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# Using Emotional Solidarity to Explain Residents' Attitudes about Tourism and Tourism Development

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## Abstract

Research has neglected to consider the role residents' feelings toward tourists play in formulating attitudes about tourism and tourism development. Following a two-step process (i.e., establishing a measurement model and structural path model), the Emotional Solidarity Scale (ESS) and its factors were used to predict levels of the Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (TIAS) and its factors. In confirming the factor structure for each scale, both were found to have high internal consistency (through composite reliability and maximal weighted alpha coefficients) and high validity (through convergent and discriminant validity). Collectively, each of the three ESS factors (welcoming nature, emotional closeness, and sympathetic understanding) significantly predicted the two TIAS factors (support for tourism development and contributions tourism makes to the community), with two exceptions. Implications are discussed and suggestions for future research are provided.

## Keywords

Emotional Solidarity Scale (ESS), Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (TIAS), residents, structural equation modeling (SEM), Texas, tourism development

## Introduction

Numerous studies concerning residents' attitudes toward tourism and accompanying development have been conducted over the past four decades with the travel and tourism field. Such work has been situated in multiple contexts, ranging from rural (Wang and Pfister 2008) to urban communities (Harrill and Potts 2003), mountainous regions (Nepal 2008) to coastal destinations (Andriotis and Vaughan 2003), and concerning development from a local sustainable approach (Sirakaya-Turk, Ekinci, and Kaya 2008) to mass tourism (Gursoy, Chi, and Dyer 2010). Ultimately, individuals residing in a tourist destination experience positive (e.g., greater employment, exchange of cultures) and negative impacts (e.g., crowding, higher cost of living) associated with visitation and development; thus it becomes nearly impossible for such individuals not to formulate attitudes about tourism.

With an extensive amount of research focused on residents' attitudes, it has become regular practice for researchers to use a host of independent variables in examining perceptions. In recent reviews, Huh and Vogt (2008) and Draper, Woosnam, and Norman (2011) have shown that sociodemographic (e.g., age, gender, education, length of residency and race/ethnicity), socioeconomic (e.g., income and economic dependency), spatial (e.g., physical distance between residents and tourists), and travel behavior (e.g.,

residents' degree of recent international and domestic travel) variables have all been used to examine residents' perceptions of tourism. Considering the pool of potential and utilized variables, few have provided consistent support in explaining why residents perceive tourism and tourism development the way they do (Harrill 2004; McGehee and Andereck 2004).

Implicit in much of the resident research is the idea that tourism is a disruption to community life—that there is an inherent conflict in play between either residents and tourists or residents and any form of change to the community fabric (Wearing, Stevenson, and Young 2010). Such a perspective exists even though residents within tourist destinations still support tourism and tourism development despite knowledge of existing and potential impacts (Wall and Mathieson 2006). The present residents' attitudes literature does not consider how residents' feelings toward tourists (on an individual level) may potentially influence their attitudes about tourism and accompanying development. As it stands, many of the variables used to predict residents' attitudes concern

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phenomena that exist within the resident or as part of a resident's identity (Carmichael 2006) and not the relationship that exists between resident and tourist. Therefore, the aim of this article is to examine how the degree of emotional solidarity residents experience with tourists can influence those same residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development.

## Literature Review

### *Emotional Solidarity*

The concept of emotional solidarity, originating in the early works of classical sociology, has taken many forms over the years (de Beer and Koster 2010) from affectual, functional, mechanical, organic, friend, group, intergenerational, etc. in research concerning the emotional bonds of individuals in the context of religion (Fish 2002), familial relations (Merz et al. 2009), and most recently tourism (Woosnam and Norman 2010). In a general sense, emotional solidarity has two commonly accepted conceptualizations. According to Wallace and Wolf (2006), solidarity can be conceived of as the feeling of identification a person has with another person that serves to strengthen bonds between such individuals. The second conceptualization involves such bonds being characterized by perceived emotional closeness and degree of contact between persons (Hammarstrom 2005). One of the most widely accepted frameworks of emotional solidarity originated in the work of Durkheim ([1915] 1995), whereby the classical sociologist argued solidarity is forged through individuals possessing similar beliefs and behaviors as a result of interacting with each other.

Emotional solidarity has been made popular through the development of the affectual solidarity scale put forth by Gronvold (1988). Within the scale, five items (e.g., affection, fairness, respect, trust, and understanding) serve to measure the concept. However, through limitations associated with single-item measures, alternative scales of emotional solidarity have been developed. This is largely due to the argument that single-item measures cannot always capture the essence of complex constructs (Netemeyer, Bearden, and Sharma 2003). In the context of relationships between residents and tourists of a destination, Woosnam and Norman (2010) formulated the Emotional Solidarity Scale (ESS). Systematically, the researchers pilot tested the scale in multiple locations and ultimately ESS was shown to possess psychometric properties with high reliability and validity. Three factors and their corresponding items comprise the ESS: welcoming nature (e.g., feel proud to have visitors in destination, feel community benefits from having visitors, appreciate visitors for their contribution to the local economy, and treat area visitors fairly); emotional closeness (e.g., feel close to visitors and have made friends with some visitors); and sympathetic understanding (e.g., identify with visitors, have a lot in common with visitors, feel affection toward visitors,

and understand visitors) (Woosnam and Norman 2010). Currently, the ESS is relatively new and has not been used in conjunction with other constructs pertaining to the travel and tourism field.

Logically, emotional solidarity has been treated almost exclusively as a dependent variable in which a plethora of independent variables compete to explain the concept (McChesney and Bengston 1988). Bahr et al. (2004) found that the degree of time spent between parents and children was significantly correlated with solidarity experienced between individuals. In addition, Bahr et al. found degree of communication was also significantly related to family solidarity. Such findings indicate that both the quality and quantity of space/time indicators has an impact on the degree of closeness, level of identification, and level of agreement—each forms of solidarity. The work of Lowenstein and Daatland (2006) in multiple countries (e.g., Norway, England, Germany, Spain, and Israel) has shown that the exchange of support between individuals significantly predicts the degree of emotional solidarity such persons experience with one another. Examining emotional solidarity in the context of resident–tourist relationships, Woosnam (2010b) found that shared beliefs, shared behavior, and interaction between members of each group significantly predicts individuals' degree of emotional solidarity with one another. Such a finding supports Durkheim's ([1915] 1995) model.

Numerous measures that have been used to explain emotional solidarity do not always yield significant relationships; however, some studies show weak correlations among predictor variables and solidarity. For instance, contrary to Woosnam (2010b), Hammarstrom (2005) found no significant relationship between shared values (as a modified form of beliefs) and affectual solidarity. Focusing on demographic characteristics, Mills, Wakeman, and Fea (2001) found that gender, age, educational level, and marital status do not significantly predict the degree of solidarity that grandchildren and grandparents experience with one another. Klapp (1959) found that regularly practiced behavior (i.e., rituals) have moderate to low correlations with solidarity. Such findings can be explained through Durkheim's ([1915] 1995) framework in indicating that sharing behavior is just one contributing factor in experiencing solidarity with others.

In an effort to extend Durkheim's ([1915] 1995) model, emotional solidarity should be examined as an antecedent of outcome constructs. At this point, no one has used emotional solidarity to explain why residents have the attitudes they do concerning tourism and tourism development. Although it is not a measure of emotional solidarity, but rather a precursor to the existence of the construct (Woosnam and Norman 2010), some researchers (Andereck et al. 2005; Lankford and Howard 1994; Teye, Sonmez, and Sirakaya 2002) have examined how residents' degree of contact with tourists or interaction can serve to explain individuals' attitudes about tourism and tourism development. As Woosnam (2010b)

found, however, interaction and emotional solidarity are unique constructs, with the former significantly predicting the latter.

### **Residents' Attitudes Regarding Tourism and Tourism Development**

While most research within the travel and tourism literature has focused on the demand side of tourism, more emphasis is being placed on the supply side as of late. Basic knowledge of economics indicates that demand cannot exist without supply—that the two are inextricably linked. A major component of the tourism supply is centered on residents as service providers (i.e., “hosts”) and their perceptions of tourism impact on the community. One only needs to examine the top tourism journals to see the prevalence of articles pertaining to residents and their attitudes about tourism and its development dating as far back as the mid-1970s. Two main reasons exist for the maintained emphasis on resident attitude studies: (1) the fact that people living in a tourist destination care a great deal about the existing and potential impacts (e.g., social, cultural, economic, environmental, and political) of tourism on their lives, others' lives, and existing resources and (2) the realization that it is important to include residents' voices and concerns in tourism development planning, especially if destination marketing organizations (DMOs) or tourism management agencies are proponents of sustainable tourism development (Gursoy, Chi, and Dyer 2010).

Most recently, the work of Gursoy, Chi, and Dyer (2010), Huh and Vogt (2008), and Wang and Pfister (2008) have provided an extensive review of research concerning factors that influence residents' attitudes about tourism and accompanying development, citing a host of socioeconomic and sociodemographic variables. Like emotional solidarity, residents' attitudes about tourism have been treated as an outcome variable (Harrill 2004) that can potentially be explained by sociodemographic, socioeconomic, spatial, and travel behavior variables. While some key conclusions have been drawn from this body of literature—(1) the more a community is economically dependent on tourism, the more likely it will be in support of tourism development (Long, Perdue, and Allen 1990; McGehee and Andereck 2004) and (2) those who stand to gain the most financially have the highest support for tourism development (Jurowski, Uysal, and Williams 1997; Lankford and Howard 1994; Smith and Krannich 1998)—unfortunately, very few consistent findings (i.e., independent variables significantly influencing or predicting residents' attitudes) have been put forth within the literature (McGehee and Andereck 2004). Not to belabor the point, however, some examples may serve to highlight such inconsistency (see Harrill 2004 for additional examples). In regards to age, older residents have been found to communicate more negative perceptions of tourism development than younger residents (Cavus and Tanrisevdi 2002). Contrary to

this, however, McGehee and Andereck (2004) found that older respondents were less likely to agree with statements concerning the negative impacts of tourism. Concerning proximity to a tourism center, Belisle and Hoy (1980) found that as distance from the tourism zone increases, positive impacts are perceived less favorably. Such a finding contradicts the work of Harrill and Potts (2003), which found that the neighborhood with the most negative attitudes about tourism was located in the tourism center and received the most negative impacts. Arguably, such inconsistency can be explained through the contextual nature of studies conducted in vastly different areas with vastly differing circumstances surrounding tourism and potential development (Andereck and Vogt 2000; Lindberg and Johnson 1997; Long, Perdue, and Allen 1990).

One commonly used scale to measure residents' attitudes is the Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (TIAS) first developed by Lankford and Howard (1994). Over the past two decades, numerous studies have employed the scale in various sites, such as: Oregon and Washington (Lankford and Howard 1994); Taiwan (Lankford, Chen, and Chen 1994); British Columbia (Rollins 1997); New Orleans, Louisiana (Vesey and Dimanche 2001); Charleston, South Carolina (Harrill and Potts 2003); and Washington, North Carolina (Wang and Pfister 2008).

Typically, the TIAS yields a two-factor structure. Most recently, Wang and Pfister (2008) developed a two-factor structure of *support for tourism development* and *contributions tourism makes to the community*.

While the scale has been shown to exhibit high measures of reliability (i.e., through Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficients), studies have minimally examined the validity of the scale (see Rollins 1997). In addition, studies have only used exploratory factor analysis to determine the factor structure of the scale. Not only has the factor structure of TIAS not been confirmed, researchers have neglected to examine how residents' feelings toward tourists factor into their attitudes about tourism and tourism development. Therefore, this article has three main purposes: (1) confirm the factor structure of the ESS (psychometric properties of reliability and validity) using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA); (2) confirm the factor structure of the TIAS (psychometric properties of reliability and validity) using CFA; and (3) in an effort to extend Durkheim's ([1915] 1995) model, examine whether ESS factors significantly predict TIAS factors through structural equation modeling (SEM). Six nondirectional null hypotheses are formulated to examine the third purpose of this study:

*Null Hypothesis 1:* Residents' level of *welcoming nature* toward tourists will not significantly predict their level of *support for tourism development*.

*Null Hypothesis 2:* Residents' level of *emotional closeness* with tourists will not significantly predict their level of *support for tourism development*.



*Null Hypothesis 3: Residents' level of sympathetic understanding of tourists will not significantly predict their level of support for tourism development.*

*Null Hypothesis 4: Residents' level of welcoming nature toward tourists will not significantly predict their level of attitudes of the contributions tourism makes to the community.*

*Null Hypothesis 5: Residents' level of emotional closeness with tourists will not significantly predict their level of attitudes of the contributions tourism makes to the community.*

*Null Hypothesis 6: Residents' level of sympathetic understanding of tourists will not significantly predict their level of attitudes of the contributions tourism makes to the community.*

## Method

### Study Site

Galveston County, Texas, located approximately 30 minutes southeast of Houston, is home to one of the most widely visited coastal destinations throughout the state. Most recent data indicates that approximately 5.4 million visitors come to Galveston County annually (Angelou Economics 2009). In 2009, visitor spending in Galveston County was US\$647 million (Texas Tourism 2010a), which is down from US\$765 million in 2008 (Texas Tourism 2010b). With this said, the county remains the top coastal county for visitor spending in Texas. As far as residents are concerned, in 2009, Galveston County was the top coastal county in the state for number of jobs directly created from tourism (8,090) (Texas Tourism 2010a), which is also down from 9,370 jobs in 2008 (Texas Tourism 2010b). Such a large number of jobs created from generated tourism dollars indicates the importance of tourism to the area.

On September 13, 2008, Hurricane Ike (Category 2 Hurricane with Category 5–equivalent storm surge) landed on Galveston County. Ike was the third costliest hurricane to hit the United States (US\$27 billion), bringing about the largest search and rescue operation in U.S. history and resulting in the largest evacuation of Texans in state history (Berg 2009; Hurricane Recovery Network 2010). Moreover, Ike was responsible for 195 deaths (Berg 2009). As a result of the devastation left by Ike and the declining economy, tourism numbers are not back to where local DMOs, tourism managing organizations, and planners would like (Galveston Island Convention and Visitors Bureau 2010). Given these data were collected briefly after the first tourist season following Hurricane Ike, findings will serve to inform local tourism organizations as they seek to modify their existing tourism planning in appealing to and attracting potential visitors. Understanding residents' perspectives of how they feel toward visitors and potential development can play a major role in this process (Tyrrell, Paris, and Casson 2010).

### Sampling and Data Collection

Galveston County permanent resident heads of households (or their spouses) comprised the study sample. An on-site self-administered survey instrument was distributed door-to-door throughout the county during five weekends (between hours of 10 a.m. and 5 p.m.) in October and November 2009 following a multistage cluster sampling scheme (Babbie 2011). All of Galveston County was reduced to 20 census tracts as determined by the U.S. Census Bureau classifications. With knowledge that the county was composed of 87% urban-designated households, 15 census tracts were randomly selected (stratified by urban/rural designation), which were composed of 40 block groups. Thirty block groups were then randomly selected (stratified by urban/rural designation). Beginning in randomly selected locations within block groups, every second household was visited and the research team asked heads of household (or spouse) to participate. In an effort to increase response rate, two return contacts were made to each household later the same day to collect completed survey instruments (McGehee and Andereck 2004).

Ultimately 1,364 households were visited by the research team, with approximately 50% ( $n = 675$ ) yielding "no answer" responses. In addition, at 66 homes, the head of household was not a permanent resident. To reduce nonresponse bias for "no answer" and non-permanent resident households, the research team visited the next immediate household to distribute the survey instrument (starting the every second house sequence over). At the remaining 623 homes, heads of households (or spouse) were contacted and asked to participate, of whom 94 declined (an acceptance rate of 84.9%). Of the 529 surveys that were distributed, 456 were completed by residents (a completion rate of 86.2%). The overall response rate (i.e., 456 completed survey instruments from the 623 individuals that were contacted) was 73.2%. On close inspection of those 456 survey instruments, 10 were less than 50% completed and were discarded, resulting in 446 usable instruments.

### Instrument and Data Analysis

Residents were asked about their level of agreement (on a 7-point Likert-type scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*) with the 10-item ESS developed by Woosnam and Norman (2010). In addition, to examine residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development in the county, the author adopted 17 items from the TIAS, where residents indicated their level of agreement (on a 7-point Likert-type scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*) with each item. These 17 items were used for three reasons: (1) items were considered nearly identical to those used most recently by Wang and Pfister (2008); (2) redundant items were not included to make the scale parsimonious for respondents; and (3) items with some

of the lowest loadings from Lankford and Howard (1994) were removed. In addition to these two scales, residents were asked questions pertaining to their level of interaction, shared beliefs, and shared behavior with tourists, along with questions concerning travel history, place of birth, and sociodemographics (e.g., age, gender, length of residency, income, percentage of income derived from visitor spending in county, education, and race/ethnicity).

To address the first two purposes of this study, CFA was used. The third purpose was addressed through SEM to assess paths between latent variables. Both CFA and SEM were conducted using EQS 6.1 statistical software package. However, before beginning analysis, the data set was cleaned and screened for outliers at the univariate level (e.g., examining *z*-scores) per Mertler and Vannatta (2010) and for collinearity at the multivariate level (e.g., Mahalanobis distance) per Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) suggestions. In addition, missing data were imputed through expectation-maximization (EM) procedures by predicting scores in a series of regressions where each missing variable is regressed on remaining variables for a particular case (Kline 2011). EM is a preferred form of imputing missing data because it takes advantage of the structure in the data compared with single imputation methods and can generate more than one estimated score for each missing observation (Vriens and Melton 2002).

## Findings

As a means to ensure the sample was representative of the population (i.e., permanent residents of the county),  $\chi^2$  goodness-of-fit tests (Sheskin 2007) were conducted for the racial makeup and annual household income, comparing the sample to county estimates available through the U.S. Census Bureau. No significant differences were found for either, indicating the sample was representative of the population. A descriptive summary of the sample (based on the 446 usable survey instruments) can be found in Table 1. The average participant was 48 years of age, had lived in the county for 25 years, and derives approximately 10% of income through visitor spending in the county. In addition, the sample included slightly more women (51.9%) than men. The median annual household income was between \$60,000 and \$79,999. Furthermore, a large portion (43.2%) of individuals attained at least a four-year college degree, and a majority (62.4%) were Caucasian.

## Measurement Models

**Emotional solidarity measurement model.** Before assessing the formulated hypotheses, two measurement models, one for the ESS and the other for the TIAS, were estimated. According to Kline (2011), we must establish the best-fitting measurement model before running a structural model (where each hypothesis will be examined). Starting with the

**Table 1.** Descriptive Summary of Participants

Sociodemographic Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Age (years; <i>n</i> = 440, <i>M</i> = 48.1)		
18-29	62	14.1
30-39	86	19.5
40-49	83	18.9
50-59	105	23.9
≥60	104	23.6
Gender ( <i>n</i> = 445)		
Female	231	51.9
Male	214	48.1
Length of residence (years; <i>n</i> = 445, <i>M</i> = 24.9)		
<10	131	29.4
10-30	169	38.0
>30	145	32.6
Income ( <i>n</i> = 435, median = \$60,000-79,999)		
<\$20,000	35	8.0
\$20,000-39,999	88	20.2
\$40,000-59,999	77	17.7
\$60,000-79,999	69	15.9
\$80,000-99,999	64	14.7
≥\$100,000	102	23.4
Percentage of income derived from visitor spending in county ( <i>n</i> = 438, <i>M</i> = 8.7%)		
Education ( <i>n</i> = 445)		
Grade school or some high school	13	2.9
High school diploma or GED	57	12.8
Technical, vocational, or trade school	38	8.5
Some college	145	32.6
Four-year college	129	29.0
Graduate degree	63	14.2
Race/ethnicity ( <i>n</i> = 441)		
African American or black	59	13.4
Latino or Hispanic	68	15.4
Caucasian or white	275	62.4
Other	39	8.8

measurement models, factor structures were examined through confirmatory factor analysis along with the psychometric properties of reliability and validity (Woosnam 2010b). With a priori knowledge that the ESS contains three unique factors (Woosnam 2010b), the measurement model was built one factor at a time by adding corresponding items and requesting LaGrange Multiplier (LM) tests per Kline (2011). Following Byrne's (2006) suggestion, each of the three factors was allowed to covary with one another. Such a procedure will ultimately yield an "ideal model" (given perfect incremental and absolute model fit); however, error parameters in the form of error covariances and cross-loading items will be revealed. With the addition of all three ESS factors, seven error parameters (i.e., three error covariances and four cross-loaders) were found and specified.

To trim the "ideal model" with its error parameters, Wald tests were run. Error parameters were removed in such a way

**Table 2.** Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Emotional Solidarity Items

Factor and Corresponding Item	Factor Mean <sup>a</sup>	Standardized Factor Loading (t value <sup>b</sup> )	Reliabilities	
			Maximal Weighted	Composite
Welcoming nature (WLCOM)	6.23		.86	.85
I am proud to have visitors come to Galveston Co. (wlcom1)		.837 (14.36)		
I feel the community benefits from having visitors in Galveston Co. (wlcom2)		.766 (10.65)		
I appreciate visitors for the contribution they make to the local economy (wlcom3)		.757 (9.64)		
I treat visitors fair in Galveston Co. (wlcom4)		.721 (8.31)		
Emotional closeness (EMCLOSE)	3.79		.99	.93
I feel close to some visitors I have met in Galveston Co. (emclose1)		.982 (27.99)		
I have made friends with some visitors in Galveston Co. (emclose2)		.886 (26.35)		
Sympathetic understanding (SYMPUND)	4.78		.87	.85
I identify with visitors in Galveston Co. (sympund1)		.849 (17.14)		
I have a lot in common with Galveston Co. visitors (sympund2)		.816 (18.54)		
I feel affection towards visitors in Galveston Co. (sympund3)		.732 (14.94)		
I understand visitors in Galveston Co. (sympund4)		.652 (11.30)		

a. Items were rated on a 7-point scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*.

b. All *t*-tests were significant at  $p < 0.001$ .

so as not to alter the  $\Delta\chi^2/df$  critical value of 3.84 that Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommend. Each of the seven error parameters were removed without exceeding the critical value. As a result, the final ESS measurement model consisted of the same 10 items across the three factors (Table 2) of welcoming nature ( $M = 6.23$ ), emotional closeness ( $M = 3.79$ ), and sympathetic understanding ( $M = 4.78$ ) as Woosnam and Norman (2010) determined: Satorra-Bentler  $\chi^2(32, N = 446) = 43.487, p < 0.001$ , comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.984, goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = 0.956, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.031. Incremental model fit indices (e.g., CFI, NFI, and GFI) with values greater than 0.950 are considered very good (Kaplan 2009), while absolute model fit indices (e.g., root mean square residual and RMSEA) with values less than or equal to 0.050 indicate a close approximate fit (Browne and Cudeck 1993). All but one of the standardized factor loadings was greater than 0.700, which according to Fornell and Larcker (1981) are considered ideal.

Each of the three ESS factors was shown to be high in internal consistency through two forms of reliability. Maximal weighted alpha coefficients ranged from 0.86 to 0.99. In addition, composite reliabilities ranged from 0.85 to 0.93 (Table 2). According to Lance, Butts, and Michels (2006), reliabilities should exceed a critical value of 0.80.

Ultimately, such high reliabilities indicate that items within each factor are highly correlated with one another.

Two forms of construct validity (i.e., convergent and discriminant) were examined. Convergent validity was assessed through the examination of *t* values associated with each loading on corresponding factors. Each *t* value was significant ( $p < 0.001$ ), exceeding the critical value of 3.29 (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007), indicating that each ESS factor possessed convergent validity. Discriminant validity was established by comparing intercorrelations of factors with the square root of the average variance (i.e., variance extracted estimate) for each factor (Hatcher 1994). Given that the estimate for variance extracted for each factor was at least 0.50 and exceeded any of the intercorrelations of the factors suggests the three ESS factors have discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981) (see Table 3).

**Residents' attitudes measurement model.** An identical procedure for the TIAS was conducted in finding the best-fitting measurement model. On building the model factor by factor and requesting LM tests, 32 error parameters (i.e., 27 error covariances and five cross-loaders) were identified and specified. At that stage, the "ideal model" for TIAS was trimmed by removing error parameters in requesting Wald Tests. Each of the 27 error covariances and four of the cross-loaders were removed without disrupting the  $\Delta\chi^2/df$  critical value of

**Table 3.** Discriminant Validity Analysis from Emotional Solidarity Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Factors	1	2	3
1. Welcoming nature (WLCOM)	<b>.60<sup>a</sup></b>		
2. Emotional closeness (EMCLOSE)	.29 <sup>b</sup>	<b>.88</b>	
3. Sympathetic understanding (SYMPUND)	.54	.44	<b>.59</b>

a. The bold diagonal elements are the square root of the variance shared between the factors and their measures (average variance extracted).

b. Off-diagonal elements are the correlations between factors. For discriminant validity, the diagonal elements should be larger than any other corresponding row or column entry.

3.84 suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). However, one item (i.e., “one of the most important benefits of tourism is how it can improve the local standard of living”) had to be dropped as it exceeded the critical value. With this one exception, the same two factors (Table 4) that Wang and Pfister (2008) found: support for tourism development ( $M = 5.91$ ) and contributions to community ( $M = 4.36$ ) resulted, yielding a Satorra-Bentler  $\chi^2(103, N = 446) = 248.238, p < 0.001$ , CFI = 0.938, GFI = 0.951, RMSEA = 0.056. As indicated earlier, Kaplan (2009) suggests that incremental model fit indices (e.g., CFI, NFI, and GFI) should have values greater than 0.950 to be considered very good; however, Hu and Bentler (1999) claim that values of at least 0.900 may indicate reasonably good fit of the model to the data. Absolute model fit indices (e.g., RMR and RMSEA) with values between 0.050 and 0.080 are indicative of fair fit (Browne and Cudeck 1993). All but four of the standardized factor loadings was greater than 0.700, which according to Fornell and Larcker (1981), are considered ideal.

As with the ESS, factors of the TIAS were examined for psychometric properties. Maximal weighted alpha coefficients were high (i.e., 0.96 and 0.92) for each factor as was composite reliabilities (i.e., 0.93 and 0.91) (Table 4). Construct validity was also examined. Each of the  $t$  values associated with loadings on corresponding factors were found to be significant ( $p < 0.001$ ), indicating that TIAS factors demonstrated convergent validity. Discriminant validity was also demonstrated as the variance extracted estimate for each factor was at least 0.50 and was greater than any of the factor intercorrelations (see Table 5).

**Structural model.** With measurement models demonstrating good fit, a structural model depicting each of the six hypotheses was then tested. As Kline (2011) claims, specific paths (as represented through hypotheses) can be examined by simultaneously assessing the measurement and structural model (Figure 1) through what has been considered a two-step approach (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). The structural model, Satorra-Bentler  $\chi^2(288, N = 446) = 538.808, p < 0.001$ , CFI = 0.938, GFI = 0.945, RMSEA = 0.044, demonstrated acceptable fit. However, only four of the six paths

were found to be significant ( $p < 0.001$ ), which translated into rejecting four of the six proposed null hypotheses.

The first three hypotheses involved paths from each of the three ESS factors to the first TIAS factor, support for tourism development. Null Hypothesis 1 stated that residents' level of welcoming nature toward tourists would not significantly predict residents' level of support for tourism development. This hypothesis was rejected as the level of welcoming nature toward tourists did significantly ( $\beta = 0.173, p < 0.001$ ) predict level of support for tourism development. Stated in a similar manner, Null Hypothesis 2 focused on residents' level of emotional closeness with tourists not significantly predicting their level of support for tourism development. This hypothesis failed to be rejected as the test was not significant ( $\beta = 0.066, p = 0.049$ ). Null Hypothesis 3 stated that residents' level of sympathetic understanding of tourists would not significantly predict residents' level of support for tourism development. This hypothesis was rejected as the level of sympathetic understanding of tourists did significantly ( $\beta = 0.508, p < 0.001$ ) predict level of support for tourism development. To determine the variance explained in level of support for tourism development through the three ESS factors, squared multiple correlation ( $R^2_{SMC}$ ) was examined. The three factors accounted for 37.0% of the variance in support for tourism development ( $R^2_{SMC} = 0.370$ ).

The last three hypotheses involved paths from each of the three ESS factors to the second TIAS factor, attitudes about contributions tourism makes to the community. Null Hypothesis 4 stated that residents' level of welcoming nature toward tourists would not significantly predict their level of attitudes about the contributions tourism makes to the community. The path was not significant ( $\beta = 0.031, p = 0.093$ ) and this hypothesis failed to be rejected. Null Hypothesis 5 stated as residents' level of emotional closeness with tourists would not significantly predict their level of attitudes of the contributions tourism makes to the community. The regression coefficient for this test was significant ( $\beta = 0.118, p < 0.001$ ) and the hypothesis was rejected. The final hypothesis, Null Hypothesis 6 stated that residents' level of sympathetic understanding of tourists will not significantly predict their level of attitudes of the contributions tourism makes to the community. The regression coefficient was significant ( $\beta = 0.596, p < 0.001$ ) and the hypothesis was rejected. To determine the variance that the three ESS factors explained in attitudes about contributions tourism makes to the community,  $R^2_{SMC}$  was once again examined. The three factors accounted for 29.0% of the variance in attitudes about contributions tourism makes to the community ( $R^2_{SMC} = 0.290$ ).

## Discussion and Conclusions

This study is the first to use both the ESS and TIAS in assessing residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development in the context of how residents feel about visitors.



**Table 4.** Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Tourism Impact Attitude Scale Items

Factor and Corresponding Item	Factor Mean <sup>a</sup>	Standardized Factor Loading (t value <sup>b</sup> )	Reliabilities	
			Maximal Weighted	Composite
Support for tourism development (SUPPTD)	5.91		.96	.93
I support tourism and want to see it remain important to Galveston Co. (SUPPTD1)		.924 (14.85)		
I believe tourism should be actively encouraged in Galveston Co. (SUPPTD2)		.918 (14.90)		
Galveston Co. should support the promotion of tourism (SUPPTD3)		.880 (15.28)		
I support new tourism facilities that will attract new visitors to Galveston Co. (SUPPTD4)		.868 (15.55)		
Galveston Co. should remain a tourist destination (SUPPTD5)		.833 (13.80)		
In general, the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts (SUPPTD6)		.814 (14.66)		
The tourism sector will continue to play a major role in the Galveston Co. economy (SUPPTD7)		.540 (7.62)		
Long-term planning by Galveston Co. can control negative environmental impacts (SUPPTD8)		.510 (7.32)		
It is important to develop plans to manage growth of tourism (SUPPTD9)		.462 (6.28)		
Contributions to community (CTRBCOMM)	4.36		.92	.91
Quality of life in Galveston Co. has improved because of tourism facilities (CTRBCOMM1)		.895 (26.80)		
I have more recreational opportunities (places to go and things to do) because of tourism in Galveston Co. (CTRBCOMM2)		.819 (20.28)		
The tourism sector provides many desirable employment opportunities for residents (CTRBCOMM3)		.795 (19.38)		
The quality of public services has improved due to more tourism in Galveston Co. (CTRBCOMM4)		.792 (19.63)		
Shopping opportunities are better in Galveston Co. as a result of tourism (CTRBCOMM5)		.723 (17.02)		
Galveston Co. has better roads due to tourism (CTRBCOMM6)		.712 (15.78)		
My household standard of living is higher because of money tourists spending here (CTRBCOMM7)		.613 (13.94)		

a. Items were rated on a 7-point scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*.

b. All t-tests were significant at  $p < 0.001$ .

**Table 5.** Discriminant Validity Analysis from Tourism Impact Attitude Scale Confirmatory Factor Analysis

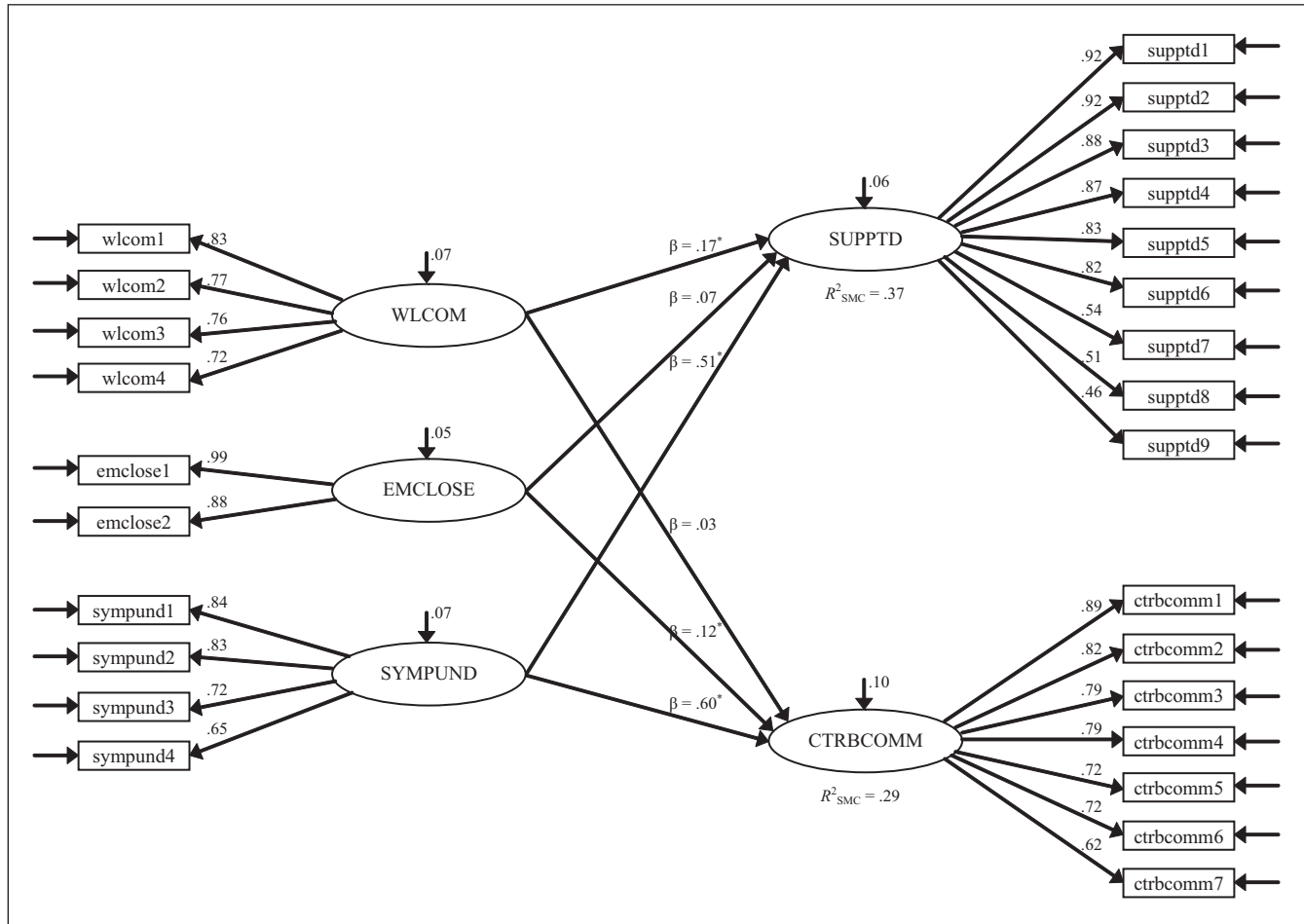
Factors	1	2
1. Support for Tourism Development (SUPPTD)	<b>.59<sup>a</sup></b>	
2. Contributions to Community (CTRBCOMM)	.52 <sup>b</sup>	.59

a. The bold diagonal elements are the square root of the variance shared between the factors and their measures (average variance extracted).

b. Off-diagonal elements are the correlations between factors. For discriminant validity, the diagonal elements should be larger than any other corresponding row or column entry.

The former scale is relatively novel and has been used minimally (Woosnam 2010a, 2010b; Woosnam and Norman 2010). The latter scale has existed for roughly two decades

and has also been used somewhat rarely (Harrill and Potts 2003; Lankford, Chen, and Chen 1994; Lankford and Howard 1994; Rollins 1997; Vesey and Dimanche 2001; Wang and Pfister 2008). In either case, examining psychometric properties of each scale is crucial in determining how sound the measures are; otherwise, we can potentially fall prey to the adage “garbage in, garbage out.” Unfortunately, reliability and validity coefficients are not always presented, with the former presented more often than the latter (arguably because of the ease of conducting tests to produce reliability coefficients). However, reliability is only one side of the proverbial psychometric coin (Churchill 1979). In the author’s examination of articles appearing in top tourism journals between 2008 and 2010, a total of 156 involved multi-item measures of a construct or scales. Of those 156



**Figure 1.** Structural model of ESS factors predicting TIAS factors

\*t-tests were significant at  $p < 0.001$ .

Note: Satorra-Bentler Scaled  $\chi^2(288, N = 446) = 538.808, p < 0.001$ , comparative fit index = 0.938, goodness-of-fit index = 0.945, root mean square error of approximation = 0.044. ESS = Emotional Solidarity Scale; TIAS = Tourism Impact Attitude Scale.

articles, 120 (76.9%) reported measures of reliability while only 57 (36.5%) reported measures of both reliability and validity. Ultimately psychometric properties for each ESS and TIAS in this study were sound, which is imperative to have in place prior to conducting any form of inferential statistical analysis.

On a descriptive level, factor means for each ESS and TIAS were relatively high. ESS factor means were slightly higher in this study than what Woosnam (2010b) reported in his work in Beaufort County, South Carolina. Such high TIAS factor means are similar to what Wang and Pfister (2008) found, however, contrary to what Harrill and Potts (2003) reported. This discrepancy may be due to the fact that Harrill and Potts (2003) were examining high-impact locations within Charleston, South Carolina, where residents were not very dependent on tourism as the whole of Galveston County tends to be.

In the way of paths within the structural model, welcoming nature only predicted the factor support for tourism

development. Perhaps individuals that are very welcoming of tourists (exhibited through pride for community and appreciation for contributions visitors make to the local economy) have a vested personal interest in tourism and could benefit from tourism (Wang and Pfister 2008); therefore, they have a higher level of support for tourism development within their community (Harrill 2004; Jurowski, Uysal, and Williams 1997; Lankford and Howard 1994; Smith and Krannich 1998). Aramberri (2001) argues that such a relationship with tourists may show residents' superficial interest in tourists. Emotional closeness only significantly predicted the factor contributions tourism makes to the community. Residents who feel close to tourists and have forged friendships are in a greater position to recognize the contributions of tourism to the community. After all, such friendships are a paramount example of the social impacts that are reaped through tourism in a destination.

Interestingly enough, sympathetic understanding significantly predicted each of the TIAS factors. This is likely

explained by the idea that many individuals who have traveled understand what it is like to be both a tourist and a resident (especially if they reside in a tourist destination) and see the benefits that tourism brings to the local community as Draper, Woosnam, and Norman (2011) purport. Of course, the blurred distinction between resident and tourist (Sherlock 2001) arguably makes it easier for individuals to be empathetic while realizing the benefits that accompany tourism. It should be mentioned that for each of the significant paths, factors were positively correlated. In other words, as the level of one ESS factor increases (e.g., welcoming nature), the level of one TIAS factor also increases (e.g., support for tourism development). Given such findings, subsequent studies can use directional hypotheses that indicate such positive relationships between ESS and TIAS factors.

This research complements the existing body of work concerning the use of independent variables to explain residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development. Previous work in this line of research has focused on a plethora of sociodemographic, socioeconomic, spatial, and economic dependence variables to explain differences in attitudes. Findings from this study provide support for the notion that residents' attitudes about tourism and tourism development can be affected by and through the feelings and degree of solidarity residents experience with tourists on an individual level. Recent work (i.e., Gursoy, Chi, and Dyer 2010; Jurowski and Gursoy 2004; Ko and Stewart 2002) using similar structural equation modeling pertaining to residents' attitudes (i.e., support for tourism development) did not include any measure in their models pertaining to the relationship between residents and tourists. This seems odd given such work utilized the social exchange theory, which is rooted in relationships between individuals (in this case, residents and tourists). While deeply held feelings between residents and tourists were not included, Ko and Stewart (2002) conceded that models should include measures of the relationship (e.g., frequency of interaction) in assessing residents' level of support for tourism development. Arguably, if the ESS was applied to existing residents' attitudes frameworks (i.e., building on the work of Gursoy, Chi, and Dyer 2010), a greater degree of variance in attitudes about tourism and tourism development could be explained.

### *Implications*

Findings from this study have theoretical and practical implications. This is one of the only studies of its kind to use emotional solidarity as an antecedent of other measures, providing empirical support for the utility of the construct in explaining residents' attitudes about tourism and development. This research extended the work of Woosnam (2010b) and ultimately the framework of Durkheim ([1915] 1995). Results also indicate that the multidimensional ESS continues to be a reliable and valid measure in a new context, which is what Woosnam and Norman (2010) called for. This

work validates not only the original TIAS created nearly two decades ago but also those works that have used a modified version of the scale since its inception. Such validation should be just cause for researchers to not "reinvent the wheel" by creating redundant scales that measure residents' attitudes. However, if a novel construct emerges within the field, then scales should indeed be created to measure such a construct. As Schutt (2009) argues, "If another researcher already has designed a set of questions to measure a key concept, and evidence from previous surveys indicates that this measure is reliable and valid, then, by all means, use that instrument" (p. 274). Arguably, the repeated use of existing measures will strengthen our field as we strive to develop and test theoretical frameworks through empirical research.

This work will be beneficial for practitioners as well. Findings from this study indicate that the relationships between residents and tourists visiting destinations can dictate how residents perceive tourism impacts and accompanying development. Local tourism planners and DMOs should make a concerted effort to groom and foster positive relationships between residents and visitors to the area. Increasing opportunities for interaction at key attractions and planning special events and festivals are just a couple of practical examples how tourism organizations can foster such relationships. Ultimately if relationships are good, residents can potentially respond positively to development. If, however, relationships are less than good, concerns of residents must be addressed in both an informal manner (e.g., word-of-mouth, letters to the editor) and in a formal manner (e.g., structured focus groups or town hall meetings that include residents and their concerns with tourists, tourism, and development). Of course, all of this is predicated on the idea that residents are involved in the planning process as well. As Gursoy, Chi, and Dyer (2010) argue, "Involvement of locals in the planning and operational stages can ensure that development will be socially and environmentally responsible and that resulting impacts will be perceived as appropriate by the host community" (p. 383). Of course, planners and managers who are proactive in involving residents along the way will not likely be faced with making many reactive decisions to growing concerns in the future.

### **Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

The current study only included one study location. While measures yielded high reliability and validity coefficients, future research should factor in the context of study site. It is recommended that work linking emotional solidarity and residents' attitudes should be done in multiple sites, where degree of tourism development and interactions between residents and tourists varies. Such work would embrace the potential for context to impact findings and the likelihood that feelings and attitudes are not static. As Gursoy, Chi, and Dyer (2010) claim, "Local attitudes and their perceptions

about tourism impacts on their community must be continually assessed because over time those perceptions and attitudes are likely to change” (p. 383). The importance of such attitudes changing has been most recently documented through the work of Huh and Vogt (2008) as the researchers found that during a 7-year period, such attitudes about tourism did change, albeit marginally, for individuals in some older age cohorts.

The model involving emotional solidarity was somewhat simplistic. While this was intentional in an effort to initially extend the model, it would be fruitful to use the ESS in explaining additional outcome variables within the travel and tourism field. For instance, research could be done to examine how emotional solidarity can predict residents’ quality of life, residents’ dependence on tourism, or future success of tourism within a destination. From the perspective of tourists, research should be done to determine travelers’ intention to revisit (through the theory of planned behavior) or satisfaction with experience. Arguably, our experiences are profoundly affected by the degree of closeness we experience with residents of destinations we visit—especially for those who seek “authentic” experiences (MacLeod 2006). In addition, because we know residents indicate they experience some degree of emotional solidarity with tourists in destinations (Woosnam 2010a, 2010b; Woosnam and Norman 2010), future research should be focused on how emotional solidarity is developed within the residents. Such research could involve qualitative methods to explore how the process is fostered for residents and what personality traits may help to foster residents experiencing emotional solidarity with tourists. Ultimately, such knowledge would be invaluable for communities seeking to encourage and develop positive relations between residents and tourists.

Despite the fact that the TIAS exhibited sound reliability and validity results, the scale as a measurement tool is not without its shortcomings. It is apparent that the scale captures support for tourism development and the impacts tourism can have on the community; however, cultural impacts and additional negative social impacts (i.e., crowding, congestion, etc.) are not included. Ultimately, it may prove beneficial to include additional items to the existing TIAS to capture a more robust assessment of residents’ attitudes about tourism and tourism development (while perhaps allowing greater use of the scale in more diverse contexts) and also help determine if such additions can potentially improve reliabilities and explain a greater degree of variance in the construct and its accompanying dimensions.

A synthesis of residents’ attitudes research is needed to develop a theoretical framework explaining why residents perceive tourism and accompanying impacts the way they do. As it stands, the literature is quite disjointed across multiple sites involving various degrees of tourism development. To date, Gursoy, Chi, and Dyer remain committed to developing such a framework; however, a consistent framework needs to be proposed and empirically tested across multiple

sites, so that it is not contextually limited to specific destinations and types of locations. The formulation of a vetted theoretical framework of residents’ attitudes will help move the field of travel and tourism forward as we collectively recognize and appreciate the value of theory development and testing. Emotional solidarity should be part of such framework.

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## Bio

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