist, but their common point is that tourist merchandise symbolises the culture of the visited place and is a tool for recalling memories and feelings related to the trip (Zhang & Liu, 2011). However, souvenir shopping motivation in this research is not merely limited to purchase but is also a shopping motivation that includes all purchases of fashion and tourist souvenirs with a souvenir intention.

Generally, shoppers exert the greatest information-seeking effort both before and after arriving at the airport (Chung et al., 2013). Tourists who have a shopping motivation will most likely ask for shopping details in advance. In the tourism shopping context, planned behaviour factors influence tourist consumers’ purchase intentions (Meng & Xu, 2012). In terms of utilitarian motivation, Suhartanto et al. (2016) found that accomplishing the planned objective for a shopping trip is relatively important for tourists. Tourists with shopping plans have commemorative shopping motivations, a souvenir for themselves or a gift for friends. Recently, many Chinese tourists have been bringing shopping lists to Korea, and these lists mostly include Korean brands.

3. Tourism Shopping Behaviour
The shopping behaviour of tourists can differ from typical consumption behaviour while tourism activities are conducted. Tourists who go abroad sometimes look for ‘show-off’ consumption’, and they are often attracted to merchandise that are not in high demand
and are therefore considered exotic. Consumers particularly consider selecting merchandise based on price, quality and perception of value (Chung et al., 2013). The merchandise price that tourists perceive during the trip is related to the tourist shopping behaviour of consumption with quality and value. Salehzadeh et al. (2016) proved that leading variables of brand equity, such as brand personality, brand cost and choice factor, affect the brand equity of a locale as a tourist destination. Most importantly, compared with local fashion brands in Korea, those global fashion brands are more likely to be well received by Chinese tourists. Therefore, observing the responses to country-of-brand effect is essential.

Hulland (1999) indicated that country-of-brand has a significant effect on product evaluation, and the country-of-brand effect and brand jointly play an important role in the purchasing decision of consumers. Research on the country-of-origin effect has been conducted by various scholars, but research on the country-of-brand effect on tourism shopping is insufficient, and the main determinant is generally the traditional product of the host country. This research divides local and global brands according to the country-of-brand, Korean fashion brand as the local fashion brand and a popular and accessible global fashion brand from other countries (excluding Korea).

1) Attitudes towards Local Brand

Attitude studies in the tourist shopping area rely to a large degree on the original works (Jin et al., 2017). That is an individual's attitude towards the behaviour, combining with subjective norms. Another issue that merits more attention is the attitude-brand national gap, which in general refers to the inconsistency between local fashion brand and global fashion brand in Korea.

In tourism shopping, a local brand refers to a country's indigenous brand. One of the reasons people react favourably towards a local brand while shopping is the positive image and attitude of a host country. If consumers lack experience or information about a product, then they imagine the country image that relates to the country of origin (Erickson et al., 1984). Lee and Lockshin (2011) conducted a tourism-shopping-related survey among 266 Chinese tourists who visited Australia. As the Chinese tourists have favourable and positive perceptions of Australia, they greatly favoured Australian wines. In addition, in-depth knowledge about Australia had a positive moderating effect.

The 'Korean wave' has generated a positive economic effect on Korea. By adopting ‘Korean wave’ marketing strategies, Korean fashion brands have considerably increased their sales and brand awareness. For instance, Ziozia, a popular male fashion brand in China, hired Kim Su-Hyun as a model. Rouge & Lounge promoted their bags to Chinese tourists through Jeon Ji-Hyun, who starred in a popular Korean drama. Such actions show that Chinese people who view Korea positively have positive attitudes towards Korean fashion brands.

2) Attitudes towards Global Brand

Global fashion is a multi-billion dollar industry and a major draw for tourists in many parts of the world. Cities such as Paris, Milan and New York have long been acclaimed for their thriving fashion industries. A global brand usually has a consistent brand image worldwide, enjoys strong brand loyalty from consumers and is distributed evenly in different regions. In addition, a global brand has a special value through differentiation with local brands, and consumers favour products with global images even though they do not have high values or quality compared with local brands (Shocker et al., 1994). Consumers likewise prefer global brands because they want to exude an elegant, modern and global image (Bearden & Etzel, 1982). Furthermore, Hisrich et al. (1972) argued that products' external factors, such as reputation, positively affect consumer behaviour.

As mentioned, the influence of the ‘Korean wave’ creates a positive image of Korea. When people view a region positively, their perception of and satisfaction with products in that region increase (Erickson et al., 1984; Lee & Lockshin, 2011). This finding explains why Chinese tourists who view Korea positively prefer products sold in Korea regardless of the origin of the products.
III. Methods

1. Research Questions and Research Model

This research focuses on how Chinese tourists' perception of HHCPD while travelling in Korea influences their tourism shopping motivation and how this shopping motivation influences their attitudes towards local and global fashion brands in Korea. The research questions and model are as follows (Fig. 1):

Q1. What is the relationship between Chinese tourists' perception of HHCPD (geography, culture and economy) and their tourism shopping motivation (sociality, commodity and souvenir) in Korea?

Q2. What is the relationship between Chinese tourism shopping motivation (sociality, commodity and souvenir) and their attitudes towards fashion brands (local and global) in Korea?

2. Measures

The following scenarios were presented in advance to those taking the survey. ‘Imagine that you visited a famous Korean local fashion brand shop to buy fashion items’. Then, ‘imagine that you visited a famous global fashion brand shop to buy fashion items’. An imaginary fashion brand name was used to control for brand effect because using an actual brand name may trigger memories of personal experiences, perceptions or attitudes towards the actual brand, all of which could affect the research results.

This research developed the measurement items for the constructs of the study by drawing on prior research and reworded them to reflect the context of Chinese tourists visiting Korea. The final questionnaire was completed by modifying several items reported because of their ambiguous meanings, and some words were explained further.

This research adopts Gooris and Peeters (2014) and Zhang et al. (2013) to explore the perception of HHCPD. Specifically, this study focused on three types of HHCPD, geographic, cultural and economic distance. On the basis of the research, tourism shopping motivation was classified (Chung et al., 2013; Suhartanto et al., 2016) into three dimensions: sociality, commodity and souvenir. Attitudes towards fashion brands represent tourists' comprehensive evaluation of tourism merchandise and are an advanced variable that can predict the brand choice behaviour of tourists. Such variable was assessed by four items adapted from Low and Lamb Jr. (2000) using both local and global fashion brand constructs. We developed a questionnaire in English, which was then translated into Chinese by researchers proficient in both English and Chinese. In addition, other Chinese native speakers who are specialists in this area of research compared the translation with the original to identify discrepancies in the language. If discrepancies were noted, some items were rephrased. Question items for each construct were measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale anchored by the level of agreement, ranging from ‘1=strongly disagree’ to ‘7=strongly agree’.

Fig. 1. Research model.
Statistical data collected in this research were utilised and analysed using SPSS 20.0 and AMOS 20.0 statistical package after the data coding process. Before the research questions were tested, analyses were conducted on the exploratory factor, reliability and confirmatory factors to confirm the credibility and validity of the measurement tools. For the statistic method of research questions, the researchers used structural equation modelling (SEM) to evaluate the relationship among perception of HHCPD, tourism shopping motivation and attitudes towards a fashion brand.

3. Sampling and Data Collection

This study collected data through a face-to-face survey we conducted ourselves, in which the respondents personally filled out the questionnaires. The survey participants were Chinese tourists who were waiting to board at a Korean airport. In October 2014, the questionnaire was distributed over two days, and 500 answers were collected. In the face-to-face survey process, we directly used the Chinese language to explain the questionnaire and give the respondents a detailed explanation. Incomplete questionnaires were excluded, and data risk was reduced to the maximum. The sample size of 500 in this study satisfied the lower sample size threshold for SEM (Westland, 2010).

The sample consisted of 302 (60.4%) females and 198 (39.6%) males. A total of 335 respondents (67.0%) were in their 20s, and 107 respondents (21.4%) were in their 30s, thereby proving that the majority of Chinese tourists who visit Korea are in these age groups. Single travellers numbered 315 (63.0%), and married respondents numbered 185 (37.0%). Undergraduate degree holders numbered 262 (52.4%), while graduate school degree holders numbered 81 (16.2%), indicating that the respondents are typically highly educated. Office workers numbered 163 (32.6%), while students numbered 119 (23.8%); thus, the respondents have a high level of education. With regard to average monthly gross household income, 225 respondents (45.0%) earned 10,000-20,000 RMB, 124 respondents (24.8%) earned less than 10,000 RMB and 72 respondents earned (14.4%) 20,000-30,000 RMB. A total of 155 respondents (31.0%) were from East China, which is comparatively close to Korea, 99 (19.8%) came from Northeast China, 95 (19.0%) came from South China and 80 (16.0%) came from North China. Other respondents came from other regions that have relatively less interaction with Korea, such as Southwest China with 36 respondents (7.2%), Central China with 22 (4.4%) and Northwest China with 13 (2.6%) (Table 1).

IV. Results

1. Measurement Model Testing

Construct validity was assessed by using the guidelines in Anderson and Gerbing (1988). (1) Exploratory factor analysis for three main factors, namely, HHCPD, tourism shopping motivation and brand attitude, separately resulted in factor solutions as expected theoretically, and the Cronbach's α reliability scores ranged from .830 to .892, denoting an acceptable internal consistency. We found that HHCPD and tourism shopping motivation consist of three dimensions, whereas fashion brand attitude consists of two dimensions (Table 2). (2) Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to assess the convergent validity of the measures. All standardised factor loadings exceeded .700, and each indicator t-value exceeded 10 (p<.001), satisfying the criteria of CFA (Hair Jr. et al., 2009). The overall fit indices suggested a good model: χ²=751.48 with df at p<.001 and CFI of .949, GFI of .945, IFI of .949 and TLI of .936 (Table 3). The validity test showed no construct validity and discriminant validity concerns, thereby indicating that each dimension of average variance extracted (AVE) was above .500 (Table 4).

2. Structural Model and Testing of Research Questions

SEM was performed to evaluate the proposed research model and the research questions. The overall fit indices suggested a good model fit: χ²=1065.965 with df at p<.001, GFI of .900, CFI of .910, RMR of .046 and RMSEA of .062 <Fig. 2>, which are all acceptable. The standardised path coefficients are shown
With regard to the relationship between Chinese geographic distance, which is one of the HHCPDs and the three dimensions of tourism shopping motivation in Korea, geographic distance positively affects social motivation ($\beta=.139$, $p<.01$), whereas the influence of geographic distance on both commodity and souvenir motivation is not statistically significant. With regard to the relationship between Chinese cultural distance and the three tourism shopping motivations, cultural distance positively affects social shopping ($\beta=.114$, $p<.05$) and souvenir shopping motivation ($\beta=.158$, $p<.001$), whereas the influence of cultural distance on commodity shopping motivation is not significant. In other words, Korea is in the same cultural circle as China, and no extensive traditional culture difference exists between the two countries, but their mass and youth culture are similar. When the Chinese perceive a greater cultural distance from Korea, their social shopping motivation, such as ‘communication or pleasure of bargaining’, and souvenir shopping motivation, which considers ‘souvenir significance’, will in-
crease. Chinese economic distance positively affects social shopping ($\beta=.180, p<.05$), commodity shopping ($\beta=.186, p<.05$) and souvenir motivations ($\beta=.183, p <.05$). That is, the Chinese perception of economic distance, which considers Korea's economy and income as ahead of their home country, usually stimulates the consumption of Chinese tourists.

An analysis of the second research question expl-
ained the relationship between Chinese shopping motivation and attitudes towards Korean local and global fashion brands. Overall, the three dimensions of tourism shopping motivation positively affect local fashion brand attitudes. Social shopping ($\beta=.163$, $p<.001$), commodity shopping motivation ($\beta=.224$, $p<.001$) and souvenir motivation ($\beta=.113$, $p<.05$) are all statistically significant. This finding indicates that a high degree of Chinese shopping motivation in Korea has significantly positive effects on attitudes towards Korean fashion brands. Thus, stimulating Chinese tourists' general shopping motivations could expand the Korean domestic fashion market. The results of global fashion brand attitude indicated that only commodity shopping motivation ($\beta=.278$, $p<.001$) has a positive effect, and no significant influence was observed from social and souvenir shopping motivations. Thus, the high shopping motivation of Chinese tourists cor-

Table 3. The results of confirmatory factor analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Standardised factor loading ($\lambda$)</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>CR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HHCPD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>.840</td>
<td>.820</td>
<td>.712</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>.833</td>
<td>.914</td>
<td>.789</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>.846</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.738</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociality</td>
<td>.758</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td>.871</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity</td>
<td>.746</td>
<td>.794</td>
<td>.807</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souvenir</td>
<td>.816</td>
<td>.839</td>
<td>.767</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Fashion</td>
<td>.824</td>
<td>.776</td>
<td>.749</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Fashion</td>
<td>.803</td>
<td>.830</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$***p<.001$

$\chi^2=751.48$ ($df=349$ and $p=.001$), Normed $\chi^2=2.153$, CFI=.949, GFI=.945, IFI=.949, TLI=.936, RMR=.048, RMSEA=.051

*a*: Fixed at 1 to standardise.
responds to their attitudes towards global fashion brands in Korea.

V. Discussion

This research has significant theoretical implications because it clearly confirms the proposed model. Although the shopping behaviour of tourists has been studied previously, our study is the first attempt to integrate the perception of HHCPD and tourism shopping motivation in the study of fashion shopping behaviour in a foreign destination context. Therefore, our results can provide useful information for fashion marketers and for retail planning and management.

Consistent with previous studies, such as Dow and Karunaratna (2006), Her and Kim (2011) and Lee...
In this research, tourists’ perception of HHCPD is closely associated with their tourism behaviour. Specifically, this study found that the HHCPD of tourists in terms of geographic distance affects their social shopping motivation. This outcome implies that Chinese tourists perceive Korea as geographically far from their home country, thereby providing a social shopping motivation. However, geographic distance has no significant effect on commodity and souvenir motivation. Given that Chinese tourists feel that the journey takes a long time, a social impulse will arise instead of a commodity or souvenir shopping motivation. Our findings also show that cultural distance affects tourists’ social and souvenir shopping motivation, which is consistent with previous conclusions that cultural variations affect the motivation to engage in tourism activities (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 2000; Kim & Hwang, 1992; Vana & Malaescu, 2016). This outcome indicates that if Chinese people perceive Korea has a different culture, their impulse will be to visit Korea. Moreover, cultural distance has a higher influence on souvenir than sociality. Thus, the promotion of souvenirs, which stimulates more souvenir motivation, is most important to tourists who perceive greater cultural distance. The same situation occurs in practice. Tourists who are unfamiliar with the host country’s culture express sociality, such as communicating with the locals or travelling to acquire souvenir products. Additionally, cultural differences will not improve or lower the quality requirements and price requirements or the design perceptions of foreign consumers. Therefore, cultural differences do not affect the commodity shopping motivation as shown in the results of this study. All three dimensions of tourism shopping motivation increase when tourists perceive great economic distance. This outcome suggests that as Chinese tourists perceive the Korean economy is more developed than theirs, tourism shopping motivation in Korea becomes greater, implying that the high economic standard of Korea is crucial to the Korean tourism shopping industry. This finding corroborates with the results from Zaidan (2016) and Ryu et al. (2016) that the greater affluence of countries encourages more tourists to visit and shop.

With regard to factors that influence Chinese tourism shopping behaviour, commodity shopping motivation has the strongest relationship with tourists’

### Table 5. Testing results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path between variables</th>
<th>Stand. coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geographic Distance → Social Shopping Motivation</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>2.748**</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographic Distance → Commodity Shopping Motivation</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographic Distance → Souvenir Shopping Motivation</td>
<td>-.010</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>-.195</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Distance → Social Shopping Motivation</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>2.333*</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Distance → Commodity Shopping Motivation</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>1.643</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Distance → Souvenir Shopping Motivation</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>3.185**</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Distance → Social Shopping Motivation</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>3.544***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Distance → Commodity Shopping Motivation</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>3.546***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Distance → Souvenir Shopping Motivation</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>3.570***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Shopping Motivation → Local Fashion Brand Attitude</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>3.346**</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity Shopping Motivation → Local Fashion Brand Attitude</td>
<td>.224</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>4.417***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souvenir Shopping Motivation → Local Fashion Brand Attitude</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>2.300*</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Shopping Motivation → Global Fashion Brand Attitude</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity Shopping Motivation → Global Fashion Brand Attitude</td>
<td>.278</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>5.270***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souvenir Shopping Motivation → Global Fashion Brand Attitude</td>
<td>-.050</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>-.993</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

The model fit indices: $\chi^2=1065.965$ (df=362, $p<.001$), Normed $\chi^2=2.945$, GFI=.900, CFI=.910, RMR=.046, RMSEA=.062
brand attitudes. This finding indicates that essential attributes of Korean fashion brands, such as design, quality and price, must be considered. Consistent with Chung et al. (2013), we also selected commodity characteristics such as product price and quality as the most favourable reasons for Chinese tourists to make a purchase. In the same vein, Kim (2002) also emphasised four product-related features, product quality, price, colour and design, as the important attributes in tourism shopping, while the importance of price is evident in the motivation of shopping tourism. Similar to previous studies (Meng & Xu, 2012; Suhartanto et al., 2016; Sukoco & Wu, 2010), we found that socially related shopping motivation has a relatively positive relationship with local fashion brand attitude. This research also found that the souvenir shopping motivation of Chinese tourists is positively associated with the local fashion brand attitude in Korea, in accordance with previous studies which concluded that planned purchase, such as tourism souvenirs, gifts for others and remembrance, affects local products (Suhartanto et al., 2016). Another meaningful point is that, among the three motivations of tourist shoppers, only commodity shopping motivation positively affects attitudes towards global fashion brands. This finding is consistent with previous studies that concluded commodity characteristics, such as product quality, are the most important consideration for global brand consumers (Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Chen & Kim, 2013). When people experience difficulty in evaluating products or when they have a thorough knowledge of the products, they judge and believe the products according to external cues, such as store reputation (Hisrich et al., 1972). Likewise, the most important reason Chinese tourists purchase global fashion brands instead of Korean brands when they visit Korea is the credibility of the former given their global reputation.

1. Implications

This study found that the main variable that influences Chinese tourism shopping motivation is their perceived economic distance from Korea. This perception is not a comparison of objective economic standards but of a subjective economic difference. Hence, establishing an aggressive marketing strategy is recommended, such as displaying wealth, which would evoke the feeling that the Korean economy is superior. Although both geographic and cultural distance exhibit a modest impact, they work on social and souvenir shopping motivation and enhance Chinese attitudes towards local fashion brands. The findings also provide useful insights into the fashion market by helping travel marketers plan and execute marketing strategies, such as maximising the psychic distance of tourists from Korea. In addition, this research results provide a theoretical foundation for further studies on the HHCPD and tourism business fields.

This study demonstrates that all three dimensions of tourism shopping motivation positively affect Chinese attitudes towards Korean fashion brands. Commodity shopping motivation has the most important role. Economic distance, which is a previous variable of commodity shopping motivation, must also be taken seriously. This finding has practical implications for how Korea should utilise its affluent image to enhance tourists’ perception of the country as a high-status destination to attract more tourists. Moreover, only commodity shopping motivation positively affects Chinese attitudes towards global fashion brands in Korea. This finding also emphasises the importance of economic distance and commodity shopping motivation. An increasingly global pool of consumers who are impressed by high-quality products with superior design and manufactured in a specific country have the potential to visit that country. Considering the commodity attribute, fashion retailers who use promotions considerably while offering limited quantities of products may be able to encourage tourists to make purchase decisions. Fashion retailers can also emphasise risk-free purchasing, such as offering guarantees and warranties, and employ well-trained sales staff to maximise in-store shopping. Overall, a co-branding strategy between Korea’s fashion manufacturing and tourism industries would be a mutually beneficial partnership. Concurrently, Korean fashion marketers should constantly extend tourists’ perception of HHCPD and explore tourism shopping motivation to achieve a ‘win-win’ effect in both local and global fashion markets.
2. Limitations

Although the above results are compelling, several limitations exist in this study, which suggest areas and directions for further research. First, this research utilises a systemic scale-development process to validate the proposed scale. However, cross-validation from a different sample is needed. Second, a limitation is generated by the sample. China is a multi-territory country whose people have varying characteristics. Consequently, a considerable difference exists among the natural environment, such as climate and geography, in addition to the difference in economic development. The 500 samples used in this research make the generalisation of Chinese tourists difficult. Third, the study focuses only on Chinese tourists, limiting the generalisability of the findings. Although Chinese tourists do have the largest consumption power, China is in close proximity to Korea, and only a slight difference in the perception of HHCPD occurs. In the future, this research model must be re-evaluated based on the United States or on European countries, which have different cultures. Finally, the results may differ if a visited country is less economically developed than the home country. Hence, continuous exploration and detailed consideration of the subject are needed.

References


Hulland, J. S. (1999). The effects of country-of-brand and brand name on product evaluation and consideration: A


