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## Residents' attitudes toward ethnic neighborhood tourism (ENT): perspectives of ethnicity and empowerment

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### ABSTRACT

Ethnic neighborhood tourism (ENT) has the potential to not only alter the identity of the ethnic landscape but to also influence the distribution of power and economic benefits from tourism between ethnic groups. Such unequal distribution may foster divergent attitudes toward tourism between minority residents whose culture is at the center of ENT and those of the majority population whose cultural heritage is being overshadowed. With this in mind, this study compared the relationship between Japanese and Brazilian residents' perceived empowerment from tourism and their attitudes toward tourism development in the ENT destination of Oizumi, Japan. Results revealed that even though the Brazilians perceived themselves to be more psychologically and socially empowered from ENT, the perceptions of empowerment among the Japanese were slightly better predictors of support for tourism and Japanese residents' perceptions of tourism's contributions within the community. The findings suggest the importance of sociocultural determinants of resident attitudes especially among those who do not perceive economic benefits from tourism. The study also indicates the appropriateness of combining social exchange theory with more holistic theories to capture the complexities influencing resident attitudes toward tourism.

### 摘要

民族地区旅游不仅有潜力改变民族景观的形象还有潜力改变旅游权力和经济收益在民族群体之间的分配。这种不平等的分配可能会造成少数民族居民之间对旅游的态度有分歧，而少数民族的文化是民族地区旅游的核心，而多数民族的文化遗产则相形见绌。基于此，本文比较了日本居民与日本巴西侨民对旅游增权的感知以及他们对日本大泉镇民族地区旅游发展的态度。结果显示，尽管日本巴西侨民感知自己在心理和社会方面得到来自民族地区旅游的增权，但是日本居民对增权的感知能够略微更好地预测居民对旅游业的支持以及日本居民对旅游业对社区贡献的认知。本结果也显示，居民态度社会文化因素的重要性，尤其对那些感觉没有从旅游业中获得经济收益的居民群体。本研究也表明，只有把社会交换理论与更整体化的理论结合起来，才能更恰当地理解影响居民对旅游业态度的复杂因素。

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Residents' empowerment; resident attitudes; economic and sociocultural determinants; ethnic neighborhood tourism; contested space; place identity; Brazilians; Japan

### 关键词

居民增权; 居民态度; 经济与社会文化决定因素; 民族周边地区旅游; 拥挤的空间; 地方认同; 巴西人  
日本

## 1. Introduction

Ethnic neighborhoods are the epitome of contested space. Their meanings, identity, and roles in urban landscapes are constantly changing along with the shift of immigration patterns and political economies in metropolitan areas (Abramson, Manzo, & Hou, 2006). More recently, tourism has been introduced in many ethnic neighborhoods as a strategy of socioeconomic revitalization (Rath, 2007). Ethnic neighborhood tourism (ENT) is associated with commodifying the unique culture of these neighborhoods that cannot be easily found within other parts of the city or country as a whole. ENT essentially provides 'authentic' ethnic experiences for tourists without having to travel abroad to visit the actual culture (Loukaitou-Sideris & Soureli, 2011). With ENT, an ethnic neighborhood, a previously underprivileged 'no-go' area, can be reinvented as a space for leisure and consumption. However, this 'reinvention' can also add another source of tension within a community because reinventing an ethnic landscape may alter not only the identity of the place but also the locus of power to control vital economic and social resources (Bosak, Boley, & Zaret, 2010; Davis, 2005; Kolås, 2004; Verbeke, 1999). More precisely, ENT's emphasis on promoting a particular culture may cause unequal distribution of power in controlling resources and benefits from tourism among locals as residents of the ethnic 'majority' do not have the same access to such cultural resources as the ethnic 'minority' (Maruyama, Woosnam, & Boley, 2016). This uneven distribution may then foster divergent attitudes toward tourism between the minority residents whose culture is on display and those of the majority population who live in the community but whose culture is not directly promoted and whose quality of life is being infringed upon (d'Hautesserre, 2001).

Research on residents' attitudes toward tourism has grown to become one of the most dominant areas of tourism research over the past four decades (e.g. Nepal, 2008; Nunkoo, Smith, & Ramkissoon, 2013; Ward & Berno, 2011; Zhang, Inbakaran, & Jackson, 2006). Additionally, work within the sustainable tourism literature has inextricably linked sustainable tourism with residents having favorable attitudes toward the industry and being empowered through the tourism development process (e.g. Choi & Murray, 2010; Cole, 2006; Látková & Vogt, 2012). Within this research, social exchange theory (SET) has long been the dominant theory used to examine residents' attitudes toward tourism (Ap, 1992; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990; Ward & Berno, 2011). Despite the many benefits derived from SET's clear depiction of resident attitudes being a cost-benefit analysis of the positive and negative impacts of tourism, the current use of SET in tourism research has been criticized for its simplicity, or 'leaving out important theoretical constructs relevant to the theory' (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011, p. 966). Indeed, more recent researchers have proposed new models that incorporate non-economic, sociocultural determinants, such as inter-group relations (Ward & Berno, 2011), power and trust (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011), quality of life (Kaplanidou et al., 2013), emotional solidarity (Woosnam, 2011), community attachment (Chen & Chen, 2010), social capital (Park, Nunkoo, & Yoon, 2015), and residents' empowerment (Boley, McGehee, Perdue, & Long, 2014). With such sociocultural determinants being reported to have strong influence on the attitudes among those who do not enjoy direct economic benefits from tourism (Sirakaya, Teye, & Sönmez, 2002; Wang & Pfister, 2008), Boley et al. (2014) suggest the importance of combining SET with other more holistic theories to capture the complexities influencing resident attitudes

toward tourism. This is especially important in ENT destinations where the economic benefits from ENT may not trickle down to all residents and the new place identity being promoted to tourists may be highly contested.

With this more holistic theoretical perspective in mind, this study seeks to further examine the influence of empowerment's non-economic, sociocultural dimensions of psychological, social, and political empowerment on resident attitudes toward tourism within the Brazilian ENT destination of Oizumi, Gunma, Japan. Empowerment is a central tenant of the sustainable tourism literature (Cole, 2006) and is commonly defined as the ability of 'people, organizations, and communities to gain mastery over their affairs' (Rappaport, 1987) or acquisition of the power 'to achieve a certain quality of life' (Okazaki, 2008, p. 514). Despite its prominent place among the rhetoric of sustainable tourism development, it has yet to be researched within an ENT context; therefore, the primary goal of this research is to explore the influence of ethnic majority (Japanese) and ethnic minority (Brazilians) residents' perceptions of empowerment on their attitudes toward tourism.

In utilizing the Residents Empowerment through Tourism Scale (RETS) (Boley, Maruyama, & Woosnam, 2015; Boley & McGehee, 2014) and the Tourism Impact and Attitude Scale (TIAS) (Lankford & Howard, 1994), this paper has three specific research aims: (1) to compare scores on the RETS and TIAS between Japanese and Brazilian residents to see if significant differences exist, (2) to confirm factor structures of RETS and TIAS in the Brazilian and Japanese samples taken from Oizumi, and (3) to examine whether resulting RETS factors can significantly predict the resulting TIAS factors. The power-laden political process of developing ENT provides a rich context for examining these relationships and how ethnic majority and minority groups view the impacts of ENT.

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1. Ethnic neighborhood tourism

An ethnic neighborhood is an area with a high concentration of foreign residents living in close proximity to one another, identifying as a collective group according to their ethnicity (Abramson et al., 2006). Such an area is often located in inner-city territories as a transitional neighborhood for newly arriving immigrants, that Abramson et al. (2006) indicate are portrayed as self-sufficient, small worlds characterized as having minimal contact with people outside the community. However, with de-industrialization and the spread of western multiculturalism, such urban neighborhood spaces have been altered and represented as destinations for ENT (Santos & Yan, 2008).

ENT is a rich venue for studying resident attitudes toward tourism because of its dichotomous nature, promoting the ethnic minority over the ethnic majority. Past studies on ENT (i.e. Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Loukaitou-Sideris & Soureli, 2011; Rath, 2007) have reported both positive and negative perceptions among residents. On one hand, ENT is perceived positively by locals as helping to foster socioeconomic development (e.g. enhancing employment opportunities and encouraging ethnic entrepreneurship) of neighborhoods once associated with poverty, unemployment, and crime (Aytar & Rath, 2012). On the other hand, studies also have pointed out that ENT leads to a decline in traditional retail shops and activities, which has the potential to reduce a rich ethnic cultural identity (Henderson, 2000; Pang & Rath, 2007). These previous studies, however, have

primarily focused solely on the perspectives of the ethnic minority group whose culture is represented to tourists, resulting in little work comparing perceptions of tourism among diverse ethnic groups living in the same community. This is an important research gap because the ethnic majority residents are the ones whose culture is facing competition from a new place identity that, if embraced by tourists, may result in a new 'place myth' that is at odds with the town's former identity (Bosak et al., 2010; Davis, 2005).

Another shortcoming in the literature is that, to date, no study has compared the influence of empowerment on attitudes toward ENT among diverse ethnic groups. Because ENT focuses on promoting a specific ethnic culture to attract tourists, the economic benefits from tourism as well as the power to influence the process of tourism development may be held more by one group whose culture is presented to tourists as opposed to equally spread among the other ethnic groups residing within the destination (Harrison & Schipani, 2007). Thus, ENT may have the potential to shift the power hierarchy and empower the formerly underprivileged ethnic groups. This is a different view from most of the literature on empowerment where the concern has been on how tourism development often hinders community-led empowerment because local minorities are excluded from the planning process (Han, Wu, Huang, & Yang, 2014; Henderson, 2000; Maruyama et al., 2016). However, to date, no study exists that examines and compares the influence of empowerment on the attitudes toward tourism among diverse ethnic groups within an ENT destination. This research gap provides a fertile area of research for the resident attitude literature where previous work utilizing SET can be combined with more holistic theoretical frameworks to operationally test the influence of sociocultural constructs such as empowerment on ethnic majority and ethnic minority residents' attitudes toward tourism.

## **2.2. Sociocultural determinants of residents' attitudes toward tourism**

While several theories have been applied to explore resident attitudes toward tourism (e.g. attribution theory, dependency theory, social representations theory, emotional solidarity theory), SET has been the dominant theory utilized among scholars in the field (Ap, 1992; Perdue et al., 1990; Ward & Berno, 2011). From a tourism perspective, SET posits that residents' attitudes toward tourism will be influenced by their evaluation of tourism in terms of 'perceived benefits or costs obtained in return for the services they supply' (Ap, 1992, p. 669). Studies support SET's utility to explain the fact that those who are employed in the tourism industry or have better access to tourism resources and perceive direct benefits from the tourism sector will show more positive attitudes toward tourism development than others (e.g. Choi & Murray, 2010; Perdue et al., 1990).

More recent research, however, has been undertaken to explore non-economic, socio-cultural determinants of residents' attitudes toward tourism (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011; Park et al., 2015). For example, Wang and Pfister (2008) maintain that 'benefits' locals seek from the relationship with tourists consists of both economic domains (e.g. personal income and tax revenue) and non-economic, 'value' domains (e.g. social or community pride and other less tangible variables). Scholars indicate that the non-economic determinants are particularly important among those who do not enjoy direct economic benefits from tourism (Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997; Sirakaya et al., 2002). Residents who do not perceive economic benefits from tourism often still express positive attitudes toward tourism because they receive a variety of

social benefits from tourism (Wang & Pfister, 2008). Similarly, Boley et al. (2014) argue that SET provides a more solid explanation of residents' attitudes when it is aligned with Max Weber's Theory of Formal and Substantive Rationality, which explains motivation for an economic activity like tourism as a function of both rational (formal) and value-oriented actions (substantive). Under Weber's theory, these formal motivations are directed to the maximization of economic advantage (Roth & Wittich, 1978; cited in Holton and Turner, 1989), while substantive rationality acknowledges people are also influenced by non-economic factors such as a particular philosophical bent, sense of morality, or simply a vision for societal change (McGehee, 2007). Weber's theory provides the theoretical underpinnings for examining the influence of non-economic constructs on resident attitudes toward tourism in ENT destinations.

### 2.3. Empowerment

One such construct to recently be applied within the resident attitude literature, and that is pertinent to ENT, is empowerment (Boley et al., 2014, 2015; Maruyama, et al., 2016). While empowerment has seen a 'proliferation of usage' and has become part of the popular vernacular according to Sofield (2003, p. 79), Cattaneo and Chapman (2010) note that the construct is not well-defined. Rappaport (1985, p. 17) writes 'empowerment is a little bit like obscenity; you have trouble defining it but you know it when you see it.' Additionally, Rappaport (1984, p. 3) refers to empowerment as 'easy to define in its absences: powerlessness, real or imagined; learned helplessness; alienation; loss of a sense of control over one's own life. It is more difficult to define positively only because it takes on a different form in different people and contexts.' Despite the aforementioned difficulties in defining it, one of the most commonly agreed-upon definitions of empowerment is Rappaport's (1987, p. 122) definition which focuses on the ability of 'people, organizations, and communities to gain mastery over their affairs.'

Rhetoric praising the importance of resident empowerment has been central within the research focused on sustainable tourism (Cole, 2006; Westerhausen & MacBeth, 2003). Indeed, Sofield (2003) acknowledges that without resident empowerment, sustainability of tourism is difficult to obtain. Empowerment's multidimensional nature has been subject to debate within the tourism literature. While empowerment is often conceptualized within the psychology and development literature as multidimensional (Friedmann, 1992), many of the resident attitude studies have previously operationalized empowerment as unidimensional with a specific focus on political power (e.g. Kayat, 2002; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011). However, Scheyvens' (1999) conceptual article on empowerment in ecotourism specifically outlines empowerment as multidimensional with psychological, social, political, and economic components. Other tourism studies to embrace this multidimensional perspective are Boley and McGehee (2014), Boley et al. (2014), and Boley et al. (2015). All three of these studies apply and employ the RETS, which operationalizes the psychological, social, and political dimensions of empowerment into quantitative scales for analysis. The development of the RETS is novel because prior to its development, resident perceptions of empowerment were largely qualitative without the ability to statistically test their relationship with residents' attitudes toward tourism. Even though the RETS has this advantage and the potential to help the ENT literature explore the relationship between ethnic majority and minority residents' perceptions of empowerment and their

attitudes toward tourism, it lacks a measure of economic empowerment. With this limitation in mind, the literature review continues with only brief descriptions of psychological, social, and political empowerment since they will be the constructs included in the model to predict resident attitudes toward tourism.

Psychological empowerment pertains to the boosts in pride and self-esteem that residents feel from visitors traveling to their communities in search of natural beauty or cultural treasures (Scheyvens, 1999). Stronza and Gordillo (2008) have found residents taking greater pride within their community as one of the most important non-economic benefits from tourism. Boley et al. (2014) and Strzelecka, Boley, and Strzelecka (2016) have also found psychological empowerment to be one of the best predictors of resident support for tourism. While tourism has the ability to foster this sense of pride, it also has the ability to equally undermine this feeling through tourism development that embarrasses residents by what the community is being associated with. One such example comes from film tourism where the city of Albuquerque, New Mexico, has been increasingly associated with the drug methamphetamine due to the popular TV show *Breaking Bad* (Cary, 2013). ENT, with its unique nature that promotes the ethnic minority culture over the majority, has the potential to create contested spaces that will significantly influence the self-esteem of both ethnic majority and ethnic minority residents in different ways.

Social empowerment within tourism refers to tourism's ability to bring residents together for a more cohesive community (Scheyvens, 1999). It is commonly associated with increased collaboration and connectedness. Boley and McGehee (2014, p. 87) acknowledge that communities that are socially empowered 'will be better able to fight off the outside pressures of tourism development which may not have what is best for the community in mind.' The antithesis of social empowerment is tourism's ability to splinter residents into different factions (Davis & Morias, 2004). Stronza and Gordillo (2008) found tourism to do this in the Amazon when the cohesiveness of the community started to unravel after some of the community members made enough money through tourism to effectively buy themselves out of traditional community obligations. ENT which has the potential to flip the power dynamic from the ethnic majority to the ethnic minority group has implications for the perceived cohesiveness of the community. On the one hand, ENT has the potential to bring formerly divisive communities together through ENT that facilitates community events focused on celebrating the uniqueness of the ethnic minority's culture. On the other, the hierarchical shift in power between groups could result in jealousy and division. These scenarios demonstrate the importance of investigating social empowerment among residents of ENT destinations and modeling how these perceptions influence their attitudes toward ENT. Based upon the previous research on social empowerment, it is believed that residents who perceived themselves being closer to their fellow community members through ENT will be more likely to have positive attitudes toward this form of niche tourism development.

The dimension of political empowerment is the one most closely tied to the previous work on power within the tourism literature (Látková & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011). Political empowerment, within a tourism context, occurs when residents are able to raise questions relating to tourism development and have agency over the direction of tourism development within their communities (Scheyvens, 1999). Tourism development is commonly recognized as a politically charged, power-laden process (Bosak et al., 2010), where governments of different scales favor some groups over others to package complex

and competing place identities into sanitized narratives fit for touristic consumption (Dredge & Jenkins, 2003). ENT is no different, and perhaps more politically charged than other types of tourism development because the political power within the community has the potential to be shared unequally among ethnic groups.

The complex nature of ENT provides a unique environment for examining perceptions of psychological, social, and political empowerment and how these perceptions influence resident attitudes toward tourism. Tourism development is always political due to how destinations are packaged and promoted to tourists, but ENT's contested nature, that favors and commodifies the ethnic minority culture for touristic consumption, has the potential to have divergent impacts on resident pride and self-esteem (i.e. psychological empowerment), community cohesion (i.e. social empowerment), and access to political power (i.e. political empowerment). With this in mind, it is of interest to examine ethnic majority and minority residents' perceptions of empowerment to see if they differ, and if so, have divergent effects on their attitudes toward ENT.

### 3. Methods

#### 3.1. Study site

Located approximately 110 km northwest of Tokyo, the town of Oizumi, Japan, is located in the Ōra District, within the Gunma Prefecture. Gunma is a high-elevation region surrounded by several mountains (i.e. Shirane mountain, Asama mountain, Akagi mountain, Haruna mountain, and Myōgi mountain) on its east, north, and west sides (Kikuchi, 1997). While most of Gunma is mountainous, Oizumi is located in the low-lying southeastern portion of the prefecture along the Tone River. Oizumi's climate is characterized by low rainfall and a stark contrast between the heat of summer and the cold of winter. Indeed, the duration of sunshine in the area makes it one of the top destinations in the country for its sun appeal. Oizumi has a resident population of approximately 41,464 residents with 16.8% of the populace being foreign-born (Oizumi Town, 2016). The average age of residents is 45.5 years old (Bureau of Statistics in Gunma, 2016), and the average income among residents is 282,840 yen (the equivalent of \$2743) per month (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, 2016).

Over the last decade, the identity of Oizumi has experienced a major shift. Although Oizumi had been a well-known manufacturing town, it has seen a significant loss of jobs in the industry. To diversify its economy, the town government has begun to adopt new economic strategies that build on existing unique resources. Brazilian ENT was identified as one since Oizumi has the highest concentration of Brazilians (i.e. 3678 individuals in 2010) per capita throughout Japan. The arrival of Brazilian immigrants in Oizumi began in the late 1980s as Japan overall was experiencing a booming economy and a shortage of workers (Tsuda, 2003). To solve the serious labor deficiency, the Japanese government amended the Immigration Control and Refugee Act in 1989, granting long-term residence visas to all Japanese emigrants, their descendants, and family members up to the third generation. In Oizumi, where a number of factories were in serious need of laborers, a liaison office was created in 1989 to employ Brazilians without using brokers.

Adopting ENT as a new economic revitalization strategy has the potential to create a new challenge for Oizumi. More precisely, although Oizumi has been known as a

multicultural city for its high concentration of Brazilian immigrants, in reality, a strong prejudice exists among Japanese residents toward Brazilians as 'lower class citizens' because Brazilian residents have accepted a position of unskilled workers at local factories (Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015; Tsuda, 2003). However, ENT provides Brazilian residents with better access to useful cultural resources, which may alter the existing social and power structure within the community.

Having said that, tourism in Oizumi is still in an early stage of development. Indeed, an annual Brazilian samba festival, monthly Brazilian street food festivals, and occasional Brazilian walking tours are the only ENT events and attractions in the town. In 2014, 256,300 tourists visited the town. However, the potential exists for increased visitation to the town given the 2016 Summer Olympics was recently held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

### **3.2. Sampling and data collection**

Residents living in Oizumi, namely Japanese and Brazilians, comprised the target populations for the study. Heads of households or their spouses residing in Oizumi were sampled on weekends from November of 2013 to June of 2014. Following a multistage cluster sampling scheme (Babbie, 2011), an on-site, self-administered survey instrument was distributed door to door to randomly selected homes. Oizumi was reduced to 30 administrative areas designated by the town office. These administrative areas were then randomly selected. Within each administrative area, homes were then randomly selected and visited.

Research teams were composed of two student assistants from a local university. Each team visited every second household, starting in randomly selected locations within each area using city maps. The research team described the nature of the study and asked each head of the household or their spouse to participate in the survey. If the resident agreed, a questionnaire was left with the participant and picked up later that day (Woosnam, 2011). If no one answered the door, the research team visited the next immediate house, and the second-house sequence was restarted. Survey instruments were prepared in both Japanese and Portuguese languages. For both languages, back-translation was performed between English and Japanese or Portuguese.

In total, 5566 households were visited by the research team. At approximately 72% ( $n = 4022$ ) of the homes, no one answered the door. At the remaining 1554 homes, 854 declined and 700 surveys were distributed (an acceptance rate of 45%). In total, 662 surveys were completed by the residents (a completion rate of 94%). The overall response rate (662 completed survey instruments from the 1554 individuals contacted) was 42%. Of the 662 surveys completed, 12 were less than half completed and were discarded, resulting in 650 usable instruments (i.e. 467 completed by Japanese residents and 183 completed by Brazilian residents).

### **3.3. Survey constructs and analysis**

The constructs under investigation in this study are resident attitudes toward tourism and resident perceptions of empowerment from tourism. To examine resident attitudes toward tourism, the authors adopted 17 items from the commonly used TIAS developed by Lankford and Howard (1994). The TIAS has been one of the most standardized scales

used to measure resident attitudes toward tourism since its development in the early 1990s. When developing the scale, Lankford and Howard argued that locals' attitudes toward tourism were not homogeneous within communities and that the existing models at the time (i.e. Doxey's model in 1975), failed to capture the complexity of factors that influence residents' attitudes toward tourism. Based on this premise, they developed the TIAS as a two-dimensional scale to measure both resident support for tourism and resident perceptions of tourism's contributions to the community. Since the TIAS was created, the scale has been used in a number of tourism studies conducted in various tourism settings across different countries, including in the United States (Woosnam, 2012), Austria (Bachleitner & Zins, 1999), Malaysia (Abas & Hanafiah, 2013), and Northern Serbia (Petrović, Bjeljic, & Demirović, 2016). While the TIAS has demonstrated strong reliability and validity across its many uses, one noted drawback is the lack of including cultural impacts and negative social impacts within its measurement items (Woosnam, 2012). However, the current study attempts to use the other scale (i.e. RETS) to measure the residents' perceptions of psychological, social, and political empowerment, which are in fact types of sociocultural impacts.

In order to examine the levels of resident empowerment among Japanese and Brazilian residents, the authors adopted 11 items from the RETS developed by Boley and McGehee (2014). Its multidimensionality is particularly appropriate for the context of ENT because ENT potentially shifts the power between the ethnic majority and ethnic minority group in different ways, and the RETS will be able to pick up on these shifts in power at the psychological, social, and political levels (Pang & Rath, 2007). The 11 items comprised three factors, namely *psychological empowerment*, *social empowerment*, and *political empowerment*. For both scales, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement by using a seven-point scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

To address the first purpose of this paper, which involved examining whether significant differences existed between Japanese and Brazilian residents' perceptions of empowerment and attitudes concerning the impacts of tourism within Oizumi, a series of independent samples *t*-tests (with Bonferroni corrections) were undertaken. The *t*-tests were conducted with the utilization of IBM SPSS v.24. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was then used to examine the factor structures of each RETS and TIAS scale. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was ultimately employed to examine the final purpose of this research (i.e. relationship between RETS and TIAS factors). EQS v6.2 was utilized for both CFA and SEM analysis.

## 4. Results

### 4.1. Sample descriptions

A description of each resident sample can be found in Table 1. The gender composition of the two ethnic groups was fairly similar, with slightly more females comprising the Brazilian sample. In terms of age, those in the Japanese sample (i.e. 80% at least 40 years of age) were older than those in the Brazilian sample (i.e. 71% younger than 40). Brazilians reported having attained a higher level of education than Japanese, yet representatives of the former ethnic group, by and large, reported higher incomes than the latter. In both samples, three out of four residents were married. Brazilians had lived in Oizumi on average less than Japanese residents ( $M = 8.8$  years vs.  $M = 31.6$  years). While the median income level for both

**Table 1.** Descriptive summary of Oizumi resident participants.

Variable	Japanese residents (%)	Brazilian residents (%)
<i>Sociodemographic and socioeconomic</i>		
Gender ( $n_{\text{Japanese}} = 444$ ; $n_{\text{Brazilians}} = 174$ )		
Female	49.3	54.6
Male	50.7	45.4
Age <sup>a</sup> ( $n_{\text{Japanese}} = 424$ ; $n_{\text{Brazilians}} = 167$ )		
18–29	7.5	18.2
30–39	12.5	27.9
40–49	14.9	24.8
50–59	21.2	17.6
≥60	43.9	11.5
Education level ( $n_{\text{Japanese}} = 436$ ; $n_{\text{Brazilians}} = 169$ )		
Junior high school	5.7	9.5
Some high school	47.5	16.6
High school graduate	14.2	40.2
Technical or vocational school	11.7	7.7
Junior college	17.9	7.7
Four-year college	3.0	17.8
Professional degree	0.0	0.6
Marital status ( $n_{\text{Japanese}} = 439$ ; $n_{\text{Brazilians}} = 172$ )		
Single, never married	18.5	26.2
Married	74.3	71.5
Divorced	1.8	1.2
Widowed	5.5	1.2
Annual household income <sup>b,c</sup> ( $n_{\text{Japanese}} = 429$ ; $n_{\text{Brazilians}} = 161$ )		
Less than ¥2,000,000	21.7	37.3
¥2,000,000–3,999,999	42.9	50.3
¥4,000,000–5,999,999	18.9	11.2
¥6,000,000–7,999,999	6.8	0.6
¥8,000,000 or more	9.8	0.6
Percent income derived from tourist spending <sup>d</sup> ( $n_{\text{Japanese}} = 272$ ; $n_{\text{Brazilians}} = 117$ )		
0	87.5	36.8
1–9	7.7	9.4
10–24	3.7	27.4
More than 25	1.1	26.5
<i>Residency</i>		
Place of birth ( $n_{\text{Japanese}} = 444$ ; $n_{\text{Brazilians}} = 175$ )		
Oizumi	26.8	0.6
Outside Oizumi but within Gunma Prefecture	26.6	0.6
Outside Gunma Prefecture but within Japan	43.0	1.7
Brazil	1.1	82.9
Other country	2.5	14.3
Length of residence <sup>e</sup> ( $n_{\text{Japanese}} = 442$ ; $n_{\text{Brazilians}} = 170$ )		
Less than 10 years	17.2	58.8
10–19 years	11.5	30.6
More than 20 years	71.3	10.6

<sup>a</sup> $M_{\text{Japanese}} = 53.7$  years;  $M_{\text{Brazilians}} = 41.7$  years.<sup>b</sup>Median<sub>Japanese</sub> = ¥2,000,000–3,999,999; Median<sub>Brazilians</sub> = ¥2,000,000–3,999,999.<sup>c</sup>At the time this study was conducted, one Japanese ¥ was equivalent to \$0.0095 USD<sup>d</sup> $M_{\text{Japanese}} = 1.1\%$ ;  $M_{\text{Brazilians}} = 17.1\%$ .<sup>e</sup> $M_{\text{Japanese}} = 31.6$  years;  $M_{\text{Brazilians}} = 8.8$  years.

resident groups was the same (¥2,000,000–3,999,999), the percentage of income derived from tourist spending for Brazilians was quite higher than that for Japanese residents ( $M = 17.1\%$  vs.  $M = 1.1\%$ ).

#### 4.2. Comparisons of perceived empowerment and tourism impacts

Two series of independent samples *t*-tests were undertaken to determine if Japanese and Brazilian residents' perceived empowerment (through the RETS) as well as the impacts of

**Table 2.** Differences<sup>a</sup> in Resident Empowerment through Tourism Scale (RETS) items between Oizumi residents.

RETS item	Japanese residents Mean	Brazilian residents Mean	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Political empowerment (RETS <sub>political</sub> )	3.43	3.46	0.19	0.85
I have a voice in Oizumi tourism development decisions.	3.38	3.34	0.59	0.55
I have the opportunity to participate in the tourism planning process in Oizumi.	3.39	3.47	0.77	0.44
I have an outlet to share my concerns about tourism development in Oizumi.	3.48	3.60	0.79	0.43
Psychological empowerment (RETS <sub>psychological</sub> )	3.91	5.55	15.66	0.00
Tourism in Oizumi makes me proud to be an Oizumi Resident.	4.34	5.55	9.49	0.00
Tourism in Oizumi makes me feel special because people travel to see my city's unique features.	3.46	5.49	16.16	0.00
Tourism in Oizumi makes me want to tell others about what we have to offer in Oizumi.	3.75	5.65	15.45	0.00
Tourism in Oizumi reminds me that I have a unique culture to share with visitors.	4.05	5.49	11.06	0.00
Tourism in Oizumi makes me want to work to keep Oizumi special.	4.03	5.57	12.51	0.00
Sociological empowerment (RETS <sub>social</sub> )	4.05	5.41	12.13	0.00
Tourism in Oizumi makes me feel more connected to my community.	3.97	5.51	11.92	0.00
Tourism in Oizumi fosters a sense of 'community spirit' within me.	4.01	5.49	11.89	0.00
Tourism in Oizumi provides ways for me to get involved in my community.	4.15	5.44	10.29	0.00

<sup>a</sup>Items were rated on a seven-point scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*.

tourism (through the TIAS) differently. For the *t*-tests involving the RETS, significant differences were found among resident populations on eight of the items with Brazilian residents perceiving themselves as more psychologically and socially empowered through ENT. These findings parallel recent findings of Maruyama et al. (2016). *T*-tests for the political empowerment items of 'I have a voice in Oizumi tourism development decisions,' 'I have the opportunity to participate in the tourism planning process,' and 'I have an outlet to share my concerns about tourism development in Oizumi' were not significantly different between the Japanese and Brazilian residents. Given the *t*-tests for the RETS involved 11 items, the appropriate *p* critical value to consider would be 0.005 (i.e. 0.05 divided by 10). This stringent approach is suggested by Green and Salkind (2011). Table 2 provides output for the *t*-tests for each RETS item.

A second series of independent samples *t*-tests (Table 3) was performed for the TIAS to examine whether the two resident samples differed on their perceptions of tourism impacts. Significant differences were found on all but one item. The item 'Oizumi has better roads due to tourism' was not significantly different among Japanese ( $M = 4.04$ ) and Brazilian ( $M = 5.11$ ) residents. Given the *t*-tests for the TIAS items involved 17 items, the appropriate *p* critical value to consider would be 0.002 (i.e. 0.05 divided by 17). This stringent approach is suggested by Green and Salkind (2011). It should be noted that Brazilian residents indicated a significantly higher level of agreement with the positive impacts of tourism in Oizumi than did Japanese residents. This is evidenced in examining differences in items pertaining to support for tourism development among Brazilian ( $M = 5.99$ ) and Japanese ( $M = 4.67$ ) residents. The same can be said concerning how the residents perceived the contributions tourism makes to the community as Brazilian residents ( $M = 5.56$ ) tended to agree more with these items than did Japanese residents ( $M = 3.67$ ).

**Table 3.** Differences<sup>a</sup> in Tourism Impacts Attitudes Scale (TIAS) items between Oizumi residents.

TIAS item	Japanese residents Mean	Brazilian residents Mean	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Tourism impacts – support for tourism development (TIAS <sub>support for tourism development</sub> )	4.67	5.99	11.96	0.00
I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in Oizumi Town.	4.77	6.02	9.30	0.00
I support tourism and want to see it become important to Oizumi Town.	4.72	6.02	10.69	0.00
I support new tourism facilities that will attract new visitors to Oizumi Town.	4.84	6.13	4.42	0.00
Oizumi Town should support the promotion of tourism.	4.72	6.17	11.61	0.00
In general, the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts.	4.37	5.52	9.37	0.00
Oizumi Town should become a tourism destination.	4.34	5.95	12.17	0.00
Long-term planning by the city can control negative environmental impacts.	4.56	6.01	11.80	0.00
It is important to develop plans to manage growth of tourism.	4.96	6.17	9.74	0.00
The tourism sector will play a major role in the Oizumi Town economy.	4.62	6.10	10.99	0.00
One of the most important benefits of tourism is how it can improve the local standard of living	4.55	5.94	10.56	0.00
Tourism impacts – contributions to community (TIAS <sub>contributions to community</sub> )	3.67	5.56	15.29	0.00
Shopping opportunities are better in Oizumi Town as a result of tourism.	3.73	5.47	13.57	0.00
Oizumi Town has better roads due to tourism.	4.05	5.10	2.95	0.01
The tourism sector provides many desirable employment opportunities for residents.	4.38	5.33	7.27	0.00
Quality of life in Oizumi Town has improved because of tourism development in the area.	3.66	5.07	11.39	0.00
I have more recreational opportunities (places to go/things to do) because of tourism in Oizumi Town.	3.83	5.97	19.29	0.00
The quality of public services has improved due to more tourism in Oizumi Town.	3.66	6.04	21.04	0.00
My household standard of living is higher because of money tourists spend here.	3.06	6.10	25.32	0.00

<sup>a</sup>Items were rated on a seven-point scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*.

#### 4.3. CFA results for Japanese sample

Prior to assessing the relationships between RETS and TIAS factors (through a structural regression model), measurement models (using CFA) for each ethnic group sample had to be established (Kline, 2011). To begin, each RETS and TIAS factor was added to the model along with error terms using Lagrange multiplier (LM) tests. Next, the model was trimmed using Wald tests in such a way as to not compromise the standard established by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) (i.e.  $\Delta\chi^2/\text{df}$  no less than 3.84) (see Woosnam, 2011; Woosnam & Aleshinloye, 2013). Ninety error terms were identified, for which 88 were successfully removed. The item 'The tourism sector provides many desirable employment opportunities for residents' was removed as it loaded onto both TIAS factors. Additionally, the error covariance between two TIAS items (i.e. 'I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in Oizumi town' and 'I support tourism and want to see it become important to Oizumi town') remained in the final model because removing them would have compromised the 3.84  $\Delta\chi^2/\text{df}$  threshold. According to Kline (2011), such a practice is acceptable given the items uniquely loaded onto the same factor.

The final measurement model for the Japanese sample was significant with a Satorra–Bentler scaled  $\chi^2$  (313,  $N = 456$ ) = 645.55,  $p < 0.001$ ; CFI = 0.95, NNFI = 0.94, IFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.05. Each of the model fit indices is considered acceptable per Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2006) recommendations. All but 2 of the 27 items within the model had a standardized factor loading that exceeded (Hair et al., 2006) suggested critical value of 0.50. Reliabilities for the five factors were high as demonstrated through maximal weighted alphas (MWAs) all exceeding 0.90. Convergent

**Table 4.** Discriminant validity analysis from RETS and TIAS CFA for Japanese residents.

Factors	1	2	3	4	5
1. RETS <sub>political</sub>	<b>.78<sup>a</sup></b>	.20 <sup>c</sup>	.18	.09	.15
2. RETS <sub>psychological</sub>	.44 <sup>bd</sup>	<b>.62</b>	.64	.50	.49
3. RETS <sub>social</sub>	.43	.80	<b>.82</b>	.46	.41
4. TIAS <sub>support for tourism development</sub>	.30	.71	.68	<b>.59</b>	.43
5. TIAS <sub>contributions to community</sub>	.39	.70	.64	.66	<b>.59</b>

<sup>a</sup>The bold diagonal elements are the measures of average variance explained (AVE) for each factor.

<sup>b</sup>Below diagonal elements are the correlations between factors.

<sup>c</sup>Above diagonal elements are the squared correlations between factors.

<sup>d</sup>All correlations were significant at  $p < 0.001$ .

validity was established through each significant ( $p < 0.001$ )  $t$ -value associated with each loading on to corresponding factors. Discriminant validity was demonstrated through average variance extracted (AVE) estimates exceeding the squared correlations between each factor (see Table 4) (Hair et al., 2006). This test of discriminant validity basically ensures that each factor is unique by testing to see if the amount of unique variance explained by each factor (i.e. AVE) is higher than the amount of variance shared between different factors (i.e. the squared correlation). While not problematic, the squared correlation between the psychological empowerment and social empowerment factors surpassed the AVE for psychological empowerment (0.64 vs. 0.62). Given the AVE for social empowerment (i.e. 0.82) was very high and exceeded the squared correlation of 0.64, discriminant validity was still shown (Boley et al., 2014). With sound demonstration of convergent and discriminant validity estimates, it can be said that construct validity was established among the five factors within the measurement model for the Japanese sample.

#### 4.4. CFA results for Brazilian sample

An identical CFA was undertaken on the Brazilian sample data-set to establish a sound measurement model (see Table 5). Following 10 LM tests, 89 error terms were identified. Each of the error terms were removed with the exception of six error covariances, which remained in the model as they all existed within the same factor (i.e. TIAS – contributions to community).

The final measurement model had a Satorra–Bentler scaled  $\chi^2$  (334,  $N = 183$ ) = 535.49,  $p < 0.001$ ; CFI = 0.93, NNFI = 0.92, IFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.06. No items were removed and factor structures were identical to the Japanese sample. All standardized factor loadings were in excess of 0.50, with each MWA once more surpassing the 0.90 mark. The  $t$ -values associated with each factor loading were all significant ( $p < 0.001$ ), which revealed convergent validity for the five factors in the model. Similar to the Japanese sample, all AVEs (which exceeded 0.50) surpassed the squared correlations between factors except in one instance (see Table 6). The squared correlation between the two TIAS factors was larger than each of the factor AVEs. This can be explained through the sizable correlation between the factors. Taken collectively, it can be argued that discriminant validity was still established as this problematic squared correlation was the only instance (of 10 possible) present. With that said, construct validity was also demonstrated for the five factors in the Brazilian measurement model.

Table 5. CFA<sup>a</sup> for RETS and TIAS items among Japanese<sup>a</sup> and Brazilian<sup>b</sup> residents.

	Japanese residents standardized factor		Brazilian residents standardized factor	
	Loading ( <i>t</i> -value <sup>c</sup> )	MWA <sup>e</sup>	Loading ( <i>t</i> -value <sup>f</sup> )	MWA <sup>g</sup>
Political empowerment (RETS <sub>political</sub> ) ( $M_{\text{Japanese}} = 3.43$ ; $M_{\text{Brazilians}} = 3.46$ ) <sup>c</sup>		0.93		0.91
I have the opportunity to participate in the tourism planning process in Oizumi.	0.93(29.51)		0.90(17.34)	
I have a voice in Oizumi tourism development decisions.	0.91(29.03)		0.83(15.12)	
I have an outlet to share my concerns about tourism development in Oizumi.	0.80(19.35)		0.89(19.13)	
Psychological empowerment (RETS <sub>psychological</sub> ) ( $M_{\text{Japanese}} = 3.91$ ; $M_{\text{Brazilians}} = 5.55$ )		0.90		0.94
Tourism in Oizumi makes me want to tell others about what we have to offer in Oizumi.	0.84(20.60)		0.87(13.31)	
Tourism in Oizumi reminds me that I have a unique culture to share with visitors.	0.83(19.94)		0.87(15.81)	
Tourism in Oizumi makes me want to work to keep Oizumi special.	0.77(14.81)		0.87(14.59)	
Tourism in Oizumi makes me proud to be an Oizumi Resident.	0.76(17.01)		0.86(13.89)	
Tourism in Oizumi makes me feel special because people travel to see my city's unique features.	0.74(17.35)		0.85(14.19)	
Sociological empowerment (RETS <sub>social</sub> ) ( $M_{\text{Japanese}} = 4.05$ ; $M_{\text{Brazilians}} = 5.41$ )		0.94		0.97
Tourism in Oizumi fosters a sense of 'community spirit' within me.	0.93(24.26)		0.91(13.34)	
Tourism in Oizumi makes me feel more connected to my community.	0.90(23.14)		0.80(11.19)	
Tourism in Oizumi provides ways for me to get involved in my community.	0.89(20.96)		0.94(16.03)	
Tourism impacts – support for tourism development (TIAS <sub>support for tourism development</sub> ) ( $M_{\text{Jap}} = 4.67$ ; $M_{\text{Braz}} = 5.99$ )		0.96		0.95
Oizumi Town should become a tourism destination.	0.90(25.34)		0.88(11.48)	
Oizumi Town should support the promotion of tourism.	0.89(25.28)		0.92(9.62)	
The tourism sector will play a major role in the Oizumi Town economy.	0.88(23.97)		0.81(10.84)	
I support tourism and want to see it become important to Oizumi Town.	0.87(21.91)		0.79(7.54)	
I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in Oizumi Town.	0.80(19.46)		0.78(8.35)	
One of the most important benefits of tourism is how it can improve the local standard of living.	0.80(18.87)		0.55(6.89)	
It is important to develop plans to manage growth of tourism.	0.78(16.42)		0.84(9.39)	
Long-term planning by the city can control negative environmental impacts.	0.71(13.72)		0.61(8.45)	
In general, the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts.	0.54(9.00)		0.54(7.27)	
I support new tourism facilities that will attract new visitors to Oizumi Town.	0.35(17.58)		0.84(12.38)	
Tourism impacts – contributions to community (TIAS <sub>contributions to community</sub> ) ( $M_{\text{Japanese}} = 3.67$ ; $M_{\text{Brazilians}} = 5.56$ )		0.93		0.91
Quality of life in Oizumi Town has improved because of tourism development in the area.	0.89(21.04)		0.56(8.36)	
The quality of public services has improved because of tourism development in the area.	0.88(22.06)		0.88(10.15)	
I have more recreational opportunities (places to go/things to do) because of tourism in Oizumi Town.	0.85(20.46)		0.88(9.85)	
Shopping opportunities are better in Oizumi Town as a result of tourism.	0.79(19.24)		0.56(7.69)	
My household standard of living is higher because of money tourists spend here.	0.74(21.71)		0.90(11.14)	
Oizumi Town has better roads due to tourism.	0.32(3.24)		0.62(9.46)	
The tourism sector provides many desirable employment opportunities for residents.			0.54(7.44)	

<sup>a</sup> Satorra–Bentler  $\chi^2$  (313,  $N = 456$ ) = 645.55,  $p < 0.001$ , CFI = 0.95, NNFI = 0.94, IFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.05.<sup>b</sup> Satorra–Bentler  $\chi^2$  (334,  $N = 183$ ) = 535.49,  $p < 0.001$ , CFI = 0.93, NNFI = 0.92, IFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.06.<sup>c</sup> Items were rated on a seven-point scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*.<sup>d</sup> All *t*-tests were significant at  $p < 0.001$ .<sup>e</sup> Maximal weighted alphas provided in EQS v6.2.<sup>f</sup> All *t*-tests were significant at  $p < 0.001$ .<sup>g</sup> Maximal weighted alphas provided in EQS v6.2.

**Table 6.** Discriminant validity analysis from RETS and TIAS CFA for Brazilian residents.

Factors	1	2	3	4	5
1. RETS <sub>political</sub>	<b>.76<sup>a</sup></b>	.12 <sup>c</sup>	.10	.06	.07
2. RETS <sub>psychological</sub>	.35 <sup>bd</sup>	<b>.74</b>	.72	.42	.50
3. RETS <sub>social</sub>	.32	.85	<b>.78</b>	.49	.52
4. TIAS <sub>support for tourism development</sub>	.24	.65	.70	<b>.59</b>	.80
5. TIAS <sub>contributions to community</sub>	.26	.71	.72	.89	<b>.52</b>

<sup>a</sup>The bold diagonal elements are the measures of average variance explained (AVE) for each factor.

<sup>b</sup>Below diagonal elements are the correlations between factors.

<sup>c</sup>Above diagonal elements are the squared correlations between factors.

<sup>d</sup>All correlations were significant at  $p < 0.001$ .

#### 4.5. SEM results for Japanese sample

To determine whether empowerment explains perceived impacts of tourism in Oizumi, SEM was undertaken for both samples. For the Japanese sample, the Satorra–Bentler  $\chi^2$  (312,  $N = 456$ ) = 630.60,  $p < 0.001$ ; CFI = 0.95, NNFI = 0.94, IFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.05. In assessing the particular paths between RETS factors and the first TIAS factor, support for tourism development, both psychological empowerment ( $\beta = 0.52$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and social empowerment ( $\beta = 0.29$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) were significant predictors (see Table 7). The squared multiple correlation ( $R^2_{SMC}$ ) was 0.56, indicating that each of the two empowerment factors uniquely explained 56% of the variance in the first TIAS factor. The same pattern was demonstrated for the paths explaining the second TIAS factor, contributions to community, as psychological empowerment ( $\beta = 0.55$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and social empowerment ( $\beta = 0.18$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) were found to be significant predictors in the model. The two empowerment factors explained 54% ( $R^2_{SMC} = 0.54$ ) of the variance in the second TIAS factor. No significant paths were found between political empowerment and the two TIAS factors ( $\beta = 0.06$ ,  $p = 0.10$ ;  $\beta = 0.07$ ,  $p = 0.10$ ).

**Table 7.** Structural paths examining relationship between RETS and TIAS factors for each resident group.

Regression path	$\beta$	$p$	$R^2_{SMC}$
Japanese <sup>a</sup>			
RETS <sub>political</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>support for tourism development</sub>	0.06	0.10	0.56 <sup>b</sup>
RETS <sub>psychological</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>support for tourism development</sub>	0.52	<0.001	
RETS <sub>social</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>support for tourism development</sub>	0.29	<0.001	0.54 <sup>c</sup>
RETS <sub>political</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>contributions to community</sub>	0.07	0.10	
RETS <sub>psychological</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>contributions to community</sub>	0.55	<0.001	
RETS <sub>social</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>contributions to community</sub>	0.18	<0.001	
Brazilians <sup>d</sup>			
RETS <sub>political</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>support for tourism development</sub>	0.01	0.11	0.54 <sup>e</sup>
RETS <sub>psychological</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>support for tourism development</sub>	0.12	0.35	
RETS <sub>social</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>support for tourism development</sub>	0.63	<0.001	
RETS <sub>political</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>contributions to community</sub>	0.01	0.13	0.58 <sup>f</sup>
RETS <sub>psychological</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>contributions to community</sub>	0.24	0.36	
RETS <sub>social</sub> $\rightarrow$ TIAS <sub>contributions to community</sub>	0.54	<0.001	

<sup>a</sup>Satorra–Bentler  $\chi^2$  (312,  $N = 456$ ) = 630.60,  $p < 0.001$ , CFI = 0.95, NNFI = 0.94, IFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.05.

<sup>b</sup> $R^2_{SMC} = 0.56$ ; all three paths explaining 56% of variance in TIAS<sub>support for tourism development</sub> among Japanese residents.

<sup>c</sup> $R^2_{SMC} = 0.54$ ; all three paths explaining 54% of variance in TIAS<sub>contributions to community</sub> among Japanese residents.

<sup>d</sup>Satorra–Bentler  $\chi^2$  (333,  $N = 183$ ) = 567.53,  $p < 0.001$ , CFI = 0.91, NNFI = 0.90, IFI = 0.92, RMSEA = 0.06.

<sup>e</sup> $R^2_{SMC} = 0.54$ ; all three paths explaining 54% of variance in TIAS<sub>support for tourism development</sub> among Brazilian residents.

<sup>f</sup> $R^2_{SMC} = 0.58$ ; all three paths explaining 58% of variance in TIAS<sub>contributions to community</sub> among Brazilian residents.

#### 4.6. SEM results for Brazilian sample

The Brazilian sample data-set was also subjected to SEM following the establishment of a sound measurement model from CFA: the Satorra–Bentler  $\chi^2$  (333,  $N = 183$ ) = 567.53,  $p < 0.001$ ; CFI = 0.91, NNFI = 0.90, IFI = 0.92, RMSEA = 0.06. As could be expected, the SEM fit indices follow from the CFA fit indices. In this case, the CFI was marginally acceptable, with a value exceeding the 0.90 threshold as suggested by Hair et al. (2006). Only social empowerment significantly explained perceived impacts of tourism in Oizumi for Brazilians. For the first TIAS factor, support for tourism development, social empowerment ( $\beta = 0.63$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) explained 54% ( $R^2_{SMC} = 0.54$ ) of the variance in the impact factor (see Table 7). For the second TIAS factor, contributions to community, social empowerment ( $\beta = 0.54$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) explained slightly more variance ( $R^2_{SMC} = 0.58$ ) in the factor.

### 5. Discussion and conclusion

This study examined the relationship between residents' perceived empowerment and their attitudes toward tourism development in Oizumi Town, where ENT focused on Brazilian culture has been developed. It was the first study to compare such relationships between representatives of a dominant ethnic group and a minority ethnic group residing within the same community.

The first research goal was to compare scores on the RETS and the TIAS between Japanese and Brazilian residents. The analysis indicated that Brazilian residents scored significantly higher on 8 of the 11 RETS items than did Japanese residents. This suggests that ENT provides a greater sense of power to Brazilian residents, as found in Harrison and Schipani (2007) and Loukaitou-Sideris and Soureli (2011). Particularly, the eight items that Brazilian residents scored higher on fell under the social and psychological factors suggested by Boley and McGehee (2014) and Scheyvens (1999). Such findings reflect how Brazilians have become proud of their own cultural background being identified as a resource of the town's economic revitalization. It may also indicate that Brazilian residents have more opportunities to collaborate with their fellow Brazilians in the town through tourism-related events. On the contrary, Japanese residents do not feel an increased sense of pride through Oizumi's ENT. According to Tsuda (2003), Japanese residents often do not have positive perceptions toward Brazilian residents. Therefore, Japanese residents living in Oizumi may not positively view the idea of having their town represented by Brazilian culture to potential visitors.

Similarly, Brazilian residents scored higher than Japanese residents on all but one TIAS item. This indicates that Brazilian residents support tourism development in Oizumi more than their Japanese counterparts and have a greater sense of appreciation than do Japanese residents for the contribution ENT makes to the town. One obvious reason for this is the form of ENT development within Oizumi that focuses on the minority ethnic group (Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015). With ENT, attractions and shops associated with the ethnic culture may receive greater economic benefits than other businesses because tourists are directed to authentic ethnic culture (Loukaitou-Sideris & Soureli, 2011). These findings also provide credence for investigating how empowerment influences the majority ethnic group's attitudes toward ENT even though their culture is not on display.

The second goal was to confirm the factor structure of RETS and TIAS in Oizumi. CFA indicated that the factor structures of RETS among the two populations were nearly identical and similar to what Boley and McGehee (2014) and Boley, Maruyama, and Woosnam (2015) had found. Similarly, CFA indicated factor structure of TIAS among both groups was nearly the same as what Woosnam (2012) and Wang and Pfister (2008) found. Also, tests of reliability and validity showed that psychometric properties of each scale were sound among both groups. This finding supports the appropriateness of using both scales in international samples.

The third, and the main, goal of this study was to explore whether the resulting RETS factors could significantly predict factors of the TIAS. The analysis indicated that, among Japanese residents, the dimensions of psychological and social empowerment positively predicted the two factors of TIAS. This means that ENT which fosters Japanese residents' sense of pride and self-esteem (*psychological empowerment*) and provides them with opportunities to connect with the community (*social empowerment*) can significantly influence Japanese residents' support for tourism development and acknowledgement of tourism's contribution to their community. These findings partially parallel to Boley et al.'s (2014) and Strzelecka et al.'s (2016) findings. On the contrary, among Brazilian residents, only the social empowerment factor significantly influenced their perception of tourism impacts.

These results may have to do with the vastly divergent levels of economic dependence on the tourism industry (i.e. Brazilians 17.1% of income from tourism; 1.1% for Japanese). Previous studies (Sirakaya et al., 2002; Wang & Pfister, 2008) suggest that those who do not enjoy direct economic benefits from tourism are influenced by a variety of non-economic benefits from tourism. Instead of forming neutral attitudes toward tourism, Japanese residents appear to form their positive or negative attitudes toward tourism based on the perceived non-economic benefits associated with psychological and social empowerment. On the contrary, it appears that Brazilian residents' levels of empowerment have slightly less of an effect on their support for tourism development and perception of tourism's contribution. This is likely a function of the fact that only one of the RETS factors (i.e. social empowerment) served to be a significant predictor of the TIAS factor. This may parallel to other studies that use SET (i.e. Perdue et al., 1990), indicating that those who benefit economically from tourism have more positive attitude toward tourism than others and thus are less influenced by non-economic factors such as empowerment.

No significant relationships between political empowerment and either TIAS factors were demonstrated among the two ethnic groups. Boley et al. (2014) explain that the political aspect of empowerment is the one most closely related to the 'power' that previous studies have explored in examining the relationship with residents' attitudes toward tourism (Kayat, 2002; Látková & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011). The findings of this study were inconsistent with some previous studies (Kayat, 2002; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011) that indicated power was a significant indicator of residents' attitudes. This gap may be because of the fairly low levels of political empowerment perceived among both groups ( $M_{\text{Japanese}} = 3.43$ ;  $M_{\text{Brazilians}} = 3.46$ ) and the limited opportunities for political empowerment within Japan. Therefore, as Boley et al. (2014) suggest, the relationship between perceived political empowerment and residents' attitudes needs to be further examined in different communities.

### **5.1. Implications**

Findings from this study have theoretical and practical implications. In regards to theory, although the importance of both residents' empowerment and their attitudes toward tourism has been repeatedly documented independently within the literature, research examining the relationship between the two constructs has only minimally taken place (Boley et al., 2014). Arguably, the current study fills this gap by indicating the empirical support of empowerment to explain residents' attitudes toward ENT. This was especially the case among the majority of Japanese residents who do not receive direct economic benefits from ENT. The significant relationships among the majority of Japanese residents provide credence for approaching the study of ENT through multiple theoretical lenses. Combining SET with other theoretical constructs may help explain the non-economic, sociocultural factors that also influence resident support or opposition to tourism.

This study also has practical implications for fostering positive attitudes of residents toward ENT in Oizumi and other communities where this type of ENT takes place. First, findings from this study indicated that to nurture positive attitudes among those in the position of receiving less economic benefits from tourism, practitioners need to focus on empowering them on the social and psychological aspects. Opportunities for Japanese residents to interact with Brazilian residents in positive manners (i.e. participate in special events and walking tours) may help to foster a sense of community between the two groups. Increasing the opportunities for positive interactions will not only help foster this solidarity between the two groups, but it should help the Japanese better appreciate the contributions that their Brazilian counterparts make to the community. Steps such as this may help the Japanese residents embrace the new Brazilian identity being promoted even though it is at odds with the manufacturing identity that the town has been known for in the past.

The current study also revealed low levels of political empowerment among both Japanese and Brazilian residents, suggesting the need to create more opportunities for the locals to express their concerns. Meetings need to be held in both languages of majority and minority populations, and the community leaders need to prepare various options of participation so people of different social status, needs, interests, and lifestyle can participate.

### **5.2. Limitations and future research opportunities**

Given the current study was only undertaken within one ethnic neighborhood, more studies need to be conducted in various ethnic neighborhoods to examine the explanatory power of empowerment on residents' attitudes toward ENT development. Particularly, examining the relationship in ethnic neighborhoods with various histories of immigration (i.e. 'new-comers' or 'old-timers') is critical. The difference in history may influence ways in which residents of ethnic minorities and the ethnic majority participate in community affairs, such as tourism. In terms of scales used in this study, some limitations exist. While the TIAS exhibited sound psychometric properties in this context, as Woosnam (2012) identified, the scale does not include cultural impacts and some negative social impacts. It would be beneficial to include additional items to the scale to assess perceptions of the impacts of ENT in comparison to other types of tourism, such as nature-based tourism. In

regards to the RETS, while it provides a novel measure of residents' perceptions of psychological, social, and political empowerment, it does not presently include a measure of economic empowerment. It is suggested that future research should develop this type of measure. Having a construct-valid economic empowerment measure would enable Weber's Theory of Formal and Substantive Rationality to be fully operationalized and allow for comparing the predictive strength of the economic and non-economic determinants of resident attitudes toward tourism.

In conclusion, this initial research suggests that those in the ethnic majority are less supportive of the focus on ENT, receive fewer of the economic benefits and resultantly are more influenced by sociocultural factors. It is suggested that more researchers investigate this phenomena from both economic and non-economic perspectives to better understand the motivations behind supporting or opposing ENT and potential strategies to alleviate any disparities felt among the two or more ethnicities residing within the community. ENT may not only alter the meanings and identity of the place, but also the locus of power to control the resources and benefits from tourism. Therefore, forming such strategies may make the process of reinventing ethnic neighborhood a rather contested and often underprivileged place, more beneficial to residents of different ethnicities.

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tourism development: (1) the ability to effectively attract tourists and achieve a competitive advantage and (2) having residents that are proud and supportive of the tourism industry within their community.

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