



Measuring empowerment in an eastern context: Findings from Japan



B. Bynum Boley ^{a,*}, Naho Maruyama ^b, Kyle M. Woosnam ^c

^a Warnell School of Forestry and Natural Resources, University of Georgia, USA

^b Takasaki City University of Economics, Japan

^c Texas A&M University, USA

HIGHLIGHTS

- Cross-cultural validity of Resident Empowerment through Tourism Scale (RETS) tested.
- Cross-cultural validity of RETS confirmed in Oizumi, Japan sample.
- CFA found RETS to have construct, convergent, discriminant and nomological validity.
- RETS presented as cross-culturally valid scale to measure resident empowerment.
- RETS confirmed a tool for managers to assess resident perceptions of empowerment.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 24 September 2014

Accepted 14 January 2015

Available online 14 February 2015

Keywords:

Empowerment

Sustainable tourism

Cross-cultural validity

Scale development

Confirmatory factor analysis

Resident attitudes toward tourism

Community participation

ABSTRACT

With the empirical research on resident empowerment in its infancy, this study sought to add to the scant literature by testing the cross-cultural validity of the Resident Empowerment through Tourism Scale (RETS) within the town of Oizumi, Japan. Such a destination was chosen because it provided a culture vastly different from the original rural Virginia, U.S. sample across Hofstede's cultural dimensions. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) performed on the Oizumi sample ($n = 456$) demonstrated that the RETS and its factors of psychological, social, and political empowerment were construct valid and shared the same psychometric properties originally found in Boley and McGehee's study (2014). These findings from the Oizumi, Japan sample support the international applicability of the RETS and provide managers with a valid tool for tracking the effectiveness of their marketing and management efforts aimed at increasing resident empowerment.

© 2015 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Within the tourism literature's movement toward sustainability over the last 30 years (McGehee et al., 2013), there has been an overwhelming consensus that resident involvement is essential for tourism to be considered sustainable (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005; Cole, 2006; Di Castri, 2004; Nunkoo, Smith, & Ramkissoon, 2013; Scheyvens, 1999; Sofield, 2003). This increasing focus on resident involvement has pushed the concept of resident empowerment into the spotlight of sustainable tourism (Boley & McGehee, 2014; Boley, McGehee, Perdue, & Long, 2014; Cole, 2006; Scheyvens,

1999; Sofield, 2003). Cole (2006, p. 631) distinguishes empowerment from community participation by referring to empowerment as the "top end of the participation ladder where members of a community are active agents of change and they have the ability to find solutions to their problems, make decisions, implement actions and evaluate their solutions." Resident empowerment is seen as an important research area because of its far-reaching intrinsic and extrinsic implications to not only resident attitudes towards tourism (Boley et al., 2014), community well-being (Buzinde, Kalavar, & Melubo, 2014), and international development goals (Scheyvens, 2002; Sofield, 2003), but also to destination competitiveness through including residents in marketing initiatives aimed at highlighting the destination from a local perspective (Boley et al., 2014; Bosak, Boley, & Zaret, 2010).

While empowerment has been at the center of the rhetoric around sustainable tourism development for quite some time and

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: Bynum.Boley@warnell.uga.edu (B.B. Boley), nmaruyama@tcue.ac.jp (N. Maruyama), woosnam@tamu.edu (K.M. Woosnam).

there have been numerous conceptual and qualitative articles published on the subject, the empirical measurement of empowerment is only in its infancy. Constituting this nascent literature is Boley and McGehee's (2014) development and validation of the Resident Empowerment through Tourism Scale (RETS). According to Boley and McGehee (2014), the RETS is a 12-item scale designed to measure resident perceptions of psychological, social, and political empowerment through tourism development.

Even though the RETS was developed following Churchill's (1979) rigorous scale development procedures and demonstrated construct validity in its original sample, the scale's widespread applicability is currently hindered from the original sample being limited to only one culture (Virginia, USA) and one setting (rural). While scale development is a common technique within the tourism literature (i.e. Boley, Nickerson, & Bosak, 2011; Woosnam & Norman, 2010), few studies have taken the initiative to go beyond the initial scale development process and examine the cross cultural validity of measures (Hosany, Prayag, Deesilatham, Caušević, & Odeh, 2014; Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Sirakaya-Turk, Ekinci, & Kaya, 2007). This is a significant limitation that undermines the validity of many of the measures used within the tourism literature. Hosany et al. (2014) strongly recommend that in order to develop measurement norms for international tourism research, the cross-cultural validity of scales needs to be tested.

With this research gap in mind, the present study seeks to test the cross-cultural validity of the RETS using a sample of residents from the fairly urbanized town of Oizumi, Japan. Oizumi, Japan was chosen because it represents a significantly different culture from the Virginia sample in the United States across Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980, 1994). The Virginia, USA sample and the Oizumi, Japan sample specifically differ across Hofstede's cultural dimensions of 1) power distance, 2) individualism, 3) masculinity, 4) uncertainty avoidance, and 5) indulgence with Japan being a more hierarchical society than the U.S., more collectively focused, more masculine, having less of a tolerance for uncertainty, and less indulgent than the United States (see Hofstede, 2014 for more specifics). In addition to providing an international application of the scale across different cultures, Oizumi, Japan, with a population of 41,098 residents and a density of 2292 people per km², provides a more urban application of the scale compared to the rural Virginia sample with approximately 25 residents per km². If the RETS's validity is confirmed through this Japanese sample, it will provide stronger justification for the scale's acceptance as a universal measure of resident perceptions of empowerment. The paper proceeds with a literature review on the dimensions of empowerment (i.e., psychological, social, and political) included in the scale before presenting how the scale's validity was tested in accordance with Malhotra, Agarwal, and Peterson (1996) and Choudhry's (1986) criteria to determine scalar/metric equivalence of measures across cultures.

2. Literature review

Empowerment is at the philosophical core of sustainable tourism (Cole, 2006; Sofield, 2003) and has strong ties to multiple disciplines and their respective struggles to overcome social injustices. Perkins and Zimmerman (1995, p. 571) write that "empowerment has become a vital construct for understanding the development of individuals, organization and communities." Growing out of the early work on empowerment by Freire (1973) focused on the liberation of poor communities in Brazil through education, empowerment has become part of the popular vernacular and has proliferated as a compelling research area across many disciplines including psychology, education, and

sustainable development (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010; Sofield, 2003).

This dynamism centered on empowerment is evident within the tourism literature as well, but the term empowerment has been often embedded in the broader literature on public participation, community well-being, and resident attitudes toward tourism (Buzinde et al., 2014; Byrd, 2007; Byrd, Cárdenas, & Greenwood, 2008). Examples of empowerment within the public participation literature include Byrd et al. (2008, p. 201) emphasis that "stakeholder involvement is a critical part of sustainable tourism development" and that "for sustainable tourism to be successful, stakeholders must be involved in the process" (Byrd, 2007). Byrd is not alone with this call for broad stakeholder inclusion in the tourism planning process. Many other including Beierle (1998), Ellis and Sheridan (2014), and Marzuki and Hay (2013) have reached the same conclusions and make similar proclamations about the importance of including residents in the planning process. Within the tourism and community well-being literature, Buzinde et al. (2014) recognize the strong connections between empowerment and a community's well-being. They specifically write

"community well-being is ontologically premised on the view that it is paramount for development to meaningfully incorporate local indigenous perspectives on issues of community well-being, and to empower the community to draw on local indigenous knowledge in order to devise long-term sustainable solutions. In this sense the literature on community well-being is closely related to the theory of participatory development which emphasizes local decision making in the development processes and advocates for meaningful involvement of locals and indigenous knowledge." (Buzinde et al., 2014, p. 23).

They continue to make the connections between community well-being and empowerment by stating "such orientations are valuable because they empower marginalized groups and aid eventual emergence from poverty" (Buzinde et al., 2014, p. 23). The resident attitude literature is also full of references to the importance resident power plays into how they perceive the positive and negative impacts of tourism and their ultimate support of tourism (Látková & Vogt, 2012; Madrigal, 1993; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012) even though it has now only been recently been referred to as empowerment and included as a direct antecedent (Boley et al., 2014).

While these efforts at increasing public participation and stakeholder involvement are noteworthy and have laid the groundwork for the current discussion of empowerment within the tourism literature, they fall short of the broader literature's interpretation of empowerment in two main ways. First, Arnstein (1969) and Choguill's (1996) both recognize empowerment as the highest form of community participation and mention that mere calls for public participation does not guarantee empowerment. Second, the above conceptualization of public participation and stakeholder involvement does not necessarily embrace the multi-dimensional nature of empowerment recognized across the psychology and development literature (Friedmann, 1992; Rappaport, 1984).

Even though empowerment of the local residents underpins all three of these areas of tourism research mentioned above, the term did not start to become more frequently used within the tourism literature until Scheyvens' (1999) seminal article depicting what empowerment looks like within an ecotourism context. Using the development literature's multi-dimensional conceptualization of empowerment, Scheyvens (1999) outlined how

tourism can empower residents psychologically, socially, politically and economically.¹ Brief descriptions of psychological, social, and political empowerment within a tourism context are included below because these three dimensions of empowerment constitute the RETS and are the scales being tested for cross-cultural validity.

2.1. Psychological empowerment

Psychological empowerment, within a tourism context, highlights tourism's potential to increase resident pride and self-esteem from the feelings associated with visitors traveling to one's community to experience the unique natural and cultural features the community has to offer (Scheyvens, 1999). Boley and McGehee (2014, p. 87) add that part of this feeling of uniqueness creating an enhanced self-esteem is because residents "feel special and believe they have important skills and resources to share with visitors." Di Castri (2004, p. 52) frames this dimension of empowerment around the pride and self-esteem gained from residents reevaluating "the universal value of their culture and environment."

While psychological empowerment has only recently been operationalized as an empirical construct within tourism research, other studies such as Besculides, Lee, and McCormick (2002), Medina (2003), and Stronza and Gordillo (2008) have found residents taking greater pride within their community as one of the most important benefits from tourism. Besculides et al. (2002) specifically found greater pride in the community as one of the highest ranking benefits of tourism development within the community of San Luis, Colorado. Relatedly, Stronza and Gordillo (2008) discovered that heightened self-esteem was one of the most beneficial non-economic benefits of ecotourism development in the Amazon. Recent research from Boley et al. (2014) has also found the pride and self-esteem associated with psychological empowerment to have a direct and positive influence on resident support for tourism, as well as significantly influencing resident perceptions of tourism's positive and negative impacts within the community. With psychological empowerment's far-reaching implications to the tourism literature, it is important to test the cross-cultural validity of the psychological empowerment measure to ensure that it is functionally measuring the same concept across cultures.

The RETS measures psychological empowerment using a 5-item scale comprised of the following items: 1) "Tourism in Oizumi makes me proud to be a Oizumi resident," 2) "Tourism in Oizumi makes me feel special because people travel to see my city's unique features," 3) "Tourism in Oizumi makes me want to tell others about what we have to offer in Oizumi," 4) "Tourism in Oizumi reminds me that I have a unique culture to share with visitors," and 5) "Tourism in Oizumi makes me want to work to keep Oizumi special."

2.2. Social empowerment

Social empowerment, within a tourism context, describes tourism development's potential to bring a community together rather than tearing it apart (Scheyvens, 1999). It is also described through words such as increased community cohesion and increased collaboration between community members. Boley and

McGehee (2014, p. 87) describe it more specifically as when "when one perceives tourism as increasing his or her connection to the community." Some of social empowerment's antagonists are seen through the negative social impacts of tourism found by Stronza and Gordillo (2008) in the Amazon. These impacts include community stakeholders' cooperation dissipating, community members being taken advantage of by tourism development enterprises, and some community members 'buying' themselves out of traditional community obligations. These negative impacts describe, in essence, social disempowerment where bonds within the community are unraveled through tourism development (Scheyvens, 1999).

While social empowerment uniquely describes tourism's ability to either bring a community together or tear it apart, the construct does share similarities with other community based constructs such as social capital (McGehee, Lee, O'Bannon, & Perdue, 2010). The general premise behind community-based concepts like social empowerment and social capital is that communities that have more cohesion and collaboration 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 (Boley & McGehee, 2014, p. 87). The importance of social empowerment is further illuminated from the recent finding that it is a significant antecedent of resident attitudes towards tourism. Using the prevailing Perdue, Long, and Allen (1990) model of resident attitudes towards tourism, Boley et al. (2014) found resident perceptions of social empowerment to have significant relationships with resident perceptions of the positive and negative impacts of tourism. This body of research suggests that social empowerment is not only important to community well-being, but that perceptions of social empowerment can influence resident attitudes toward tourism development. It is therefore an important construct to validate across cultures.

The RETS measures social empowerment using a 3-item scale comprised of the following items: 1) "Tourism in Oizumi makes me feel more connected to my community," 2) "Tourism in Oizumi fosters a sense of 'community spirit' within me," and 3) "Tourism in Oizumi provides ways for me to get involved in my community."

2.3. Political empowerment

Political empowerment, within a tourism context, speaks to residents having agency or control over the direction of tourism development within their community (Scheyvens, 1999). It is the dimension of empowerment that most closely resembles the overarching notion of residents "gaining mastery of their affairs" (Rappaport, 1987, p. 122). More concretely, political empowerment necessitates residents having a voice in the tourism planning process and being able to share their concerns over tourism development. It is similar to community participation, but represents the highest rung of Arnstein (1969) and Choguill's (1996) ladders of community participation because the attention is shifting away from mere inclusion of residents to residents having control over the tourism planning process. As with the other dimensions of empowerment, resident perceptions of political empowerment were found to have significant relationships with how they perceived the positive and negative impacts of tourism (Boley et al., 2014). Further validation of the political empowerment sub-scale is important for future resident attitude studies that seek to understand how resident perceptions of being included in the tourism planning process influence their attitudes towards tourism development. Cross-cultural validation is also important because it allows tourism officials across many cultures and contexts to track the effectiveness of their initiatives aimed at increasing political empowerment among residents.

¹ According to Boley and McGehee (2014, p. 86) economic empowerment was not included in the RETS because the construct "focused on the economic well-being of the community which does not lend itself to application at the individual level. Additionally, economic empowerment can also be fairly easily determined and tracked through existing secondary data such as income and source of employment."

The original RETS measures political empowerment using the following four items: 1) “I feel like I have a voice in Oizumi tourism development decisions,” 2) “I feel like I have access to the decision making process when it comes to tourism in Oizumi,” 3) “I feel like my vote makes a difference in how tourism is developed in Oizumi,” and 4) “I feel like I have an outlet to share my concerns about tourism development in Oizumi.” With the political empowerment dimension of the RETS being applied within a Japanese context, it came to the attention of the authors that the second and third items pertaining to having ‘access’ and being able to ‘vote’ had no functional equivalents within the community of Oizumi. Furthermore, for the third item, a referendum by locals for a community issue rarely takes place in Japan. As a remedy, the two items were removed and replaced with a new item that reads “I feel like I have the opportunity to participate in the tourism planning process in Oizumi.” The new item’s validity within the scale is tested in the proceeding confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

3. Research methods

3.1. Methodological issues in cross-cultural research

While cross-cultural research is important for its ability to shed light on cultural nuances and how these cultural differences influence perceptions of different behaviors, issues, and constructs like empowerment, the mainstream marketing literature frequently discusses the methodological problems associated with conducting this type of research (Choudhry, 1986; Malhotra et al., 1996; Sin, Cheung, & Lee, 1999). Choudhry (1986) plays on the many shortfalls of cross-cultural research through titling his paper “Pitfalls in international marketing-research: Are You Speaking French Like A Spanish Cow?,” which highlights some of the potential problems associated with different cultures responding to the same question in different ways.

In order to ensure constructs are cross-culturally valid and can be labeled as “construct equivalent,” Malhotra et al. (1996) suggest focusing on functional, conceptual, instrument and metric equivalence (Fig. 1). Functional equivalence implies that the behavior or idea in consideration has the same function across cultures (Malhotra et al., 1996, pp. 9–10). Conceptual equivalence speaks to research concepts having the same meaning across cultures (Malhotra et al., 1996, p. 10). Instrument equivalence “deals with whether the scale items, response categories, and questionnaire stimuli such as brands, products, consumer behavior, and marketing effort are interpreted identically across cultures” (Malhotra et al., 1996, p. 20). Lastly, Malhotra et al. (1996) insist on metric

equivalence, which is concerned with the psychometric properties of scales and measures exhibiting the same structure across cultural groups. Metric equivalence is further broken down by Malhotra into calibration equivalence, translational/linguistic equivalence, and scalar/metric equivalence. Calibration equivalence “examines whether the units of measurement are the same in different cultures,” and translational/linguistic equivalence refers to the scales and verbal stimuli being translated in a way that is easily understood by respondents in different cultures (Malhotra et al., 1996, p. 20). Lastly, Malhotra et al. (1996) conclude their discussion on equivalence with the importance of scalar/metric equivalence. Scalar/metric equivalence checks the psychometric properties of the data to ensure that the same psychometric structure is found across samples.

While this study’s main focus is on the scalar/metric equivalence of the RETS across cultures, other aspects of equivalence such as functional and conceptual equivalence were ensured through having a native and resident Japanese tourism scholar lead the data collection. The Japanese researcher stringently looked over the items of the RETS to ensure that they were functionally and conceptually equivalent within a Japanese context. This review of the RETS resulted in the finding that the ability of Japanese residents to have ‘access’ and ‘vote’ on tourism issues had no functional equivalents within the community of Oizumi. Furthermore, for the third item, a referendum by locals for a community issue rarely takes place in Japan. These items were changed and replaced with a new item that made sense within the local context. The Japanese tourism scholar was also able to oversee the translation of the scale back and forth between English and Japanese to ensure translational equivalence. For the rest of the paper, attention will focus on the scalar/metric equivalence of the RETS. The scalar/metric equivalence of the RETS was assessed through a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) that is presenting in the proceeding results section.

3.2. Study site

Located approximately 110 km northwest of Tokyo, the town of Oizumi, Japan is located in the Ora District, within the Gunma Prefecture. Oizumi has traditionally been dependent on manufacturing, estimating that approximately 55% of residents work to some capacity within the industry (Hamada, 2006; Tsuzuki, 2000). In an effort to combat the economic downturn in the mid-2000s, the town established a tourism bureau in 2007 in hopes that tourism would aid in the revitalization of the economy.

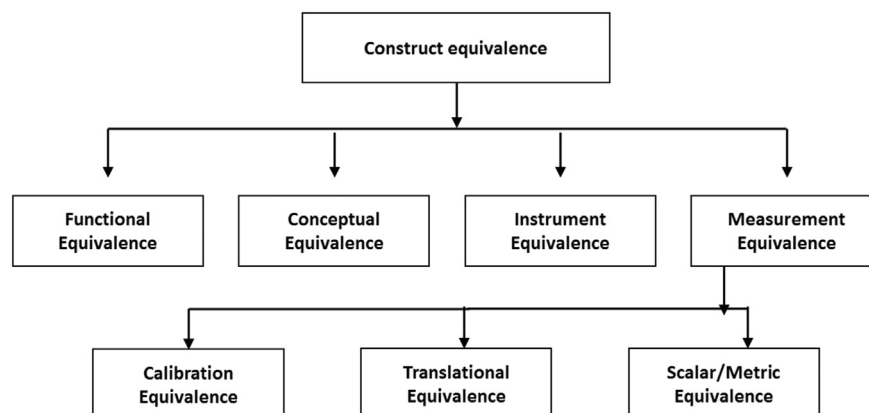


Fig. 1. Malhotra et al. (1996) hierarchy of construct equivalence in cross-cultural research.

Roughly during that same time, the town and its tourism bureau identified Brazilian culture as a main resource for tourism development, given that Oizumi boasts the highest percentage of Brazilians (i.e., 3678 individuals in 2010) per capita throughout Japan. The arrival of Brazilian immigrants in Oizumi began in the late 1980s (Tsuzuki, 2000). To solve the acute shortage of labor due to the booming economy at the time, 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 (Tsuda & Cornelius, 2004). Therefore, the Brazilians in Oizumi, and other parts of Japan, are descendants of Japanese immigrants who arrived in Brazil in the early 1900s throughout the mid-1930s and their family members (Tsuzuki, 2000). In Oizumi, a liaison office was organized in 1989 to employ Brazilians without using brokers. By 1995, Oizumi had the highest concentration (9.36%) of Brazilians in Japan, and has become to be known as a model town for embracing multiculturalism (Kouchi, 2007; Miyazaki, 2008).

The town organizes several events centered on Brazilian culture, such as an annual samba festival, monthly street food festivals, and monthly walking tours to attract tourists. In 2013, after the Japanese national soccer team qualified for FIFA World Cup 2014, the media exposure of Oizumi as Japan's "Little Brazil" increased. Yet, tourism in Oizumi is still in a developmental stage. This is evidenced by the fact that according to data from the Bureau of Statistics in Gunma prefecture, the number of visitors to Oizumi (204,200 visitors in 2013) was much lower than other well-known tourist spots in the same prefecture such as Kusatsu, famous for its hot springs (5,693,900 visitors in 2013), and Maebashi, the capital city of Gunma prefecture (2,754,900 visitors in 2013).

3.3. Data collection

This study was part of a larger project that explores ways in which ethnic neighborhood tourism can be a tool to revitalize the local community while also promoting mutual understanding between Japanese locals and immigrants and empowering the foreign residents. The project started in April 2012 in two ethnic neighborhoods in Japan. In addition to interviews, a survey was conducted among both Japanese and foreign residents to measure their perceptions on several constructs, including ethnic attitudes and emotional solidarities with foreign (or Japanese) residents, support for tourism, and perceptions of empowerment. In this article, resident empowerment among Japanese in a Brazilian community in Oizumi was the focus.

The sample for this study included Japanese resident heads of household or their spouses living in Oizumi. The city was reduced to 30 administrative areas designated by the local government, with 28 of the 30 areas being visited during data collection. Starting in randomly selected locations within each area, every second household was visited by the research team. If no one answered the door, the research team visited the next immediate house, and the second-house sequence was started over. The head of the household or their spouse was asked to participate in the survey, and if the resident agreed, a questionnaire was left with the participant and picked up later that day by the research team, following Boley and McGehee (2014) and Woosnam (2011). Occasionally, a prepaid envelope was used to return the survey. Data collection occurred throughout a nine-week period (on weekends), beginning in November 2013 and concluding in January 2014.

In total, 3172 households were visited by the research team, with 1204 individuals (approximately 38%) answering the door. At those 1204 homes, 667 residents declined to participate in the survey (i.e., acceptance rate of 44.6%). Of the 537 surveys distributed, 465 were completed (i.e., a completion rate of 86.5%). This

yielded the overall response rate (465 completed survey instruments from the 1204 people contacted) of 38.6%. Of the 465 survey instruments returned, nine were discarded as less than 50% of the instrument was completed, resulting in 456 survey instruments useable for data analysis.

3.4. Measures and data analysis

The main focus of this paper was to examine the scalar/metric construct equivalence of the RETS in an international context. With that said, as indicated above, 11 of the RETS items from Boley and McGehee (2014) were tested for construct validity. The 11 items comprised the factors *psychological empowerment* (5 items), *social empowerment* (3 items), and *political empowerment* (3 items). All items were translated initially from English to Japanese, and then, from Japanese back to English by different translators (back translation) to verify the quality of translation (Brislin, 1970). Back translations were performed to ensure translational/linguistic equivalence (Malhotra et al., 1996). Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement for each item using a 7-point scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*. In addition to the RETS, residents were asked questions concerning socio-demographic information (e.g., gender, age, marital status, education, annual household income, and length of residency).

Prior to beginning inferential statistical analysis, the dataset was examined for missing data. Missing data were imputed for 43 cases through an Estimation Maximization (EM) procedure in EQS v6.2 by predicting scores in a series of regressions where each missing variable was regressed on remaining variables for a particular case (Kline, 2011). Missing values ranged from 1.1% (most-answered) on one RETS item to 3.5% (least-answered) on another. According to Kline (2011, p. 55), "A few missing values, such as less than 5% on a single variable, in a large sample may be of little concern."

Next, multivariate normality within the data was assessed through the reported Mardia's normalized estimate in EQS. With it being larger (i.e., 56.39) than the critical value of 5.00 as reported by Bentler & Wu (2005), it was highly suggestive of non-normality in the sample. According to Kline (2011, p. 60), "Many instances of multivariate non-normality are detectable through the inspection of univariate distributions." At that point, following suggestions made by Byrne (2006) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), and followed by Woosnam and Norman (2010), the data was screened to identify potential univariate and multivariate outliers. Initially, univariate screening included standardizing raw data using z-scores to determine whether any exceeded the ± 3.29 threshold (as put forth by Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), indicating outliers were present. For 12 cases, this was the situation and raw data were then transformed to be one unit smaller than the next most extreme score in the distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In so doing, no cases had to be removed. For multivariate screening, Mahalanobis' Distance was examined to ensure observed χ^2 values were less than the critical χ^2 value (i.e., 18.31 at $\alpha = 0.05$) based on 10 degrees of freedom (considering the 11 items within the RETS). No cases had to be removed as critical values all surpassed the observed values. In light of these data transformations, according to Byrne (2006, p. 199), "Estimation based on the robust statistics [for the subsequent CFA] was considered appropriate" (see Appendix A for descriptive statistics).

In an effort to ultimately address the validity of the RETS in an international context, the scale was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In so doing, the construct validity and factor structure of the scale were assessed to see how they compared with results revealed in the work of Boley and McGehee (2014). As with the EM procedure, the CFA was also conducted in EQS.

Table 1
Descriptive summary of Oizumi resident sample.

Variable	n	%
Gender (n = 444)		
Male	225	50.7
Female	219	49.3
Age (n = 430, M = 52.7 years of age)		
18–35	67	15.8
36–50	95	22.5
51–65	100	23.6
66 and over	161	38.1
Marital status (n = 439)		
Married	326	74.3
Single	81	18.5
Widowed	24	5.5
Divorced/separated	8	1.8
Education (n = 436, median = less than high school diploma)		
Junior high or high school graduate	232	53.2
Technical school or junior college	113	25.9
Four year college or graduate school	91	20.9
Annual household income ^a (n = 429, median = ¥2,000,000–3,999,999)		
Less than ¥2,000,000	93	21.7
¥2,000,000–3,999,999	184	42.9
¥4,000,000–5,999,999	81	18.9
¥6,000,000–7,999,999	29	6.8
¥8,000,000 or more	42	9.8
Length of residence in Oizumi (n = 442; M = 31.57 years)		
1–15 years	108	24.4
16–29 years	98	22.2
30–45 years	131	29.6
46+ years	105	23.8

^a At the time this study was conducted, 1 Japanese ¥ was equivalent to \$0.0095USD.

Following this, numerous forms of reliability (e.g., composite and maximal weighted alpha) and validity (e.g., construct validity in the form of convergent, discriminant, and nomological) were

calculated to determine if the psychometric properties of the scale and its resulting factor structure mimicked the original study's findings.

4. Results

4.1. Participant profile

A descriptive summary of Oizumi residents comprising the sample can be found in Table 1. As can be seen, the sample was split evenly across genders, with an average age of respondents being slightly over 50 years of age. Somewhat related to this, nearly three in four of the participants indicated they were married. In terms of education, approximately every other individual surveyed had less than a high school diploma. Corresponding to education level, 83.5% of the sample made less than ¥6,000,000 per year. Many of the residents had lived in Oizumi for an extensive period of time, averaging nearly 32 years.

4.2. Factor structure of RETS

With any newly developed scale, subsequent examination of its items is necessary to show how applicable the measure can be in novel contexts (DeVellis, 2012). Researchers must recognize that if scales continue to yield inconsistent factors and psychometric properties are not sound, the measures may be problematic. To address the scalar/metric construct equivalence, both the factor structure and psychometric properties of the RETS are examined for the first time in a context outside of the United States, where it was first applied.

In an effort to examine the factor structure of the RETS, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the 11 items comprising the scale was undertaken. As Woosnam (2011) has shown, this two-step procedure of formulating an 'ideal model' and then trimming such model to determine a final, acceptable model allows for the opportunity to examine not only the factor structure but its accompanying psychometric properties. With knowledge that the RETS has yielded a three-factor structure in previous research (Boley & McGehee, 2014), the scale was subjected to CFA to

Table 2
Confirmatory factor analysis of RETS items.^a

Factor and corresponding item	Mean ^b	Standardized factor loading (t value ^c)	Composite reliability	Maximal weighted alpha	AVE
<i>Psychological empowerment</i>	3.91		0.89	0.90	0.62
Tourism in Oizumi makes me want to tell others about what we have to offer in Oizumi	3.73	0.85 (20.48)			
Tourism in Oizumi reminds me that I have a unique culture to share with visitors	3.47	0.82 (19.42)			
Tourism in Oizumi makes me want to keep Oizumi special	4.03	0.77 (14.77)			
Tourism in Oizumi makes me proud to be an Oizumi resident	4.33	0.75 (16.46)			
Tourism in Oizumi makes me feel special because people travel to see my city's unique features	3.47	0.74 (17.46)			
<i>Social empowerment</i>	4.05		0.93	0.94	0.83
Tourism in Oizumi fosters a sense of 'community spirit' within me	4.03	0.93 (24.02)			
Tourism in Oizumi makes me feel more connected to my community	3.95	0.90 (22.69)			
Tourism in Oizumi provides ways for me to get involved in my community	4.17	0.88 (20.65)			
<i>Political empowerment</i>	3.43		0.91	0.92	0.78
I feel like I have a voice in Oizumi tourism development decisions	3.41	0.92 (28.97)			
I feel like I have the opportunity to participate in the tourism planning process in Oizumi	3.40	0.88 (30.27)			
I feel like I have an outlet to share my concerns about tourism development in Oizumi	3.48	0.84 (21.34)			

^a Satorra–Bentler χ^2 (42, N = 451) = 123.38, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.07.

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

^c All t tests were significant at $p < 0.001$.

determine if the same three factors (i.e., *psychological empowerment*, *social empowerment*, and *political empowerment*) would result based on data from residents living in Oizumi, Japan.

To begin, the model was formulated by adding one factor at a time using LaGrange Multiplier (LM) tests to reveal error parameters (i.e., cross-loading items and error covariances) and add them to each subsequent model (along with each new factor), ultimately leading to an “ideal model” (Woosnam & Aleshinloye, 2013). Once the “ideal model” was formulated with all error parameters included, it makes little sense to interpret it, so at that point, the model is trimmed using Wald tests to determine which error parameters can be removed without compromising the $\Delta\chi^2/df$ critical value of 3.84 per Tabachnick and Fidell (2013).

Initially 14 error parameters (10 error covariances and four cross-loading items) were identified following the LM tests. After three Wald test iterations, each of the 14 error parameters were removed successfully from the final measurement model, so as not to exceed the 3.84 threshold. The model yielded a nearly identical structure (i.e., the same 11 items loaded onto the extant three factors from previous research) to that of Boley and McGehee's (2014) with a Satorra–Bentler Scaled $\chi^2(42, N = 451) = 123.38$, $p < 0.001$, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.97, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.07 (see Table 2). According to Kaplan (2009), incremental model fit indices (e.g., CFI, NFI, GFI, and NNFI) should exceed 0.95 to be considered acceptable. Browne and Cudeck (1993) claim that values for absolute model fit (i.e., RMSEA and RMR) that are between 0.05 and 0.08 are indicative of fair fit. Beyond this, all standardized factor loadings exceeded the Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommendation of 0.70 to be considered ‘ideal,’ ranging from 0.74 to 0.93.

4.3. Psychometrics of RETS

To assess psychometric properties of the RETS and the resulting three-factor structure, numerous estimates of reliability and validity were assessed. The overarching measure of validity is construct validity which Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) describe as “the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflect the theoretical latent constructs those items are designed to measure” (p. 686). Construct validity is made up four specific types of validity including convergent validity, discriminant validity, nomological validity, and content validity. Content validity is purely a judgment of whether or not the items make sense. It relates to the functional and conceptual equivalence mentioned earlier and was assessed by the team of researcher which included a native Japanese resident.

Convergent validity is primarily concerned with the amount of common variance the items of a construct share with the latent construct. It is commonly assessed based upon the internal consistency of the items, the size and significance of the factor loadings, and the average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2010). Two robust estimates of internal consistency or reliability were examined to help assess convergent validity—composite reliabilities (as calculated per guidelines in Hatcher, 1994, pp. 326–329) and maximal weighted alphas (as reported from EQS 6.2 output). Instead of relying on Cronbach alphas (which assume equal loadings on factors), the former measure was requested given alphas are weighted by factor loadings (which is the case for CFA). Ultimately, this provides for a more robust estimate of internal consistency (Kline, 2011). Composite reliabilities can be calculated by the following equation:

$$\text{composite reliability} = \frac{(\sum L_i)^2}{(\sum L_i)^2 + \sum \text{Var}(E_i)}$$

Where: L_i = standardized factor loadings for that factor

$\text{Var}(E_i)$ = error variance associated with the individual item

For each factor, composite reliabilities were very high, ranging from 0.89 (for *psychological empowerment*) to 0.93 (for *sociological empowerment*). Following a comparable trend, maximal weighted alphas were also high and ranged from 0.90 (for *psychological empowerment*) to 0.94 (for *sociological empowerment*) (Table 2). The second indicator of convergent validity is the strength and significance of the factor loadings. As can be seen from Table 2, all t values associated with each loading on corresponding factors were significant ($p < 0.001$) as they exceeded the critical value of 3.29 (per Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). All standardized factor loadings were also above the 0.70 level that Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommend is necessary to be considered ‘ideal.’ The last aspect of convergent validity is the average variance extracted (AVE). According to Hair et al. (2010), researchers want the AVE to be over 50% because it demonstrates that the items of the scales explain more variance than left unexplained. AVE was calculated following Fornell and Larcker's (1981) equation:

$$\text{AVE} = \frac{\sum L_i^2}{n}$$

Where:

L_i^2 = item reliability (calculated as square of the standardized factor loading for the item) for that factor
 n = number of items for that factor

The AVE for each dimension of the RETS were above the 50% criteria recommended by Hair et al. (2010). These three measure of convergent validity all come together to suggest that the RETS has strong convergent validity within the Oizumi sample.

Discriminant validity is another important aspect of construct validity that examines the constructs of a model to see if they are in fact distinct from one another. Hair et al. (2010, p. 688) suggest that a rigorous test of discriminant validity is to compare the squared correlations between constructs with AVE for each construct. Hair et al. (2010, p. 688) emphasize that AVE estimates should be higher than the squared correlations between constructs because if constructs explain more unique variance than they share with other constructs, then they can be determined to be more unique than alike. While the constructs of *psychological empowerment* and *social empowerment* share a significant amount of variance with a squared correlations of 0.64, the AVE extracted within the *social empowerment* factor was substantially higher at 83%. The AVE of the

Table 3
Discriminant and nomological validity analysis from RETS CFA.

Factors	1	2	3
1. Psychological empowerment	0.62^a	0.64 ^c	0.20
2. Social empowerment	0.80 ^{b,d}	0.83	0.18
3. Political empowerment	0.45	0.43	0.78

^a The bold diagonal elements are the measures of average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct.

^b Below diagonal elements are the correlations between constructs.

^c Above diagonal elements are the squared correlations between constructs.

^d All correlations were significant at $p < 0.001$.

psychological empowerment factor (62%) was lower than the squared correlation between it and social empowerment (0.64), but this was not deemed problematic because of the very high AVE within the social empowerment factor (83% > 0.64). With this logic, the constructs within the RETS were deemed to have discriminant validity (Table 3).

Following Boley and McGehee (2014), nomological validity (as suggested in Hair et al., 2010), was also examined. In essence, nomological validity ensures that the constructs within the model relate to other constructs in a way that theory would suggest. Such validity examines the correlational strength of measures based on a priori findings or theorized relationships between concepts or constructs. In this case, correlations among each of the RETS factors were assessed based on the extant findings of Boley and McGehee (2014) pertaining to the factor structure of the RETS. As can be seen from Table 3 above, the correlations among each of the RETS factors were robust and highly significant ($p < 0.001$) as would be expected from each of the factors being sub-dimensions of empowerment. Taken collectively with the tests of convergent and discriminant validity, the RETS exhibited sound construct validity in the international context of Japan. Such findings reaffirm that which Boley and McGehee (2014) reported in their work in southwestern Virginia.

While the three sub-dimensions of the RETS each demonstrated construct validity and share the same psychometric properties of the original study performed by Boley and McGehee (2014), it is important to note that the mean scale scores for each dimension suggest residents of Oizumi have varying perceptions of how they are empowered or disempowered through tourism development. Of the three sub-dimensions of empowerment, Oizumi residents perceived themselves to be more socially empowered (4.05) than psychologically empowered (3.91) or politically empowered (3.43) (Table 2). Even though this study's main purpose was to test the cross-cultural validity of the scales, these findings suggest that Oizumi residents' perceptions of empowerment differ by sub-dimensions and raise an important question as to why one dimension of empowerment is more prevalent than another. More research needs to be conducted on why these differences arise and how these differences influence other important outcomes such as resident support for tourism, resident quality of life, and overall community well-being.

5. Discussion and conclusions

With the empirical research on resident empowerment in its infancy, this manuscript sought to add to the scant literature by testing the cross-cultural validity of the RETS within the town of Oizumi, Japan. Such a destination provided a culture vastly different from the original U.S. sample across Hofstede's dimensions of 1) power distance, 2) individualism, 3) masculinity, 4) uncertainty avoidance, 5) pragmatism, and 6) indulgence (Hofstede, 2014). The sample also provided a more urban context than the original rural Virginia sample. These differences between samples were deliberately sought out to provide a stark test of the RETS' construct validity across a different culture and context from the original sample.

The results from the Oizumi sample appear supportive of the international applicability of the RETS. The CFA performed on the Oizumi sample demonstrated that the RETS and its factors of psychological, social, and political empowerment were construct-valid and shared the same psychometric properties originally found in Boley and McGehee's study (2014).

These findings have significant implications for academics and practitioners alike. For both groups, these findings provide the justification needed to continue to use the RETS across

international settings. While this is only the second test of the RETS' construct validity, and subsequent cross-cultural tests are needed before the scale's universal validity can be accepted, the findings from Oizumi provide credence to move forward with further international applications of the scale.

For tourism academics, this study not only tests the cross-cultural validity of the RETS, but also calls for those associated with international tourism research to take the additional time and effort to assess the cross-culture validity of their measures before conducting international research. Hosany et al. (2014) write of how few tourism researchers take the time to conduct these preliminary investigations into cross-cultural validity. The marketing literature is very clear about the many pitfalls associated with studies who do not assess the equivalence of scales across cultures (Choudhry, 1980; Malhotra et al., 1996). As the field of tourism research matures and seeks to establish its identity along more established academic disciplines, adding this stringent requirement for international research will increase the quality of tourism research, as well as help increase the field's reputation.

Another implication stems from the finding that in the Oizumi sample, the aspects of political empowerment focused on residents having 'access' to decision making and being able to 'vote' on tourism issues were not equivalent with the Western sample. This finding sheds light on the deep differences between Western notions of democracy and Eastern governmental philosophies that are often glossed over when discussing empowerment on an international scale. With the empirical measurement of resident empowerment in its infancy, academics have yet to examine what successful empowerment of the local people looks like across cultures where empowerment norms may be different. This finding also highlights why it is important to include researchers that are familiar with the local context and to have the functional and conceptual equivalence of constructs assessed before assuming that one is measuring the same idea that they were measuring in a previous sample. This finding also highlights the value of qualitative research. While there are benefits in being able to efficiently assess a large number of people's perspectives on a construct like empowerment, the cultural nuances of how one culture interprets constructs like empowerment are lost when asking them to evaluate the idea on a Likert scale. Qualitative research could also help unearth the many facets of why some residents perceived themselves as psychologically, socially, and politically empowered from tourism and others do not. This depth of understand is not possible with quantitative research and could be coupled with the findings of the RETS to not only measure empowerment but also explain why residents perceive empowerment the way that they do.

For practitioners, the finding that the RETS' construct validity was upheld within the Oizumi sample provides support for including the RETS as a measure to track the effectiveness of marketing and management initiatives from the resident perspective. Destinations managers can now use the RETS and its scales of psychological, social, and political empowerment to assess how residents perceive various marketing messages, town hall meetings aimed at political empowerment, or how tourism infrastructure designed to be used by residents and tourists alike actually affects the community's cohesion over time. Prior to the RETS, managers did not have a tool to track the effectiveness of their initiatives directed at empowering local residents. It is suggested that the RETS be administered periodically within the community to see if initiatives like geotourism mapguides (see Bosak et al., 2010) that market the destination from a local perspective or marketing campaigns like "Pure Michigan" (see <http://www.michigan.org/>) result in increases in psychological, social and political empowerment. The importance of empowering the local residents psychologically, socially, and politically is also important as Boley et al.

(2014) have found all three dimensions of empowerment to influence resident attitudes of tourism. By being able to track perceptions of empowerment, managers may be able to find out which initiatives are being successful at empowering residents and which one are not and make the needed changes. Measuring and tracking perceptions of empowerment over time will give managers a good gauge of how the community is being affected by tourism development, which has implications to not only increasing support for the local tourism industry, but also enhancing the community's general well-being and quality of life. The RETS can also be used as effective indicator of how sustainable a destination's tourism industry is. For example, if residents begin to perceive themselves as being psychologically, socially, or politically disempowered by tourism development, the RETS, through periodic assessment, should be able to identify this important change and alert those involved in tourism that a change is needed. The link between empowerment and sustainable tourism highlights the potential of the RETS being incorporated into other indicators of sustainable tourism, community well-being, and resident quality of life that have already been developed by Choi and Sirakaya's (2006), Fernández & Sanchez Rivero (2009), Ko (2005), Manning (1999), McCool, Moisey, and Nickerson (2001), and Miller (2001).

5.1. Limitations and future research

As with all research, there are certain limitations associated with this research conducted in Oizumi, Japan. The first concerns being able to test the RETS's cross cultural validity within only one international context. There are endless other communities that differ by culture, size, and type of tourism product to test the RETS within. Until the RETS's validity is assessed across more of these contexts, it hard to declare it as a universal measure of empowerment. This is a limitation of this study as well as an important area of future research. With empowerment being a central tenet of sustainable tourism development, there will need to be more research into residents' perceptions of empowerment and how these perceptions of empowerment influence other constructs like resident support for tourism.

An additional limitation could be the participant profile. The average age of respondents in this study is relatively high (52 years old), which could be a factor of the days of a week and time of a day data collection took place. Surveys were distributed between 11:00 am to 4:00 pm on weekends in an effort to capture a wide representation of all residents, but it is possible that younger residents may have been more likely to leave the house for errands or leisure around this time than older residents. The slightly older respondent profile should not affect the test of validity on the RETS in Oizumi, Japan though since CFA is a statistic concerned with response patterns. The area where age could influence the results is on perceptions of empowerment through tourism. Haukeland (1984) states that those who engaged in more traditional occupations tend to show more negative attitudes towards tourism industry. Presumably, older residents in Oizumi are more likely to have worked and benefited from the manufacturing industry. Therefore, they may not be as willing to participate in and become empowered through tourism development. Further investigation into the influence age has on empowerment would be an area of research the sustainable tourism literature could benefit from.

Another limitation of this study is the use of Likert scales to measure the constructs of psychological, social, and political empowerment. While the RETS was developed using Likert scales and Likert scales have been the common standard within tourism research, there is some discussion about the benefits of using other response formats (Dolnicar & Grün, 2013). Dolnicar and Grün (2013) found forced-choice full binary response formats to be

more stable across multiple tests than Likert scales and to take less time to complete when compared to Likert scales. Malhotra et al. (1996) also mention the problem of extreme response styles (ERS) of some cultures when using response formats like Likert scales and semantic differential scales. Johnson, Kulesa, Cho, and Shavitt (2005) argue that, while extreme answers were more common among people from individualist countries, a middling response style better fits the cultural norms of collectivist culture. Indeed, the answers in this study comparably concentrated around the middle answer, suggesting the influence of the Japanese cultural orientation that focuses more on collectivity. These concerns with response formats create multiple dilemmas for researchers interested in testing the cross-cultural validity of scales. For example, forced-choice full binary response patterns may be easier to interpret and quicker to complete, but they also do not provide the range of information provided in multiple response categories like Likert scales and semantic differential scales. Another question for researchers to consider is whether weight should be given to how the scale was originally developed or should the scale's response formats be changed based upon the cross-cultural sample of interest. This study's use of a 7-point Likert is an example of this very point because the original RETS was developed using a 5-point Likert scale. Even though the RETS demonstrated strong construct validity across both samples, the tourism literature stands to benefit from more research that investigates the positive and negative aspects of using various response categories.

In conclusion, this study has answered Boley and McGehee's (2014) call for testing the cross-cultural validity of RETS. The findings that the RETS's three dimensions of psychological, social, and political empowerment were construct valid within the Oizumi sample lays the groundwork for further application of the scale, as well as fills an important gap within the tourism literature. While the sustainable tourism literature has consistently praised the importance of empowering local residents and is full of rhetoric about empowerment (Cole, 2006; Di Castri, 2004; Scheyvens, 1999, 2002; Sofield, 2003), until the development of the RETS, there were no formal measures of empowerment for researchers to use. With the cross-cultural validity of the RETS confirmed in this study, those interested in resident empowerment now have a scale ready for use to measure and track resident perceptions of psychological, social, and political empowerment.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 24611010.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.01.011>.

References

- Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*, 35(4), 216–224.
- Beierle, T. C. (1998). *Public participation in environmental decisions: An evaluation framework using social goals* (pp. 99–106). Washington, DC: Resources for the Future.
- Bentler, P. M., & Wu, E. J. (2005). *EQS 6.1 for Windows*. Encino, CA: Multivariate Software.
- Besculides, A., Lee, M. E., & McCormick, P. J. (2002). Residents' perceptions of the cultural benefits of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 303–319.
- Boley, B. B., & McGehee, N. G. (2014). Measuring empowerment: developing and validating the resident empowerment through tourism scale (RETS). *Tourism Management*, 45, 85–94.

- Boley, B. B., McGehee, N. G., Perdue, R. R., & Long, P. (2014). Empowerment and resident attitudes toward tourism: strengthening the theoretical foundation through a Weberian lens. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 49, 33–50.
- Boley, B. B., Nickerson, N. P., & Bosak, K. (2011). Measuring geotourism: developing and testing the geotraveler tendency scale (GTS). *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(5), 567–578.
- Bosak, K., Boley, B., & Zaret, K. (2010). Deconstructing the 'Crown of the Continent': power, politics and the process of creating National Geographic's geotourism mapguides. *Tourism Geographies*, 12(3), 460–480.
- Brislin, R. W. (1970). Back-translation for cross-cultural research. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 1(3), 185–216.
- Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen, & J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 136–162). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Buzinde, C. N., Kalavar, J. M., & Melubo, K. (2014). Tourism and community well-being: the case of the Maasai in Tanzania. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 44, 20–35.
- Byrd, E. T. (2007). Stakeholders in sustainable tourism development and their roles: applying stakeholder theory to sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Review*, 62(2), 6–13.
- Byrd, E. T., Cárdenas, D. A., & Greenwood, J. B. (2008). Factors of stakeholder understanding of tourism: the case of Eastern North Carolina. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8(3), 192–204.
- Byrne, B. M. (2006). *Structural equation modeling with EQS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Cattaneo, L. B., & Chapman, A. R. (2010). The process of empowerment: a model for use in research and practice. *American Psychologist*, 65(7), 646–659.
- Choguill, M. B. G. (1996). A ladder of community participation for underdeveloped countries. *Habitat International*, 20(3), 431–444.
- Choi, H. S. C., & Sirakaya, E. (2005). Measuring residents' attitude toward sustainable tourism: development of sustainable tourism attitude scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(4), 380–394.
- Choi, H. C., & Sirakaya, E. (2006). Sustainability indicators for managing community tourism. *Tourism Management*, 27(6), 1274–1289.
- Choudhry, Y. A. (1986). Pitfalls in international marketing-research: are you speaking French like a Spanish cow? *Akron Business and Economic Review*, 17(4), 18–28.
- Churchill, G. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16(1), 64–73.
- Cole, S. (2006). Information and empowerment: the keys to achieving sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 14(6), 629–644.
- DeVellis, R. F. (2012). *Scale development* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Di Castri, F. (2004). Sustainable tourism in small islands: local empowerment as the key factor. *INSULA-PARIS*, 13(1/2), 49–55.
- Dolnicar, S., & Grün, B. (2013). Validly measuring destination image in survey studies. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(1), 3–14.
- Ellis, S., & Sheridan, L. (2014). A critical reflection on the role of stakeholders in sustainable tourism development in least-developed countries. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 1–5 (ahead-of-print).
- Fernández, J. I. P., & Sanchez Rivero, M. (2009). Measuring tourism sustainability: proposal for a composite index. *Tourism Economics*, 15(2), 277–296.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39–50.
- Freire, P. (1973). *Education for critical consciousness* (Vol. 1973). New York: Continuum Intl. Pub. Group.
- Friedmann, J. (1992). *Empowerment: The politics of alternative development*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.
- Hair, J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson.
- Hamada, K. (2006). Chiiki-jumin no gaikokujinn tono kouryu: Ishiki to sono henka: Gunmaki Oizumi-machi wo jirei to shite [Locals' interaction with foreign residents: perception and change in Oizumi town, Gunma]. *Chosa to Shakairon*, 22, 7–13.
- Hatcher, L. (1994). *A step-by-step approach to using SAS for factor analysis and structural equation modeling*. Cary, NC: SAS.
- Haukeland, J. V. (1984). Sociocultural impacts of tourism in Scandinavia: studies of three host communities. *Tourism Management*, 5(3), 207–214.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture and organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 15–41.
- Hofstede, G. (1994). The business of international business is culture. *International Business Review*, 3(1), 1–14.
- Hofstede, G. (2014). The Hofstede Center: Japan vs. United States comparison. Retrieved on 15.09.14 from <http://geert-hofstede.com/japan.html>.
- Hosany, S., Prayag, G., Deesilatham, S., Causévic, S., & Odeh, K. (2014). Measuring tourists' emotional experiences: further validation of the destination emotion scale. *Journal of Travel Research*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0047287514522878>.
- Johnson, T., Kulesa, P., Cho, Y. I., & Shavitt, S. (2005). The relation between culture and response styles: evidence from 19 countries. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 36(2), 264–277. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022022104272905>.
- Kaplan, D. (2009). *Structural equation modeling: Foundations and extensions* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kim, J. H., & Ritchie, J. B. (2014). Cross-cultural validation of a memorable tourism experience scale (MTES). *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(3), 323–335.
- Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New York: Guilford.
- Ko, T. G. (2005). Development of a tourism sustainability assessment procedure: a conceptual approach. *Tourism Management*, 26(3), 431–445.
- Kouchi, J. (2007). Chiiki seikatu niokeru gaikokujin to hosto juumin [Foreigners and host residents in a community life]. *Chosa to Shakairon*, 23, 49–66.
- Látková, P., & Vogt, C. A. (2012). Residents' attitudes toward existing and future tourism development in rural communities. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(1), 50–67.
- Madrigal, R. (1993). A tale of tourism in two cities. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(2), 336–353.
- Malhotra, N. K., Agarwal, J., & Peterson, M. (1996). Methodological issues in cross-cultural marketing research: a state-of-the-art review. *International Marketing Review*, 13(5), 7–43.
- Manning, T. (1999). Indicators of tourism sustainability. *Tourism Management*, 20, 179–182.
- Marzuki, A., & Hay, I. (2013). Towards a public participation framework in tourism planning. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 10(4), 494–512.
- McCool, S. F., Moisey, R. N., & Nickerson, N. P. (2001). What should tourism sustain? The disconnect with industry perceptions of useful indicators. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(2), 124–131.
- McGehee, N. G., Boley, B. B., Hallo, J. C., McGee, J. A., Norman, W., Oh, C. O., et al. (2013). Doing sustainability: an application of an inter-disciplinary and mixed-method approach to a regional sustainable tourism project. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(3), 355–375.
- McGehee, N. G., Lee, S., O'Bannon, T. L., & Perdue, R. R. (2010). Tourism-related social capital and its relationship with other forms of capital: an exploratory study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(4), 486–500.
- Medina, L. K. (2003). Commoditizing culture: tourism and Maya identity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(2), 353–368.
- Miller, G. (2001). The development of indicators for sustainable tourism: results of a Delphi survey of tourism researchers. *Tourism Management*, 22(4), 351–362.
- Miyazaki, S. (2008). Kita-kanto no gaikokujinn shuju chiiki niokeru kadai [Problems in ethnic enclaves in North Kanto area]. *Waseda University Nihongo Kyoikugaku*, 2, 1–14.
- Nunkoo, R., & Ramkissoon, H. (2012). Power, trust, social exchange and community support. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(2), 997–1023.
- Nunkoo, R., Smith, S. L. J., & Ramkissoon, H. (2013). Residents' attitudes to tourism: a longitudinal study of 140 articles from 1984 to 2010. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(1), 5–25.
- Perdue, R. R., Long, P., & Allen, L. (1990). Resident support for tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(4), 586–599.
- Perkins, D. D., & Zimmerman, M. A. (1995). Empowerment theory, research, and application. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 23(5), 569–579.
- Rappaport, J. (1984). Studies in empowerment. *Prevention in Human Services*, 3(2–3), 1–7.
- Rappaport, J. (1987). Terms of empowerment/exemplars of prevention: toward a theory for community psychology. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 15(2), 121–148.
- Scheyvens, R. (1999). Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities. *Tourism Management*, 20(2), 245–249.
- Scheyvens, R. (2002). *Tourism for development: Empowering communities*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Sin, L. Y., Cheung, G. W., & Lee, R. (1999). Methodology in cross-cultural consumer research: a review and critical assessment. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 11(4), 75–96.
- Sirakaya-Turk, E., Ekinci, Y., & Kaya, A. G. (2008). An examination of the validity of SUS-TAS in cross-cultures. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(4), 414–421.
- Sofield, T. H. B. (2003). *Empowerment for sustainable tourism development*. Kidlington, Oxford: Elsevier Science.
- Stronza, A., & Gordillo, J. (2008). Community views of ecotourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(2), 448–468.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Tsuda, T., & Cornelius, W. A. (2004). Immigration to Japan: myths and realities. *Controlling Immigration*, 439–476.
- Tsuzuki, K. (2000). Nikkei Brazilians and local residents: a study of the housing complex in Toyota City. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 9(3), 327–342.
- Woosnam, K. M. (2011). Comparing residents' and tourists' emotional solidarity with one another: an extension of Durkheim's model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(6), 615–626.
- Woosnam, K. M., & Aleshinloye, K. D. (2013). Can tourists experience emotional solidarity with residents? Testing Durkheim's model from a new perspective. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(4), 494–505.
- Woosnam, K. M., & Norman, W. C. (2010). Measuring residents' emotional solidarity with tourists: scale development of Durkheim's theoretical constructs. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(3), 365–380.



B. Bynum Boley is an Assistant Professor of Natural Resources, Recreation and Tourism within the Warnell School of Forestry and Natural Resources at the University of Georgia. His research interests largely focus on sustainable tourism with a specific interest in the unique natural and cultural resources of tourism destinations. These innate natural and cultural features interest him because he sees the sustainable management and marketing of them as being vital to two of the primary goals of 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. **Dr. Boley's** research has appeared in the *Journal of Travel Research*, *Annals of Tourism Research*, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *Tourism Management*, and *Tourism Geographies*.



Naho Maruyama is an Assistant Professor in Regional and Tourism Policy at Takasaki City University of Economics, Japan. Her research interest includes tourism and globalization, tourism and ethnic minorities, residents'

perception to ethnic tourism, and anthropology of tourism. She has published several articles regarding representation of ethnic culture to tourists as well as tourists' sense of ethnic identity. Her current research focuses on residents' attitudes towards tourism in Korean and Brazilian neighborhoods throughout Japan.



Kyle M. Woosnam is an Associate Professor in Recreation, Park & Tourism Sciences at Texas A&M University, USA. His research interests concern social-cultural and economic impacts of tourism, resident–tourist interactions within tourist destinations, and sustainable tourism development and planning. He serves on the editorial boards of the *Journal of Travel Research* and *Leisure Sciences* and his work has appeared in *Annals of Tourism Research*, *Tourism Geographies*, and *Journal of Travel Research*.