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## Explaining minority residents' attitudes of ethnic enclave tourism from general perceptions of tourism impacts

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### ABSTRACT

This study examined how Brazilian and Korean residents in two Japanese towns differed in their views of tourism in general and ethnic neighborhood tourism (ENT) focused on their own culture and if their perceptions of tourism in general translate into their corresponding attitudes about ENT. A series of MANOVAs revealed that Brazilian residents held more positive views toward tourism in general and ENT than their Korean counterparts. Although the two groups differed in their perception of community benefits from tourism in general, they demonstrated a similar mix of hopes and worries regarding ENT. Results from multiple regression analyses also revealed that minority residents' perceptions of tourism in general can be a significant predictor of their attitudes toward ENT explaining 4–40% of variance in the Brazilian sample and 4–12% in the Korean sample. These findings imply that perceptions of general tourism are precursors to perceptions of specific, niche forms of tourism. In a practical sense, this study underscores the importance of inviting residents' opinion into the tourism planning process, especially in ENT contexts. Implications and suggestions for future research are discussed at the close of the paper.

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Ethnic neighborhood tourism; Japan; niche tourism; TIAS; tourism impact

## Introduction

Ethnic neighborhoods, which are characterized by a large migrant concentration, have traditionally been found in areas of cities marked by high degrees of poverty, crime and unemployment (Hagan, 1993). However, tourism that is introduced which focuses on the ethnic culture, or ethnic neighborhood tourism (ENT), may allow the unprivileged neighborhoods to become places of multicultural celebration and consumption. This is the case in several ethnic neighborhoods in Japan.

ENT is associated with commodifying the unique ethnic culture of the neighborhoods that cannot be easily found within other parts of the city or country as a whole. While it provides 'authentic' ethnic experiences for tourists without having to travel abroad, it can also be a significant means of socio-economic development for the immigrant

community (Drew, 2011; Xie, 2010). Two noted locations in Japan where ENT is currently growing is in Oizumi within a Brazilian enclave as well as in Ikuno within a Korean enclave.

As ENT becomes a popular niche form of tourism, research has explored its influence on tourists' understanding on different cultures (Santos, Belhassen, & Caton, 2008) and locals' perception of ENT (Maruyama, Woosnam, & Boley, 2016; Pang, 2012). Understanding how minority residents (whose culture is represented to tourists) formulate their attitudes about ENT is an essential step for a community or destination in striving to achieve sustainable ENT development.

As such, residents' attitudes have been one of the most researched area in the study of tourism based on the premise that the support of local residents is essential for the success of tourism development (Choi & Murray, 2010; Cole, 2006; Látková & Vogt, 2012). Studies have identified a range of factors that influence residents' attitudes (Ko & Stewart, 2002; Wang & Pfister, 2008), and various theories have been applied to explain the effect of these factors (e.g. attribution theory, dependency theory, emotional solidarity theory). While social exchange theory (SET) has been the dominant theory in the field (see Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012; Ward & Berno, 2011 for an extensive review of work in tourism focusing on SET), more recent studies (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Rasoolimanesh, Jaafar, Kock, & Ramayah, 2015) expand the framework and include not only economic but also sociocultural, psychological, environmental factors to explain the complex nature of residents' attitudes.

Despite the advancement of research on residents' attitudes, what is lacking in the literature is an investigation of residents' perceptions of specific types of tourism development (i.e. tourism focused on one particular cultural or ethnic group). More precisely, much of the research has operationalized 'tourism impacts' or 'residents' perceptions' to evaluate residents' attitudes about tourism in general. However, as Andereck and Vogt (2000) argue, residents' interpretations of 'tourism development' may vary. Furthermore, few (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Dillette, Douglas, Martin, & O'Neill, 2017; Gursoy, Chi, & Dyer, 2010; Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997) have considered how the perceptions of tourism in general translate to attitudes about niche areas of tourism development. Drawing on SET reasoning, Jurowski et al. (1997) argue that the process of social exchange is complex, and individuals may 'evaluate interacting rewards and costs in making rational decisions' (p.3). Thus, it is important to analyze the interplay of values being exchanged and how it influences their perception towards a specific type of tourism. It stands to reason that perceptions of tourism in general will be directly related to perceptions of specific forms of tourism.

Given this reasoning, the main aim of the study is to examine how minority residents' (i.e. Brazilians living in Oizumi and Koreans living in Ikuno) attitudes towards tourism in general influence their perceptions about ENT focused on their own culture. This study has four main purposes: (1) to examine whether Brazilian and Korean minority residents' perceptions of tourism in general are significantly different in two diverse Japanese cities with well-known minority enclaves; (2) to examine whether Brazilian and Korean minority residents' perceptions of tourism focused on their culture (i.e. ethnic neighborhood tourism or ENT) are significantly different; (3) to assess the factor structure of the Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (TIAS) among both minority samples; and (4) determine whether perceptions of tourism in general (i.e. using TIAS factors) can significantly explain minority residents' attitudes about ENT focused on their own cultures.

## Literature review

### *Resident perceptions of tourism and tourism development*

In considering sustainable tourism, especially from a supply-side perspective, one cannot discount the importance of residents and their voices, attitudes, and perceptions of tourism and its accompanying development. For this reason, the research focus on residents' attitudes of tourism is arguably as strong today as it was dating back to the mid-1970s, when it first entered the scene (Sharpley, 2014). As Stylidis, Biran, Sit, and Szivas (2014) argue, the social exchange theory (SET) is, 'The most commonly accepted framework in explaining residents' reaction to tourism development, since it allows for the capturing of differing views based on experiential and psychological outcomes' (p. 261). Works of Nunkoo and So (2016) and Ward and Berno (2011) support the notion of the utility of SET in explaining residents' attitudes. In a basic sense, if perceived positive impacts (as 'benefits') of tourism outweigh the perceived negative impacts (as 'costs'), residents will tend to be more supportive of tourism and tourism development overall (Gursoy et al., 2010; Stylidis et al., 2014).

In Japan, the importance of residents' attitudes has been recognized only recently because tourism development in Japan had predominantly focused on large-scale resort development (utilizing a 'top-down' management approach) until the mid-1990s (Roemer, 2007). However, due to the economic downturn and decentralization, regional municipalities began introducing tourism that utilizes local resources as a tool for regional development and economic revitalization. Accordingly, researchers have started to explore locals' perceptions of tourism in various contexts such as hot springs (McMorran, 2008), a mountain village (Jimura, 2011), and an ethnic neighborhood (Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015).

For decades, research has considered significant predictors of residents' attitudes about tourism – from economic dependence to level of development, attachment to community, distance between residence and tourism center, knowledge of tourism, contact between resident and tourist, and a host of sociodemographic/socio-economic variables (García, Vázquez, & Macías, 2015). Depending on the context, the 'verdict is out' on which serves to be the best. More recently, research has shifted to focus on outcomes of these residents' attitudes, such as well-being and life satisfaction (Kim, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2013), trust in government (Nunkoo & Smith, 2013), and support for alternative versus mass tourism (Gursoy et al., 2010) – to name a few. In fact, some work has considered how perceptions of tourism in general can serve to explain perceptions of specific forms of tourism (e.g. tourism options – Andereck & Vogt, 2000; volunteer tourism – Dillette et al., 2017; alternative versus mass tourism – Gursoy et al., 2010; and nature-based tourism – Jurowski et al., 1997).

As our world continues to grow, more people will be relocating for better employment opportunities and to escape religious, cultural, ethnic, and political persecution. And as such, ethnic enclaves will be more prevalent throughout the globe (Gelbman & Timothy, 2011). Planning for sustainable tourism within these areas with ethnic enclaves will be crucial – especially considering various stakeholders' perspectives on diverse ethnicities. While some research has been undertaken to examine residents' perspectives on ethnic neighborhood tourism (Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015; Santos & Yan, 2008), no work

has been conducted linking residents' perspectives on tourism in general to perspectives on ethnic neighborhood tourism (a more specific form of tourism). Further, no one has considered the minority residents' perceptions of tourism in general translates to attitudes about ENT focused on their own culture.

### ***Ethnic neighborhood tourism***

Traveling to ethnic neighborhoods provides a channel through which tourists can experience diverse racial and ethnic cultures without leaving their country (Drew, 2011). For some who do not have means to travel abroad, ethnic neighborhood tourism offers 'the next best thing.' Because of deindustrialization of inner cities, many ethnic neighborhoods in the U.S., Europe, and Asia have enthusiastically pursued tourism as a means for economic development and urban revitalization (i.e. Loukaitou-Sideris & Soureli, 2012; Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015). In essence, this niche form of tourism helps to contribute to stimulated economies and serves as an excellent potential for cross-cultural awareness, learning and understanding. According to Aytar and Rath (2012), residential concentration of immigrants can foster growth of ethnic businesses in the area and create festivalised ethnic shopping areas and a food center. These facets have the potential to attract consumers in search of an 'authentic experience,' and thus become the area's competitive advantage in urban economies. Indeed, Bacsí's (2017) study indicates that popular tourism destinations throughout the world are often characterized by cultural and ethnic diversity. For these reasons, ENT has been encouraged throughout Japan (Maruyama, Woosnam, & Boley, 2017).

From immigrants' and minority residents' perspectives, ENT can be 'a strategy to enhance the prosperity of local residents' (Santos et al., 2008, p. 1002) because it fuels opportunities for employment, entrepreneurship, as well as social recognition by the dominant societal structure (Pang & Rath, 2007; Santos & Yan, 2008). As Maruyama et al. (2016) have found, minority residents who lived in the Brazilian community where ENT was initiated felt more socially- and psychologically-empowered than residents of the dominant ethnic group. Similarly, residents of the minority group in the same community develop more supportive attitudes towards tourism in general than the majority residents (Maruyama et al., 2017). In addition, Pang (2012) argues that, the revitalization of Chinatown in Antwerp for tourism helped foster social cohesion and promote economic mobility among immigrant entrepreneurs.

On the other hand, ENT may also perpetuate stereotypes, social isolation, and inequality (Drew, 2011). To attract tourists, residents living within ethnic neighborhoods need to meet visitors' expectations for 'exotic experiences' that often come in the form of conventional representations and images of the 'Other.' In addition, an ethnic neighborhood needs to market its 'multiculturalism' in a celebratory and friendly manner, which may mask the ethnic conflict, poverty, and prejudice that the neighborhood is actually experiencing (Santos & Yan, 2008). Moreover, ENT may be initiated by the state government as a part of large urban redevelopment process (Pang & Rath, 2007). In such case, local residents and businesses from the minority ethnic group may find themselves excluded from the planning process as Holden (2013) has suggested. On the contrary, in some communities, tourism development is led by a local government or even begins spontaneously as influenced by mega events (i.e. Olympic games, World cup, or boom of certain culture).

While the project led by the state government often involves a major architectural intervention, these small scale tourism developments tend to rely on the existing infrastructure, and thus the minority residents may better perceive the economic benefits from tourism (Maruyama et al., 2016).

Overall, ENT can bring benefits to minority residents who have been marginalized, and such benefits can foster positive attitudes towards tourism in general among the minority residents, and even empower some (Maruyama et al., 2016). Yet, ENT can give way to negative impacts associated with the ethnic representation, both urban (Santos & Yan, 2008) and rural areas (Yang, 2011). However, few studies have explored how minority residents form their attitudes about ENT through the interplay of perceptions of tourism in general; does the general inform the specific? Therefore, this study will examine how minority residents' attitudes towards tourism in general influence their perception about ENT focused on the minority groups' culture.

## Methods

### *Study context*

This study was conducted in two locations in Japan, namely Oizumi town in Gunma prefecture and Ikuno ward in Osaka city. Oizumi is located approximately 110 km northwest of Tokyo (i.e. the equivalent of a two- and a half hour train ride). According to the census conducted in 2010, 40,257 people, including 5223 foreign-born residents, reside in Oizumi (Oizumi town, 2014). Among the registered foreigners, 3678 people are Brazilians, which is the highest concentration of Brazilian residents throughout all of Japan.

Immigration of Brazilians to Oizumi began in the late 1980s. To solve the serious labor deficiency caused by the booming economy at the time, the Japanese government amended the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition 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). Oizumi, a well-known manufacturing town, actively recruited the Brazilian immigrants to work in the factories in town.

Ethnic neighborhood tourism centered on Brazilian culture was launched in 2007 by the local government in an attempt to revitalize the town's declining economy. From its onset, the bureau identified Brazilian culture as a primary resource for tourism. To attract tourists, several events regarding Brazilian culture were organized by the tourism bureau. Two Brazilian supermarkets, several small snack stores, and restaurants, all of which have been predominantly used by local Brazilian residents, have also been promoted to tourists. Although Oizumi was well known in the past as a manufacturing town, it had received little attention as a tourism destination when the initiative began. However, the two mega events held in Brazil, namely FIFA World Cup in 2014 and the Summer Olympics in 2016, increased the media exposure of the town and made it known to the wider public. Media emphasized that the town allows people to experience authentic Brazilian culture without having to travel 30 h to Rio de Janeiro. Indeed, one-day bus tours were conducted to bring visitors from Tokyo. Having said that, Oizumi is still at an emerging level of tourism development. Indeed, an annual Brazilian samba festival, monthly Brazilian street food festivals, and occasional Brazilian walking tours are the

only tourism events and attractions in the town. According to data from the Bureau of Statistics in Gunma prefecture (2017), 279,500 people visited the town in 2015, all of whom were day visitors.

The Korean town in Ikuno, also known as Tsuruhashi Korean town, Osaka, is located in close proximity to the city center of Osaka. Tsuruhashi station is approximately a 15-minute train ride from Osaka Station. The Ikuno ward is home to 127,783 residents, including 27,801 foreign-born residents, and among the foreign residents, 23,499 claim to be Korean residents (Ikuno Ward, 2016). This is the largest concentration of Korean residents in the country.

The Korean neighborhood in Ikuno emerged at the turn of the twentieth century, when a large number of colonial migrants from Korea emigrated particularly from Jeju island to work for the maintenance project of the Hirano river that had begun in 1919 (Ueda, 2011). Although the Korean town had long been reputed by the Japanese population as a place to avoid, the 1988 Summer Olympics and the 2002 FIFA World cup increased the popularity of the town as a tourism destination. Yet, the most significant turning point for the town was the 'Korean Wave,' also known as *Hallyu*, the global popularity of South Korean pop culture that swept through Japan in the early 2000s. Because of the sudden increase of popularity of Korean culture, the Korean town became re-fashioned as a 'sacred place' for *Hallyu* fans.

The current Korean town is situated largely along one main street with approximately 120 restaurants, grocery stores, souvenir shops, clothing stores, and some other types of Korean businesses. Since the *Hallyu* boom arrived in Japan, it has gone through several phases, and the Korean town in Ikuno has accommodated the changes of visitors' needs and taste. The boom hit its first peak in 2003 when a Korean TV drama (i.e. *Winter Sonata*) made a mega hit (Jang & Paik, 2012). Before the boom, many shops in the town were wholesalers targeting Korean-owned businesses (K. Kimura, personal communication, June 25, 2017). However, as a number of Japanese visitors increased along with the boom, some shop owners began to sell small-size, take-out food in front of their shop spaces to attract the visitors who are willing to sample authentic Korean dishes. The second phase of the boom was characterized with the success of young idol groups (K-pop) in the mid-2000s (Jang & Paik, 2012). While the TV dramas mainly attracted middle-aged women, this phase targeted younger generations, both men and women. To respond to the new demand, a number of new, modern stores that sell music CDs and pictures of K-pop stars opened in the Korean town and along the road between the train station and the Korean town. More recently, the Korean town has received quite a large degree of criticism and hate speeches from ultra-right wing Japanese groups since the beginning of 2013, which may negatively affect tourism in the town (Ito, 2014).

### ***Sampling and data collection***

Brazilian residents living in Oizumi Town, Gunma and Korean residents living in Ikuno, Osaka comprised the target populations for this study. Heads of households or their spouses residing in both areas were sampled on weekends from November (2013) to June (2015). Following a multi-stage cluster sampling scheme (Babbie, 2014), Oizumi town and Ikuno-ku were reduced to 30 and 19 areas (respectively) designated by the



regional office. These administrative areas were then randomly selected. Within each selected administrative area, homes were then randomly selected and visited.

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

In Oizumi, 5566 households were visited, while no one answered the door at approximately 72% ( $n = 4022$ ) of the homes. At the remaining 1554 homes, 854 declined and 700 surveys were distributed (an acceptance rate of 45%). In total, 662 surveys were completed by the residents (a completion rate of 94%). The overall response rate (662 completed survey instruments from the 1554 individuals contacted) was 42%. Of the 662 surveys completed, 12 were less-than-half completed and 467 were completed by Japanese residents (not considered in this paper). As a result, 183 survey instruments completed by Brazilian residents were usable.

In total, in Ikuno, 5930 households were visited, and no one answered the door at approximately 58% of the homes. At the remaining 2489 homes, 733 surveys were distributed (an acceptance rate of 29%). In total, 640 surveys were returned (a completion rate of 89% and overall response rate of 26%). Of the 640 surveys completed, 14 were less-than-half completed, and 626 surveys were completed by Japanese residents (not considered in this paper), resulting in 160 usable instruments (completed by Korean residents).

### ***Measures and data analysis***

To examine resident attitudes toward tourism, the authors adopted 17 items from the Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (TIAS) developed by Lankford and Howard (1994). This scale has most recently been utilized within numerous tourism studies across various settings (see Lai & Hitchcock, 2017; Platania & Santisi, 2016; Wang & Pfister, 2008; Woosnam, 2012). Most recently, Wang and Pfister (2008) revealed two distinct factors for the TIAS (i.e. *Support for tourism development* and *contributions tourism makes to the community*) and the work of Woosnam (2012) confirmed these factors. For the 17 items, participants were asked to indicate their perceived attitudes toward tourism in general within their community using a 7-point Likert scale (where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree) for each statement.

Items used to measure ethnic neighborhood tourism were developed from the work of Maruyama and Woosnam (2015), following from a review of literature (see Aytar & Rath, 2012; Drew, 2011; Henderson, 2000, 2003; Pang & Rath, 2007; Santos & Yan, 2008; Shaw, Bagwell, & Karmowska, 2004). Respondents were asked to indicate their attitudes toward the ethnic neighborhood tourism in their community using a 7-point Likert scale (where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree) for each statement. Additional measures included in the questionnaire were socio-demographic variables (e.g. age, level of formal education, and household income) and residential variables (e.g. length of residency).



To address the first two purposes of this paper, which involved examining whether Brazilian and Korean residents' general perceptions of tourism as well as perceptions of ethnic neighborhood tourism in their communities significantly differed, two separate multiple analyses of variance (MANOVA) were undertaken. MANOVAs were conducted with the utilization of IBM SPSS v.24. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using EQS v6.3, was then employed to examine the factor structures of the TIAS scale for each sample. In so doing, psychometric properties of the TIAS were carefully considered. Finally, to examine the relationship between the resulting TIAS factors (from the CFA results) and the eight items measuring perceptions of ethnic neighborhood tourism, multiple linear regression analysis (using SPSS) was undertaken for each sample.

## Results

Slightly more than half of each sample (54.6% for Brazilians and 53.5% for Koreans) was comprised of women with nearly three-in-four individuals married (71.5% for Brazilians and 74.7% for Koreans). For Brazilian residents ( $M = 44.7$  years of age), nearly two-thirds of the respondents were at under the age of 50 whereas for Koreans ( $M = 51.4$  years of age), slightly less than half were under 50 years of age. In terms of education, approximately 33% of individuals in each sample possessed at least a technical/vocational degree. In each sample, the median range of annual household income was consistent with working class salaries, ¥2,000,000–3,999,999 (\$17,650–35,300USD annually). Brazilian residents indicated a significantly shorter residential tenure in Oizumi ( $M = 8.8$  years) than did Korean residents in Osaka ( $M = 34.5$  years).

### *Comparing Brazilian and Korean residents' perceptions of tourism in general in their communities*

To determine if Brazilian and Korean residents' perception of tourism in general (across the 17 TIAS items) were different in their communities, a MANOVA with Wilks's  $\Lambda$  was performed. Significant differences were found between the resident populations on each item (Wilks's  $\Lambda = 0.32$ ,  $F_{(17,317)} = 38.95$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The multivariate  $\eta^2$  based on Wilks's  $\Lambda$  was strong, 0.68, indicating that 68% of the multivariate variance of the 17 TIAS items was associated with either being a Brazilian or Korean resident. For each of the TIAS items, Brazilians indicated a significantly higher level of agreement. Table 1 provides output for the MANOVA model and its ANOVA results.

### *Comparing Brazilian and Korean residents' perceptions of ethnic neighborhood tourism*

The same MANOVA test was undertaken to examine potential differences in perceptions of ethnic neighborhood tourism focused on the residents' ethnicities and cultures (across eight items). Significant differences were found on all but one item (Wilks's  $\Lambda = 0.59$ ,  $F_{(8,293)} = 25.31$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The multivariate  $\eta^2$  based on Wilks's  $\Lambda$  was moderate, 0.41. The ANOVA for the item, 'Tourism presents only stereotypes of my culture' was the only one of eight items that was not significant ( $F_{(1,293)} = 5.74$ ,  $p = 0.02$ ), as can be shown in comparable mean scores for Brazilian ( $M = 4.57$ ) and Korean residents ( $M = 4.14$ ). Table 2 provides output for the MANOVA model and ANOVA results.

**Table 1.** Differences<sup>a</sup> in perceptions of tourism in general (TIAS items)<sup>b</sup> between Brazilian and Korean residents.

TIAS Item	Brazilian Residents Mean	Korean Residents Mean	F	p
I believe tourism should be actively encouraged in my city.	5.96	5.17	27.43	0.00
I support tourism and want to see it become important in my city.	6.04	5.19	35.93	0.00
I support new tourism facilities that will attract new visitors to my city.	6.11	4.82	78.31	0.00
My city should support the promotion of tourism.	6.19	5.03	72.15	0.00
In general, the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts.	5.46	4.56	33.65	0.00
My city should become a tourist destination.	5.92	5.06	35.17	0.00
Long-term planning by the city can control negative environmental impacts from tourism.	5.97	4.82	68.00	0.00
It is important to develop plans to manage growth of tourism.	6.12	5.40	32.37	0.00
The tourism sector will play a major role in my city's economy.	6.05	5.36	25.75	0.00
One of the most important benefits of tourism is how it can improve local standard of living.	5.86	4.52	86.92	0.00
Shopping opportunities are better in my city as a result of tourism.	5.39	3.75	92.82	0.00
My city has better roads due to tourism.	5.08	3.14	131.54	0.00
The tourism sector provides many desirable employment opportunities for residents.	5.31	3.92	64.71	0.00
Quality of life in my city has improved because of tourism development.	5.02	3.77	53.82	0.00
I have more recreational opportunities because of tourism in my city.	5.95	3.76	231.59	0.00
The quality of public services has improved due to more tourism in my city.	5.99	3.38	340.44	0.00
My household standard of living is higher because of money tourists spend here.	6.01	2.55	539.53	0.00

<sup>a</sup>MANOVA model Wilks's  $\Lambda = 0.32$ ,  $F(17,317) = 38.95$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.68$ .

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

### CFA of TIAS for each resident sample

To address the next purpose of the paper, a two-step CFA procedure was undertaken on the TIAS for Brazilians and Koreans. Following Woosnam (2011a, 2011b), LaGrange Multiplier tests were utilized in building the models with all error terms included. Following this,

**Table 2.** Differences<sup>a</sup> in perceptions of ethnic neighborhood tourism items<sup>b</sup> between Brazilian and Korean residents.

ENT Item	Brazilian Residents Mean	Korean Residents Mean	F	p
Tourism provides employment mainly for foreigners.	5.40	3.74	90.15	0.00
Tourism focusing on my ethnicity can be a medium to get to know my Japanese neighbors.	5.60	4.75	35.04	0.00
My city has other things to present to tourists other than my culture.	5.77	4.60	69.84	0.00
Tourism in my city should not focus only on my culture but also other cultures.	6.05	4.50	95.53	0.00
I do not think my city should be portrayed as a [ ] <sup>c</sup> city.	4.55	3.27	41.12	0.00
Japanese residents will feel out of place in my city if tourism focuses on my culture.	4.96	3.72	40.29	0.00
Tourism presents only stereotypes of my culture.	4.57	4.14	5.74	0.02
Local [ ] <sup>c</sup> should be more involved in tourism development in my city.	5.62	4.54	55.55	0.00

<sup>a</sup>MANOVA model Wilks's  $\Lambda = 0.59$ ,  $F(8,293) = 25.31$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.41$ .

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

<sup>c</sup>Brazilian or Korean, depending on sample.

Wald tests were employed to trim the models by removing error terms in such a way so as to not violate the critical value of 3.84 for  $\Delta\chi^2/df$  (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). For the Brazilian model, 36 error terms (i.e. 32 error covariances and 4 cross-loaders) were identified and successfully removed and all 17 TIAS items remained in the final measurement model. Thirty-three error terms (i.e. 30 error covariances and 3 cross-loaders) were identified for the Korean model; 31 of the error terms were successfully removed, however two TIAS items were also removed. Those items ('Long-term planning by the city can control negative impacts from tourism' and 'One of the most important benefits of tourism is how it can improve the local standard of living') were removed from the final measurement model so as to not violate the 3.84 critical value. As can be seen in Table 3, a nearly identical two-factor structure of the TIAS resulted for the two samples.

Absolute model fit indices (i.e. RMSEA) were considered 'fair' (falling between 0.05 and 0.08) for both models (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Incremental model fit indices (i.e. CFI) for each sample were near the 0.95 threshold that Kaplan (2009) considers to be 'acceptable.' Standardized factor loadings all exceeded the critical value of 0.50 as Comrey and Lee (1992) suggest and were significant ( $p < 0.001$ ;  $t$  value exceeding 3.29). Factors within each model all demonstrated high internal consistency with maximal weighted alpha values surpassing the 0.70 threshold. Average variance extracted (AVE) for each of the factors within the models also exceeded the 0.50 critical value, which according to Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) is a good rule of thumb.

### ***TIAS factors predicting perceptions of ENT focused on minority group***

From the CFA results, composite factor means were calculated within each sample and used within a series of multiple linear regression analyses (Table 4) to determine if perceptions of tourism in general had an impact on how each of the minority resident populations perceived tourism focused on their ethnicity. Overall, TIAS was a significant predictor of the ENT items among Brazilian residents, with six of the eight models yielding significant findings, explaining 4–40% of the variance in ENT models. For the Korean sample, TIAS factors significantly predicted seven of the eight models, yet explained a lower degree of variance (i.e. 4–12%) in the ENT models. Interestingly, the factor *contributions to community* was a better predictor for the Brazilian models, whereas *support for tourism development* was a better predictor for the Korean models.

## **Conclusion and discussion**

### ***Conclusion***

Interestingly, Brazilian residents displayed a much more positive view of tourism in general than their Korean counterparts. While Korean residents were moderately supportive ( $M = 4.82$ – $5.40$ ) toward tourism in general, they agreed less with community benefits of tourism ( $M = 2.55$ – $4.52$ ). On the other hand, Brazilian residents scored consistently high on all TIAS items ( $M = 5.02$ – $6.19$ ). Such discrepancy might be driven by different geographical settings the two minority groups face. Given that the Korean enclave is in a metropolitan area and a major tourist destination, Korean residents might be aware of other economic possibilities than tourism or be more exhausted by tourism

**Table 3.** Confirmatory factor analysis of TIAS items for both resident groups.

Factor and Corresponding Item	Brazilian Residents <sup>a</sup>				Korean Residents <sup>b</sup>			
	Composite Mean <sup>c</sup>	Std. Factor Loading (t value <sup>d</sup> )	MWA <sup>e</sup>	AVE	Composite Mean <sup>c</sup>	Std. Factor Loading (t value <sup>d</sup> )	MWA <sup>e</sup>	AVE
<b>Support for Tourism Development</b>	<b>5.97</b>		<b>.96</b>	<b>.59</b>	<b>5.07</b>		<b>.96</b>	<b>.69</b>
My city should support the promotion of tourism.		.92 (9.57)				.96 (21.67)		
My city should become a tourist destination.		.88 (11.59)				.88 (17.46)		
I support new tourism facilities that will attract new visitors to my city.		.84 (12.51)				.89 (23.76)		
It is important to develop plans to manage growth of tourism.		.83 (9.26)				.74 (11.65)		
The tourism sector will play a major role in my city's economy.		.81 (10.57)				.83 (15.87)		
I support tourism and want to see it become important in my city.		.79 (7.51)				.87 (17.13)		
I believe tourism should be actively encouraged in my city.		.78 (8.25)				.84 (16.20)		
Long-term planning by the city can control negative environmental impacts from tourism		.61 (8.31)				–		
One of the most important benefits of tourism is how it can improve local standard of living.		.55 (6.93)				–		
In general, the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts.		.55 (7.25)				.61 (11.26)		
<b>Contributions to the Community</b>	<b>5.54</b>		<b>.91</b>	<b>.54</b>	<b>3.47</b>		<b>.95</b>	<b>.70</b>
My household standard of living is higher because of money tourists spend here.		.90 (10.94)				.87 (30.95)		
The quality of public services has improved due to more tourism in my city.		.87 (9.84)				.92 (26.20)		
I have more recreational opportunities because of tourism in my city.		.87 (9.41)				.91 (21.91)		
My city has better roads due to tourism.		.64 (10.33)				.83 (21.70)		
Shopping opportunities are better in my city as a result of tourism.		.59 (8.55)				.79 (17.96)		
Quality of life in my city has improved because of tourism development.		.59 (9.00)				.79 (17.18)		
The tourism sector provides many desirable employment opportunities for residents.		.57 (7.94)				.76 (15.75)		

<sup>a</sup>Satorra-Bentler  $\chi^2$  (117,  $N = 183$ ) = 259.79,  $p < 0.001$ , CFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.08.

<sup>b</sup>Satorra-Bentler  $\chi^2$  (87,  $N = 162$ ) = 271.98,  $p < 0.001$ , CFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.08.

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

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

<sup>e</sup>Maximal weighted alpha as reported in EQS 6.3.

than Brazilian residents in a less populated and less visited area. In other words, the two ENT destinations are at different stages of Butler's destination lifecycle (1980). Also, it is possible that hatred rallies in the Korean town (Cho, 2016) could have made Korean residents less supportive of tourism in general.

When it comes to how the two groups view ENT, the findings are less clear. While Brazilian residents again outscored Korean residents across all items, they were more concerned about negative outcomes of ENT (e.g. 'Tourism presents only stereotypes of my culture') or their town being overly engaged in ENT. Such ambivalence is also observed in the Korean sample, even though Korean residents were more reserved ( $M = 3.27$ – $4.75$ ) than Brazilians ( $M = 4.55$ – $6.05$ ). What is evidenced in such finding is a mixture of hopes and worries regarding ENT. Looking at Brazilian residents for instance, they were

**Table 4.** Relationship between TIAS factors and perceptions of ethnic neighborhood tourism focused on minority culture.

ENT Item with TIAS Factors <sup>a</sup>	Brazilian Residents				Korean Residents			
	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	Beta ( $\beta$ )	<i>t</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	Beta ( $\beta$ )	<i>t</i>
<b>Model 1<sup>b</sup></b>								
<b>Tourism provides employment mainly for foreigners</b>	<b>55.16***</b>	<b>0.40</b>			<b>0.17</b>	<b>0.01</b>		
Support for Tourism Development			0.14	0.91			−0.03	−0.22
Contributions to Community			0.74	5.94***			−0.05	−0.40
<b>Model 2</b>								
<b>TD focused on my culture can be a medium to get to know my Japanese neighbors</b>	<b>52.15***</b>	<b>0.37</b>			<b>7.15***</b>	<b>0.09</b>		
Support for Tourism Development			0.65	4.65***			0.31	3.46***
Contributions to Community			0.22	1.93*			−0.01	−0.01
<b>Model 3</b>								
<b>My city has other things to present to tourists other than my culture</b>	<b>39.02***</b>	<b>0.33</b>			<b>5.45**</b>	<b>0.07</b>		
Support for Tourism Development			0.55	4.12***			0.21	2.33*
Contributions to Community			0.21	1.93*			0.10	1.19
<b>Model 4</b>								
<b>Tourism in city should not focus solely on my culture</b>	<b>12.35***</b>	<b>0.13</b>			<b>3.10*</b>	<b>0.04</b>		
Support for Tourism Development			0.50	3.28***			0.14	1.32
Contributions to Community			−0.02	−0.13			0.15	1.39
<b>Model 5</b>								
<b>I do not think my city should be portrayed as a [ ]<sup>c</sup> city</b>	<b>2.73</b>	<b>0.03</b>			<b>10.37***</b>	<b>0.12</b>		
Support for Tourism Development			−0.12	−0.47			−0.48	−4.30***
Contributions to Community			0.37	1.81			0.04	0.39
<b>Model 6</b>								
<b>Japanese residents will feel out of place in my city if tourism focuses on my culture</b>	<b>1.36</b>	<b>0.02</b>			<b>3.75*</b>	<b>0.05</b>		
Support for Tourism Development			−0.21	−0.88			−0.32	−2.72**
Contributions to Community			0.31	1.57			0.09	0.84
<b>Model 7</b>								
<b>Tourism presents only stereotypes of my culture</b>	<b>3.07*</b>	<b>0.04</b>			<b>5.45**</b>	<b>0.07</b>		
Support for Tourism Development			−0.20	−0.91			−0.24	−2.25*
Contributions to Community			0.39	2.17*			−0.13	−1.27
<b>Model 8</b>								
<b>Local [ ]<sup>c</sup> should be more involved in TD in my city</b>	<b>54.11***</b>	<b>0.40</b>			<b>9.46***</b>	<b>0.11</b>		
Support for Tourism Development			0.68	5.39***			0.32	3.43***
Contributions to Community			0.15	1.48			0.09	0.99

<sup>a</sup>Both ENT and TIAS items were presented on a 7-pt scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*.<sup>b</sup>Tolerance is a measure that assesses degree of multi-collinearity in the model. For Brazilian models, tolerance ranged from 0.40 to 0.42 for the TIAS factors. For Korean models, tolerance ranged from 0.82 to 0.84 for the TIAS factors.<sup>c</sup>Brazilian or Korean, depending on sample.\**p* < 0.05; \*\**p* < 0.01; \*\*\**p* < 0.001

highly positive about ENT's role in bridging cultures ( $M = 5.60$ ) and providing employment ( $M = 5.40$ ) but also wary about Oizumi being overly invested in or represented by ENT. Interestingly, the two groups agreed that they should be more involved in tourism development in their respective areas.

This study also confirmed the two factors of the TIAS that have been consistently reported in multiple studies (e.g. Wang & Pfister, 2008; Woosnam, 2012). However, unlike the Brazilian sample which retained all 17 items, the Korean sample had two items discarded from *support for tourism development*. Although discarded items deviate across studies (e.g. Maruyama et al., 2016; Woosnam, 2012; Woosnam, Draper, Jiang, Aleshinloye, & Erul, 2018), the continued validation of the two-factor structure approves the use of TIAS in different cultural and geographical settings. The fact that 'One of the most important benefits of tourism is how it can improve the local standard of living' found failed repeated in studies (e.g. Woosnam, 2012; Woosnam et al., 2018) suggests further room for improvement in the scale.

While  $R^2$  values from regression models were limited in general for both minority groups, their sizes were considerably large for some. For instance, *contribution for community* accounted for 40% of variation in Brazilian residents' belief that 'Tourism provides employment mainly for foreigners.' Similar  $R^2$  values were observed for the items regarding tourism as a tool for cross-cultural communication ( $R^2 = 0.37$ ) and Oizumi's tourism resources other than Brazilian culture ( $R^2 = 0.33$ ). Interestingly, the Brazilian sample not only provided higher  $R^2$  values but also models where both TIAS factors come into effect. This contradicts that only *support for tourism development* was found useful in predicting Korean residents' attitude towards ENT. From this, we can infer that Brazilian residents' *support for tourism development* is grounded in their felt benefit, whereas for Korean residents, the benefit part is dissolving or unnoticed.

### Implications

This work has both theoretical and practical implications. Despite nearly five decades of research involving residents' perceptions of tourism, tourism development, and tourism impacts, rarely have general perceptions been considered precursors to perceptions of specific, niche forms of tourism (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Dillette et al., 2017; Gursoy et al., 2010; Jurowski et al., 1997). Never has anyone considered this relationship in the context of ethnic neighborhood tourism and furthermore, few have paid much attention to perspectives of the ethnic minority group concerning this type of tourism (Woosnam, Maruyama, & Boley, 2016). This work sought to address these gaps in the literature. While some significant differences were found across perceptions of tourism among the two ethnic minority groups residing in enclaves in Japan, attitudes about tourism focused on the ethnic minority group are largely explained by perceived general tourism impacts. Albeit, some of the models yielded weak effect sizes, however, a preponderance of the models for both Brazilians and Koreans were significant. This is in keeping with similar results by Maruyama and Woosnam (2015), who argued that such effect sizes are a function of minimal predictors in each model.

While the current work further highlights the continued utilization of the TIAS in international contexts, it also offers support for the development of a scale that measures attitudes about ethnic neighborhood tourism. Building on the work of Maruyama and Woosnam (2015), an ENT scale should be developed that demonstrates sound psychometric properties moving forward. In addition to this, future work needs to be undertaken to explain a greater degree of variance in attitudes about ENT. For instance, some measures to consider as potential explanatory variables are emotional solidarity with

other community residents (Woosnam & Norman, 2010), trust in tourism planners and government officials (Nunkoo, 2015), and feeling empowered through tourism (Scheyvens, 2002).

Results also have practical implications for sustainable, collaborative tourism development each in Oizumi and Ikuno. It is clear from the results that Brazilians feel rather strongly (reflected in high TIAS mean scores) about the impact that tourism has on their community in Oizumi. Though they make up a small percentage of residents in Oizumi, planners (through the town's tourism bureau) need to include key Brazilian stakeholders as board members in planning and managing for sustainable tourism development, especially considering the mandate to promote Brazilian culture and ethnicity through tourism. Based on mean scores of ENT items, planners in both Oizumi and Ikuno should also consider highlighting the potential to get to know, interact, and establish relationships with members of the ethnic minority groups in promoting ethnic neighborhood tourism.

Perceived impacts of tourism in general translate to attitudes ethnic minority residents possess about tourism focused on their culture. From the findings of this study, an increased degree of support for tourism development in general and an acknowledgement of the contributions tourism makes to the community translated to an increased awareness in ENT providing jobs for minority residents as well as a need to be involved in planning and developing tourism. Tourism planners in enclaves like those in Oizumi and Ikuno should embrace an advocacy platform of tourism, whereby minority residents are educated about how valuable their ethnicity is, not just from an economic standpoint, but one encouraging cross-cultural awareness and understanding (see Hardy, Beeton, & Pearson, 2002). A greater acknowledgement of the importance of ethnic neighborhood tourism could only serve to empower such residents, thereby fostering a greater likelihood of increased engagement in tourism planning among the members of the ethnic minority groups in contexts similar to Oizumi and Ikuno. Further, a greater sense of empowerment would also ensure that minority residents have a voice in how their ethnicity and culture are conveyed to visitors, which potentially fosters greater sustainable tourism development moving forward.

### ***Limitations and future research***

Limitations of this study need to be acknowledged in considering future lines of research. Despite visiting thousands of homes in each Oizumi and Ikuno, the sample size for each location was somewhat smaller than anticipated. In determining sample size for conducting CFA, a host of researchers have divergent perspectives (based primarily on either minimum sample size or subjects-to-variables or STV ratio) as to what is most appropriate (MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong, 1999). Based on the 17-item TIAS, we would have fallen short of the minimum sample size of 200 that Kline (2016) suggests, and extremely close to the 10:1 STV ratio put forth by Hair et al. (2010). In any event, a larger *N* for each sample would provide greater power in subsequent research.

While each of the study contexts provide excellent examples of ethnic neighborhood tourism, our focus was only on two locations, both in the same country. Even though the relationships that exist between Brazilians and Japanese and Koreans and Japanese are unique, they both involve the same dominant ethnic group. Examination of cultural



minority residents (one of the largest growing are individuals from the Middle East) living in ethnic enclaves throughout the world (e.g. Middle Eastern immigrants in Northern Europe, North America, and Asia) and their perceptions of tourism focused on their ethnicity should be undertaken, especially as it relates to their economic dependence and employment (Andersson & Hammarstedt, 2015), identity formation (Kumar, Seay, & Karabenick, 2015), and perceived commodification of culture and ethnicity (Terzano, 2014). Such work should be undertaken to employ similar measures of our study as a means to determine whether findings are common across divergent contexts.

Though consistent in predicting perceptions of ethnic neighborhood tourism items, TIAS factors explained a modest degree of variance for a couple of the items ( $R^2 = 4.0\%$  and  $12.0\%$  for two significant models) among Brazilians in Oizumi and seven of the eight significant models ( $R^2$  ranging from  $4.0\%$  to  $12.0\%$ ) among Koreans in Ikuno. A most likely reason as to why the effect sizes are so modest is due to the fact that only two predictor variables were considered in each of the models, as Maruyama and Woosnam (2015) found when considering ethnic attitudes as predictors of similar outcome measures. Future research may include such ethnic attitudes toward the dominant ethnic group within the model. As such, the Ethnic Attitude Scale (see Nyaupane, Teye, & Paris, 2008) and its factors may be considered antecedents of TIAS factors (serving as a mediator), which ultimately could explain residents of the cultural minority groups' perceptions of tourism focused on their culture.

## Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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