

The role of tourism impact attitudes, subjective wellbeing, and emotional solidarity in predicting support for tourism

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Abstract: Research applying social exchange theory (SET) has shown that resident attitudes predict their support for tourism, but studies have challenged the potential for SET to fully explain support. Recent studies have drawn from other theories and concepts to explain support, including emotional solidarity (ES), which suggests that resident feelings about tourists are related to attitudes and support. However, three concerns remain: (a) ES is relatively new in tourism, (b) studies linking ES to attitudes and support rarely consider social context such as human wellbeing conditions, and (c) most tourism studies consider human wellbeing as an antecedent or outcome variable, but not as a moderator. This article addressed these issues using a survey of 1,477 Oregon (USA) residents. Attitudes toward positive and negative impacts from tourism explained approximately 53% of the variance in support for tourism. Three subdimensions of ES explained an additional 22% of support. A welcoming nature (one of these subdimensions) was a stronger predictor of support compared to attitudes and the other two subdimensions, which were emotional closeness and sympathetic understanding. Emotional closeness most strongly predicted negative attitudes, whereas sympathetic understanding most strongly predicted positive attitudes. Wellbeing did not moderate any relationships. Implications of these findings are discussed.

Keyword: emotional solidarity; tourism attitudes; tourism support; subjective wellbeing

1. Introduction

Resident attitudes toward tourism have received substantial scholarly attention (e.g., Allen *et al.*, 1993; Boley *et al.*, 2014; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a). Theoretical reviews (Nunkoo *et al.*, 2013; Sharpley, 2014) and empirical studies across geographical contexts have enhanced understanding of resident attitudes and support regarding tourism destinations (McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Nunkoo *et al.*, 2010). Some of this research has shown that when residents perceive tourism negatively, the future of tourism in the location can become insecure (Sharpley, 2014). In some cases, these negative attitudes have caused resentment among residents and predicted negative visitor experiences (Reisinger & Turner, 2002). Furthermore, research has argued that positive attitudes toward tourism among residents are likely to enhance support for tourism development (Nunkoo *et al.*, 2010). The continued interest in exploring these attitudes is not surprising because understanding ways to enhance interactions between residents and visitors is critical for tourism planning and management (Nunkoo & So, 2016; Sharpley, 2014).

Most studies of resident attitudes toward tourism have typically been examined through the lens of Social Exchange Theory (SET; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Sharpley, 2014). SET suggests that behavior is the result of an exchange process that strives to maximize benefits and minimize costs (Homans, 1958). Studies applying SET have suggested that positive and negative attitudes can influence overall support for tourism (Boley *et al.*, 2014; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011b, 2012; Woosnam, 2011). Recent studies, however, have challenged the SET perspective, arguing that its ability to fully explain the complex nature of attitudes toward tourism is limited (Boley *et al.*, 2014; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012; Sharpley, 2014; Woosnam, 2012). Two criticisms are of particular interest to this article. First, as Sharpley (2014) argued, the SET perspective improves understanding of the nature of resident attitudes toward tourism, but knowledge of factors influencing these attitudes remains incomplete. Second, studies applying the

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SET have rarely considered the potential influence of guest-host relations such as feelings of residents toward tourists (Sharpley, 2014; Woosnam, 2012).

Building on the conceptualization by Woosnam (2012), this article addresses these criticisms by using the State of Oregon as a case study to empirically examine the potential for resident feelings toward tourists (typically referred to as emotional solidarity [ES]) to be related to their attitudes and overall support regarding tourism. According to Woosnam and colleagues (2009), citing Collins (1975), ES is defined as the bond between individuals and it originates from Durkheim’s 1915 theory indicating that feelings toward one another come from shared beliefs, behaviors, and interactions. Also explored is the potential for subjective wellbeing (SWB) to moderate any relationships among ES, attitudes toward tourism, and overall support for tourism. Wellbeing is a multi-dimensional concept encompassing various aspects of social life conditions, such as how people feel and function (Uysal *et al.*, 2016). There has been limited research testing wellbeing as a moderator variable in studies of tourism attitudes, as it is typically conceptualized as either an antecedent (e.g., Boley *et al.*, 2014), intermediary (e.g., Nunkoo & So, 2016), or outcome variable (e.g., Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011). Improved understanding of these relationships will advance scholarship on tourism attitudes. This knowledge may help community leaders, policymakers, tourism managers, and businesses make decisions that positively influence support for tourism.

2. Conceptual Background

This paper integrates the SET and the concepts of ES and SWB to explore factors predicting attitudes and support associated with tourism. The SET is applied to test relationships between resident attitudes and support. Following Woosnam (2012), the concept of ES is applied to understand if resident feelings toward tourists predict attitudes and support. The concept of SWB is applied to explore the potential for quality-of-life experiences to moderate relationships among residents’ feelings toward tourists, attitudes regarding tourism, and support for tourism. These relationships are illustrated in Figure 1 and discussed below.

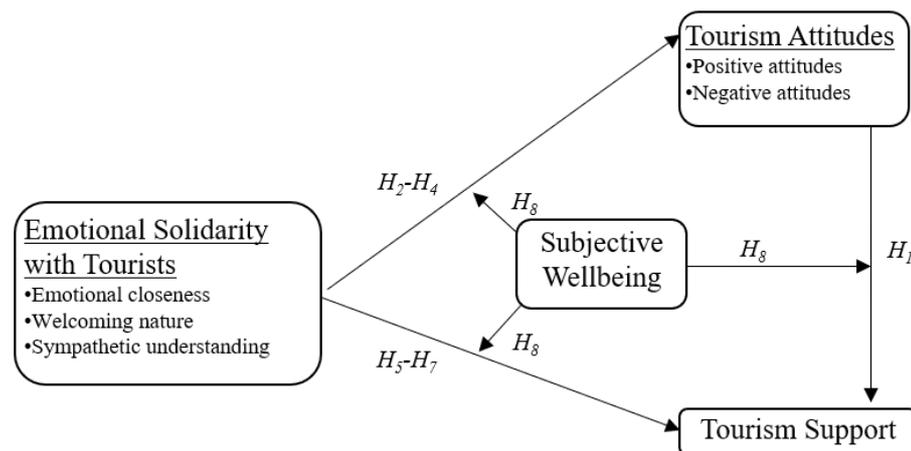


Figure 1. Proposed conceptual model of the relationships among emotional solidarity, subjective wellbeing, specific attitudes toward tourism, and overall support for tourism (H_1 = Hypothesis 1)

2.1 Attitudes and Support

SET remains a dominant lens through which research has viewed resident support for tourism (e.g., Allen *et al.*, 1993; Boley *et al.*, 2014; Nunkoo & So, 2016). Studies have shown that specific positive and negative attitudes toward tourism often predict overall support for tourism. McGehee

and Andereck (2004), for example, indicated that efforts to minimize negative impacts and maximize benefits from tourism influenced positive interactions between residents and tourists that arguably enabled residents to support tourism. Tourism benefits (e.g., jobs, income) are, therefore, more likely than negative issues (e.g., tourism induced crime and pollution) to positively influence support for tourism among residents of a destination. Similarly, residents who experience adverse effects of tourism, such as overcrowding of social services, are less likely to support tourism (Andereck *et al.*, 2005). Limited support for tourism among residents is more likely to occur when the perceived negative impacts of tourism outweigh its benefits (Andereck *et al.*, 2005; McGehee & Andereck, 2004). Studies across various geographical contexts have shown relationships between attitudes toward positive and negative impacts of tourism and overall support for tourism (Boley *et al.*, 2014; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Nunkoo & So, 2016). Consistent with the SET model (Nunkoo & So, 2016; Perdue *et al.*, 1990), this article, therefore, aims to empirically confirm the following hypothesis:

H1: Attitudes toward impacts of tourism will predict overall support for tourism. Positive attitudes will be related to greater support, whereas negative attitudes will be related to less support.

2.2 Emotional Solidarity

Given that recent research has challenged the potential of the SET to fully explain resident attitudes and support regarding tourism, and that these cognitions may not only be driven by personal experiences, but also by social values and experiences, it is important to consider additional factors that may influence these cognitions (Boley *et al.*, 2014; Sharpley, 2014; Woosnam & Norman, 2010). The concept of ES is emerging in tourism research as one way to help explain resident attitudes and support associated with tourism (Joo *et al.*, 2018; Woosnam, 2012). Woosnam *et al.* (2009) helped to introduce the ES concept to tourism and argued that resident feelings toward visitors have the potential to enhance understanding of specific attitudes and overall support associated with tourism. The ES concept has been conceptualized as a three-dimensional concept encompassing a welcoming nature, emotional closeness, and sympathetic understanding (Woosnam, 2012; Woosnam *et al.*, 2009).

Woosnam (2012) argued that integrating these three dimensions of ES with the SET model has the potential to improve understanding of factors predicting resident attitudes and support regarding tourism beyond the individual predictive ability of ES or the SET. Some studies have shown that dimensions of ES can be related to these cognitions. Woosnam, for example, found that a welcoming nature and sympathetic understanding were strongly related to support for tourism among residents of Galveston, Texas. Hasani *et al.* (2016) found that a welcoming nature was related to attitudes toward tourism among rural residents in Malaysia. Moghavenni *et al.* (2017) found that all three dimensions of ES were strongly related to attitudes toward tourism among residents of Pahang and Sabah, Malaysia. Given that the concept of ES is still emerging in the tourism field, efforts to understand its influence on specific attitudes and overall support associated with tourism across broad geographical contexts are valuable. The following hypotheses, therefore, are tested:

H2: Emotional closeness with tourists will predict attitudes toward impacts of tourism. Greater emotional closeness will be related to positive attitudes, whereas lower emotional closeness will be related to negative attitudes.

H3: Sympathetic understanding for tourists will predict attitudes toward impacts of tourism. Greater sympathetic understanding will be related to positive attitudes, whereas lower sympathetic understanding will be related to negative attitudes.

H4: A welcoming nature for tourists will predict attitudes toward impacts of tourism. A more welcoming nature will be related to positive attitudes, whereas a less welcoming nature will be related to negative attitudes.

H5: Emotional closeness with tourists will predict overall support for tourism. Greater emotional closeness will be related to greater support, whereas lower emotional closeness will be related to less support.

H6: Sympathetic understanding for tourists will predict overall support for tourism. Greater sympathetic understanding will be related to greater support, whereas lower sympathetic understanding will be related to less support.

H7: A welcoming nature for tourists will predict overall support for tourism. A more welcoming nature will be related to greater support, whereas a less welcoming nature will be related to less support.

2.3 Subjective Wellbeing

In the field of tourism, there is growing interest in the concept of human wellbeing (e.g., Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Kim *et al.*, 2013; Uysal *et al.*, 2016). Typically, wellbeing is conceptualized to encompass objective and subjective domains (King, Renó, & Novo, 2014). As Uysal *et al.* (2016) indicated, most tourism studies exploring this concept have applied the subjective (i.e., SWB) perspective. SWB indicates how a person evaluates life overall and encompasses positive emotions, such as happiness (Diener *et al.*, 1998), and socio-psychological prosperity, such as feelings that life is worthwhile and purposeful (Diener *et al.*, 2010; OECD, 2013). These aspects of SWB are arguably complementary, as it has been argued, for example, that life conditions would not be satisfactory when one is depressed or unhappy (Diener *et al.*, 1998, 2009, 2010; OECD, 2013).

Some researchers have suggested that relationships among specific attitudes toward tourism, and overall support for tourism are potentially affected by SWB conditions (Uysal, Sirgy, Woo, & Kim, 2016). Research has explored the relationship between wellbeing and attitudes toward tourism (Uysal *et al.*, 2016). Some studies, for example, have examined the impact of wellbeing on these attitudes where people are likely to perceive tourism positively if their own personal economic conditions are desirable (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Uysal *et al.*, 2016). Conversely, attitudes toward tourism also have the potential to predict perceptions of wellbeing conditions (Kim *et al.*, 2013; Neal *et al.*, 2007; Woo *et al.*, 2015). For example, increased employment in tourism is likely to improve the emotional and financial wellbeing of residents (Woo *et al.*, 2015; Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011). Most studies on tourism attitudes, however, have considered SWB as a predictor or mediator (Kim *et al.*, 2013; Woo *et al.*, 2015). A mediating variable is one that accounts for the relationship between a predictor and an outcome variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Surprisingly, however, there has been limited research exploring a potential moderation effect of wellbeing on attitudes toward tourism.

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a moderator is a variable that affects the direction and strength of the relationship between a predictor and an outcome variable. In the context of this study, SWB is hypothesized to affect the direction and strength of the relationship between dimensions of ES, tourism attitudes, and support for tourism. This consideration of a moderation effect aims to address criticism that the linearity of assumptions in current studies of tourism attitudes perpetuates limited understanding of what shapes these attitudes (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Sharpley, 2014). Sharpley (2014) argued that attitudes toward tourism are unique to people, but the literature usually generalizes and attributes tourism attitudes to residents as a more homogenous group. Fredline and Faulkner (2000), however, indicated that social circumstances arguably influence attitudes. For example, studies have associated economic conditions, including

sociodemographic variables such as income and employment, with resident attitudes toward tourism (Allen *et al.*, 1993; Inbakaran & Jackson, 2006; Sherma & Dyer, 2009). According to the bottom-up spillover theory of SWB (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Sirgy, 2002), these social conditions inform one's subjective perception of the quality of life or wellbeing. Therefore, it is likely that subjective perceptions of wellbeing contribute to how people perceive tourism. For example, happy and fulfilled people are possibly more likely to perceive tourism more positively than those who feel unhappy and unfulfilled.

These arguments suggest that tourism attitudes and feelings of ES toward tourists are socially constructed variables that are likely shaped by life experiences. These arguments also illustrate the process of judgment that is likely to shape worldviews. This judgment process is likely intertwined with subjective evaluations of quality of life conditions and goals (Genc, 2012). According to Taylor (2005), SWB encompasses affective and cognitive thought processes that frame how one constructs social reality. Genc (2012) argued that both cognitive and affective experiences shape one's judgment, which, according to Shapiro (1991), relies on available information about life experiences. Such experiential information is central in shaping a judgment of reality, such as attitudes toward tourism, that is typically retrieved from short-term and long-term memory (Goodson, 2003). The process of retrieving experiential information from short- and long-term memory is arguably involved in shaping perceptions (Genc, 2012). For example, positive and negative cognitive and affective experiences have different influences on perceptions (Genc, 2012). People who perceive a positive quality of life are more likely to have positive attitudes toward tourism. Therefore, in this paper, the concept of SWB is considered to account for the effect of quality of life on tourism attitudes and support.

SWB is conceptualized here to encompass three variables representing both affective (happiness) and cognitive experiences (overall satisfaction with life, worthwhileness). The SWB framework of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2013) informs this conceptualization of SWB. The happiness variable represents positive affect or a positive evaluation of current or recalled feelings or emotional state (OECD). The overall evaluation of satisfaction with life variable represents an overall assessment of one's life condition (OECD). The worthwhileness variable represents positive psychological functioning or experiences of living a meaningful and purposeful life (OECD). Together, these three aspects of SWB represent an overall perceived state of wellbeing, which is vital in affective and cognitive thought processes (Genc, 2012; OECD; Taylor, 2005). Such cognitive thought processes arguably frame worldviews or feelings about events such as tourism (Taylor). The moderating effect of such affective and cognitive factors shaping thought processes remains relatively unknown in studies of tourism attitudes. This knowledge gap is addressed here by testing the following hypothesis:

H8: SWB will serve as a moderator of the relationships between concepts expressed in H1 through H7.

3. Methods

3.2 Study Region

Data were obtained from a survey of residents in the state of Oregon (USA) during the summer of 2018. Tourism is one of the most essential economic sectors in Oregon and the average annual growth in tourism earnings in this state has been estimated at approximately 6% over the past 10 years (Dean Runyan Associates, 2018). In 2018 alone, travel spending in this state increased by approximately 4%, generating roughly US \$12 billion (Dean Runyan Associates). In the same year, tourism employment in Oregon increased by approximately 3% and tax revenue increased by roughly 6% (Dean Runyan Associates). There is an interest among policymakers, tourism management and marketing institutions, and the private sector to optimize the potential for tourism

to positively impact Oregon residents. There is, however, a limited understanding of the level of support for tourism and its growth among these residents, as well as factors related to support.

3.2 Sample and Data Collection

The sample for this study included residents across all seven tourism regions in Oregon (Central, Coast, Eastern, Mt. Hood, Portland, Southern, Willamette Valley; Figure 2). Data were obtained from questionnaires administered: (a) to an online Qualtrics panel (n = 728; 19% response rate; complete responses from each of the seven tourism regions ranged from n = 87 to 124), and (b) by mail using an address-based sample (n = 749, 18% response rate; complete responses from each of the seven regions ranged from n = 97 to 123). The total sample size was 1,477 residents. A Qualtrics panel is an online opt-in survey option, which is becoming increasingly popular and relatively cost-effective for collecting survey data (Brandon *et al.*, 2014). Data from the Qualtrics panel used several attention checks to minimize potential measurement bias. The address-based sample was obtained using a stratified random sampling approach (i.e., random sample of addresses from within each of the seven tourism regions). This sample was collected using a modified mixed-mode design following guidelines suggested by Dillman *et al.* (2014). A pre-notification letter with a link to complete the questionnaire online was mailed first. Two weeks later, a full packet (questionnaire, letter, postage-paid reply envelope) was mailed. Subsequent mailings included a reminder postcard and then another full packet. Given that slightly more than 80% of the address-based sample did not return a completed questionnaire, a telephone nonresponse bias check was conducted with a random sample of 98 of these nonrespondents, asking them nine questions from the questionnaire. There were no substantive differences between respondents and nonrespondents, as all effect size statistics were small (Cohen, 1988) with an average of .07 (ranged between only .02 to .20).

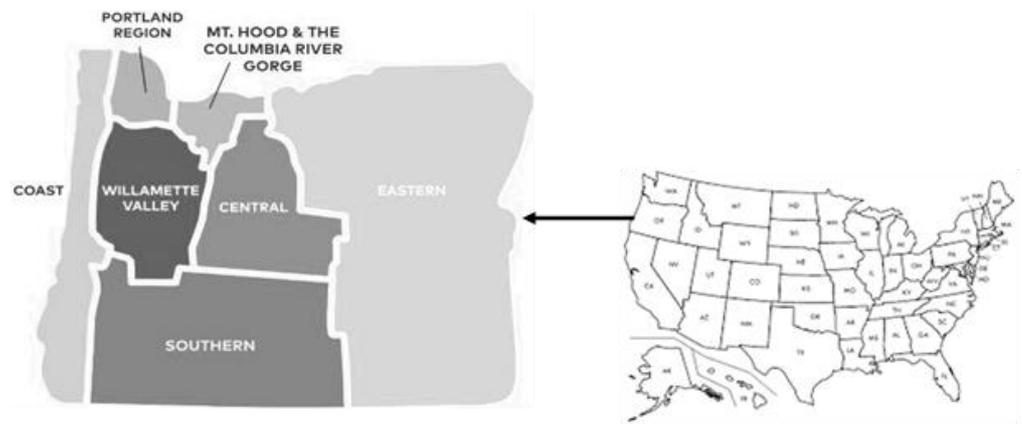


Figure 2. Location of the seven tourism regions in Oregon (Source: Travel Oregon)

3.3 Measures

The questionnaire used previous research to inform the scales for measuring ES with tourists (Woosnam, 2012), attitudes toward specific positive and negative impacts from tourism (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011b; Vargas-Sánchez *et al.*, 2009), overall support for tourism (Boley *et al.*, 2014; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011b), and SWB (Diener *et al.*, 2009; OECD, 2013). For ES, four variables were included to measure a welcoming nature, three to measure emotional closeness, and five to measure sympathetic understanding (Table 1). The questionnaire also included 13 variables measuring attitudes toward positive tourism impacts and nine measuring attitudes toward negative

tourism impacts (Table 2), five measuring overall support for tourism (Table 3), and three measuring SWB (Table 3). Some of these variables were slightly modified for consistency with the context of tourism in Oregon.

Table 1. Measures of emotional solidarity

Dimensions and Measures	n	M	SD	Convergent Validity		
				Standardized loadings (t-values)	Average Variance Extracted	Composite Reliability
Welcoming nature					.76	.93
I am proud to have tourists visit my community	1388	3.85	.91	.88*** (59.38)		
I feel that my community benefits from having tourists	1383	4.04	.85	.92*** (78.61)		
I appreciate tourists for the contribution they make to the local economy	1387	4.09	.86	.91*** (52.64)		
I treat tourists in my community respectfully	1387	4.35	.65	.69*** (10.89)		
Emotional closeness					.57	.80
I do not feel close to some tourists I have met in my community ^R	1268	3.06	1.01	.72*** (16.72)		
I feel comfortable with some tourists I have met in my community	1318	3.92	.70	.81*** (30.57)		
I have made friends with some tourists I have met in my community	1304	3.07	1.05	.69*** (13.16)		
Sympathetic understanding					.65	.90
I do not identify with tourists in my community ^R	1304	3.63	.86	.80*** (31.56)		
I have a lot in common with tourists in my community	1279	3.19	.95	.80*** (33.45)		
I feel affection toward tourists in my community	1304	3.07	.96	.77*** (22.08)		
I provide tourists with useful information, such as what to see and do, or where to eat	1357	3.88	.88	.70*** (11.80)		
I provide tourists with information about my community's character or history	1345	3.47	.99	.87*** (69.11)		

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

R = Item was reverse coded before analysis.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

AVE of 0.5 or higher is indicative of convergent validity (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).

Composite reliability of 0.7 and higher is indicative of internal consistency (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).

Standardized loadings of 0.7 and above are indicative of reliable indicators (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).

Table 2. Measures of attitudes toward positive and negative impacts from tourism

Construct and Measures	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Convergent Validity		
				Standardized loadings (t-values)	Average Variance Extracted	Composite Reliability
Positive					.57	.95
Tourism has contributed to...						
Better infrastructure (e.g., roads) in my community	1245	2.95	1.11	.75*** (27.48)		
Improving living standards in my community	1248	3.03	1.02	.78*** (28.56)		
Greater availability of outdoor recreation opportunities in my community	1312	3.44	1.06	.81*** (37.89)		
Greater knowledge of other cultures in my community	1327	3.35	1.04	.78*** (27.15)		
Increased opportunities for cultural activities in my community	1305	3.34	1.00	.79*** (29.84)		
Improving the quality of restaurant / beverage services in my community	1320	3.51	1.06	.81*** (28.67)		
Improving the quality of lodging in my community	1302	3.46	1.06	.79*** (30.12)		
Improving transportation opportunities in my community	1293	3.05	1.12	.76*** (23.11)		
Improving the quality of retail services in my community	1301	3.20	0.99	.76*** (21.06)		
Creating more support for preservation of historic buildings in my community	1215	3.33	1.01	.75*** (22.44)		
Creating more support for preservation of monuments in my community	1161	3.25	0.98	.82*** (36.03)		
Greater protection of the natural environment in my community	1195	2.95	1.11	.70*** (22.29)		
Improving the natural appearance of my community	1288	3.17	1.08	.74*** (24.92)		
Negative					.64	.94
Tourism has contributed to...						
Reducing public safety in my community	1279	2.91	1.05	.70*** (10.99)		
Problems of sharing resources or public spaces between residents and tourists in my community	1258	2.99	1.11	.80*** (29.00)		
Loss of tranquility in my community	1306	2.90	1.13	.86*** (45.65)		
Unpleasant overcrowding in my community	1331	2.91	1.19	.85*** (53.03)		
Increasing crime in my community	1223	2.83	1.12	.79*** (28.60)		
Increase of litter in my community	1275	3.26	1.09	.77*** (31.45)		
Degradation of wildlife habitat in my community	1260	2.91	1.10	.82*** (41.07)		

Air pollution in my community	1273	2.80	1.05	.80*** (32.73)
Water pollution in my community	1262	2.77	1.06	.81*** (33.18)

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.
 AVE of 0.5 or higher is indicative of convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).
 Composite Reliability of 0.7 and higher is indicative of internal consistency (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).
 Standardized loadings of 0.7 and above are indicative of reliable indicators (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).

Table 3. Measures of tourism support and subjective wellbeing

Construct and Measures	n	M	SD	Convergent Validity		
				Standardized loadings (t-values)	Average Variance Extracted	Composite Reliability
Tourism support					.78	.95
In general, the positive effects of tourism in my community outweigh its negative effects	1338	3.91	.10	.86*** (35.59)		
I believe tourism should be actively encouraged in my community	1381	3.98	.99	.93*** (96.44)		
I do not want tourism in my community ^R	1381	1.98	1.09	.86*** (36.84)		
My community should support the promotion of tourism	1372	3.96	0.98	.93*** (85.18)		
Tourism is one of the most important industries in my community	1333	3.61	1.10	.85*** (40.72)		
Subjective wellbeing					.74	.89
How satisfied have you been with your life overall, considering all aspects over the past 12 months?	1406	7.41	2.15	.89*** (7.29)		
To what extent do you feel the things you do in your life are worthwhile?	1403	7.42	2.32	.79*** (6.31)		
To what extent did you feel happy in the past month?	1393	7.13	2.18	.78*** (6.45)		

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.
 R = Item was reverse coded before confirmatory factor analysis.
 * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.
 AVE of 0.5 or higher is indicative of convergent validity (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).
 Composite Reliability of 0.7 and higher is indicative of internal consistency (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).
 Standardized loadings of 0.7 and above are indicative of reliable indicators (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).

Responses to the variables measuring support for tourism, positive and negative attitudes, and the three dimensions of ES were on a 5-point scale of 1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Response choices for the SWB measures included statements measuring satisfaction with life overall on a 100-point scale of 0 = not satisfied to 100 = completely satisfied. Residents were also asked how happy they feel on a 100-point scale of 0 = not at all to 100 = all the time. They were also asked if they felt their life was worthwhile on a 100-point scale of 0 = not at all worthwhile to 100 = completely worthwhile. These items represent the evaluative, affective, and eudaimonic domains of SWB, according to OECD (2013).

3.4 Data Analysis

Data from the Qualtrics panel and mail survey respondents were compared using independent samples t-tests to identify any significant differences in responses between the two versions of the

questionnaire. Where significant differences were identified, point-biserial correlations were used to evaluate effect sizes. Any differences between the two survey modes were minimal (Cohen, 1988) and permitted combining the Qualtrics panel and mail responses. To enhance representativeness of the sample to the state population, the data were weighted using the most recent census information for Oregon resident gender, age, and education. Differences between the sample and census data in one or more of the categories of gender, age, and education were greater than 5%. Therefore, a post-stratification weighting approach was used to weight the data and better align respondents with characteristics of all Oregon residents.

Hypothesis testing was conducted using the structural equation modeling (SEM) partial approach called least squares path modelling (PLS-SEM) in Smart PLS 3 software. SEM is a statistical approach that enables simultaneous estimation of theory-driven hypotheses while accounting for measurement error (Chin, 1998; Hair *et al.*, 2017a). SEM has been applied using two different approaches: covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) and variance-based SEM (PLS-SEM; Chin, 1998; Hair *et al.*, 2017b; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014). CB-SEM is the dominant SEM technique applied in studies of tourism attitudes (e.g., Boley *et al.*, 2014; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011, Nunkoo & So, 2015; Woosnam, 2012). In other disciplines, however, the PLS-SEM approach is emerging (Chin, 1998; Hair *et al.*, 2017a; Kline, 2016; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014). Reviews of differences between these techniques have been published (e.g., Chin, 1998; Kline, 2016; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2016, 2017).

A measurement model mirroring the conceptual model in [Figure 1] was estimated first using consistent PLS algorithms. Based on guidelines from Hair *et al.* (2017a), the estimated measurement model was an excellent fit to the data (standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = .06). Although PLS-SEM does not emphasize goodness-of-fit indicators (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2017), Hair *et al.* (2017a), citing Henseler (2014), suggested that SRMR was a means to validating PLS-SEM models. The measurement model output showed that measures for each construct were sufficiently reliable and valid (Tables 1-3). For example, after removing items with standardized loadings less than the threshold of .50 (Hair *et al.*, 2017a), the composite reliability values that measure the internal consistency of variables were all above the threshold of .70, suggesting that these measures of the concepts were reliable (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014) and have the potential to correct for bias in PLS parameter estimation (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2016). The average variances extracted (AVE) were all above the recommended threshold of .50 (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014), demonstrating evidence of convergent validity. Discriminant validity was demonstrated by the square root of the AVE values, which all exceeded the associated inter-construct correlation values (Table 4; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).

Table 4. Evidence of discriminant validity

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Emotional closeness	.76						
2. Negative tourism attitudes	-.47***	.80					
3. Positive tourism attitudes	.57***	-.45***	.76				
4. Subjective wellbeing	.18**	-.14**	.16**	.81			
5. Sympathetic understanding	.74***	-.48***	.66***	.20***	.80		
6. Tourism support	.61***	-.60***	.65***	.13**	.68***	.88	
7. Welcoming nature	.63***	-.56***	.66***	.17***	.73***	.84***	.87

Square root of Average Variance Extracted values are bold and diagonal. Discriminant validity occurs when the Average Variance Extracted value in bold exceeds the inter-construct correlations (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. (statistical significance of correlations).

A hierarchical approach was used for estimating the hypothesized structural model. The first model was the SET based model predicting effects of positive and negative attitudes toward tourism

impacts on overall support for tourism (H₁). In the second model, factors representing the three dimensions of ES with tourists were added to the model (H₂ to H₇). In the third model, SWB was added as a moderator variable (H₈). All three models indicated an excellent fit to the data (SRMR = .077_{Model 1} to .063_{Model 3}) based on guidelines from Hair *et al.* (2017a). Furthermore, following these guidelines from Hair *et al.* (2017a), collinearity (VIF), model predictive power (R²), predictive relevance (Q²), and the size and significance of path coefficients were examined (Table 5). A bootstrapping procedure was conducted to test the hypotheses and estimate the size and significance of parameters in the structural model, as shown in <Table 5>.

Table 5. Hypothesis testing results

	Path coeff (β)	<i>t</i> values	<i>p</i> values	Bias Corrected CI	Effect size (f^2)	Hypothesis support
H ₁ : NA → TS	-.18	5.85	.00	(-.24, -.12)	.08	Yes
H ₁ : PA → TS	.11	3.06	.00	(.04, .17)	.02	Yes
H ₂ : EC → NA	-.17	3.16	.00	(-.29, -.07)	.02	Yes
H ₂ : EC → PA	.09	1.67	.10	(-.01, .19)	.01	No
H ₃ : SU → NA	-.05	.76	.45	(-.17, .08)	.00	No
H ₃ : SU → PA	.31	5.79	.00	(.20, .40)	.07	Yes
H ₄ : WN → NA	-.40	7.51	.00	(-.52, -.31)	.11	Yes
H ₄ : WN → PA	.37	8.11	.00	(.29, .47)	.12	Yes
H ₅ : EC → TS	.04	1.00	.32	(-.03, .12)	.01	No
H ₆ : SU → TS	.06	1.16	.25	(-.04, .14)	.01	No
H ₇ : WN → TS	.61	13.83	.00	(.53, .69)	.54	Yes
H ₈ : SWB * NA → TS	-.02	.35	.73	(-.09, .07)	.01	No
H ₈ : SWB * PA → TS	.03	1.01	.32	(-.04, .13)	.01	No
H ₈ : SWB * EC → NA	.01	.13	.90	(-.13, .12)	.00	No
H ₈ : SWB * EC → PA	.01	.56	.57	(-.08, .18)	.01	No
H ₈ : SWB * SU → NA	.07	.78	.44	(-.16, .21)	.01	No
H ₈ : SWB * SU → PA	.02	.31	.75	(-.17, .09)	.01	No
H ₈ : SWB * WN → NA	-.05	.25	.80	(-.12, .15)	.01	No
H ₈ : SWB * WN → PA	-.02	.05	.96	(-.07, .11)	.00	No
H ₈ : SWB * EC → TS	-.08	1.27	.10	(-.19, .00)	.01	No
H ₈ : SWB * SU → TS	.03	.62	.54	(-.07, .13)	.00	No
H ₈ : SWB * WN → TS	.04	.89	.38	(-.04, .16)	.01	No

TS = Tourism Support, PA = Positive Tourism Attitudes, NA = Negative Tourism Attitudes, EC = Emotional Closeness, SU = Sympathetic Understanding, WN = Welcoming Nature, SWB = Subjective Wellbeing.

Path Coeff (β) = Standardized regression coefficients.

f^2 = Effect size indicated by small (.02), medium (.15), large (.35) (Chin, 1998).

R² = the model's predictive power.

Q² = relative measure of predictive relevance: small (.02), medium (.15), large (.35) (Hair *et al.*, 2017a).

Tourism Support (R² = .75, Q² = .53), Negative Tourism Attitudes (R² = .33, Q² = .21), Positive Tourism Attitudes (R² = .50, Q² = .24).

4. Results

4.1 Relationships between Attitudes and Support

[Figure 3] provides a summary of findings, which indicate that the hypothesized model predicts tourism support by about 75%. Without the direct and indirect influence of emotional solidarity constructs, the positive and negative tourism impact attitudes predict tourism support by about 53%. Additionally, the emotional solidarity constructs account for about 50% of variance in positive tourism attitudes and 33% of variance in negative tourism attitudes. The results show that the attitudes toward negative tourism impacts were significantly and inversely related to overall support for tourism in Oregon among the respondents ($\beta = -.176$, $t = 5.846$, $p < .001$, $f^2 = .08$; Table

5). Attitudes toward positive tourism impacts were significantly and positively related to overall support for tourism ($\beta = .105, t = 3.059, p < .01, f^2 = .024$). H₁, therefore, was supported.

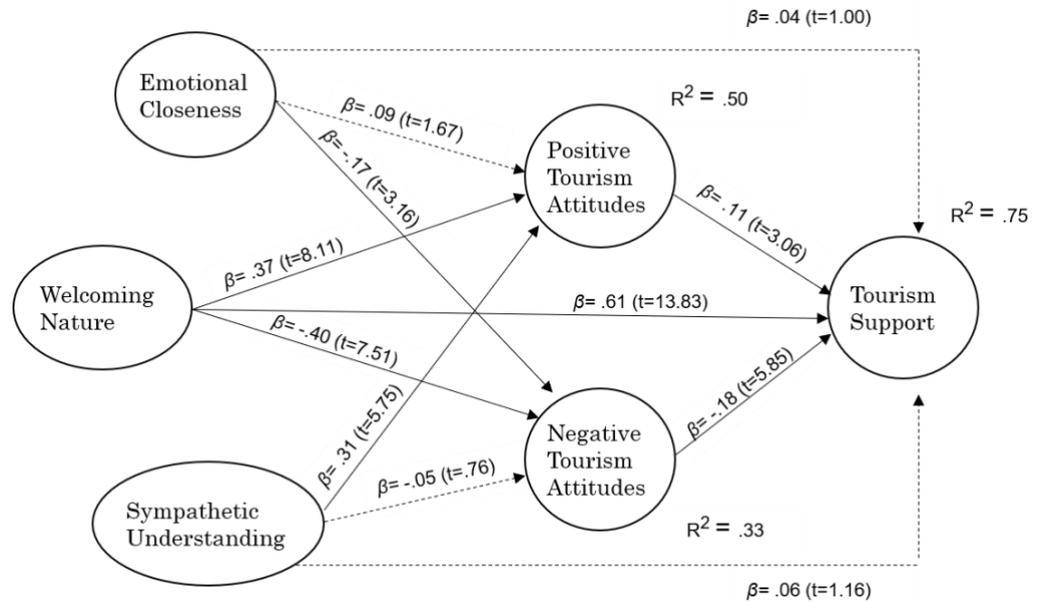


Figure 3. A structural Equation Model explaining support for tourism

Note: β = standardized regression weights dotted lines represent non statistically significant relationship

4.2 Relationships between Emotional Solidary and Attitudes

4.2.1 Emotional Closeness.

Emotional closeness was significantly and inversely related to attitudes toward negative tourism impacts ($\beta = -.167, t = 3.16, p < .01, f^2 = .02$), but was not significantly related to positive attitudes ($\beta = .09, t = 1.666, p > .05, f^2 = .01$; Table 5). The effect sizes were also small (Cohen, 1988). These results suggest that H₂ was partially supported.

4.2.2 Sympathetic Understanding.

Sympathetic understanding was not significantly related to attitudes toward negative tourism impacts ($\beta = -.05, t = 0.762, p > .05, f^2 = .003$; Table 5). This dimension was, however, significantly and positively related to attitudes toward positive tourism impacts ($\beta = .305, t = 5.785, p < .001, f^2 = .066$). The effect size, however, was relatively small (Cohen, 1988). These results suggest that H₃ was partially supported.

4.2.3 Welcoming Nature.

A welcoming nature was significantly and inversely related to attitudes toward negative tourism impacts ($\beta = -.399, t = 7.508, p < .001, f^2 = .11$; Table 5). Based on guidelines from Cohen (1998), the effect size suggested a moderate relationship. A welcoming nature was also significantly and positively related to attitudes toward positive tourism impacts ($\beta = .365, t = 8.109, p < .001, f^2 = .12$). The effect size indicated that this relationship was also moderate (Cohen, 1988). H₄, therefore, was supported. Of the three ES dimensions, a welcoming nature was the strongest predictor of attitudes. Together, the three ES dimensions accounted for 33% of the variance in negative tourism attitudes, and 50% of the variance in positive tourism attitudes.

4.3. Relationships between Emotional Solidary and Support

4.3.1 Emotional Closeness.

Emotional closeness was not directly related to overall support for tourism ($\beta = .037, t = 0.320, p > .05, f^2 = .005$; Table 5). The indirect effects findings, however, showed that negative attitudes fully mediated the relationship between emotional closeness and support ($\beta_{EC \rightarrow NA \rightarrow TS} = .029, t = 2.744, p < .01, VAF = .44$). The 44% of variance accounted for (VAF) indicates that the mediation effect of negative tourism attitudes is of medium strength (Cohen, 1988). The indirect effects findings also showed that positive attitudes did not mediate the relationship between emotional closeness and support for tourism ($\beta_{EC \rightarrow PA \rightarrow TS} = .010, t = 1.324, p > .05, VAF = .21$). Together, these findings indicate that although emotional closeness may not be significantly related to support for tourism directly (i.e., not supporting H5), it has the potential to do so indirectly through attitudes toward negative tourism impacts.

4.3.2 Sympathetic Understanding.

Sympathetic understanding was also not directly related to overall support for tourism, thus not supporting H6 ($\beta = .55, t = 1.163, p > .05, f^2 = .006$; Table 5). The indirect effect results also indicated that negative attitudes did not mediate the relationship between sympathetic understanding and support ($\beta_{SU \rightarrow NA \rightarrow TS} = .009, t = 0.741, p > .05, VAF = .14$). However, positive attitudes fully mediated the effect of sympathetic understanding on tourism support and the effect size was medium in strength ($\beta_{SU \rightarrow PA \rightarrow TS} = .032, t = 2.628, p < .01, VAF = .37$; Cohen, 1988).

4.3.3 Welcoming Nature.

A welcoming nature, however, was significantly and positively related to overall support for tourism, supporting H7 ($\beta = .605, t = 13.826, p < .001, f^2 = .543$; Table 5). According to Cohen (1988), this large effect size is indicative of a strong relationship between these concepts. The indirect effect results also revealed that attitudes toward negative tourism impacts partially mediated the relationship between support and a welcoming nature ($\beta_{WN \rightarrow NA \rightarrow TS} = .070, t = 4.567, p < .001, VAF = .10$). Similarly, the indirect effects also showed that attitudes toward positive tourism impacts also partially mediated the relationship between these concepts ($\beta_{WN \rightarrow PA \rightarrow TS} = .038, t = 2.849, p < .01, VAF = .06$). These results showed that attitudes toward both negative and positive tourism impacts had statistically significant partial mediation effects in the relationship between a welcoming nature and support for tourism. Overall, ES explained an additional 22% of the variance in resident support for tourism. Together, the three ES dimensions, and both the negative and tourism attitudes, accounted for 75% of the variance in resident support for tourism.

4.4 Moderation Effect of Subjective Wellbeing

The interaction between SWB and attitudes toward negative tourism impacts was not significantly related to support for tourism ($\beta = -.016, t = 0.349, p > .05, f^2 = .006$; Table 5). Similarly, the interaction between SWB and positive attitudes was not related to support ($\beta = .029, t = 1.005, p > .05, f^2 = .011$). These findings suggest that SWB does not moderate relationships between specific attitudes and overall support for tourism. The potential for SWB to moderate effects of emotional closeness, sympathetic understanding, and welcoming nature on both attitudes and support was also not supported (Table 5). Taken together, these results show that H8 was not supported. Notable, however, was the change in the direction of the hypothesized relationships predicted by the interaction of SWB. For example, the effect of the interaction between SWB and emotional closeness on negative attitudes was positive in contrast to a negative direct relationship between emotional closeness and negative attitudes. Similarly, the impact of sympathetic understanding on negative attitudes was positive when SWB was considered as an interaction variable. Finally, the effect of a welcoming nature on support for tourism changed from positive to negative when the interaction effect of SWB was considered.

5. Discussion

5.1 Social Exchange Theory and Resident Support for Tourism

These findings showed that attitudes toward both negative and positive impacts of tourism were significantly related to overall support for tourism among Oregon residents with these attitudes accounting for 53% of the variance in support. In contrast to criticisms of the SET in some tourism literature (e.g., Boley *et al.*, 2014; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a; Sharpley, 2014; Woosnam & Norman, 2010), this study provides evidence of the potential for the SET to help understand resident support for tourism, as indicated by Perdue *et al.* (1990) and others (Boley *et al.*, 2014; Gursoy *et al.*, 2010). This study also showed that negative attitudes were stronger predictors of support for tourism compared to positive attitudes. These findings differed from Boley *et al.* (2014) and Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011b) who found that positive attitudes had a stronger effect on support. Perhaps relationships between attitudes and support depend on study context (e.g., location, time). For example, data were collected in the summer months when there is usually increased interaction and social conflict between residents and tourists. It is likely that such social conflicts heighten perceived negative attitudes and diminished support for tourism. It is also likely that because most Oregon residents are pro-environment (Steel *et al.*, 1994), they may be sensitive to tourism activities that could be detrimental to the environment. Research is needed to confirm this and determine the extent that positive and negative attitudes uniquely predict support for tourism. In contrast to the conceptualization of tourism attitudes as a single construct (Hasani *et al.*, 2016; Moghavvemi *et al.*, 2017), findings presented here and in other studies (Boley *et al.*, 2014; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011a) encourage conceptualization of these attitudes as at least two-dimensional, containing both positive and negative aspects.

From a management perspective, these results indicate that support for tourism was more strongly influenced by attitudes toward negative impacts of tourism. To strengthen support for tourism, especially in areas where negative impacts are likely of most concern, tourism managers and policy makers could establish programs that mitigate negative social, economic, and environmental impacts of tourism. These programs may be in form of direct (e.g., establishing hiking and camping regulations) or indirect management strategies (e.g., educating tourists about adverse impact of their behaviors; Manning, 2011). Education and awareness programs could also be created to inform residents about the ongoing and planned actions to control and mitigate negative social, economic, and environmental impacts of tourism. These programs should also ensure that messaging encompasses policies and actions aimed to enhance positive benefits of tourism. These actions may enhance resident support for tourism, which is critical for successfully developing tourism (Sharpley, 2014).

5.2 Emotional Solidarity and Tourism Attitudes

The results also revealed a nuanced relationship between ES with tourists and attitudes toward tourism impacts. For example, emotional closeness was inversely related to attitudes toward negative tourism impacts. Similarly, a welcoming nature was also inversely related to these negative attitudes. Conversely, sympathetic understanding was not related to attitudes toward negative tourism impacts. Sympathetic understanding and a welcoming nature, however, were significantly related to positive attitudes, whereas emotional closeness was unrelated to positive attitudes. The effect of a welcoming nature on tourism attitudes was stronger compared to emotional closeness and sympathetic understanding. Together, these ES dimensions explained approximately 33% of the variance in negative attitudes toward tourism and 50% in positive attitudes. These findings support and extend the literature. For example, Moghavvemi *et al.* (2017) and Woosnam and Aleshinloye (2018) also found all three dimensions of ES to be related to tourism attitudes. In addition, Woosnam (2012) found that sympathetic understanding and emotional closeness were

related to resident attitudes toward the contribution of tourism to their community. Consistent with results presented here, other studies have also shown that attitudes are more strongly related to a welcoming nature than both sympathetic understanding and emotional closeness (Hasani *et al.*, 2016; Moghavvemi *et al.*, 2017).

Results here, however, also differed from some research. Hasani *et al.* (2016), for example, did not find emotional closeness and sympathetic understanding to be related to tourism attitudes. In addition, Woosnam (2012) found a welcoming nature to be a weaker predictor of attitudes and sympathetic understanding to be a stronger predictor, whereas results here showed the opposite. Furthermore, Moghavvemi *et al.* (2017) found that emotional closeness inversely predicted tourism attitudes, whereas Woosnam (2012) reported a positive relationship. These differences may be explained by the fact that some studies conceptualized attitudes as a single construct, and both of these opposing relationships are plausible if attitudes are considered as a two-dimensional construct, as is the case here.

This article, therefore, extends knowledge about relationships between ES and tourism attitudes in several ways. First, a welcoming nature was more strongly related to both positive and negative attitudes compared to the other dimensions of ES. Second, the significant positive relationship between sympathetic understanding and tourism attitudes may be limited to attitudes toward positive impacts of tourism and may not extend to negative impacts. Third, the significant negative relationship between emotional closeness and tourism attitudes may be limited to attitudes toward negative tourism impacts and may not extend to positive impacts.

Implications of these findings for management are notable, considering that the relationship between residents and tourists arguably shape attitudes toward tourism (Woosnam, 2012). Given the finding here that attitudes toward negative tourism impacts were most impactful to support for tourism, managers and planners should create programs that enhance positive feelings towards tourists, particularly programs that strengthen a welcoming nature and emotional closeness. Research (Woosnam, 2009; 2011; Woosnam *et al.*, 2015) has shown that such programs include: (a) improved active engagement of residents in tourism management; (b) holding regular focus groups to understand and address resident concerns about tourists and / or tourism; (c) organizing events that enhance positive interactions between residents and tourists; and (d) designing marketing and promotional information that emphasizes the welcoming nature of residents and positive emotional feelings toward tourists. Together, these strategies are likely to enhance positive feelings toward tourists, strengthen tourist experiences, and create successful destinations (Woosnam, 2015).

5.3 Emotional Solidarity and Support for Tourism

Overall, the three ES dimensions explained an additional 22% of the variance in support for tourism. Specifically, a welcoming nature had a strong, positive, and direct relationship with overall support for tourism in Oregon. Emotional closeness, however, was not directly related to support. These findings support results from Woosnam (2012). His study in Galveston, Texas also found that a welcoming nature was significantly related to tourism support. Considering his findings, coupled with those presented here, the strong direct relationship between a welcoming nature and overall support for tourism challenge other existing models hypothesizing only an indirect relationship between ES and resident support (Hasani *et al.*, 2016; Moghavvemi *et al.*, 2017), and suggest that a direct relationship should be considered. Consistent with the results here, Woosnam (2012) also found an insignificant direct relationship between emotional closeness and support for tourism. In contrast to the findings here, however, Woosnam (2012) found sympathetic understanding to have a substantial direct relationship with support. These mixed findings across studies suggest a need for more empirical research exploring relationships between ES and both

attitudes and support regarding tourism. As Joo *et al.* (2018) reminded researchers, consideration of ES in tourism studies is still in its infancy and merits further empirical work to understand how this concept is related to resident support for tourism.

These results also have implications for management. First, a welcoming nature of residents represents positive feelings toward tourists that are most likely to increase support for tourism. This is an indication that management of tourism destinations are best served by investing in tourism products, services, and promotional activities that enhance shared beliefs, shared behavior, and interactions between tourists and residents to improve knowledge about, and tolerance for, each other that have all been suggested to strengthen positive feelings toward tourists (Woosnam, 2011). If interactions and shared behavior outweighs divergent behavior, investments and actions to enhance tolerant interactions are likely to strengthen support for tourism. Results also showed that negative tourism attitudes are likely to mediate or intervene in the relationship between dimensions of ES and support for tourism. Considering that a welcoming nature has a strong direct and positive impact on support for tourism, and that this relationship is sensitive to negative impacts, investment in mitigation and management of negative impacts is worthwhile and likely to sustain resident support for tourism.

5.4 Moderation Effect of Subjective Wellbeing

SWB has been conceptualized as either a dependent or an independent variable in studies exploring the influence of quality of life on various aspects of tourism (e.g., Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Uysal *et al.*, 2016; Woo *et al.*, 2015). In this study, however, SWB was hypothesized to moderate effects of ES with tourists on resident attitudes and support regarding tourism, as well as the effect of attitudes on support. All of the interactions between SWB and the dimensions of ES on their relationships with both attitudes and support were not statistically significant. The interactions between SWB and attitudes on their relationships with support were also not significant. These findings suggest that SWB may not have a strong moderating effect among the concepts of ES, attitudes, and support in the context of tourism. Notable, however, was the change in the direction of the relationship between ES and attitudes resulting from including SWB as a moderator. Additionally, the nonsignificant moderating effect of subjective wellbeing construct may be attributed to how broadly the construct was operationalized and measured in this study. Future research exploring the effect of subjective wellbeing on tourism attitudes may consider subjective wellbeing measures that are more specific to tourism rather than considering more generic perceptions of wellbeing conditions. Furthermore, researchers may consider testing moderation effects of each of the three individual dimensions of SWB (overall life satisfaction, happiness, worthwhileness) that are specifically linked to tourism. From a management perspective, these findings likely indicate that support for tourism may not be dependent on the level of perceived quality of life. Therefore, efforts to improve tourism attitudes and support for tourism may be similar in communities perceived to have high quality of life than those that are not.

6. Conclusion

Sustainable development of tourism destinations highly depends on resident support and positive attitudes regarding tourism. This study aimed to understand factors that predict these attitudes and support. Findings reaffirmed that there are relationships among ES with tourists, attitudes, and support for tourism. Furthermore, this study also makes a number of contributions to the literature. First, in contrast to some previous studies (e.g., Nunkoo *et al.*, 2016), attitudes toward negative impacts from tourism were stronger determinants of tourism support compared to attitudes toward positive impacts. Second, a welcoming nature predicted both positive and negative attitudes,

whereas sympathetic understanding and emotional closeness predicted positive and negative attitudes, respectively. Third, a welcoming nature was the only dimension of ES that directly predicted support for tourism. Fourth, the relationship between ES and support for tourism was sensitive to negative impacts. Fifth, SWB, as measured in this study, did not moderate relationships among ES, attitudes, and support. These results revealed new and nuanced relationships, and additional research across diverse geographical scales is needed to validate these findings.

Based on these findings, efforts of tourism planning, management, and marketing organizations to improve support for tourism are likely to benefit from programs designed to reduce negative impacts of tourism and improve resident ES with tourists. These efforts may focus on strengthening the welcoming nature of residents, establishing programs to mitigate negative impacts, and creating awareness campaigns to inform residents about efforts to reduce negative impacts and improve positive contributions of tourism. These efforts are timely, especially now that the COVID-19 pandemic may have created fear among residents in tourist destinations to welcome visitors to their communities. Now more than before, tourism managers, planners, and policy makers are encouraged to pay more attention to factors related to resident support for tourism to ensure recovery and sustainability of tourism growth.

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