

1 Standing with our hometowns? The relationship between residents' perceived threat from
2 COVID- 19 and intention to support tourism recovery in their hometown

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20

21 **Abstract:** Someone's hometown is the place to which they have an affective bond as a result of
22 having been born there or having lived there for a long time. This article investigates people's
23 intentions to support the revival of tourism in their hometown post COVID-19. We hypothesise that
24 individuals are affected by the threat to ontological security, freedom of movement, and freedom of
25 information, and this synthetic threat will affect their intention to support their hometown. Based on
26 compensatory control theory and psychological reactance theory, we study how the need to belong,
27 combined with psychological reactance, reveal the underlying mechanisms of perceived threat on
28 hometown support intention. We analysed survey responses from 658 residents in China using a
29 structural equation model. The results showed that the perceived threat has a positive effect on
30 hometown support intention and their need to belong mediates that relationship. Instead, despite
31 perceived threats to their freedoms, residents did not report psychological reactance when faced
32 with hometown appeals. These results could help destinations to revive in the post-pandemic era;
33 destination management organisations, especially in China, should be able to appeal to residents for

1 promotional support without expecting psychological reactance.

2
3 **Keywords:** intention to support hometown, perceived threat, need to belong, psychological
4 reactance

6 **1. Introduction**

7 The restriction of free movement that resulted from the coronavirus disease (COVID-19)
8 pandemic had a pernicious effect on economic activity, especially tourism (Gössling et al., 2020;
9 Pérez-Urrestarazu et al., 2021; Williams & Kayaoglu, 2020). By May 2021, COVID-19 was largely
10 controlled in China (L. Miao et al., 2021) and people’s lives had begun to return to their pre-
11 pandemic routines and they had returned to spending their holidays travelling (Ecns.cn, 2021b). In
12 the relatively safe situation of that time, domestic travel was already being encouraged by the
13 government. The recovery of the visitor economy was an urgent priority for destination management
14 organisations (DMOs) and for residents of tourism destinations who relied on the tourism industry
15 as a source of income (Singh et al., 2022). In 2021, a boy named Ding Zhen endorsed his hometown
16 online so ingeniously and successfully that it resulted in a travel boom to his county and led a trend
17 in “appealing to people for hometown support” (Ecns.cn, 2020). As a result, several DMOs and
18 local governments developed “Support your hometown” slogans and marketing campaigns that
19 were designed to encourage residents to help them regain market demand and tourism revenue.

20 Someone’s hometown is defined as a place where the individual was born or where they have
21 lived for a long time. What makes a place a hometown is not its size, but the affective bond that it
22 has on an individual (Huang et al., 2018). Young people tend to consider a hometown to be as small
23 as a village or a town, yet, as they grow up, they may expand the perceived boundary of their
24 hometown to include a city, a country or even a continent due to the various people they have bonds
25 with (Huang et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2020). The words of residents (both those who lived there in the
26 past and those who live there now) are perceived to be authentic and trustworthy, thanks to their
27 detailed first-hand knowledge of the destination (their hometown), which makes them could be
28 powerful ambassadors for the destination (Chancellor et al., 2021; Strandberg & Styvén, 2020;
29 Zenker et al., 2017). Recognising this fact, DMOs appeal to residents saying: “Support your

1 hometown”, “Your hometown needs you”, “Endorse your hometown”. The DMOs encourage
2 residents to recommend, or invite, other people to visit their hometown by arousing their affective
3 feelings of hometown and encouraging them to take responsibility for tourism recovery.

4 The current research aims to explore residents’ response to the appeals to support one’s
5 hometown in the post-pandemic era and tries to answer to which extent these appeals work. It is
6 important to understand how the pandemic has affected individuals’ mental state and behaviours, to
7 appreciate how previous assumptions of what determines behaviours are no longer valid in the post-
8 pandemic era (Chirumbolo et al., 2021; Karatas et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020)(L. Miao et al., 2021;
9 Xie et al., 2021). We suggest that people are still affected by three dimensions of threat: a threat to
10 ontological security, a threat to freedom of information and a threat to freedom of movement, which
11 have an effect on their intention to support hometown. Firstly, ontological security describes the
12 degree to which people feel their world, and role within it, is secure and predictable (Campbell et
13 al., 2020).The uncertainty caused by COVID-19 has created anxiety (Stewart, 2020; Xie et al., 2021)
14 and concerns about a new pandemic outbreak that would threaten their ontological security. Secondly,
15 forced self-isolation, lockdowns, the suspension of overseas group tours and other similar
16 restrictions all threaten people’s freedom of movement. Thirdly, the hometown support appeals to
17 residents may be subject to the same “boomerang effect” that has made individuals ignore the
18 relentless messages to prevent COVID-19 transmission (Dillard & Shen, 2005; Kang et al., 2021;
19 Prasetyo et al., 2020).

20 From the perspective of compensatory control theory and psychological reactance theory, this
21 article asserts this three-dimensional threat has an effect on individuals’ intention to support tourism
22 in their hometown. On the one hand, based on compensatory control theory, we argue that an
23 individual’s hometown can provide them with a group identity and the close connection that they
24 need (Li & Xu, 2016). The threat to an individuals’ ontological security, freedom of movement and
25 freedom of information usually brings about the lack of sense of control and further positively
26 motivates the basic human need to belong (X. Miao et al., 2021), which, in turn, leads them to be
27 more willing to support one’s hometown. On the other hand, the appeals to support one’s hometown
28 might induce psychological reactance, which is a mental state whereby an individual is keen to
29 recover the freedom from which they were deprived or that was threatened (Brehm & Brehm, 1981).

1 Furthermore, since all dimensions of a perceived threat also restrict one's freedoms (e.g., of planning,
2 movements and decisions), we argue that overloading restrictions to one's freedom may make
3 appeals for hometown support act as punch bags for people to alleviate the psychological reactance
4 caused by a perceived threat, explaining their negative attitude to hometown support.

5 Previous researchers usually focus on a single type of threat affecting individuals, such as self-
6 threat (Choi et al., 2019), threat of scarcity (Cannon et al., 2019), threat of ontological security (Xu
7 et al., 2020), or view the threat of COVID-19 as a single and whole one (Anjum et al., 2020; Kavaklı
8 et al., 2020). We propose three specific threats resulting from the pandemic, however, the ubiquity
9 of threats resulting from this pandemic means that researchers need to consider multiple threats as
10 co-existing and intertwined, recognising that people cannot make a specific response to a single,
11 isolated threat. Therefore, this study tests how this three-dimensional perceived threat influences
12 people's intentions in a post-pandemic era to support their hometown's tourism recovery.

13 This study contributes to the threat-related literature with knowledge about compensation
14 strategies and mental mechanism, framed in the compensatory control theory and psychological
15 reactance theory. Although restrictions to travel resulting from the pandemic varied across countries,
16 we argue that the knowledge gained from this study may help other destinations as part of their
17 strategies to recover their tourism trade.

18 **2. Literature review and development of hypotheses**

19 2.1 Perceived threats in the post-pandemic era

20 COVID-19 has left a legacy of psychological problems worldwide (Anjum et al., 2020; Kavaklı
21 et al., 2020) resulting from the multi-layered threats that relate to the risk of infection, inadequate
22 supplies, inadequate information, social relationship crises and financial losses (Brooks et al., 2020;
23 Campbell et al., 2020). Many studies have also found that threats from the pandemic shake people's
24 intention to travel, by raising their risk perception (Im et al., 2021; Ojo et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2021;
25 Zhan et al., 2020), anxiety (Li et al., 2021) and negative affect (Chua et al., 2020). However, this
26 list is not exhaustive and how these threats overlay one another is still not fully understood
27 (Chirumbolo et al., 2021; Foroudi et al., 2021; Kavaklı et al., 2020; Park et al., 2021). In this study,
28 we have developed a synthetic measure of threat that is composed of three contributing factors,
29 namely, the threat to an individual's ontological security, freedom of movement and freedom of

1 information, which are people basically perceived and might affect their intention to support the
2 tourism in hometown under the post-pandemic era, as outlined next.

3 First, the pandemic threatens individuals' *ontological security* (Haney & Gray-Scholz, 2020),
4 which is defined as "the confidence that most human beings have in the continuity of their self-
5 identity and in the constancy of their social and material environments" (Giddens, 1990). In other
6 words, ontological security is someone's confidence and trust that the world is predictable and
7 secure (Hawkins & Maurer, 2011; Phipps & Ozanne, 2017). The concept of ontological security has
8 been widely applied in research on international relations, for example Zarakol (2017) and Narozhna
9 (2018). In 2017, Phipps and Ozanne initially introduced the concept of ontological security into the
10 field of marketing and discussed how consumers re-establish their ontological security after it has
11 been threatened. Ontological security points out that once taken-for-granted routines are disrupted,
12 people's ontological security is threatened (Phipps & Ozanne, 2017). The pandemic has had a
13 profound impact on people's lives and routines, including, for example, not being able to meet others
14 without wearing a mask, not holding a party without restrictions, and not travelling without
15 following strict plague prevention measures. The fluctuating number of COVID-19 cases and
16 worrying SARS-CoV-2 variants (WHO, 2021) have undermined people's beliefs that the world and
17 circumstances are predictable; a fundamental premise of the concept of ontological security
18 (Giddens, 1984).

19 Otherwise, in the post-pandemic era, prevention of cases and control of the pandemic remain
20 of primary importance to governments, which, inevitably, increases individuals' perceptions of the
21 existence of the threat to freedom of information and movement. Preventative measures and appeals
22 (that act as suggestive information) activate the *threat to freedom of information* and the *threat to*
23 *freedom of movement* concomitantly. The threat to freedom of information mostly comes from
24 suggestive and instructive information, which serves to make individuals feel manipulated. In
25 contrast, the threat to freedom of movement more explicitly relates to limitations on the range of
26 movements or actions that people are permitted to undertake. Ranging from daily life to tourism
27 activities, at the time of writing, there remain numerous restrictions to movements and actions. To
28 control the spread of the virus, health institutes appeal to individuals to follow regulations to protect
29 themselves and others by using masks, maintaining physical distancing and regular hand washing

1 (Prasetyo et al., 2020). In terms of tourism, many countries continue to have restrictions on in-bound
2 and out-bound travel, such as forced isolation, or lockdowns, which bring about threats to
3 individuals' freedom to travel (L. Miao et al., 2021). Except movement restrictions, those appeals
4 like physical distancing or hand washing are considered as the threat to freedom of information for
5 the suggestive purpose. Faced with threats to both freedom of movement and freedom of
6 information, some people respond by ignoring appeals and health guidelines (Kang et al., 2021;
7 Ringold, 2002).

8 At this juncture, governments that are eager to put local economies back on their feet have
9 started to appeal, fervently, for hometown support, including encouraging residents to promote
10 others to travel to their hometowns for leisure purposes. However, the appeals might become a
11 "punch bag" for those individuals who are struggling to reinstate a sense of control over their own
12 lives, with the result that they might ignore or reject such appeals (Shoenberger et al., 2021). We
13 argue that there are mainly three dimensions of threat existing in the post-pandemic era that may be
14 challenged by these hometown support appeals: threat to ontological security, threat to freedom of
15 movement and threat to freedom of information.

16 2.2 Compensatory control theory and psychological reactance theory

17 Faced with the three-dimensional threat, according to compensatory control theory and
18 psychological reactance theory, individuals tend to adopt control compensatory strategies and act to
19 recover the lost freedom.

20 Compensatory control theory explains that individuals are motivated to perceive that they
21 possess personal control for the sake of defending against perceptions of randomness and chaos
22 within the social environment (Kay et al., 2008). In other words, people require a consistent level
23 of perceived control, otherwise, the anxiety driven by the lack of control will lead them to seek for
24 psychological compensation (Kay et al., 2009), such as showing a preference to something orderly,
25 certain, or predictable (Kay et al., 2008; Kay et al., 2009; Landau et al., 2015). This is well
26 exemplified in the now well-known phenomenon of hoarding food after public emergencies has
27 proved it (Tingting et al., 2022). We propose that the familiarity and stability given by someone's
28 hometown will bring a sense of control to individuals.

29 Furthermore, according to psychological reactance theory, when people perceive a threat to

1 their freedom, they are motivated to recover that freedom by changing their attitudes or behaviours
2 (Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Quick & Stephenson, 2007). Threats to freedom can result as response to
3 behaviours from individuals or organizations, but also including impersonal events like bad weather
4 (Dillard & Shen, 2005). Post-pandemic restrictions and appeals like health guidelines have been
5 found to activate people’s psychological reactance and bring about the “boomerang effect” which
6 makes individuals ignore them (Kang et al., 2021; Prasetyo et al., 2020).

7 2.3 Perceived threat and intention to one’s hometown

8 To revive tourism post-pandemic, it is important to investigate both people’s travel intention
9 (Chua et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021; Ojo et al., 2022), and also residents’ intention to support tourism.
10 Much recent research on residents’ intention to support tourism is based on emotional solidarity
11 theory and the theory of planned behaviour (Erul & Woosnam, 2021; Erul et al., 2020). While Joo
12 et al. (2021) found that perceived risk from the pandemic has a negative effect on residents’ support
13 for tourism, Woosnam et al. (2021) found it to have an insignificant effect, possibly owing to
14 residents’ hunger for tourists. Hence it is necessary to further explore residents’ intention to support
15 tourism post-pandemic. Xie et al. (2021) found that individuals who have empathy with suffered
16 groups in tourism during the pandemic will show a stronger intention to travel. Similarly, we suggest
17 the perceived threat will activate people’s willingness to support their hometown, resulting from the
18 emotional bond between them and their hometown.

19 The threat to an individual’s ontological security makes that person lose their faith in the world
20 as being predictable, which is based on controllable daily routines (Campbell et al., 2020). In other
21 words, when an individual’s ontological security is threatened, they conceive the world to be out of
22 control. Similarly, the threat to freedom of movement and freedom of information lead people to the
23 conclusion that they have limited decision-making and are losing control of their quality of life
24 (Zhang et al., 2021). Specifically, suggestive information often makes individuals feel manipulated,
25 while movement restrictions narrow down one’s leisure choices. Therefore, people perceive the
26 threats to their freedom of information and movement as manifestations of their loss of control.

27 According to compensatory control theory, people facing a loss of control are motivated to take
28 compensatory control strategies (Kay et al., 2008; Kay et al., 2009), driven by a state of anxiety and
29 uncertainty (Kay et al., 2009). Studies on threats to ontological security (Gustafsson & Krickel-Choi,

1 2020; Park et al., 2021) and freedom (Akhtar et al., 2020) verify that, at the threatening state, people
2 are inclined to suffer negative emotions such as anxiety. While under the influence of those threats,
3 support to one's hometown, by endorsing or recommending it to tourists, can act as a form of anxiety
4 alleviation. The internal image we have of our hometown is generally that of a safe and comforting
5 place, a refuge in times of perceived risk (Huang et al., 2018). As "the last safe haven", one's
6 hometown possesses the characteristics of familiarity, safety and controllability (Morgan, 2010),
7 and, therefore, can be part of one's control compensation regulation. Supporting one's hometown
8 might lead to social approval from other hometown people, which enhances one's coping resource
9 to deal with loss of control (Lin et al., 2015). Thus, we argue that a perceived threat activates an
10 individual's intention to support their hometown and we hypothesise that:

11 H₁: An individual's perceived threat has a positive effect on their intention to support tourism
12 recovery in their hometown.

13 2.4 The mediating roles of the need to belong and psychological reactance

14 *Need to belong* refers to "the desire for acceptance and belonging" (Baumeister & Leary, 1995;
15 Leary et al., 2013). From the perspective of evolutionary psychology, limits to personal power mean
16 that individuals attempt to cope with threats by seeking reciprocity with others (Gintis et al., 2003;
17 Higgins, 2008). For example, people cooperate more when they are confronted with a shared threat
18 like an earthquake, as a disaster provokes people's need for social connection, acceptance and
19 belonging (Rao et al., 2011). This need impels people to be sensitive to interpersonal cues that help
20 them to uphold social connection (Pickett et al., 2004).

21 The fact of having been born, or having grown up, in a place is the source of numerous and
22 deep interactions with that hometown (Brown et al., 2003; Xu et al., 2020). A person's hometown
23 is invested with safe and sound memories, and, therefore, possesses the function of comforting them
24 and lessening their anxieties (Schembri et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2020). Spending a long time in one's
25 hometown breeds a strong attachment with that place (Dwyer et al., 2019; Morgan, 2010). Place
26 attachment to one's hometown foster one's identity, self-esteem, and sense of belonging (Zou et al.,
27 2021), which might result in a greater intention to support tourism to that hometown, such as
28 ambassador behaviours (Chen & Dwyer, 2017). In marketing, there is evidence of people purchasing
29 brands that promote belonging to their hometown, with those brands tapping into a sense of

1 familiarity, affiliation and collective link to the place (Brown et al., 2003; Schembri et al., 2010). As
2 a symbol for people to maintain intimate contact with their origins, hometown brands often play a
3 role in expressing individuals' attachments and sense of belonging to their hometown (Huang et al.,
4 2018). Accordingly, we argue that when people are threatened, the need to belong is activated and
5 it drives their intention to support their hometown. We hypothesise that:

6 H₂: A perceived threat has a positive effect on an individual's need to belong.

7 H₃: An individual's need to belong has a positive effect on their intention to support their
8 hometown.

9 H₄: An individual's need to belong positively mediates the relationship between a perceived
10 threat and their intention to support their hometown.

11 Conversely, *psychological reactance* triggered by a perceived threat might result in a block to
12 the hometown support appeal. The precarious pandemic situation has threatened people's
13 ontological security and, subsequently, has left people feeling that they have lost their freedoms, in
14 terms of living routinely and planning their futures. The restrictions and prohibitions control
15 people's movements and play noteworthy roles in generating people's perceived threat to freedom
16 of movement (Kang et al., 2021). Similarly, the instructive information they have been subjected to
17 makes people feel obliged to comply, and threaten to freedom of information which would be
18 counterproductive (Brehm, 1966; Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Kang et al., 2021).

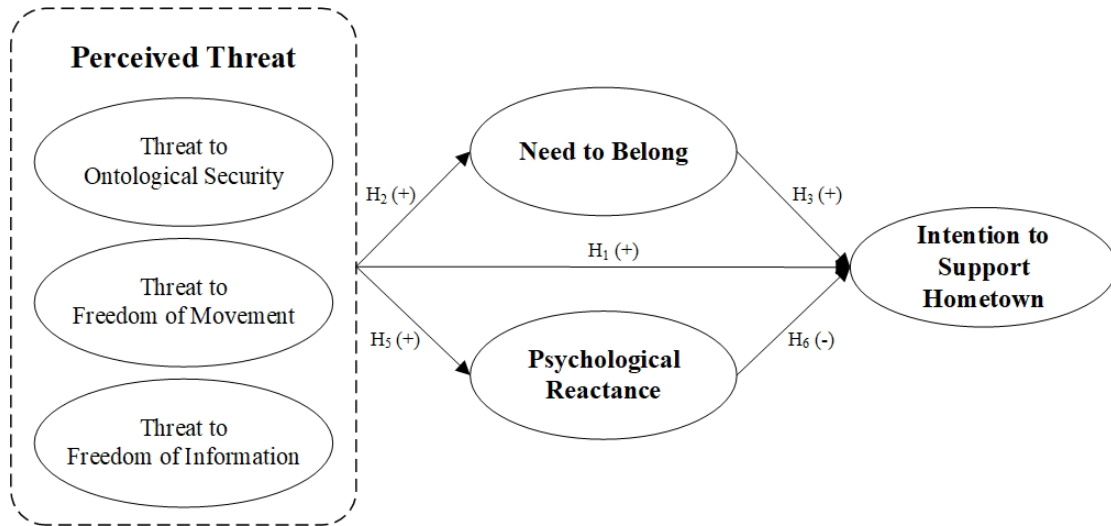
19 Influenced by the "boomerang effect" of psychological reactance, individuals display their
20 response to the threat cognitively or behaviourally (He et al., 2016). However, even if individuals
21 want to resist the threat, or to gain some freedom, they are still limited in their behaviour by their
22 context; in the case of COVID-19, the pandemic is uncontrollable and one person cannot make it
23 go away. Because breaking the prevention restrictions set by society is socially undesirable,
24 individuals may instead choose to display their reactance by not engaging in other socially beneficial
25 activities, such as endorsing hometown support appeals. Accordingly, we propose the following
26 hypotheses:

27 H₅: An individual's perceived threat has a positive effect on their psychological reactance.

28 H₆: An individual's psychological reactance has a negative effect on their intention to support
29 their hometown.

1 H7: Psychological reactance negatively mediates the relationship between perceived threat and
2 intention to support one's hometown.

3 Figure 1 shows the research model for the seven proposed hypotheses.
4



5 **Figure 1: Research Model**
6

7 **3 Methodology**

8 3.1 Background

9 This study was conducted in mainland China in April 2021. At that time, China possessed a
10 comparatively optimistic pandemic outlook with few local, new, confirmed cases. To take
11 precautions against further spread of the disease, while keeping people's lives as normal as possible,
12 a set of public rules existed, such as wearing masks in public places and regularly displaying one's
13 "pandemic prevention health information code"; the latter was a type of digital, green certificate
14 that people were required to show to be permitted to enter public establishments, similar to the "Pass
15 Sanitaire" in France. People could freely access public places in areas that weren't classed as high
16 risk but they had to keep away from high-risk areas with reported covid cases. If a person travelled
17 to a high-risk area, this would make their individual health information code turn red when scanned,
18 resulting in entry refusal. Regularly having to display their health pass was tiresome and required
19 people to plan ahead to ensure they had their smartphone with them, with sufficient power as well.
20 However, such preventive measures afforded a gradual return to normality for Chinese citizens.
21 Almost all tourism destinations in mainland China were rebounding, and DMOs aimed to revitalise

1 their tourism industries (Ecn.cn, 2021a). Some destinations chose to explicitly appeal to people to
2 support their hometowns by visiting them for their holidays, with DMOs targeting locals on social
3 media to become destination ambassadors with slogans like “Endorse your hometown” and
4 “Recommend your hometown” (see Figure 2).



5
6 **Figure 2:** Two example slogans of appeals to support hometowns

7 3.2 Measures

8 The measures adopted by this study are adapted from English originals. We followed a
9 procedure of translation-back-translation by two English majors, following convention (Brislin,
10 1976). Next, we invited three professors and five postgraduates who majored in marketing and
11 tourism management to adapt items suitable for the Chinese context and research theme. The
12 measurements for *threat to ontological security* were derived by combining three previous studies
13 (Callejo, 2016; Cui et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2020) and by adapting three items to the context, e.g., “I
14 feel that the society, material and living environment around me are in an unstable state”. We defined
15 *threat to freedom of movement* by adapting three items from Dillard and Shen (2005) for tourism,
16 such as “The pandemic forced me to cancel my travel plans”, “The pandemic threatened my freedom
17 to choose destinations” and “The pandemic has deprived me of many choices, such as I almost must
18 choose domestic destinations”. The measures of *threat to freedom of information* were adapted from
19 Wang and Cheng (2013) with two items, for example “Those information are trying to convince me
20 to make the decisions for hometown support”. To measure the *need to belong*, we adapted three
21 items from Leary et al. (2013), such as “If people from hometown don’t seem to accept me, I don’t
22 let it bother me (R)” and “I have a strong ‘need to belong’ at present situation”, while to measure
23 *psychological reactance*, we adapted three items from Wendlandt and Schrader (2007), like “I reject
24 the intrusion upon my freedom to decide as intended by the hometown appeals”, “I do not share in

1 this kind of ‘hometown mania’” and “I do not want to be bound by hometown appeals”. To measure
 2 *intention to support hometown*, we adapted five items for tourism-related behaviour, such as “I am
 3 willing to purchase my hometown’s tourism products, such as souvenirs and traveling to hometown”,
 4 “I would like to recommend my friends to travel to my hometown” and “I want to make some
 5 contributions to the tourism publicity of my hometown”. All these measures were set on a seven-
 6 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

7 3.3 Data collection and participants

8 Mindful of precautions due to the pandemic, we administered the questionnaires online during
 9 April to June in 2021, using a professional data collection and survey platform called Credamo.com
 10 by simple random sampling. The samples are the registered members and come from all provinces
 11 and cities of China. All the participants confirmed that they agreed to participate in the survey before
 12 starting it, or just close the web page. After the agreement, recent COVID-19-related news and
 13 several actual hometown support appeals were presented to them, to ensure a shared understanding
 14 of the key concepts with the help of an open-ended question which asks for their perception of the
 15 materials. To ensure the quality of the questionnaires collected, attention-check questions were
 16 concluded, such as ‘Which one do you prefer, “mountain” or “sea”? This is an attention test, please
 17 choose “city”’. Any questionnaires where the answer was not “city” were excluded. Furthermore,
 18 we checked the occurrence of straight-lining, i.e., choosing the same option more than ten times in
 19 succession (Holbrook et al., 2003). In total, we collected 658 valid samples. Every participant whose
 20 questionnaire is valid received 3 CNY (about 0.5 USD) as a reward. The detailed sample
 21 demographics are reported in Table 1.

22
 23 **Table 1: Respondents’ demographic profiles**

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage	Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Gender</i>			<i>Age</i>		
male	323	49.1	18~25years	199	30.3
female	335	50.9	26~30years	258	39.2
<i>Education</i>			31~40years	168	25.5
Less than high school	19	2.9	41~50years	26	4.0
College	70	10.7	51~60years	6	1.0
Bachelor’s degree	462	70.2	>60 years	1	0.2
Postgraduate degree	82	12.5			
PhD	25	3.8			

1

2 3.4 Preliminary analyses

3 The normality test of the data was carried out before the measurement model test. The skewness
4 and kurtosis of each item were estimated to check data normality. The distributions of the skewness
5 values (from -1.336 to -0.267) and the kurtosis values (from 0.785 to 2.712) met the reference
6 standard of absolute skew value below 2 or absolute kurtosis (proper) below 7, indicating data
7 normality (Kim, 2013).

8 When all data are collected from the same source, common method variance is a likely concern.
9 Several procedural and statistical remedies, suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003), were used to
10 minimise the potential for common source bias. First, the participants came from a variety of regions
11 and groups. Second, the participants were assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of their
12 responses, in order to reduce issues such as participants' evaluation apprehension and social
13 desirability. Third, we statistically tested the potential impact of common method variance, using
14 Harman's one-factor test, which states that the threat of common method bias is high if a single
15 factor accounts for more than 50% of the variance. The combined five factors accounted for 70.14%
16 of the total variance while the first (largest) factor accounted for 30.73; therefore common method
17 bias is unlikely to be a pervasive problem in this study.

18 3.5 Measurement model test

19 A six-factor measurement model was estimated using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)
20 with Mplus (version 8.3) and SPSS 26.0. The results showed that the data fit for the model was
21 acceptable: $\chi^2(144) = 263.594$ ($p < 0.001$); CFI= 0.957; TLI= 0.949; RMSEA= 0.050; SRMR=
22 0.059, and all the standardised item factor loadings exceeded 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). We
23 deleted one item: "The pandemic forced me to cancel my travel plans" from the threat to freedom
24 of movement and one item: "I am willing to purchase my hometown's tourism products, such as
25 souvenirs and traveling to hometown" from intention to support one's hometown, as their factor
26 loadings are both lower than the threshold of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010). After deleting these items, the
27 analysis showed the data had a better fit: $\chi^2(111) = 197.034$ ($p < 0.001$); CFI= 0.982; TLI= 0.978;
28 RMSEA= 0.034; SRMR= 0.041, and all the standardised item factor loadings exceeded 0.6. The
29 standardised item factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha, Composite Reliability and Average Variance

1 Extracted (AVE) data are reported in Table 2.

2

3

Table 2: Measurement model results

Constructs and items	Standardised loading	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability
<i>Perceived threat</i>			
Threat to ontological security	0.610		
Threat to freedom of movement	0.706		
Threat to freedom of information	0.614		
<i>Threat to ontological security</i>		0.795	0.796
I feel that the society, material and living environment around me are in an unstable state.	0.726		
I can't decide where to go.	0.789		
My plans for the future are disrupted by the pandemic.	0.740		
<i>Threat to freedom of movement</i>		0.711	0.716
The pandemic threatens my freedom to choose between destinations.	0.716		
The pandemic has deprived me of many choices, to the extent that I almost can't choose anything but domestic destinations.	0.777		
<i>Threat to freedom of information</i>		0.797	0.798
The information is trying to convince me to support hometown brands.	0.811		
The information tries to manipulate me.	0.818		
<i>Need to belong</i>		0.788	0.787
If people from my hometown don't seem to accept me, I don't let it bother me. (R)	0.775		
I have a strong "need to belong" at present.	0.768		
I try hard not to do things that will make people from my hometown avoid or reject me.	0.705		
<i>Psychological reactance</i>		0.857	0.860
I reject the intrusion upon my freedom to decide as I intended that comes from the hometown appeals.	0.725		
I do not share in this kind of "hometown mania".	0.885		
I do not want to be bound by hometown appeals.	0.843		
<i>Hometown support intention</i>		0.874	0.873
I would like to recommend to my friends to travel to my hometown.	0.816		
I would like to make some contribution to the tourism publicity of my hometown.	0.771		
I would like to recommend the tourism products of my hometown to my friends.	0.789		

When my friend asks me to recommend a tourism destination, I am willing to recommend my hometown. 0.803

1

2 As shown in Table 2, all the standardised item factor loadings exceeded 0.6, which showed
 3 sufficient reliability, and the Cronbach's alpha values of the constructs exceeded 0.7, which also
 4 indicated sufficient reliability (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The average variance extracted (AVE) of
 5 constructs ranged from 0.552 to 0.673, which exceeded the required limit of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker,
 6 1981). The values of composite reliability for each coefficient were all acceptably > 0.7 (Gefen et
 7 al., 2000). The correlation coefficients for all the variables are shown in Table 3. The square roots
 8 of the AVEs ranged from 0.743 to 0.820, all higher than the correlations the variables, which
 9 indicated that discriminate validity was satisfied.

10

11

Table 3: The correlation coefficients

Variables	AVE	OST	MFT	IFT	NTB	PR	HSI
<i>Ontological security threat (OST)</i>	0.566	0.752					
<i>Movement freedom threat (MFT)</i>	0.558	0.488	0.747				
<i>Information freedom threat (IFT)</i>	0.663	0.329	0.192	0.814			
<i>Need to belong (NTB)</i>	0.552	0.340	0.283	0.679	0.743		
<i>Psychological Reactance (PR)</i>	0.673	0.257	0.254	0.197	0.210	0.820	
<i>Hometown support intention (HSI)</i>	0.632	0.274	0.312	0.223	0.221	0.624	0.795

12

Note: Diagonal elements in bold are square roots of the average variance extracted.

13

14

The second-order statistics were then examined. Perceived threat was significantly measured by threat to ontological security (standardised factor loading $\beta = 0.610$, $p < 0.01$), threat to freedom of movement (standardised factor loading $\beta = 0.706$, $p < 0.01$), and threat to freedom of information (standardised factor loading $\beta = 0.614$, $p < 0.01$). All the path coefficients were significant and higher than the recommended standard of 0.6 (Chin, 1988).

15

3.6 Structural model test

16

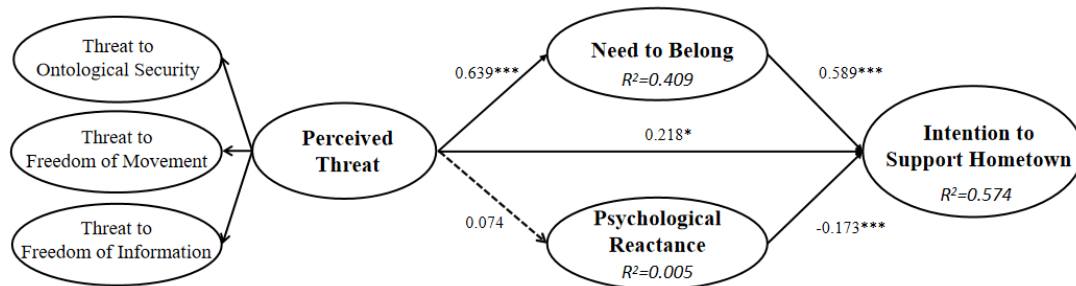
17

We estimated all hypothesised structural model using Mplus (version 8.3). The model showed an acceptable fit to the data: $\chi^2(111) = 197.034$ ($p < 0.001$); CFI = 0.982; TLI = 0.978; RMSEA = 0.034; SRMR = 0.041. Figure 3 presents the standard regression weights of the causal paths in the model. The results showed that: i) perceived threat had a significant positive impact on the need to belong ($\beta = 0.639$; $P < 0.001$); ii) the need to belong positively related to intention to support one's

18

1 hometown ($\beta= 0.589$; $P < 0.001$); iii) psychological reactance had a significant negative relationship
 2 with intention to support hometown ($\beta= -0.173$; $P < 0.001$); and iv) perceived threat was positively
 3 related to intention to support hometown ($\beta= 0.218$; $P < 0.05$). However, there was no significant
 4 relationship between perceived threat and psychological reactance ($\beta= 0.074$; $P= 0.224$). The R^2 for
 5 need to belong, psychological reactance and intention to support hometown are 0.409, 0.005 and
 6 0.574 respectively. Therefore, to summarise, hypotheses H1, H2, H3 and H6 were accepted, while
 7 H5 was rejected.

8



9

Figure 3: SEM results

10

11 3.6 The mediation analysis

12 The mediated effect of perceived threat on intention to support one's hometown via the need
 13 to belong and psychological reactance was examined. The total indirect effect of perceived threat
 14 on intention to support one's hometown was assessed by examining the 95 percent CI around total
 15 indirect using a bootstrapping procedure (using 1,000 bootstrap samples) (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).
 16 The total indirect perceived threat on intention to support one's hometown was positive and
 17 significant (the total indirect effect was 0.411, $p < 0.001$; the standardised total indirect effect was
 18 0.364, $p < 0.001$). And the total indirect effect of perceived threat on intention to support one's
 19 hometown via need to belong was positive and significant (the indirect effect was 0.425, $p < 0.001$;
 20 and the standardised indirect effect was 0.376, $p < 0.001$; 95 per cent CI = 0.261-0.679). Therefore,
 21 Hypothesis H4 is supported. The total indirect effect of perceived threat on intention to support one's
 22 hometown via psychological reactance was not significant (the total standardised total indirect effect
 23 was -0.013, $P= 0.279$). Therefore, Hypothesis H7 is rejected.

24 As the results show, even in the post-pandemic era, people still perceive there to be threats.
 25 Specifically, each of the three threats being studied played a role in arousing the threatened mental

1 states of individuals. The dimensions of threats came from interference with individuals' worldviews,
2 pandemic-related changes and the messages of hometown support appeals. Faced with both the
3 COVID-19 threat and the hometown appeals for local tourism support, we found that people leaned
4 towards supporting their hometown in general (H1). The need to belong played a comparably
5 decisive role in mediating the positive relationship between perceived threat and the behavioural
6 intention to support one's hometown (H4). The shared threat of the pandemic triggered people's
7 need to belong to a familiar group that could provide them with a sense of security and compensation
8 for loss of control (H2). The emotional cues of the hometown brands, which inspired people with
9 safe and sound memories of their hometowns, triggered the behavioural intention to support one's
10 hometown and was seen to satisfy their need to belong (H3). Hypothesis 5, which proposed that a
11 threat has a positive effect on psychological reactance, was not supported. It was encouraging to
12 find that even when appeals to support one's hometown were perceived as manipulating and
13 freedom-threatening, Chinese people reported to still actively chose to embrace their hometown
14 without psychological reactance (H5). Hometown appeals were also found not to be "punch bags"
15 through which people could release the stresses of threats to their freedoms. Indeed, the
16 psychological reactance induced by a perceived threat was seen to have a negative effect on people's
17 behavioural intention to support their hometown (H6).

18 **4 Discussion**

19 This study explores whether individuals are willing to support their hometown, after they
20 perceive a threat, in the post-covid pandemic era. By analysing situational factors, we test how three
21 dimensions of threat affect people's choices, namely, threats to individuals' ontological security,
22 freedom of movement and freedom of information. Our findings expand on previous studies into
23 how a disaster influences individuals' affections, mental states and behaviours (Campbell et al.,
24 2020; Haney & Gray-Scholz, 2020; Rao et al., 2011; Wiegel et al., 2021). According to
25 compensatory control theory, when people perceive loss of control, they adopt compensatory control
26 strategies to recover their sense of control. Our results confirm that choosing to support one's
27 hometown can be a great strategy in response to a threat, consistent with previous research (Verlegh
28 et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2020), which further expands compensatory control theory. In terms of
29 underlying mechanisms, our data shows that the need to belong has a positive effect on people's

1 intentions to support tourism in their hometown. It is human nature for people to pursue group
2 belonging, especially when they are threatened (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). We confirm that in
3 April 2021, reported to be the post-covid pandemic era in China at the time, people still perceived
4 the likely threat of the virus, and this increased their need to belong. The emotionally collective and
5 warm cues provided by hometown appeals triggered their behavioural intentions to support their
6 hometowns, again confirming previous research (Huang et al., 2018; Pickett et al., 2004; Verlegh et
7 al., 2021; Xu et al., 2020).

8 We hypothesised that when exposed to threats to their daily routines, future plans, and freedom
9 of movement and information, individuals might display psychological reactance (Akhtar et al.,
10 2020; Kang et al., 2021; Shoenberger et al., 2021). However, the results contradicted our
11 expectations that once freedom is threaten, individuals would tend to recover the lost freedom, as
12 explained by reactance theory (Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Quick & Stephenson, 2007). Instead, we
13 find that people processing this threat do not respond negatively, as expected, due to psychological
14 reactance but, instead, they cooperate to overcome shared threats, which might indicate a resolution
15 for unity and strong affective bond with their hometowns (Wiegel et al., 2021). Consistent with
16 Woosnam et al. (2021), it also demonstrates residents' urgency to recover tourism to address the
17 financial deficit of one's hometown after the pandemic. To explore more reasons for this unexpected
18 result, we analysed the answers to an open-ended question that asked respondents to express their
19 perceptions about the pandemic. The answers included key words/phrases like: "unity", "we are one"
20 and "everybody has the responsibility", as exemplified in these three quotes: "*A single person seems*
21 *too powerless to fight against the pandemic. We should work hard together and survive in this*
22 *pandemic with no one excepted*"; "*No one can stand alone in this pandemic. In order to overcome*
23 *it, all the people have the responsibility to fight together*"; and "*Life is impermanent. Everyone*
24 *should take the responsibility to combat COVID-19*". These thoughts show, and verify, that when
25 people are faced with a disaster or threat, they tend to contribute to their core groups' strengths to
26 enhance confidence and security. This traditional Chinese poem best exemplifies the feeling: "Like
27 the mountain range stretches before you and me; Let us share common trials and hardships together."

28 **6. Conclusions**

29 Despite China's success in curbing the COVID-19 pandemic and the gradual adaptation to the

1 country's "new normal" (Ecns.cn, 2021a), our study shows that individuals' mental states and
2 behaviours continue to feel threats to their ontological security and their freedom of movement, and
3 information. This study contributes to the literature on how individuals respond to threats as a whole
4 and on the associated mechanisms, in contrast to much of the earlier research that has focused on a
5 single type of threat in isolation (Cui et al., 2021; Iqbal & Anwar, 2020; Kappenman et al., 2021).
6 Instead, this study confirms that individuals perceive all three dimensions of the threat resulting
7 from COVID-19, even in the post-pandemic era. These findings extend other studies that have
8 commonly considered the COVID-19 pandemic to be a single, whole threat (Anjum et al., 2020;
9 Kavaklı et al., 2020). This study sheds light on the roles of the *need to belong* and *psychological*
10 *reactance* in response to a threat. We find that, in the face of a significant and shared threat, people
11 tend to activate their need to belong. People's willingness to support their hometown can be
12 interpreted as a compensatory strategy to cope with a loss of control, which helps us extend our
13 understanding of compensatory control theory. Also, we find that psychological reactance is not a
14 universal behavioural reaction (He et al., 2016; Kang et al., 2021) but, instead, we show that such
15 reactance is influenced by the context and culture of the phenomenon studied. We find that, under
16 the pandemic, Chinese people rallied together.

17 Our findings have management implications for DMOs in particular. Firstly, the data shows
18 that in China it is feasible for DMOs to appeal to a hometown's community for help and support
19 without expecting negative responses from psychological reactance. Secondly, it is important to
20 remember that tourism destinations are also somebody's home. COVID-19 has initiated a profound
21 public fear as well as travel-related fear (Zheng et al., 2021). A sense of the unfamiliar and out-of-
22 the-ordinary daily routines might magnify individuals' perceived threats and fear. The need for
23 control and a sense of belonging could trigger people to develop an in-group culture. Residents are
24 more likely to show support when appeals refer to one's "hometown" than to more neutral language
25 such as a "tourism destination". Thirdly, it is possible to draw lessons from this study to research
26 non-tourism, such as those from agriculture and crafts. Consistent with Cui and her colleagues
27 (2020), this study suggests that people are willing to stand with their hometown, and showing more
28 "hometown cues" can make brands more attractive in the post-pandemic era. Fourthly, this study
29 provides useful insights for countries with collectivistic cultures that are handling the aftermath of

1 COVID-19, to encourage residents to become tourism ambassadors. Similarly, for small or medium-
2 sized destinations compared to large cities, tourism means more to local DMOs and residents, thus
3 DMOs can appeal to residents for support with less concern about resistance from residents. Finally,
4 those destinations where the concept of “hometown” does not induce a strong emotional connection
5 can appeal to everyone for help by arousing their empathy (Xie et al., 2021).

6 Our study has some limitations that suggest further lines of research. First, there might be more
7 dimensions of threat that arise from COVID-19 and the post-pandemic situation. Second, it would
8 be useful to test how behavioural responses change over time, as individuals become desensitised
9 to the COVID-19 aftermath. Third, we verify that individuals have a disposition to support their
10 hometown via their need to belong in the cultural context of China. This result might be affected by
11 the collectivistic Chinese culture; Joo et al. (2021) found that perceived threat has a negative
12 influence on support for tourism in the context of South Korea. Therefore, cross-cultural
13 comparisons would be helpful. Fourth, this study testifies that perceived threat in the post-pandemic
14 era and hometown support appeals do not sensitise an individual’s psychological reactance, however,
15 there might be other negative effects resulting from hometown appeals that need to be explored.
16 Fifth, the sampling procedure may have led to self-selection bias and a desire to be seen to conform
17 with societal expectations may have led to social desirability bias and self-deception bias; hence,
18 measuring actual hometown support behaviours or using second hand data in future studies might
19 help. Finally, we only collected data online, which might result in missing those people who have
20 little Internet experience. Future studies can use snowball sampling or conduct surveys on site.

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