



Applying self-perception theory to explain residents' attitudes about tourism development through travel histories



Kyle M. Woosnam ^{a,*}, Jason Draper ^b, Jingxian (Kelly) Jiang ^c, Kayode D. Aleshinloye ^d, Emrullah Erul ^e

^a Natural Resources Recreation and Tourism, University of Georgia, 180 East Green Street, Athens, GA 30602, USA

^b College of Hotel & Restaurant Management, University of Houston, 4450 University Drive, Houston, TX 77204, USA

^c Management Department, Frostburg State University, Frostburg, MD 21532, USA

^d Rosen College of Hospitality Management, University of Central Florida, Orlando, FL 32816, USA

^e Department of Recreation, Park & Tourism Sciences, Texas A&M University, 600 Kimbrough Avenue, College Station, TX 77843, USA

HIGHLIGHTS

- Self-perception theory is introduced as guiding framework to explain residents' attitudes involving degree of travel.
- Travel use history (TUH) is a useful predictor of residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development.
- Adoption of self-perception theory expands the pool of limited theories in resident attitudes research.

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ABSTRACT

This study introduces self-perception theory as a guiding framework in explaining residents' attitudes from an introspective approach involving residents' own degree of travel. To date, measures explaining such attitudes have primarily come in the form of sociodemographic, socioeconomic, spatial, personal benefit/dependence, etc. variables. Results reveal that travel use history (TUH) is a useful predictor of residents' attitudes about tourism development. Residents who were infrequent travelers indicated less support for tourism than those who were intermediate or frequent travelers. For intermediate travelers, residents who had traveled internationally over the past two years had stronger support than those who had not for selected items within both attitude factors: support for tourism development and tourism contributions to the community. Findings provide support for the continued use of self-perception theory as a framework to consider in explaining residents' attitudes involving tourism and corresponding development.

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1. Introduction

Residents in tourism destinations play a vital role in providing quality experiences for tourists and maintaining sustainable tourism development (Gursoy, Chi, & Dyer, 2010). Relatively few theories and frameworks (e.g., social exchange theory, social representations theory, emotional solidarity, etc.) have been applied or tested to explain residents' attitudes toward tourism and/or tourism development. Guided by those theories, certain

explanatory variables have been identified, including social exchange (Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2011; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012), social demographics (Cavus & Tanrisevdi, 2002; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Pulina, Meleddu, & Del Chiappa, 2013), residential proximity (Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Harrill & Potts, 2003; Pulina et al., 2013), and economic dependence on the tourism economy (Long, Perdue, & Allen, 1990; McGehee & Andereck, 2004). Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) examined resident attitudes from the perspective of extrinsic (e.g., stage of development) and intrinsic (e.g., residents' length of residence, involvement in tourism) elements of tourism development. Such variables are attributes externally observable to residents; they seek to account for residents' attitudes from an outsider's perspective. As such, existing research on residents' attitudes does not consider factors

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: woosnam@uga.edu (K.M. Woosnam), jdraper@uh.edu (J. Draper), jjiang@frostburg.edu (J. Jiang), kayodealesh@gmail.com (K.D. Aleshinloye), eerui86@tamu.edu (E. Erul).

unique to residents that reflect self-perceived behavior.

Taking into account residents own travel behavior (much like Draper, Woosnam, & Norman, 2011) have with the tourism use history (TUH) could potentially explain how individuals perceive tourism within their own community. Such measures of TUH can take the shape of number of previous trips, destinations, and types of destinations (e.g., domestic versus international) (Draper, 2016). In essence, consideration of the TUH framework allows for an empathetic, introspective examination of how a person may formulate perspectives of positive or negative attitudes about tourism (Woosnam, 2012); affording the opportunity to consider tourism impacts 'through the eyes' of being a tourist. Arguably, some research within the sub-field of residents' attitudes has focused on considering tourists as separate from residents, perpetuating an 'us versus them' mentality (Tasci & Severt, 2016). This has been noted within the work of Wall and Mathieson (2006) discussing the distinctive characteristics of 'host' and 'guest' and the corresponding relationship (based on interaction forms) that likely stem from the initial works of tourism anthropology and impacts research. As a result, studies have unintentionally disregarded the fact that many individuals living within tourist destinations are actually travelers elsewhere. Such experiences and opportunities to be a tourist should provide individuals with a necessary perspective to be self-reflective and pensive when it comes to assessing tourism in their own community.

Self-perception theory, which has gained some momentum in social science fields and disciplines (see Visser & Cooper, 2007) outside of the tourism literature as of late, offers an introspective framework to consider in explaining residents' perspectives of tourism within their community. Bem (1972) argued that people understand their cognitions and emotional states as a result of examining their own behaviors. Bem (1967) offered self-perception theory as an alternative to cognitive dissonance theory, which examines interpersonal phenomena. Self-perception theory is based on two premises (Bem, 1972). First, it tends to be a more internal reflection of an individual's attitudes and emotions. Second, the attitudes and emotions are influenced by the circumstances of an event or experience.

Ultimately, the purpose of this study is twofold: 1) to introduce the self-perception theory to the tourism literature as a framework that may help explain how residents' formulate their attitudes toward tourism and tourism development; and 2) to test the role that residents' level of travel use history (TUH) plays in explaining their attitudes concerning tourism development.

2. Literature review

The practical, contextual nature of residents' attitudes concerning tourism makes it somewhat difficult to employ one theoretical framework that will explain locals' perspectives. In light of this consideration, some theories have been employed to explain host community residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development including social representations theory (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Moscardo, 2011), social distance (Sinkovics & Penz, 2009; Tasci, 2009), integrative theory of cross-cultural adaptation (Brown, 2009; Lee & Woosnam, 2010) and emotional solidarity (Woosnam, 2012) to name a few. Beyond these, the social exchange theory has been utilized most in an effort to explain residents' attitudes (Nunkoo & So, 2016; Nunkoo, Smith, & Ramkissoon, 2013; Rasoolimanesh, Jaafar, Kock, & Ramayah, 2015; Sharpley, 2014; Styliadis, 2015; Wang & Pfister, 2008; Ward & Berno, 2011; Zuo, Gusoy, & Wall, 2017).

Nunkoo and So (2016) claimed that the social exchange theory is likely one of the most popular theories used to explain residents' attitudes toward tourism and/or tourism development in various

destinations (e.g., Deery et al., 2011; Lee, Kang, Long, & Reisinger, 2010; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & So, 2016; Ward & Berno, 2011). This theory suggests that residents' level of support or opposition for tourism and tourism development depends on perceptions of whether positive externalities are greater than negative externalities and whether the exchange of resources (e.g., support for tourism development, hospitality toward tourists, etc.) between residents and tourists are fair (Ap, 1992). In short, individuals will remain in a given relationship so long as they feel exchanges are balanced for parties involved.

Studies employing the social exchange theory framework within tourism have revealed somewhat mixed results (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005; Chen & Raab, 2012; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Woosnam, Norman, & Ying, 2009). In an early study, Perdue, Long, and Allen (1987) predicted outdoor recreation participants and non-participants would have different attitudes toward tourism, however the two groups did not differ. McGehee and Andereck (2004) examined combinations of demographic variables and the perception of residents' personal benefits from tourism, as well as whether the study communities were dependent on tourism to predict attitudes toward tourism. Models including personal benefit and economic dependence as predictors of positive and negative impacts indicated, according to McGehee and Andereck (2004), that as a destination becomes increasingly dependent on tourism, the negative impacts are more recognizable which may detract from positive impacts. Latkova and Vogt (2012) found the perception of personally benefiting from tourism was positively related to positive impacts and negatively related to negative impacts. Subsequently, positive impacts and benefiting from tourism were positively related, but negative impacts negatively related, to support for tourism development.

Research has also used social exchange theory to examine residential proximity and attitudes toward tourism development (Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004). The results indicated residents living in closer proximity to the tourism attraction, who use it more frequently, had more negative attitudes than those residing further away. Findings relating geographical proximity to a tourism center and residents' attitudes are somewhat contradictory as Harrill (2004) claims. For instance, Harrill and Potts (2003) found that residents living in neighborhoods further from the tourism core (which received fewer impacts) perceived more positive attitudes toward tourism. Similarly, Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) residents living within a tourism zone felt tourism resulted in more litter and disruption in the area compared to those not living in the tourism zone. Belisle and Hoy (1980) found the opposite to be true, "that as the distance from the tourism zone increases, positive impacts are perceived less favorably" (p.254). The latter finding is arguably a function of economic dependency (as the study took place in Bogota, Columbia) as Harrill (2004) suggests.

Measures used to predict residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development have largely taken the form of socio-economic and socio-demographic variables (Gursoy et al., 2010; Wang & Pfister, 2008) as well as geographic proximity (Harrill & Potts, 2003). As Williams and Lawson (2001) found however, demographic factors did not explain why residents had formulated their perspectives of tourism within their community; arguing additional measures must be considered. This sentiment was echoed by McGehee and Andereck (2004) as they reported personal factors (i.e., socio-economic and socio-demographic variables) did not significantly predict support for tourism, rather, economic dependence did. Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) also found that residents involved (i.e., employed directly or indirectly) had more positive attitudes toward tourism development and its potential for their communities compared to those not economically dependent on the industry.

Residents' behaviors have been rarely used to explain attitudes concerning tourism and tourism development. As such, residents' travel use history (TUH) can serve as a potential behavioral variable explaining residents' attitudes toward tourism development. Contrary to other utilized variables, TUH is focused on residents' personal experiences. Such a measure is introspective whereby residents reflect on their own degree of travel (in an effort to determine its impact on perceptions of others' travel). In the literature surrounding resident attitudes research, travel behaviors have rarely been considered as a predictor of such attitudes. Economic dependency on tourism development is perhaps the closest to a behavioral measure. Additionally, two studies (Del Chiappa, Meleddu, & Pulina, 2013; Draper et al., 2011) utilized travel behavior to explain attitudes. More specifically, Del Chiappa et al. (2013) examined attitudes toward cruise tourism development based on whether local respondents had taken a cruise or not themselves. Draper et al. (2011) used the number of trips taken and number of destinations in the two years preceding the study to assess attitudes toward who should be responsible for development as well as government support for tourism. However, neither study utilized any introspective theory through which to explain results.

2.1. Experience use history

Experience use history (EUH), described by Schreyer, Lime, and Williams (1984), represents “an individual's psychological interpretation of a given event” (p. 34). Within the EUH framework the interpretation is driven by the individual's previous experience in a respective event or activity, typically within the leisure/recreation field. Although Schreyer et al. (1984) were the first to use the phrase experience use history or EUH, earlier recreation studies had examined past experience (Hammitt & McDonald, 1983; Hammitt, 1981), suggesting that experiences help individuals gain knowledge, which can have varying implications for future preferences (Hammitt, 1981). It was noted that recreationists with different levels of experience typically possess different preferences for the management of the recreation resource (Hammitt & McDonald, 1983).

The primary use of the EUH framework is to segment or group the sample based on their prior experience with the respective activity. Depending on the specific study, the number of variables used to segment or group individuals varies, and typically includes a specific study site, as well as other or substitute sites. For example, Hammitt, Backlund, and Bixler (2004) used a combination of two variables (i.e., number of years and frequency of fishing in previous year) across both a study site and other local rivers to group trout anglers into four groups (i.e., beginners, locals, visitors, veterans). Using a sample of golfers, Petrick, Backman, Bixler, and Norman (2001) used three variables (i.e., rounds played, courses played, percentage of total played on study course) to create six groups ranging from “Infrequents” (i.e., little experience playing few courses) to “Veterans” (i.e., many rounds played on many courses). In essence, EUH provides a variety of options for researchers to group respondents based on past experiences related to the respective study.

Although originally created in a recreation context, the EUH framework has been adapted and used in tourism studies. Shinew (1993) modified the EUH framework by asking travelers how many non-business trips they had taken the previous year, as well as preference for more or less future trips. However, the items were not used to group respondents as in recreation studies mentioned above. Prior to Shinew's work, one of the first attempts to group tourists was undertaken by Pearce and Moscardo (1985) in their early works surrounding the ‘travel career ladder’ or TCL. Within

such work, the authors focused on how travel experiences shape future motivations to travel. Following this, Pearce and Lee (2005) sought to further refine the TCL in the context of pleasure travel motivations. Similarly, two additional studies used individual past travel experience items to examine relationships with perceived risk and intention to visit specific international destinations (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998) and level of perceived risk, activity participation, and expenditures (Lehto, O'Leary, & Morrison, 2004). Such work up to that point was not focused on how travel experience should contribute to residents' perspectives of tourism and the corresponding impacts within their own community.

More recently, tourism studies utilized prior travel experience variables to group respondents. For example, Draper et al. (2011) conducted a two-sample study of residents in two South Carolina counties based on the number of trips and number of destinations visited in the preceding two years. Each sample was grouped into four groups based on the median (i.e., low and high) of each variable. Ultimately, the two groups (including a high and low combination of the two variables) were combined and three groups were used to examine differences in attitudes toward tourism development. Considering tourists, Draper (2016) modified the EUH grouping variables to create four groups of visitors to Austin, Texas based on the number of times visiting the study destination and total trips taken in the two years preceding the study. Once again, the four groupings were based on combinations of high and low according to the median of the two grouping variables.

Subsequent to using the EUH/TUH framework to group travelers into distinct groups, Draper et al. (2011) examined differences in residents' attitudes toward tourism development options within their own community as Draper (2016) examined how individuals utilized different information sources while traveling. In general, the argument made is that traveling exposes travelers to more tourism development options than those who do not travel (Draper et al., 2011) and travelers who travel to a destination tend to rely more on their personal experience than those who are less frequent travelers to a destination. Draper et al. (2011) provides evidence that higher levels of experience traveling expose residents to more potential options for tourism development. For example, respondents who traveled outside the US had higher levels of agreement that tourism should be developed by public-private partnerships as well as outside investors, reflecting the diversity of tourism development options available. The authors suggest residents with little or no travel experience may oppose tourism in their own community because they are not exposed to the positive impacts tourism may contribute, as well as how negative impacts might be negated or minimized. Draper et al. (2011) acknowledged the study found modest contributions to predicting attitudes toward tourism development, but additional testing and application of the framework was suggested.

Draper (2016) found that travelers who frequently travel to a destination tend to rely much more on their personal experience traveling than do less frequent travelers. Less frequent travelers tended to rely much more on the local DMO/CVB resources such as official visitor guides. Draper (2016) suggests that as a traveler's level of experience increases they tend to be more comfortable and seek new adventures in the respective destination, whereas less frequent travelers rely on a trustworthy source of information such as the official visitors guide.

2.2. Self-perception theory

Originating within the discipline of psychology and the early works in social psychology, Daryl Bem proposed self-perception theory as an alternative response to cognitive dissonance theory. Bem (1967) argued that experimental measurements to assess

consistency between beliefs, values, and actions were based largely on interpersonal observations. Self-perception theory suggests that people infer their own attitudes partly by observing their own behavior and the possible causes of that behavior (Bem, 1972). Therefore, self-perception theory takes more of an intrapersonal approach as Bem (1972) forwarded the notion that emotions and attitudes follow behavior.

Self-perception theory has been supported through a preponderance of work within the social psychology literature highlighting that individuals' cognitions serve as outcomes of actions or behaviors. In the context of environmental attitudes, Chaiken and Baldwin (1981) found individuals exhibiting "pro-ecology" behaviors (based on actions concerning recycling and frequency of recycling) perceived themselves to have more supportive attitudes of the environment. Comparable findings were demonstrated among individuals participating in repeated and sustained volunteering services. Brunelle (2001) found that individuals became more caring and considerate of others after they had volunteered. Wheeler and Petty (2001) appeared to approach self-perception from how individuals may stereotype themselves and subsequently act and/or behave. The authors suggest self-identifying stereotypes can lead to individuals assimilating and behaving accordingly or in an opposite manner.

Most recently, the work surrounding self-perception theory has begun to develop in explaining tourism phenomena. Prebensen, Larsen, and Abelsen (2003) asked German tourists if they felt they were "a typical German tourist" or not and indicate through a series of statements (e.g., types of transportation, accommodations, activities) on a 5-point Likert scale of agreement to their perception of "a typical German tourist to Norway." The majority (89.5%) indicated they were not typical tourists. Prebensen et al. (2003) concluded that tourists, through their self-perception, do not feel they fit the stereotype of tourists. Such work demonstrates the self-reflective notion of this theoretical framework. Two studies within the tourism literature that do consider self-perception in the context of residents' attitudes are those conducted by Wang and Xu (2015) as well as Song, Pratt, and Wang (2017). While such work is rather introspective in nature (i.e., asking individuals to consider self attributes), neither take into account individuals' own travel behavior in explaining attitudes toward tourism within their own community.

Taking a different approach to self-perception, Yu, Kim, Chen, and Schwartz (2012) asked if people self-categorize as tourists, hypothesizing the classification would be related to various trip characteristics (e.g., distance traveled, first-time versus repeat travelers, leisure versus business) and socioeconomic variables. Results suggested first-time visitors were more likely to view themselves as tourists compared to repeat visitors. Traveling for pleasure was positively related to individuals considering themselves tourists, while visiting friends and relatives was negatively related to individuals considering themselves tourists. In terms of socioeconomic variables, females were more likely to associate themselves as being tourists than were males. The study also found income groups above and below the \$50,000–69,999 range were significantly more likely to self-categorize as tourists. Such studies within tourism pave the way for future work to examine additional outcome variables such as residents' attitudes about tourism explained by residents' own travel behavior—most notably, tourism use histories. Such work would offer a reflective perspective often missing from the literature surrounding residents' attitudes about tourism.

Consistent with the self-perception theoretical framework, we hypothesize that residents' past travel experiences (measured through TUH) will have a significant influence on individuals' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development.

3. Methods

3.1. Study site

Located southeast of Houston, Texas (the fourth largest city in the U.S.), Galveston county is among the most popular coastal destinations in the state. Tourism is an important industry in this area, having welcomed 6.4 million visitors in 2015 (Tourism Economics, 2016). In 2015, visitor spending in Galveston County surpassed USD \$879 million, helping to support 10,460 full- and part-time jobs within the county (Dean Runyan Associates, 2016). Only two other Texas Gulf coast counties (Harris comprising Houston and surrounding areas and Neuces comprising Corpus Christi and surrounding areas) supported more jobs according to Dean Runyan Associates (2016).

3.2. Data collection and sampling

Permanent resident heads of households or their spouses in Galveston County, Texas comprised the study population for this research. Employing a multi-stage cluster sampling scheme, data were collected from residents at their homes over a five-weekend period (occurring in October and November) following the peak tourist season. Multi-stage cluster sampling, following the work of Woosnam and Norman (2010), involved mapping the entire county into census tracts (based on U.S. Census Bureau data classifications arrived at by common sociodemographic characteristics) and randomly selecting from these tracts. From the selected census tracts, each block group (a further classification provided by the U.S. Census Bureau) was mapped and a number was randomly selected. Finally, within each selected block group, homes were randomly selected and visited. Contact was made at individuals' residences whereby the research team explained the study, asked individuals to participate, left a questionnaire, and returned later the same day to collect the completed questionnaire. In total, 456 questionnaires were returned, yielding a response rate of 73.2%. Ten questionnaires were not fully completed and excluded from analysis, resulting in 446 useable instruments.

3.3. Survey measurement and data analysis

Seventeen items from the *Tourism Impact Attitude Scale* (TIAS), developed by Lankford and Howard (1994), were used to examine residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development in Galveston. The same 17 items were used by Wang and Pfister (2008) and Woosnam (2012), yielding a two-factor structure: support for tourism development and contributions tourism makes to the community. The two-factor structure was consistent with that in previous studies employing TIAS (Harrill & Potts, 2003; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Lankford, Chen, & Chen, 1994; Rollins, 1997; Vesey & Dimanche, 2001). To keep the scale parsimonious and reliable, redundant items from Wang and Pfister (2008) and Woosnam (2012) were excluded, and items with the lowest loadings from Lankford and Howard (1994) were removed. For each item, respondents were asked their degree of agreement with the statement on a 7-point Likert-type scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

TUH questions were used to categorize residents in Galveston. First, the total number of domestic and international trips, as well as the total number of domestic and international destinations visited were aggregated to reflect respondents' travel experiences in the two years preceding the study following the procedures utilized in prior studies (Draper, 2016; Draper et al., 2011; Petrick, 2002; Petrick et al., 2001). First, the median for total number of trips and total number of different destinations were used to create

bivariate categories of low and high for each variable. The median number of trips taken was 10 trips and the median for visited destinations was five places. Based on the median of each (i.e., number of trips, number of destinations), bivariate variables of low and high were created. Next, four groups were formed based on the two categories of total trips and total destinations. These groups were infrequent travelers (low trips, low destinations) with low overall travel experiences, intermediate travelers (low trips, high destinations and high trips, low destinations) who have spread fewer trips over several destinations or taken numerous trips to relatively few destinations, and frequent travelers (high trips, high destinations) who have taken numerous trips to numerous destinations. The naming of groups based on levels of experience is similar to that used in prior studies (Draper et al., 2011; Petrick, 2002; Petrick et al., 2001). Lastly, the two intermediate groups were collapsed into one single group following a similar protocol used by Petrick (2002), Petrick et al. (2001), and Draper et al. (2011). The variable “travel outside the United States” was not used in grouping but was examined as a main effect and interaction effect in subsequent analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs). Inclusion of variables concerning international travel (i.e., whether individuals had traveled internationally, number of international trips taken, and number of international destinations visited) were not included within the grouping process given the low percentage of individuals reporting international travel. Finally, analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were used to determine whether the three groups were truly distinct in their travel histories.

To confirm the factor structure of TIAS, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used with EQS 6.3. Prior to undertaking analysis, the dataset was cleaned and screened for outliers at the univariate level (e.g., examining *z*-scores) and for collinearity at the multivariate level (e.g., Mahalanobis distance) (Mertler & Vannatta, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Missing data were imputed through the expectation maximization (EM) procedure following Kline (2015).

To address whether residents' previous travel experiences explained their attitudes toward tourism and tourism development, a series of ANCOVAs were performed on each of the items within the two TIAS constructs. The TUH groupings and whether individuals had traveled outside the United States or not were measured as main effects and the third was an interaction effect between the two main effects. Length of residence (measured in years) and economic dependence on tourism (measured as percentage of income derived directly/indirectly from tourism) were included in each model as covariates. The rationale for including these two covariates within the models was due to their demonstrated significance with the work by Draper et al. (2011). Furthermore, Andereck et al. (2005), Madrigal (1995) and Smith and Krannich (1998) each demonstrated how economic dependence and length of residence were found to explain a significant degree of variance in residents' attitudes regarding tourism.

4. Results

To ensure the sample was representative of the population, the racial makeup and annual household income in the sample were compared to county estimates available through the U.S. Census Bureau using χ^2 goodness-of-fit analyses (Sheskin, 2007). No significant differences were found for either, indicating the sample was representative. A summary of the sample is presented in Table 1. The sample consisted of slightly more women (51.9%) than men (48.1%) and 62.4% of the participants were Caucasian. The average participant was 48 years old and had lived in the county for 25 years. A large portion (i.e., 43.2%) of individuals attained at least a four-year college degree. Their median annual household income

Table 1
Descriptive summary of participants.

Sociodemographic Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Age (years; <i>n</i> = 440, <i>M</i> = 48.10, <i>SD</i> = 15.89)		
18–29	62	14.1
30–39	86	19.5
40–49	83	18.9
50–59	105	23.9
≥ 60	104	23.6
Gender (<i>n</i> = 445)		
Female	231	51.9
Male	214	48.1
Length of residence (years; <i>n</i> = 445, <i>M</i> = 24.88, <i>SD</i> = 20.65)		
<10	131	29.4
10–30	169	38.0
>30	145	32.6
Income (<i>n</i> = 435, median = \$60,000–79,999)		
<\$20,000	35	8.0
\$20,000–39,999	88	20.2
\$40,000–59,999	77	17.7
\$60,000–79,999	69	15.9
\$80,000–99,999	64	14.7
≥\$100,000	102	23.4
Percentage of income derived from visitor spending in county (<i>n</i> = 438, <i>M</i> = 8.67%, <i>SD</i> = 19.32)		
Education (<i>n</i> = 445)		
Grade school or some high school	13	2.9
High school diploma or GED	57	12.8
Technical, vocational, or trade school	38	8.5
Some college	145	32.6
Four-year college	129	29.0
Graduate degree	63	14.2
Race/ethnicity (<i>n</i> = 441)		
African American or black	59	13.4
Latino or Hispanic	68	15.4
Caucasian or white	275	62.4
Other	39	8.8

was between \$60,000 and \$79,999. Approximately 10% of their income was derived through visitor spending in the county.

To determine if the three groups of residents (i.e., infrequent travelers, intermediate travelers, and frequent travelers) were truly distinct in their prior travel experiences, ANOVAs were conducted to test if the groups differed by total number of trips and total number of different places. Table 2 presents means of the total number of trips and total number of different places for the three groups. Results of ANOVA tests and the subsequent Tamhane T2 procedures suggested that the three TUH groups were significantly different from one another based on total number of trips ($F = 67.899$, $p < 0.001$) and total number of destinations visited ($F = 65.744$, $p < 0.001$). The Tamhane T2 procedure was chosen for post-hoc tests to minimize Type I error given the unequal variances and different sample sizes of the three groups (Tamhane, 1979).

The CFA for the TIAS revealed the same two-factor structure that Wang and Pfister (2008) and Woosnam (2012) found after dropping one item (i.e., “one of the most important benefits of tourism is how it can improve the local standard of living”) (Table 3). The measurement model indicated good fit: Satorra-Bentler χ^2 (103, $N = 446$) = 248.24, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.94, GFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.06 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The resultant first factor was support for tourism development, comprised of nine items ($M = 5.91$), and the second factor was contributions to the community, comprised of six items ($M = 4.36$). The higher mean for the aggregated support for tourism development variable, as well as items on that factor, compared to the contributions to the community factor and items suggest residents feel tourism could play a larger role in their community and generate additional contributions than currently available. All but four of the standardized factor loadings were greater than 0.70, which Fornell and

Table 2
Tourism use history groupings.

TUH groups	n	%	Mean total trips	Mean total destinations
Infrequent traveler (low trips and low places)	152	34.1	3.94 ^a	2.15 ^a
Intermediate traveler (low trips and high places or high trips and low places)	117	26.2	13.15 ^b	4.64 ^b
Frequent traveler (high trips and high places)	177	39.7	34.28 ^c	12.75 ^c
F			67.899 ^{***}	65.744 ^{***}

*** $p < 0.001$.

Note: Means with different superscripts are significantly different from each other.

Table 3
CFA^a results for TIAS and its items.

Factors and corresponding items	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Reliability	
				Maximal Weighted	Composite
Support for tourism development	5.91	1.02		0.96	0.93
I support tourism and want to see it remain important to Galveston Co.	5.86	1.15	0.92 ^{***}		
I believe tourism should be actively encouraged in Galveston Co.	5.92	1.16	0.92 ^{***}		
Galveston Co. should support the promotion of tourism.	5.78	1.26	0.88 ^{***}		
I support new tourism facilities that will attract new visitors to Galveston Co.	5.74	1.31	0.87 ^{***}		
Galveston C. should remain a tourist destination.	5.91	1.15	0.83 ^{***}		
In general, the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts.	5.70	1.28	0.81 ^{***}		
The tourism sector will continue to play a major role in the Galveston Co. economy.	6.13	0.98	0.54 ^{***}		
Long-term planning by Galveston Co. can control negative environmental impacts.	6.09	3.94	0.51 ^{***}		
It is important to develop plans to manage growth of tourism.	6.05	1.08	0.46 ^{***}		
Contributions to community	4.36	1.25		0.92	0.91
Quality of life in Galveston Co. has improved because of tourism facilities.	4.51	1.54	0.90 ^{***}		
I have more recreational opportunities (places to go and things to do) because of tourism in Galveston Co.	4.75	1.54	0.82 ^{***}		
The tourism sector provides many desirable employment opportunities for residents.	4.67	1.56	0.80 ^{***}		
The quality of public services has improved due to more tourism in Galveston Co.	4.22	1.50	0.79 ^{***}		
Shopping opportunities are better in Galveston Co. as a result of tourism.	4.62	1.55	0.72 ^{***}		
Galveston Co. has better roads due to tourism.	4.09	1.56	0.71 ^{***}		
My household standard of living is higher because of money tourists spending here.	3.67	1.65	0.61 ^{***}		

*** $p < 0.001$.

^a Satorra-Bentler χ^2 (103, $N = 446$) = 248.24, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.94, GFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.06.

Larcker (1981) consider ideal. Reliabilities for each of the two factors were at least 0.91 for both maximal weighted alpha and composite reliability estimates.

ANCOVA tests resulted in a number of significant models. Of the nine support for tourism development items, four models were significant (Table 4). In each of the four models (i.e., “I support tourism and want to see it remain important to Galveston Co.”, “Galveston Co. should remain a tourist destination”, “In general, the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts”, “The tourism sector will continue to play a major role in the Galveston Co. economy”) the TUH group main effect was significant and in three, the interaction was also significant. Post hoc tests for the TUH main effects revealed in three models that infrequent travelers had significantly lower levels of agreement than both intermediate and frequent travelers (Table 5). For the fourth item, infrequent travelers were significantly lower than intermediate travelers. Although the overall model was not significant for two items (i.e., “tourism should be actively encouraged” and “Galveston County should support the promotion of tourism”), the TUH main effect was significant.

TUH was developed from the experience use history (EUH) stream of research, whereby Schreyer, Lime, and Williams (p. 35) suggest experience, “represents an indicator of the extent and type of information available to the individual obtained through participation in differing circumstances” (p. 35). In this paper, experience was measured by the number of trips and number of destinations in the two years preceding data collection. In general, with more travel experience, respondents support for tourism development increases, which supports the notion of EUH as applied to tourism. Although not substantial, intermediate travelers had higher levels of agreement within each of the significant

models. This could suggest that with increasing amounts of travel and experience, the frequent travelers recognized negative impacts and support sustainable development in their hometown. Perhaps the increased trips to more places exposed them to over-developed destinations where negative impacts were more visible compared to experiences of travelers who took less trips to less destinations.

Figs. 1–3 plot the interactions for the three support items that were significant, all showing similar trends. For respondents who did not travel internationally, support for each item increased from the infrequent to intermediate to frequent TUH group. For respondents who had traveled internationally, the lowest level of support for each item was the infrequent TUH group. Support for each item peaked at the intermediate group and then dropped for the frequent groups, but not to the level of infrequent travelers.

The results of the significant interactions support the EUH/TUH framework, except that intermediate travelers who traveled internationally had higher levels of agreement than frequent travelers with international travel experience. However, the same explanation as given for the TUH main effect appears to apply here for the international travel results. International travelers, especially those in the frequent traveler group, possibly saw international destinations with negative impacts and resulted in the group's support for tourism with a balanced/sustainable effort.

Six of the seven contributions to community items resulted in significant models (Table 4). While none of the main effects were significant, four of the six included significant interactions, which are displayed in Figs. 4–7. Items concerning the improvement of quality of life and provision of desirable employment opportunities show similar trends to those items within the support for tourism development factor; respondents who did not travel internationally showed more support as the TUH groups moved from

Table 4
Results of ANCOVAs: TUH predicting TIAS.

Corrected model							
Factors and corresponding items	Power	F	Group/TUH Main effect	Outside-U.S. Main effect	Group x outside-U.S. interaction	Year's residence covariate	Economic dependence covariate
Support for tourism development	0.85	2.29*	5.55**	1.46	1.97	0.01	0.87
I support tourism and want to see it remain important to Galveston Co.	0.90	2.84**	6.43**	0.15	3.67*	0.72	1.27
I believe tourism should be actively encouraged in Galveston Co.	0.79	1.85	4.71**	0.61	2.25	0.06	1.09
Galveston Co. should support the promotion of tourism.	0.79	1.77	4.79**	0.48	2.00	0.42	0.04
I support new tourism facilities that will attract new visitors to Galveston Co.	0.45	1.69	2.23	0.63	2.41	0.15	0.28
Galveston C. should remain a tourist destination.	0.94	2.93**	7.27**	3.49	3.41*	0.00	1.70
In general, the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts.	0.80	2.17*	4.83**	0.89	4.19*	0.07	0.56
The tourism sector will continue to play a major role in the Galveston Co. economy.	0.64	2.42*	3.43*	1.59	1.94	0.59	4.74*
Long-term planning by Galveston Co. can control negative environmental impacts.	0.16	0.81	0.67	0.94	0.14	1.66	0.04
It is important to develop plans to manage growth of tourism.	0.51	0.99	2.56	0.28	0.46	0.44	0.01
Contributions to community	0.34	4.91***	1.59	2.15	5.13**	0.07	16.75***
Quality of life in Galveston Co. has improved because of tourism facilities.	0.15	3.10**	0.61	2.17	3.55*	0.08	9.13**
I have more recreational opportunities (places to go and things to do) because of tourism in Galveston Co.	0.19	2.61**	0.80	1.03	1.79	0.53	6.74*
The tourism sector provides many desirable employment opportunities for residents.	0.31	3.56**	1.44	1.24	4.40**	0.01	11.01**
The quality of public services has improved due to more tourism in Galveston Co.	0.35	3.51**	1.67	1.62	1.47	0.03	15.27***
Shopping opportunities are better in Galveston Co. as a result of tourism.	0.27	2.60*	1.25	2.08	5.48**	0.55	3.40
Galveston Co. has better roads due to tourism.	0.16	1.67	0.64	0.32	2.33	0.47	4.50*
My household standard of living is higher because of money tourists spending here.	0.44	7.51***	2.12	1.62	5.04**	0.55	34.35***

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 5
Results of post hoc tests for Group/TUH main effect.

Support for Tourism Development Item	Infrequent Travelers	Intermediate Travelers	Frequent Travelers
I support tourism and want to see it remain important to Galveston Co.	5.46 ^a	6.11 ^b	5.96 ^b
Galveston Co. should remain a tourist destination	5.46 ^a	6.15 ^b	5.96 ^b
In general, the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts	5.30 ^a	5.92 ^b	5.75 ^b
The tourism sector will continue to play a major role in the Galveston Co. economy	5.91 ^a	6.32 ^b	6.11

For each item, groups with different letters are significantly different. Groups without letters are not significantly different from other groups.

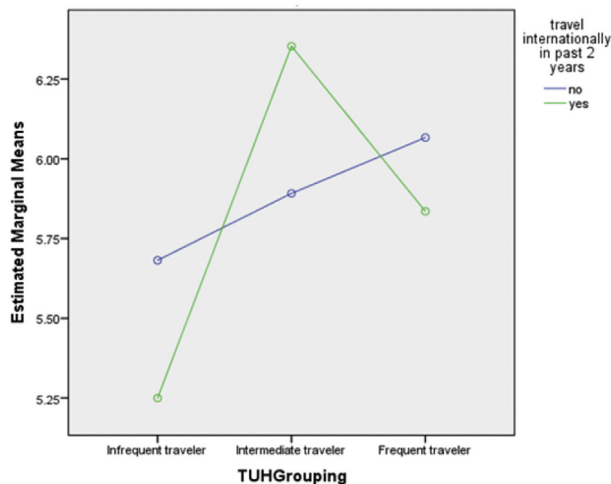


Fig. 1. Interaction Plot for I Support Tourism and Want to See it Remain Important to Galveston County.

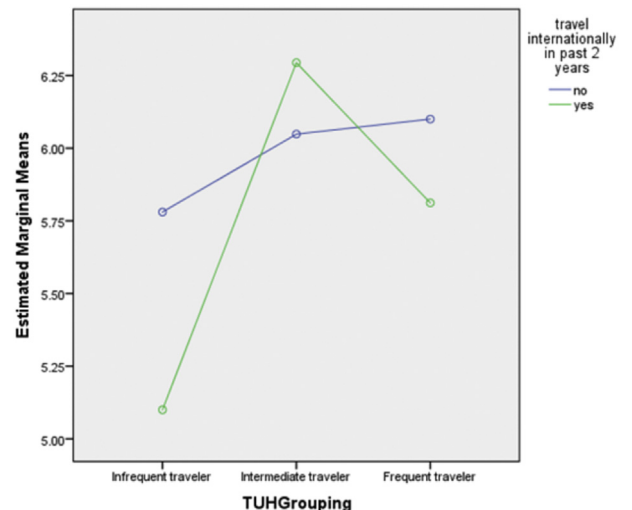


Fig. 2. Interaction plot for Galveston should remain a tourist destination.

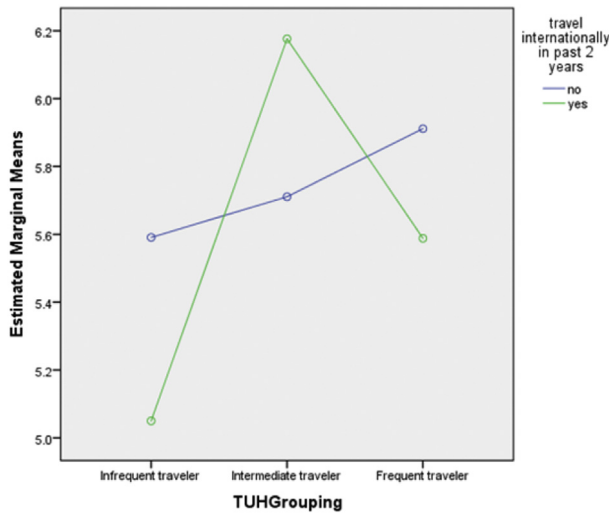


Fig. 3. Interaction plot for the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts.

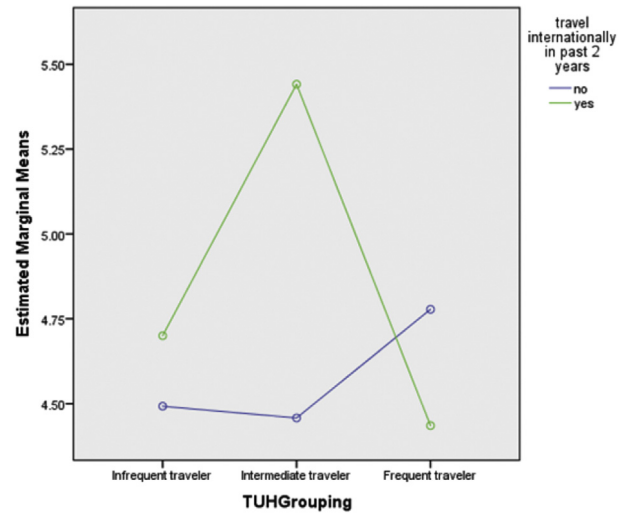


Fig. 6. Interaction Plot for Shopping Opportunities are Better in Galveston County as a Result of Tourism.

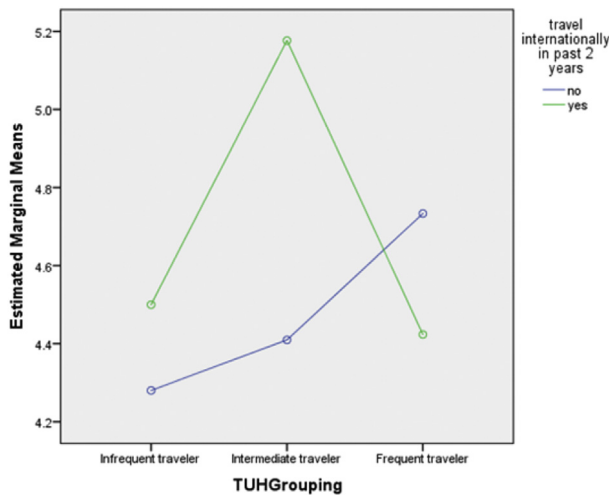


Fig. 4. Interaction Plot for Quality of Life in Galveston County has Improved Because of Tourism.

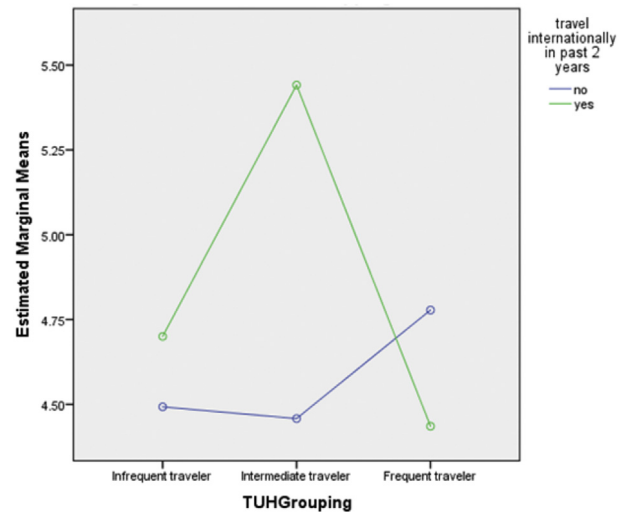


Fig. 7. Interaction Plot for My Household Standard of Living is Higher Because of Money Tourists Spend Here.

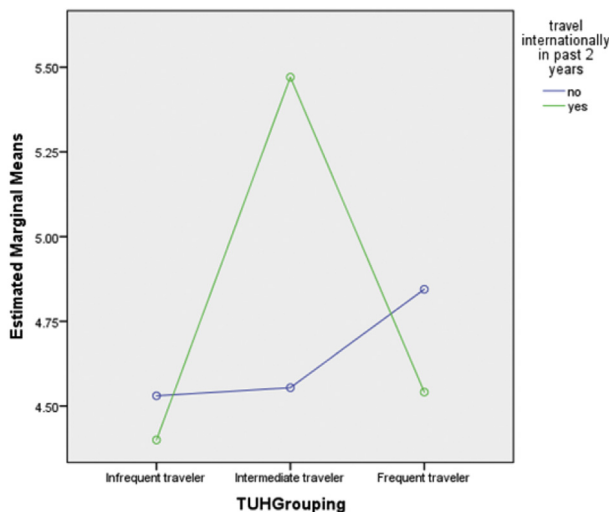


Fig. 5. Interaction Plot for the Tourism Sector Provides many Desirable Employment Opportunities in Galveston County.

infrequent to intermediate to frequent. Also, similar to support for tourism development items, intermediate travelers who traveled internationally had a higher level of agreement with quality of life and desirable employment opportunities compared to frequent travelers.

These results again suggest the more frequent trips and destinations visited exposed frequent and international travelers to more diverse conditions at tourism destinations. The result, could be caution on the part of frequent travelers who traveled internationally to ensure their quality of life is not diminished and their community maintains quality employment opportunities.

However, for the better shopping opportunities and higher standard of living items, the intermediate group without international travel experience showed a slightly less level of agreement compared to infrequent travelers and then frequent travelers were higher than the other two groups. For those who had traveled internationally, the intermediate group had the highest level of agreement with each item. Frequent travelers who traveled internationally had the lowest of all three groups with each item.

Frequent travelers who traveled internationally perhaps were exposed to countries and areas where tourists are targeted by street

vendors. As tourism becomes overdeveloped and the number of tourists to an area increases, more locals could recognize the opportunity to sell goods and services to tourists. However, this can create a less satisfactory experience for tourists. If that is the case in this study, it likely led to frequent travelers who traveled internationally with apprehension of such results of overdevelopment in their own community. The results of the interactions in this study lead to interesting opportunities to include more variables to help explain residents' attitudes in their own community, which are included in the discussion section.

5. Discussion

This study applied self-perception theory to examine residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development. Results demonstrated that the travel experiences of Galveston residents had significant effects on their support for tourism development. For three tourism development items (i.e., support tourism and want to see it remain important, Galveston should remain a tourist destination, the positive benefits of tourism outweigh negative impacts) both intermediate and frequent travelers had significantly higher levels of agreement than infrequent travelers. Intermediate and frequent travelers both had higher levels of agreement with the tourism sector continuing to play a major role in the Galveston County economy, but just the intermediate group's level of agreement was significantly higher than the infrequent group. Three of the tourism development models included a significant interaction term (i.e., TUH group X travel outside the US). For each of the significant interaction models, results revealed traveling outside the US for intermediate travelers resulted in higher levels of agreement with the respective items for infrequent and frequent travelers who traveled outside the US. Traveling outside one's origin country may make this more moderate level of traveler reflect on their experiences and develop a greater appreciation for tourism in their own community. This group has more experience than infrequent travelers, who when traveling internationally might be more overwhelmed, and may develop a greater appreciation than both infrequent and frequent, who may not reflect on their experiences as much since they have more experience. Draper et al. (2011) also found evidence that traveling outside the US/internationally results in higher levels of agreement with tourism development items than those who have not traveled outside the study country, but the study did not reveal any significant interactions with the TUH grouping variable.

The contributions to community items did not reveal any significant main effects, however a number of significant interactions were identified (i.e., TUH group X travel outside the US). For the group that traveled outside the US, the trends were the same as that of the support interactions, where intermediate travelers had higher levels of agreement than did infrequent and frequent travelers who traveled outside the US. Those who did not travel outside the US indicated an increase in level of agreement with the contributions items as their travel experience increased.

5.1. Implications

Similar to earlier work (Brunelle, 2001; Chaiken & Baldwin, 1981; Wheeler & Petty, 2001), our findings are consistent with the self-perception theory in that residents' travel behaviors have significant impacts on their attitudes toward tourism and tourism development. The introspective perspective in explaining residents' attitudes is valid; self-perception theory is helpful in understanding residents' perceptions of tourism development. Our introduction of self-perception theory may have pointed to a theoretical framework to better understand the limited work in travel behaviors' effects (Prebensen et al., 2003; Yu et al., 2012).

Considering the importance of residents' attitudes, our findings indicate that TUH is a valuable variable added to the predictor family of residents' attitudes. We contend that the adoption of self-perception theory expands the pool of limited theories in resident attitudes research and hence increases our knowledge on this topic.

From a practical standpoint, the TUH framework for understanding residents' attitudes has potential implications for communities considering development and proactive planning for sustainable tourism. To minimize the negative impacts of tourism development and the negative attitudes residents may have toward tourists, developers should include input from individuals fitting into the intermediate and frequent traveler groups (as our results indicate). Traveling frequencies and visiting numerous places exposes residents to diverse and novel tourism development models, allowing them opportunities to understand that a collaborative effort with government, nonprofit, and private sectors is key to successful and sustainable tourism development (Gunn & Var, 2002). This translates to how they perceive tourists within their own community. In addition, experienced travelers need to be encouraged to share their experiences and thoughts and explain how tourism in other sustainable destinations has benefited the visited community and the potential benefits that can be realized within the community under consideration. For example, intermediate and frequent travelers could be asked to speak at tourism development summits or workshops that are open to all residents. Such summits or workshops can provide an open forum where those with less travel experience, and perhaps less understanding of tourism, can then ask questions and glean more insight from more experienced travelers.

5.2. Limitations and future research

Given the usefulness of self-perception theory and the fact that the power for a number of the ANCOVA tests was below an ideal 0.80 level (Pallant, 2005), further development and testing of the TUH framework may help to better determine if residents' attitudes toward tourism are influenced by their own travel experiences within additional contexts. For example, it will be interesting to include *Inclusion of Other in the Self (IOS) Scale* (Woosnam, 2013) along with TUH in the examination of residents' attitudes toward tourism. Future studies might also include an item(s) asking respondents if they view themselves as tourists, such as was done by Yu et al. (2012). In this way, both the frequency and depth of residents' past travel behaviors are considered in analyzing their effects on attitudes.

While the intent of the current work was to employ consistent approaches in grouping individuals on unique travel use histories (based on the work of Draper et al., 2011; Draper, 2016; Hammitt & McDonald, 1983; Hammitt et al., 2004; Petrick, 2002; Petrick et al., 2001), we acknowledge that the intermediate grouping may include individuals with further distinctive travel experiences. Quite possibly those who have traveled infrequently but to different destinations may respond to impacts differently than those who have traveled frequently, yet to the same destinations. As such, future research should be undertaken that potentially separates these two groups of travelers.

Additionally, future research should be undertaken to explore effects of various dimensions of past travel experiences on residents' attitudes toward tourism development. As demonstrated by our findings, those individuals within the 'intermediate' and 'frequent' groupings indicated a significantly higher degree of agreement with attitude items concerning tourism development. Outside factors not considered within our study may help to shed light on reasons for the distinction in addition to self-perception (i.e., a person's level of travel). For example, personality or lack of support for development in general, such as the phenomenon of

“not in my backyard” (e.g., Frantál & Kunc, 2011; Van der Aa, Grootte, & Huigen, 2004).

As the results suggest, in addition to TUH, whether residents had overseas experience in the past had significant effects on their attitudes toward tourism and tourism development. Future research can further differentiate between domestic and international travel histories in examining their influences on residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development. For example, rather than asking if respondents traveled internationally (i.e., yes or no), subsequent research could ask how many international trips were taken and to how many unique destinations. While we asked each of these questions within our study, the number of international trips and destinations reported were too few (i.e., slightly more than 50%, or approximately 60 cases, of those who had traveled internationally reported number of trips and destinations) to allow for a proper grouping.

Further, TUH is only one of the many possible measures of people's past travel behaviors. Additional measures of travel experience may exist that can potentially explain residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development better. These behavioral measures could take the shape of type of tourist experience (e.g., leisure versus business; more mass tourism-focused versus more sustainable tourism-focused) (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2017), type of destination (e.g., urban, rural), type of attractions visited (e.g., natural, cultural, etc.) (Edelheim, 2015), extent and forms of interaction with hosting community (Reisinger & Turner, 2003; Yilmaz & Tasci, 2015), and length of stay within visited destinations (Barros & Machado, 2010). Furthermore, additional measures should be considered in subsequent research that could potentially serve as moderating variables beyond economic dependence and length of residence. For instance, as Draper (2016) found in his study, age may be one such confounding variable. In keeping with the self-perception theory and factors internal to the individual, variables such as personal values (Lin, Chen, & Filieri, 2017), beliefs (Woosnam & Norman, 2010), and personality (Moghavvemi, Woosnam, Paramanathan, Musa, & Hamzah, 2017) should be considered potential moderating variables. As such, greater research to develop more extensive models that include the aforementioned measures should be undertaken.

A limitation of this study, and generally of resident attitudes' research, is that it does not include a qualitative or mixed methods approach. To gain a more comprehensive understanding (beyond these additional potential measures) of which travel behaviors can explain residents' attitudes toward tourism development in their own hometowns, a qualitative or mixed methods study is called upon to develop a tentative list of the factors. Those travel behaviors that have been commonly studied, e.g., length of stay, traveling for pleasure or business (Prebensen et al., 2003; Yu et al., 2012), and so on should be among the first factors on the list and more insight as to whether they, as well as what other factors affect residents' attitudes can be gleaned. Such a study(s) could help build a more thorough understanding of this stream of research.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.09.015>.

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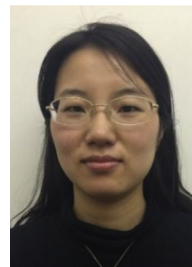
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Kyle M. Woosnam is an Associate Professor at the University of Georgia in the Natural Resources Recreation and Tourism program. He conducts community-based research on topics pertaining to interactions and relationships between destination residents and visitors, sustainable tourism planning and development, and social-cultural and economic impacts of tourism.



Dr. Jason Draper is an Associate Professor at the University of Houston, Conrad N. Hilton College of Hotel and Restaurant Management. His current research focuses on visitor inquiry studies for convention and visitor bureaus, as well as meetings, incentives, conventions, and events (MICE). His work also includes using past travel behaviors as a predictor of various outcomes (e.g., attitudes toward tourism, use of various travel information sources).



Dr. Jingxian Jiang is an Adjunct Faculty Member in the Department of Management at Frostburg State University. Her current research projects examine experience design for recreationists and tourists.



Dr. Kayode Aleshinloye is a Lecturer within the Rosen College of Hospitality Management at the University of Central Florida. His main line of research focuses on community cultural festivals and events, cross-cultural interactions, and social impacts of tourism in the context of indigenous cultures and world heritage sites.



Emrullah Erul is a Doctoral Candidate at Texas A&M University within the Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences Department. His research interests concern residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development, residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism in the local communities, social-cultural and economic impacts of tourism, and impacts of all-inclusive resorts. He completed his M.Sc. degree in the same department at Texas A&M.